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THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA

A DICTIONARY OF ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE AND GENERAL INFORMATION

ELEVENTH EDITION

VOLUME XXVIII
VETCH to ZYMOTIC DISEASES

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INITIALS USED IN VOLUME XXVIII. TO IDENTIFY INDIVIDUAL CONTRIBUTORS,¹ WITH THE HEADINGS OF THE ARTICLES IN THIS VOLUME SO SIGNED.

A. B. Go. Alfred Bradley Gough, M.A., Ph.D.
Sometime Casberd Scholar of St John's College, Oxford. English Lector in the University of Kiel, 1896-1905.

A. C. S. Algenon Charles Swinburne.
See the biographical article: Swinburne, Algenon Charles.

A. D. Mo. Anson Daniel Morse, M.A., LL.D.
Emeritus Professor of History at Amherst College, Mass. Professor at Amherst College, 1877-1908.

A. E. S. Arthur Everett Shipley, M.A., D. Sc., F.R.S.

A. F. B. Alfred Farrer Barker, M.Sc.
Professor of Textile Industries at Bradford Technical College.

A. F. B.* Archibald Frank Becke.
Captain, Royal Field Artillery. Author of Introduction to the History of Tactics, 1740-1905; &c.

A. F. H. A. F. Hutchinson, M.A.
Sometime Rector of the High School, Stirling.

A. F. L. Arthur Francis Leach, M.A.
Barrister-at-law, Middle Temple. Charity Commissioner for England and Wales. Formerly Assistant-Secretary to the Board of Education. Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford, 1874-1881. Author of English Schools at the Reformation; &c.

A. F. P. Albert Frederick Pollard, M.A., F.R.Hist.S.

A. M. C. Agnes Mary Clerke.
See the biographical article: Clerke, Agnes M.

A. N. Alfred Newton, F.R.S.
See the biographical article: Newton, Alfred.

A. P. C. Arthur Philemon Coleman, M.A., Ph.D., F.R.S.

A. Sy. Arthur Symons.
See the biographical article: Symons, Arthur.

A. S. C. Alan Summerly Cole, C.B.
Formerly Assistant-Secretary, Board of Education, South Kensington. Author of Ornament in European Silks: Catalogue of Tapestry, Embroidery, Lace and Egyptian Textiles in the Victoria and Albert Museum; &c.

A. S. P.-F. Andrew Seth Pringle-Patton, M.A., LL.D., D.C.L.
Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. Gifford Lecturer in the University of Aberdeen, 1911. Fellow of the British Academy. Author of Man's Place in the Cosmos; The Philosophical Radicals; &c.

A. v. O. Aloys von Orelli.
Formerly Professor of Law in the University of Zürich. Author of Das Staatsrecht der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft.

¹ A complete list, showing all individual contributors, appears in the final volume.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initials</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B. E. S.</td>
<td>Benjamin Eli Smith, A.M.</td>
<td>Editor of the <em>Century Dictionary</em>. Formerly Instructor in Mathematics at Amherst College, Mass., and in Psychology at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. Editor of the <em>Century Cyclopaedia of Names; Century Atlas</em>; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. H.-S.</td>
<td>B. Heckstall-Smith.</td>
<td>Associate of the Institute of Naval Architects. Secretary of the International Yacht Racing Union; Secretary of the Yacht Racing Association. Yachting Editor of <em>The Field</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. F. K.</td>
<td>Charles Francis Keary, M.A.</td>
<td>Trinity College, Cambridge. Author of <em>The Vikings in Western Christendom; Norway and the Norwegians</em>; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. H. T.*</td>
<td>Crawford Howell Toy, A.M., LL.D.</td>
<td>See the biographical article: Toy, Crawford Howell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. K. W.</td>
<td>Charles Kingsley Webster, M.A.</td>
<td>Fellow of King’s College, Cambridge. Whewell Scholar, 1907.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. W. R.</td>
<td>Charles Walker Robinson, C.B., D.C.L.</td>
<td>Major-General (retired). Assistant Military Secretary, Headquarters of the Army, 1890–1892. Governor and Secretary, Royal Military Hospital, Chelsea, 1895–1898. Author of <em>Strategy of the Peninsular War</em>; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. B. M.</td>
<td>David Binning Monk, M.A., Litt.D.</td>
<td>See the biographical article: Monk, David Binning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. F. T.</td>
<td>Donald Francis Tovey.</td>
<td>Author of <em>Essays in Musical Analysis</em>; comprising <em>The Classical Concerto</em>, <em>The Goldberg Variations</em>, and analyses of many other classical works.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. H.</td>
<td>David Hannay.</td>
<td>Formerly British Vice-Consul at Barcelona. Author of <em>Short History of the Royal Navy; Life of Emilio Castelar</em>; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. H. S.</td>
<td>Dun Canfield Henry Scott, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D., F.R.S.</td>
<td>Professor of Botany, Royal College of Science, London, 1885–1892. Formerly President of the Royal Microscopical Society and of the Linnean Society. Author of <em>Structural Botany; Studies in Fossil Botany</em>; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Headings:**
- Wildkind; Witan.
- Wiseman, Cardinal.
- Waste.
- Whitney, William Dwight.
- Yachting.
- Yue-chl.
- Wilderness: Grant’s Campaign.
- Viking.
- Victor III. and IV. (Popes); Visconti (Family).
- Wisdom, Book of; Wisdom Literature.
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- Zemarchus.
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- Wolf, Friedrich August.
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- Xanthus; Zeitun.
- Villeneuve; Zumalacárregui.
- Williamson, William Crawford.
- Zimbabwe. 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initials</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Heading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E. C.</td>
<td>ERNEST Clarke, M.D., F.R.C.S.</td>
<td>Surgeon to the Central London Ophthalmic Hospital, and Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to the Miller General Hospital. Vice-President of the Ophthalmological Society. Author of &quot; refractive error,&quot; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Cu.</td>
<td>EDMUND CURTIS, M.A.</td>
<td>Keble College, Oxford. Lecturer on History in the University of Sheffield.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. C. S.</td>
<td>EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN.</td>
<td>See the biographical article: STEDMAN, EDMUND CLARENCE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. G.</td>
<td>EDMUND GOSSE, LL.D.</td>
<td>See the biographical article: GOSSE, EDMUND W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. M.</td>
<td>EDWARD MEYER, PH.D., D.LITT., LL.D.</td>
<td>Professor of Ancient History in the University of Berlin. Author of Geschichte des Alterthums; Geschichte des alten Aegyptens; Die Israeliten und ihre Nachbarstämme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. M. W.</td>
<td>REV. EDWARD MEWBN WALKER, M.A.</td>
<td>Fellow, Senior Tutor and Librarian of Queen's College, Oxford.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. O'N.</td>
<td>ELIZABETH O'NEILL, M.A. (MRS H. O. O'NEILL)</td>
<td>Formerly University Fellow and Jones Fellow of the University of Manchester.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Pr.</td>
<td>EDGAR PRESTAGE.</td>
<td>Special Lecturer in Portuguese Literature in the University of Manchester. Com- mendador, Portuguese Order of S. Thiago. Corresponding Member of Lisbon Royal Academy of Sciences and Lisbon Geographical Society; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. P. W.</td>
<td>EVERTT PEPPERELL WHEELER, A.M.</td>
<td>Formerly Chairman of the Commission on International Law, American Bar Association, and other similar Commissions. Author of Daniel Webster; Modern Law of Carriers; Wages and the Tariff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. A. C.</td>
<td>FRANKLYN ARDEN CHALLAN.</td>
<td>Formerly Director of Wood-carving, Gloucester County Council. Author of Gothic Woodcarving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. G. M. B.</td>
<td>FREDERICK GEORGE MEESON BECK, M.A.</td>
<td>Fellow and Lecturer of Clare College, Cambridge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initials</td>
<td>Name and Details</td>
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<tr>
<td>F. L. L.</td>
<td>LADY LUGARD. See the biographical article: LUGARD, SIR F. J. D.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. N. M.</td>
<td>COLONEL FREDERICK NATUSCH MAUDE, C.B. Lecturer in Military History, Manchester University. Author of War and the World’s Policy; The Leipzig Campaign; The Jena Campaign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. R. C.</td>
<td>FRANK R. CANA. Author of South Africa from the Great Trek to the Union.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. W. R.</td>
<td>FREDERICK WEDMORE. See the biographical article: WEDMORE, FREDERICK.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Y. P.</td>
<td>FREDERICK YORK POWELL, D.C.L., LL.D. See the biographical article: POWELL, FREDERICK YORK.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>LORD GRIMTHORPE. See the biographical article: GRIMTHORPE, 1ST BARON.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. C. L.</td>
<td>GEORGE COLLINS LEVEY, C.M.G. Member of the Board of Advice to the Agent-General for Victoria. Formerly Editor and Proprietor of the Melbourne Herald. Secretary, Colonial Committee of Royal Commission to the Paris Exhibition, 1900. Secretary, Adelaide Exhibition, 1887. Secretary, Royal Commission, Hobart Exhibition, 1894-1895. Secretary to Commissioners for Victoria at the Exhibitions in London, Paris, Vienna, Philadelphia and Melbourne.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. F. R. H.</td>
<td>GEORGE FRANCIS ROBERT HENDERSON. See the biographical article: HENDERSON, GEORGE FRANCIS ROBERT.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. G.</td>
<td>GEORGE GROSVILLE PHILLIMORE, M.A., B.C.L. Christ Church, Oxford. Barrister-at-law, Middle Temple.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. H.</td>
<td>GEORGE HERBERT CARPENTER. Professor of Zoology in the Royal College of Science, Dublin. Author of Insects: their Structure and Life.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. J.</td>
<td>GEORGE JAMIESON, C.M.G., M.A. Formerly Consul-General at Shanghai, and Consul and Judge of the Supreme Court, Shanghai.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. J. T.</td>
<td>GEORGE JAMES TURNER. Barrister-at-law, Lincoln’s Inn. Editor of Select Pleas of the Forests for the Selden Society.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Sa.</td>
<td>GEORGE SAINTSBURY, D.C.L., LL.D. See the biographical article: SAINTSBURY, GEORGE E. B.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. W. R.</td>
<td>MAJOR GEORGE WILLIAM REDWAY. Author of The War of Secession, 1861–1865; Fredericksburg: a Study in War.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H. C. H. Rev. Horace Carter Hovey, A.M., D.D. Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the Geological Society of America, the National Geographic Society and the Société de Spéléologie. Author of Celebrated American Caverns; Handbook of Mammoth Cave of Kentucky; &c.

H. De. Hippolyte Delheaye, S.J. Bollandist. Joint Editor of the Acta Sanctorum; and the Analecta Bollandiana


H. F. G. Hans Friedrich Gadow, M.A., Ph.D., F.R.S. Strickland Curator and Lecturer on Zoology in the University of Cambridge. Author of "Amphibia and Reptiles" in the Cambridge Natural History; &c.


H. L. J. Henry Lewis Jones, M.A., M.D., F.R.C.P., M.R.C.S. Medical officer in charge of the Electrical Department and Clinical Lecturer on Medical Electricity at St Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Author of Medical Electricity; &c.

H. M. C. Hector Munro Chadwick, M.A. Fellow and Librarian of Clare College, Cambridge, and University Librarian in Scandinavian. Author of Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions.


H. St. Henry Sturt, M.A. Author of Idola Theatri; The Idea of a Free Church; Personal Idealism.

H. Sw. Henry Sweet, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D. University Reader in Phonetics, Oxford University. Corresponding Member of the Academies of Munich, Berlin, Copenhagen and Helsingfors. Author of A History of English Sounds since the Earliest Period; A Primer of Phonetics; &c.


I. A. Israel Abrahams, M.A. Reader in Talmudic and Rabbinic Literature in the University of Cambridge. Formerly President, Jewish Historical Society of England. Author of A Short History of Jewish Literature; Jewish Life in the Middle Ages; Judaism; &c.

I. J. C. Isaac Joslin Cox, Ph.D. Assistant Professor of History in the University of Cincinnati. President of the Ohio Valley Historical Association. Author of The Journeys of La Salle and his Companions; &c.
x

INITIALS AND HEADINGS OF ARTICLES

J. A. E. JAMES ALFRED EWING, C.B., LL.D., F.R.S., M.Inst.C.E.
Director (British) Naval Education. Hon. Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Professor of Mechanism and Applied Mechanics in the University of Cambridge, 1890–1903. Author of The Strength of Materials; &c.

J. A. F. JOHN AMBROSE FLEMING, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S.
Pender Professor of Electrical Engineering in the University of London. Fellow of University College, London. Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge, and University Lecturer on Applied Mechanics. Author of Magnets and Electric Currents.

J. A. H. JOHN ALLEN HOWE.

J. Bt. JAMES BARTLETT.
Lecturer on Construction, Architecture, Sanitation, Quantities, &c., at King's College, London. Member of the Society of Architects. Member of the Institute of Junior Engineers.

J. Bu. JOHN BURROUGHS.
See the biographical article: Burroughs, John.

J. E. O. JULIUS EMIL OLSON, B.L.
Professor of Scandinavian Languages and Literature at the University of Wisconsin. Author of Norwegian Grammar and Reader.

J. F.-K. JAMES FITZMAURICE-KELLY, Litt.D., F.R.Hist.S.
Gilmour Professor of Spanish Language and Literature, Liverpool University. Neumann McGoll Lecturer, Cambridge University. Fellow of the British Academy. Member of the Royal Spanish Academy. Knight Commander of the Order of Alfonso XII. Author of A History of Spanish Literature; &c.

J. F. M'L. JOHN FERGUSSON M'LENNAN.
See the biographical article: M'Lennan, John Fergusson.

J. Ga. JAMES GAIRDNER, C.B., LL.D.
See the biographical article: Gairdner, James.

J. G. H. JOSEPH G. HORNER, A.M.I.Mech.E.
Author of Plating and Boiler Making; Practical Metal Turning; &c.

J. G. M. JOHN GRAY McKENDRICK, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.S. (Edin.). Emeritus Professor of Physiology in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Physiology, 1876–1906. Author of Life in Motion; Life of Helmholtz; &c.

J. G. R. JOHN GEORGE ROBERTSON, M.A., Ph.D.
Professor of German Language and Literature, University of London. Editor of the Modern Language Journal. Author of History of German Literature; Schiller after a Century; &c.

J. G. Se. SIR JAMES GEORGE SCOTT, K.C.I.E.
Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States. Author of Burns; The Upper Burma Gazetteer.

J. H. F. JOHN HENRY FREESE, M.A.
Formerly Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge.


J. J. L.* REV. JOHN JAMES LIAS, M.A.
Chancellor of Llandaff Cathedral. Formerly Hulsean Lecturer in Divinity and Lady Margaret Preacher, University of Cambridge. Author of Miracles, Science and Prayer; &c.

J. L. W. JESSIE LADYAY WESTON.
Author of Arthurian Romances unrepresented in Malory.

J. Mac. JAMES MACQUEEN, F.R.C.V.S.
Professor of Surgery at the Royal Veterinary College, London. Editor of Fleming's Operative Veterinary Surgery (2nd edition); Dunn's Veterinary Medicines (10th edition); and Neumann's Parasites and Parasitic Diseases of the Domesticated Animals (2nd edition).

J. Mu.* JOHN MUIR, A.M., LL.D.
Member of the American Academy of Arts and Letters. President of the Sierra Club and the American Alpine Club. Visited the Arctic regions on the United States steamer "Corwin" in search of the De Long expedition. Author of The Mountains of California; Our National Parks; &c.

J. M. G. JOHN MILLER GRAY (1850–1894).

J. M. J. JOHN MORRIS JONES, M.A.
Professor of Welsh at the University College of North Wales, Bangor. Formerly Research Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. Author of The Elucidarium in Welsh; &c.

J. M. M. JOHN MALCOLM MITCHELL.

Watt, James.

Voltemeter; Wattmeter; Wheatstone's Bridge.

Wealden; Wenlock Group.

Wall-coverings.

Whitman, Walt.

Vinland.

Villamelian, Count de; Villena, Enrique de; Zorrilla y Moral, José.

Werwolf (in part).

York, House of.

Welding (in part).

Vision; Voice.

Wieland, Christoph Martin.

Wa.

Xenophon (in part).

Vitruvius; Wren, Sir Christopher; Zuccaro I-II.

Ward, William George.

Wolfram von Eschenbach.

Veterinary Science (in part).

Yosemite.

Winkle, Sir David.

Wales: Literature and Language.

Winckelmann (in part).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initials</th>
<th>Name and Titles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J. S.</td>
<td>James Smith Reid, M.A., LL.M., Litt.D., LL.D. Professor of Ancient History in the University of Cambridge and Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College. Hon. Fellow, formerly Fellow and Lecturer, of Christ's College. Editor of Cicero's 'Academic'; 'De Amicitia'; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. T. C.</td>
<td>Joseph Thomas Cunningham, M.A., F.Z.S. Lecturer on Zoology at the South-Western Polytechnic, London. Formerly Fellow of University College, Oxford, and Assistant Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh. Naturalist to the Marine Biological Association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. W. E.</td>
<td>Julius Wellhausen, D.D. See the biographical article: Wellhausen, Julius.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. W. G.</td>
<td>John Walter Gregory, D.Sc., F.R.S. Professor of Geology, in the University of Glasgow. Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Melbourne, 1900-1904. Author of The Dead Heart of Australia; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. W. H.</td>
<td>James Wycliffe Headlam, M.A. Staff Inspector of Secondary Schools under the Board of Education. Formerly Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and Professor of Greek and Ancient History at Queen's College, London. Author of Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. G.</td>
<td>Karl Friedrich Geldner, Ph.D. Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in the University of Marburg. Author of Vedic Studien; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. S.</td>
<td>Kathleen Schlesinger. Editor of The Portfolio of Musical Archaeology. Author of The Instruments of the Orchestra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. D.</td>
<td>Louis Duchesne. See the biographical article: Duchesne, Louis M. O.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. J. S.</td>
<td>Leonard James Spencer, M.A. Assistant in the Department of Mineralogy, British Museum. Formerly Scholar of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, and Harkness Scholar. Editor of the Mineralogical Magazine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. R. F.</td>
<td>Lewis Richard Farnell, M.A., Litt.D. Fellow and Senior Tutor of Exeter College, Oxford. University Lecturer in Classical Archaeology; and Wilde Lecturer in Comparative Religion. Author of Cults of Greek States; Evolution of Religion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. V.</td>
<td>Luigi Villari. Italian Foreign Office (Emigration Department). Formerly Newspaper Correspondent in the East of Europe. Italian Vice-Consul in New Orleans, 1906; Philadelphia, 1907; and Boston, 1907-1910. Author of Italian Life in Town and Country; &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WINCKELMANN (in part). Wages; Wealth. Wyttenbach, Daniel Albert. Wesley (Family); Wesley, John; Wesleyan Methodist Church. Vladimir: Government (in part); Volga (in part); Vologda: Government (in part); Vyatka: Government (in part); Warsaw: Poland (in part); Yakutsk (in part); Yeniseisk (in part). Whitehilt. Vinet, Alexandre R. Warranty; Water Rights; Will (Law); Women (Early Law); Writ. Zechariah (in part). Victoria: Geology; Western Australia: Geology. Windthorst, Ludwig. Zend-Avesta; Zoroaster. Xavier, Francisco de. Vielle; Viol; Virginal; Wind Instruments; Xylophone. Žižka, John. Victor I.-II. (Popes). Weir. Vivianite; Wad; Wavellite; Willemite; Witherite; Wollastonite; Zeolites; Zoisite. Zeus. Victor Emmanuel II.
INITIALS AND HEADINGS OF ARTICLES

L. W.
Lucien Wolf.

M. A. B.
Lady Broome (Mary Anne Broome).
Author of Station Life in New Zealand; Stories About; Colonial Memories; &c.

M. Be.
Malcolm Bell.
Author of Pewter Plate; Sir E. Burne-Jones: a Record and Review.

M. Br.
Margaret Bryant.

M. C.
Rt. Rev. Mandell Creighton, D.C.L., LL.D.
See the biographical article: Creighton, Mandell.

M. Ca.
Moritz Cantor, Ph.D.
Honorary Professor of Mathematics in the University of Heidelberg. Hofrat of the German Empire. Author of Vorlesungen über die Geschichte der Mathematik; &c.

M. H. S.
Marion H. Spielmann, F.S.A.

N. W. T.
Northcote Whitridge Thomas, M.A.
Government Anthropologist to Southern Nigeria. Corresponding Member of the Société d'Anthropologie de Paris. Author of Thought Transference; Kinship and Marriage in Australia; &c.

P. A. K.
Prince Peter Alexievitch Kropotkin.
See the biographical article: Kropotkin, Prince P. A.

P. C. M.
Secretary of the Zoological Society of London. University Demonstrator in Comparative Anatomy and Assistant to Linacre Professor at Oxford, 1888-1891. Author of Outlines of Biology; &c.

P. Gl.
Peter Giles, M.A., LL.D., Litt.D.
Fellow and Classical Lecturer of Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and University Reader in Comparative Philology. Formerly Secretary of the Cambridge Philological Society. Author of Manual of Comparative Philology.

P. G. H.
Philip Gilbert Hamerton.
See the biographical article: Hamerton, Philip Gilbert.

P. G. K.
Paul George Konody.
Art Critic of The Observer and The Daily Mail. Formerly Editor of The Artist. Author of The Art of Water Crane; Velasquez, Life and Work; &c.

P. S.
Philip Schliowitz, Ph.D., F.C.S.
Member of the Council, Institute of Brewing; Member of the Committee of the Society of Chemical Industry. Author of numerous articles on the Chemistry and Technology of Brewing, Distilling; &c.

P. VI.
Paul Vinogradoff, D.C.L., LL.D.
See the biographical article: Vinogradoff, Paul.

R. A. W.
Colonel Robert Alexander Wahab, C.B., C.M.G., C.I.E.
Formerly H.M. Commissioner, Aden Boundary Delimitation. Served with Tirah Expeditionary Force, 1897-1898, and on the Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission, Pamirs, 1892.

R. C. D.
Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature; Member of the Royal Asiatic Society. Barrister-at-Law, Middle Temple. Formerly Revenue Minister of Baroda State, and Prime Minister of Baroda State. Author of Economic History of India in the Victorian Age, 1837-1900; &c.

R. G.
Richard Garnett, LL.D.
See the biographical article: Garnett, Richard.

R. G. M.
Reginald Godfrey Marsden.
Barrister-at-Law, Inner Temple.

R. He.
Sir Reginald Hennell, D.S.O., C.V.O.
Colonel in the Indian Army (retired). Lieutenant of the King's Body-Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard. Served in the Abyssinian Expedition, 1867-68; Afghan War, 1879-80; Burmah Campaign, 1886-87. Author of History of the Yeomen of the Guard, 1485-1904; &c.

R. J. M.
Ronald John McNeill, M.A.

Zionism.

Western Australia: History.

Watts, George Frederick.

Virgil: The Virgil Legend.

Waldenses.

Vieta, François.

Wauters, Emile.

Wood-engraving (in part).

Week;

Werwolf (in part);

Witchcraft.

Vladimir: Government (in part);

Volga (in part);

Vologda: Government (in part);

Vytka: Government (in part);

Warsaw: Poland (in part);

Yakutsk (in part);

Yeniseisk (in part).

Zoological Gardens;

Zoological Nomenclature.

W.

X.

Y.

Z.

Wood-engraving (in part).

Watteau, Antoine.

Whisky;

Wine.

Village Communities;

Villenage.

Yemen.

Vidyasagar, Iswar Chandra.

Wakefield, Edward Gibbon.

Wreck (in part).

Yeomen of the Guard.

Wentworth (Family).
Formerly Professor of Chinese, King's College, London. Keeper of Oriental Printed Books and MSS. at the British Museum, 1892-1907. Member of the Chinese Consular Service, 1858-1865. Author of The Language and Literature of China; Europe and the Far East; &c.

Member of the Staff of the Geological Survey of India, 1874-1882. Author of Catalogue of Fossil Mammals, Reptiles and Birds in the British Museum; The Deer of all Lands; The Game Animals of Africa; &c.

R. L. P. Reginald Lane Poole, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D.
Keeper of the Archives of the University of Oxford and Fellow of Magdalen College. Fellow of the British Academy; Editor of the English Historical Review. Author of Wycliffe and movements for Reform; &c.

R. Mu. Robert Munro, M.A., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. (Edin.).
Dalrymple Lecturer on Archaeology in the University of Glasgow, 1910. Rhind Lecturer on Archaeology, 1888. Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland, 1888-1899. Founder of the Munro Lectureship on Anthropology and Prehistoric Archaeology in the University of Edinburgh, Author of The Lake-dwellings of Europe; Prehistoric Scotland, and its place in European Civilization; &c.

R. N. B. Robert Nisbet Bain (d. 1906).
Assistant Librarian, British Museum, 1883-1909. Author of Scandinavia: the Political History of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, 1513-1900; The First Romanos, 1013-1725; Slavonic Europe: the Political History of Poland and Russia from 1069 to 1796; &c.


Professor of Latin and Indo-European Philology in the University of Manchester. Formerly Professor of Latin in University College, Cardiff; and Fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Author of The Latin Dialects.


S. A. C. Stanley Arthur Cook.
Lecturer in Hebrew and Syriac, and formerly Fellow, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Editor for the Palestine Exploration Fund. Author of Glossary of Aramaic Inscriptions; The Laws of Moses and the Code of Hammurabi; Critical Notes on Old Testament History; Religion of Ancient Palestine; &c.

S. N. Simon Newcomb, D.Sc., LL.D.
See the biographical article: Newcomb, Simon.

S. P. Stephen Paget, F.R.C.S.
Surgeon to the Throat and Ear Department, Middlesex Hospital. Hon. Secretary, Research Defence Society. Author of Memoirs and Letters of Sir James Paget; &c.

T. As. Thomas Ashby, M.A., D.Litt.
Director of the British School of Archaeology at Rome. Formerly Scholar of Christ Church, Oxford. Craven Fellow, 1897. Conington Prizeman, 1906. Member of the Imperial German Archaeological Institute. Author of The Classical Topography of the Roman Campagna.

T. A. A. Thomas Andrew Archer, M.A.
Author of The Crusade of Richard I.; &c.

T. A. C. Timothy Augustine Coghlan, I.S.O.

T. Ba. Sir Thomas Barclay.
Member of the Institute of International Law. Officer of the Legion of Honour. Author of Problems of International Practice and Diplomacy; &c. M.P. for Blackburn, 1910.

Regius Professor of Engineering in the University of Edinburgh. Author of papers in the Transactions of the Societies of Civil and Mechanical Engineers, 1894-1902.

Wade, Sir Thomas F.
Viscacha; Vole;
Walrus (in part);
Water-Deer; Wessal;
Whale (in part);
Whale-fishery; Wolf (in part);
Wombat; Zebra (in part);
Zoological Distribution.

Wycliffe (in part).

Vitrified Forts.

Vladimir, St;
Voluminsky, Artemy Petrovich;
Vorontsov (Family);
Vorosmarty, Mihaly;
Waliqvist, Olaf;
Wesselényi, Baron;
Wielopolski, Aleksander;
Witowi;
Wladislaus I.-IV. of Poland.
Zamoyski, Jan;
Zolkiewski, Stanislaus;
Zrinyi, Count (1508-1566);
Zrinyi, Count (1620-1664).

Villa;
Volscl.

Violin.

Zebulun;
Zedekiah;
Zephaniah.

Zodiacal Light.

Vivisection.

Vetulonium; Vicenza;
Viterbo; Volci;
Volini; Volterra;
Voltorno.

Vincent of Beauvais.

Victoria: Geography and Statistics;
Western Australia: Geography and Statistics.

War: Laws of;
Waters, Territorial.

Water Motors.
INITIALS AND HEADINGS OF ARTICLES


T. W.-D. Walter Theodore Watts-Dunton. See the biographical article: Watts-Dunton, Walter Theodore.

T. W. F. Thomas William Fox. Professor of Textiles in the University of Manchester. Author of Mechanics of Weaving.

U. B. Count Ugo Balzani, Litt.D. Member of the Reale Accademie dei Lincei. Sometime President of the Reale Società Romana di Storia Patria. Corresponding Member of the British Academy; Author of The Popes and the Hohenstufen; &c.


W. A. P. Walter Alison Phillips, M.A. Formerly Exhibitioner of Merton College and Senior Scholar of St John's College, Oxford. Author of Modern Europe; &c.
INITIALS AND HEADINGS OF ARTICLES

W. P. R. Hon. William Pember Reeves.

Disney Professor of Archaeology, and Brereton Reader in Classics, in the University of Cambridge. Fellow of Gonville and Caius College. Fellow of the British Academy. President of the Royal Anthropological Institute, 1908. Author of The Early Age of Greece; &c.

W. S. R. William Smyth Rockstro.
Author of A Great History of Music from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period; &c.


W. W. Williston Walker, Ph.D., D.D.
Professor of Church History, Yale University. Author of History of the Congregational Churches in the United States; The Reformation; John Calvin; &c.

W. W. F.* William Warde Fowler, M.A.

W. W. R.* William Walker Rockwell, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Church History, Union Theological Seminary, New York.

W. Y. S. William Young Sellars, LL.D.
See the biographical article: Sellars, William Young.

PRINCIPAL UNSIGNED ARTICLES

Vicksburg. Watertown. Wigan.
Vienna. Wax Figures. Wight, Isle of.
Vingt-et-Un. Wells. Williamsburg (Va.).
Virginia. West Indies. Willow.
Viseount. Westminster. Wilmington (Del.).
Vote and Voting. Westphalia. Winchester.
Wadi. West Point (N.Y.). Windsor.
Wagam. West Virginia. Winnipeg.
Wallingford. Wheat. Wisconsin, University of.
Walnut. Wheeling. Woolwich.
War Game. Whig and Tory. Worcestershire.
Warrington. Whist. Worms.

Wyoming. Yelow Fever.
Yale University.
Yarmouth.
Yaws.
Zello.
Yellowstone National Park....
Zee.
Zeno.
Zeeland.
Zeus.
Zinc.
Zirconium.
Zuider Zee.
VETCH, in botany, the English name for *Vicia sativa*, also known as tare, a leguminous annual herb with trailing or climbing stems, compound leaves with five or six pairs of leaflets, reddish-purple flowers borne singly or in pairs in the leaf-axis, and a silky pod containing four to ten smooth seeds. The wild form, sometimes regarded as a distinct species, *V. angustifolia*, is common in dry soils. There are two races of the cultivated vetch, winter and spring vetches: the former, a hardy form, capable of enduring frost, has smoother, more cylindrical pods with smaller seeds than the summer variety, and gives less bulk of stem and leaves. The spring vetch is a more delicate plant and grows more rapidly and luxuriantly than the winter variety.

The name vetch is applied to other species of the genus *Vicia*. *Vicia orobus*, bitter vetch, and *V. sylvestris*, wood vetch, are British plants. Another British plant, *Hippocrepis*, is known as horseshoe vetch from the fact of its pod breaking into several horseshoe-shaped joints. *Anthyllis vulneraria* is kidney-vetch, a herb with heads of usually yellow flowers, found on dry banks. *Astragalus* is another genus of Leguminosae, and is known as milk-vetch.

Vetches are a very valuable forage crop. Being indigenous to Britain, and not fastidious in regard to soil, they can be cultivated successfully under a great diversity of circumstances, and are well adapted for poor soils. By combining the winter and spring varieties, and making several sowings of each in its season at intervals of two or three weeks, it is practicable to have them fit for use from May till October, and thus to carry out a system of soilings by means of vetches alone. But it is usually more expedient to use them in combination with grass and clover, beginning with the first cutting of the latter in May, taking the winter vetches in June, recurring to the Italian ryegrass or clover as the second cutting is ready, and afterwards bringing the spring vetches into use. Each crop can thus be used when in its best state for cattle food, and so as gratefully to vary their dietary.

Winter Vetches.—There is no botanical difference between winter and spring vetches, and the seeds being identical in appearance, caution is required in purchasing seed to get it of the right sort. Seed grown in England is found the most suitable for sowing in Scotland, as it vegetates more quickly, and produces a more vigorous plant than that which is home-grown. As the great inducement to cultivate this crop is the obtaining of a supply of nutritious green food which shall be ready for use about the 1st of May, so as to fill up the gap which is apt to occur between the roots of the previous autumn and the ordinary summer food, whether for grazing or soiling, it is of the utmost importance to treat it in such a way that it may be ready for use by the time mentioned. To secure this, winter tares should be sown in August if possible, but always as soon as the land can be cleared of the preceding crop. They may yield a good crop though sown in October, but in this case will probably be very little in advance of early-sown spring vetches, and possess little, if any, advantage over them in any respect. The land on which they are sown should be dry and well sheltered, clean and in good heart, and be further enriched by farmyard manure. Not less than 3½ bushels of seed per acre should be sown, to which some think it beneficial to add half a bushel of wheat. Rye is frequently used for this purpose, but it gets reedy in the stems, and is rejected by the stock. Winter beans are better than either. The land having been ploughed rather deeply, and well harrowed, it is found advantageous to deposit the seed in rows, either by a drilling-machine or by ribbing. The latter is the best practice, and the ribs should be at least a foot apart and rather deep, that the roots may be well developed before top-growth takes place. As soon in spring as the state of the land and weather admits of it, the crop should be hoed betwixt the drills, a top-dressing at the rate of 40 bushels of sot of or 2 cwt. of guano per acre applied by sowing broadcast, and the roller then used for the double purpose of smoothing the surface so as to admit of the free use of the scythe and of pressing down the plants which may have been loosened by frost. It is thus by early sowing, thick seeding and liberal manuring that this crop is to be forced to an early and abundant maturity. May and June are the months in which winter vetches are used to advantage. A second growth will be produced from the roots if the crop is allowed to stand; but it is much better practice to plough up the land as the crop is
VETERAN—VETERINARY SCIENCE

cleared, and to sow turnips upon it. After a full crop of vetches, land is usually in a good state for a succeeding crop. When the whole process has been well managed, the gross amount of cattle food yielded by a crop of winter vetches, and the turnip crop by which it is followed, in the same summer, will be found considerably to exceed what could be obtained from the fullest crop of turnips alone, grown on similar soil, and with the same quantity of manure. It is useless to sow this crop where game abounds.

Spring vetches, if sown about the 1st of March, will be ready for use by the 1st of July, when the winter vetches are just cleared off. To obtain the full benefit of this crop, the land on which it is sown must be clean, and to keep it so a much fuller allowance of seed is required than is usually given in Scotland. When the crop is as thick as it should be, the tendrils intertwine, and the ground is covered by a solid mass of herbage, under which no weed can live. To secure this, not less than 4 bushels of seed per acre should be used if sown broadcast, or 3 bushels if in drills. The latter plan, if followed by hoeing, is certainly the best; for if the weeds are kept in check until the crop is fairly established, they have no chance of getting up afterwards. With a thin crop of vetches, on the other hand, the land is so certain to get foul, that they should at once be ploughed down, and something else put in their place. As vetches are in the best state for use when the seeds begin to form in the pods, which takes about three weeks, the crop must be cut by the end of February, or as early in March as the season admits, and continuing till May. The usual practice in Scotland has been to sow vetches on part of the oat break, once ploughed down, and something else put in their place. Sometimes this does very well, but a far better plan is to omit sowing clover and grass seeds on part of the land occupied by wheat or barley after a crop of turnips, and having ploughed that portion in the autumn to occupy it with vetches, putting them instead of "seeds" for one revolution of the course.

When vetches are grown on poor soils, the most profitable way of using them is by folding sheep upon them, a practice very suitable also for clays, upon which a root crop cannot safely be consumed in this way. A different course must, however, be adopted from that followed when turnips are so disposed of. When sheep are turned in upon a piece of tares, a large portion of the food is trodden down and wasted. Cutting the vetches and putting them into racks does not much mend the matter, as much is still pulled out and wasted, and the manure unequally distributed over the land. To avoid those evils, hurdles with vertical spars, between which the sheep can reach with head and neck, are a good innovation. These will keep the vetches up to the growing crop along a considerable stretch, and shifted forward as the sheep eat up what is within their reach. This requires the constant attention of the shepherd, but the labour is repaid by the saving of the food, which being always fresh and clean, does the sheep more good. A modification of this plan is to use the same kind of hurdles, but instead of shifting them as just described, to sow a swathe parallel to them, and fork this forward within reach of the sheep as required, repeating this as often during the day as is found necessary, and at night making the sheep close up to the growing crop, so that they may lie for the next twenty-four hours on the space which has yielded food for the past day. During the night they have such pickings as have been left on the recently mown space and so much of the growing crop as they can get at through the spars. There is less labour by this last mode than the other, and having practised it for many years, we know that it answers well. This folding upon vetches is suitable either for finishing off for market sheep that are in forward condition, or for recently weaned lambs, which, after five or six weeks' folding on this clean, nutritious herbage, are found to take on more rapidly to eat turms and to thrive better upon them, than if they had been kept upon the pastures all the autumn. Sheep folded upon vetches must have water always at command, otherwise they will not prosper.

As spring-sown vetches are in perfection at the season when pastures usually get dry and scanty, a common practice is to cart them on to grass land and spread them out in wipis, to be eaten by the sheep or cattle. It is, however, much better either to have them eaten by sheep where they grow, or to cart them to the homestead.

VETERAN, old, tried, experienced, particularly used of a soldier who has seen much service. The Latin veteranus (vetus, old), as applied to a soldier, had, beside its general application in opposition to ino, recruit, a specific technical meaning in the Roman army. Under the republic the full term of service with the legion was twenty years; those who served this period and gained their discharge (missio) were termed veterani. If they chose to remain in service with the legion, they were then called veterans. Sometimes a special invitation was issued to the veterani to rejoin; they were then styled escos.

The base of Lat. vetus meant a year, as seen in the Gr. έτος (for Ferro) and Sanskrit vata; from the same base comes vitulus, a calf, properly a yearling, vitellus, a young calf, whence O. Fr. veal, modern veau, English "veal," the flesh of the calf. The Teutonic cognate of vitulus is probably seen in Goth. withrus, lamb, English "wether," a castrated ram.

VETERINARY SCIENCE (Lat. veterinarius, an adjective meaning "connected with beasts of burden and draught," from veterus, "pertaining to yearlings," and vitulus, "a calf") is the science, generally, that deals with the conformation and structure of the domesticated animals, especially the horse; their physiology and special racial characteristics; their breeding, feeding and general hygienic management; their pathology, and the preventive and curative, medical and surgical, treatment of the diseases and injuries to which they are exposed; their amelioration and improvement; their relations to the human family with regard to communicable maladies; and the supply of food and other products derived from them for the use of mankind. In this article it is only necessary to deal mainly with veterinary science in its relation with medicine, as other aspects are treated under the headings for the particular animals, &c. In the present edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica the various anatomical articles (see ANATOMY for a list of these) are based on the comparative method, and the anatomy of the lower animals is dealt with there and in the separate articles on the animals.

History.

There is evidence that the Egyptians practised veterinary medicine and surgery in very remote times; but it is not until we turn to the Greeks that we obtain any very definite information with regard to the state of veterinary as well as human medi-7e in antiquity. The writings of Hippocrates (460-377 B.C.) afford evidence of excellent investigations in comparative pathology. Diocles of Carystus, who was nearly a contemporary, was one of the first to occupy himself with anatomy, which he studied in animals. Aristotle, too, wrote on physiology and comparative anatomy, and on the maladies of animals, while many other Greek writers on veterinary medicine are cited or copied from by Varro, Columella and Galen. And we must not overlook Mago of Carthage (300 B.C.), whose work in twenty-eight books was translated into Greek and was largely used by Varro and Columella.

3 Regarding the origin of the word "veterinary," the following occurs in D'Arboval's Dictionnaire de médecine et de chirurgie vétérinaires, edited by Zundel (1877), ii. 814: "Les mots veterinaris et veterinarius étaient employés par les Romains pour désigner: le premier, la médecine des bêtes de somme; le second, pour indiquer celui qui la pratiquait; le mot veterinaire indiquait les bêtes de somme, et était la contraction de veternarius, du verbe verna, porter, tier, trainer. L'étymologie réelle du mot veterinarius, le honne de corps, le mot veterinarius des Romains, et d'après Lenger, encore plus ancienne; elle viendrait du celtique, d'où le mot serait passé chez les Romains; cet auteur fait venir le mot de vee, béétal (d'où l'allemand Vieh), tieren, être malade (d'où l'allemand Zehre, consommation), seris ou arts, artiste, médecin (d'où l'allemand Arzt)."
Until after the conquest of Greece the Romans do not appear to have known much of veterinary medicine. Varro (116–28 B.C.) may be considered the first Roman writer who deals with animal medicine in a scientific spirit in his De Re Rustica, which was published before the birth of Christ. Celsus is supposed to have written on animal medicine, and Columella (1st century) is credited with having utilized those results in his De Re Rustica and was followed in this work by Fannius, who published De Re Rustica, one of the best works of its class of ancient times; it treats not only of medicine and surgery, but also of sanitary measures for the suppression of contagious diseases. From the 3rd century onward many editions and translations appeared in both Greek and regular practitioners, especially in the service of the Roman armies (mulomedici, veterinarii). Perhaps the most renowned veterinarian of the Roman empire was Aspysurus of Bithynia, who in 322 was appointed to a high position in the army and in the hygiene and training of horses. Pelagonius, again, was a writer of empirical tendency, and his treatment of disease in general was most irrational. Publius Vegetius (not to be confounded with Publius Victor) was the author of De Re Rustica, which was the most popular author of the end of the 5th century, though less distinguished than Aspysurus, to whom and to Pelagonius he was to a great extent indebted in the presentation of his veterinary medicine Helveticorum Veterinarum. It appears to have been more of a horse-dealer than a veterinary practitioner, and knew next to nothing of anatomy, which seems to be what we have been lucky at that period. He was an empiricist, and believed in the belief of divine intervention from the bladders through the rectum, coughing for cataract, the extirpation of certain glands, and several serious operations on the horse's foot. Though inferior to several works written by his predecessors, the Mulomedicina of Vegetius maintained its popularity through many centuries. Most of the ancient veterinary writers we know little beyond what can be gathered from the citations and extracts in those books which have been preserved. De Re Rustica of Varro was compiled by order of Constantine Porphyrogenitus in the 10th century.

It is unnecessary to dwell here on the progress of the veterinary art during the middle ages. Towards the close of the medieval period there were several schools of veterinary medicine in Paris, Italy; and Spain also had an organized system of good practitioners in the 15th century, who have left many books still extant. German universities had also a department of veterinary medicine until the end of the 15th century, when in 1492 there was published anonymously at Augsburg a Pfleidererwölkchen. In the following century the influence of the Italian writers was becoming manifest, and the works of Fugger and Fayser mark the commencement of a new era. Fayser's treatises, Von der Gestütrei and Von der Zucht der Kriegs- und Bürger-Pferde (1549–57), are remarkable for originality and good sense. In Great Britain animal medicine was perhaps in a more advanced condition than Germany, for we accept the evidence of the Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales (London, 1841); yet it was largely made up of the grossest superstitions. The most famous in this country was the horse-dealer and medical practitioner, Felix Aley, whose name has been introduced into many forms of life by being the founder of the Medecines for a Horse and Masclet of Oxen, Horses, Sheepes, Hoggges, Dogges. The word "mascle" shows that the latter work was in its origin a horsemasters' book, that is to say, the representations of the riding masters became popularized, and assumed a concrete form in Blundeville's "Four Chiefest Offices belonging to Horsemanship" (1656), which contains many references to horse diseases, and, though mainly a cavalry work, is yet the chief work of Constantine against the Sick


2 See Fleming, Horse-shoes and Horse-Shoeing (London, 1869).
school was established at Constantinople, and in 1860 the government endowed a school for veterinary surgeons. The universities of Berlin, Hanover and Vienna have been raised to the position of universities.

In 1790 St Bel (whose real name was Vial, St Bel being a village near Vial, his paternal estate), after studying at the Lyons school and teaching both at Allfort and Lyons, came to England and published proposals for founding a school in London for the purpose of training men to pursue veterinary surgery. The Agricultural Society of Oldham, which had been meditating sending two young men to the Altoft school, elected him an honorary member, and delegated a committee to consult with him in the matter. A scheme was proposed whereby the committee detached themselves from the Oldham Society and formed an institution styled the Veterinary College of London, of which St Bel was appointed professor and Dean. The scheme was to be recommenced and the committee sent to London. In March 1791 experiments were made for building temporary stabling for fifty horses and a forge for shoeing at St Pancras. The college made rapid progress in the following year, and soon possession was secured.

As soon as the building was ready for the reception of animal patients, pupils began to be enrolled; and among the earliest were some who afterwards gained celebrity as veterinarians, as Blowes, Blaine, R. Lawrence, Field and Clarke. On the death of St Bel in August 1793 there appears to have been some difficulty in procuring a suitable successor; but at length, on the recommendation of John Hunter and the two men already appointed, Coleman and Moorcroft, the latter then practising as a veterinary surgeon in London. The first taught anatomy and physiology, and Moorcroft, after visiting the French schools, directed the teaching of pathology. The teaching of the veterinary surgeons had these teachers much experience among animals, nor were they well acquainted with their diseases; but Coleman (1765-1839) had as a student, in conjunction with a fellow-student (afterwards Sir Astley Cooper), performed many experiments on animals and directed the direction of Cline. Moorcroft, who remained only a short time at the college, afterwards went to India, and during a journey in 1819 was engaged in the service of the Company. Coleman was appointed a professor of anatomy and energetic management, in a few years raised the college to a high standard of usefulness; under his care the progress of the veterinary art was such as to qualify its practitioners to hold commissions in the army; and he himself was appointed to the medical department general to the British cavalry. In 1831 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. Owing to the lack of funds, the teaching at the college must have been very meagre, and had it not been for the lobbying of the political medical men in throwing open the doors of their theatres to its pupils for instruction without fee or reward, their professional knowledge would have been sadly deficient. The board of examiners was for many years chiefly composed of eminent members of the medical profession. Coleman died in 1839, and with him disappeared much of the interest the medical profession of London took in the progress of veterinary medicine. Yet the trustees of the College (with the exception of the president, who continued to do good work in a purely veterinary direction, and received public financial support), were able to show a surplus of £400 per annum, it being the largest sum of money given to it by the government. In the early years of the institution the horse was the only animal to which much attention was given. But at the instigation of the Royal Agricultural Society of London, in 1800, the board of examiners appointed an additional professor to investigate and teach the treatment of the diseases of cattle, sheep and other animals; outbreaks of disease among these were also to be inquired into by the college. This help to the institution was withdrawn in 1875, but renewed and augmented in 1886. For fifteen years the Royal Agricultural Society annually voted a sum of £500 towards the expenses of the department of comparative pathology, but in 1902 this grant was reduced to £200.

As the result of representations made to the senate of the university of London by the governors of the Royal Veterinary College, the school was given the title of University College, Royal Veterinary College (B.Sc.). The possession of this degree does not of itself entitle the holder to practise as a veterinary surgeon, but it was hoped that an increasing number of students would, while studying for the diploma of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, also adopt the curriculum which is necessary to qualify for the university examinations and obtain the degree of bachelor of science. To provide certain further instruction the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries in 1896 made a grant to the college of £500 per annum. At this school post-graduate instruction is given on the principles of bacteriological research, vaccination and anthelmintics. The boards of agriculture of the different states and the bacteriology of the specific diseases of animals.

The London Veterinary School has been the parent of other schools in England, each without separate academic status. In 1904, Professor Dick, a student under Coleman, and a man of great perseverance and ability. Beginning at Edinburgh in 1819–20 with only one student, in three years he gained the patronage and encouragement, were continued to the time of Dick's death in 1860. During the long period in which he presided over the school considerable progress was made in diffusing a sound knowledge of veterinary medicine. As a result of his efforts his examining board, which gave certificates of proficiency under the auspices of the Highland and Agricultural Society, was composed of eminent men of science, and for some time it was the only one in England. Another veterinary school was established in Edinburgh by John Gangle, and the Veterinary College, Glasgow, was founded in 1863 by R. A. G. Moorcroft, Gangle's school was discontinued in 1865; and William Williams' Veterinary College of Scotland, founded in 1869. This school was transferred in 1904 to the University of Liverpool. In 1907 a veterinary school was founded in Dublin.

In 1844 the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons (to be carefully distinguished from the Royal Veterinary College) obtained its charter of incorporation. The functions of this body were until 1881 limited almost entirely to examining students taught in the veterinary schools, and bestowing diplomas of membership on those who successfully passed the examinations conducted by the boards which in London and Edinburgh were conducted by the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons obtained its charter of incorporation by a difference arose between the college and Dick, which resulted in the latter sending altogether from the union that had been established. The Royal Veterinary College (which was the independent examining board, the Medical and Agricultural Board of Scotland granting certificates of proficiency to those students who were deemed competent. This schism operated very injuriously on the progress of veterinary education and on professional advancement, as the competition between them was of a rather deteriorating nature. After the death of Dick in 1866, the dualism in veterinary licensing was suppressed and the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons only by the London College ceased to hold a position inferior to the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.

Before beginning their professional studies students of veterinary medicine must pass an examination in general education equivalent in value and respect to that required of students of human medicine. The minimum length of time required for a veterinary degree is three terms each, and during that course four searching examinations must be passed before the student obtains his diploma or licence to practice as a veterinary surgeon. The subjects taught in the schools have been increased in numbers concomitantly with the requirements of ever extending science, and the teaching is more thorough and practical. During the four years' curriculum, besides the preclinical courses, the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons must study the anatomy and physiology of the domesticated animals, the pathology and bacteriology of the diseases to which these animals are subject, and the physical and chemical processes in the body, and learn to know the results of disease as seen post mortem or in the slaughter-house.

In 1851 an act of parliament was obtained protecting the title of veterinary surgeon in Great Britain from all others, and conferring other advantages, not the least of which is the power granted to the college to remove the names of unworthy members from its register. In so far as respects the Veterinary Surgeons Act is superior to the Medical Act, while it places the profession on the same level as other learned bodies, and prevents the public being misled by empires and imposters.

In 1847 the college conferred a higher degree than membership— that of fellow (F.R.C.V.S.), which can only be obtained after the graduate has been five years in practice, and by enriching a thesis and passing a severe written and oral examination on pathology and bacteriology, and surgery, and on every subject in veterinary science, and medicine. Only fellows can be elected members of the examining boards for the membership and fellowship diplomas. The graduates of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons registered from its foundation in 1844 until 1907 numbered about 6000.

In the British army a veterinary service was first instituted at the beginning of the 19th century, when veterinary surgeons with the rank of captain were sent to the hospital in Ranelagh, and to the royal artillery and the royal wagon train. After the Crimean War, and consequent on the abolition of the East India Company medical services, the possessor of a veterinary surgeon's diploma who was employed was increased, and in 1878 they were constituted a "department," with distinctive uniform, instead of being regimental officers as was previously the case. At the same time and by an Act of 1879, the rank of captain was conferred on veterinary surgeons, and the province of the corps was enlarged, so that every one in turn has to serve abroad. In 1903 the officers of the department were given substantive rank, and in 1904 were constituted a "corps," with a small number of non-commissioned officers and men under their command and specially trained by them. In 1897 the Army Veterinary Corps consisted of 176 officers and 220
n-commissioned officers and men. The men are stationed at the veterinary hospitals, Woolwich depot, Aldershot, Bulford and the Curragh, but when trained are available for duty under veterinary officers at any station, and a proportion of them are employed at the same time. Veterinary officers are required to service abroad in rotation, it follows that every officer spends a considerable portion of his service in India, Burma, Egypt or South Africa. The same is true of the five-year period of service abroad is about one-half the total. This offers a wide and varied field for the professional activities of the corps, but naturally entails a corresponding strain on the individuals. Commissions as a general rule are not accepted by examination except by previously qualified as members of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons. Promotion to captain and major is granted at five and fifteen years' service respectively, and subsequently, by selection, to lieutenant-colonel and colonel. The director-general has the honorary rank of major-general.

The Indian civil veterinary department was at first recruited from the A.V. Corps, but candidates who qualified as members of the R.C.V.S. were subsequently granted direct appointments by the India Office, by selection. The service is paid and pensioned on the lines of the other Indian civil services, and offers an excellent professional career to those who qualify for it.

In India there are schools for the training of native veterinary surgeons in Bombay, Lahore, Ajmere and Bengal. The courses extend to two or three years, and they are in very limited number. The professors are officers of the Indian civil veterinary department, and graduates are given subordinate appointments in that service, or find ready employment in the native cavalry or in civil life.

In the United States of America, veterinary science made very slow progress until 1884, when the Bureau of Animal Industry was established in connexion with the Department of Agriculture at Washington. The immediate cause of the formation of the bureau was the urgent need by the Federal government of official information concerning the nature and prevalence of animal diseases, and of measures for control and eradication. It deals with the investigation of disease in animals and the management of studs and farms, in addition to the clinical practice which falls to the share of the veterinary surgeon.

In India there are schools for the training of native veterinary surgeons, but the work of the school is not free, and it is not also open to all who are qualified. The places are filled on competitive examination. The professors are officers of the Indian civil veterinary department, and graduates are given subordinate appointments in that service, or find ready employment in the native cavalry or in civil life.

In the United States of America, veterinary science made very slow progress until 1884, when the Bureau of Animal Industry was established in connexion with the Department of Agriculture at Washington. The immediate cause of the formation of the bureau was the urgent need by the Federal government of official information concerning the nature and prevalence of animal diseases, and of measures for control and eradication. It deals with the investigation of disease in animals and the management of studs and farms, in addition to the clinical practice which falls to the share of the veterinary surgeon.

Veterinary science was first taught in the United States of America at the College of Agriculture at Washington, which was founded in 1862, and in 1868 the University of Pennsylvania. The first veterinary colleges were established at the United States Military Academy, at West Point, in 1866, and at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1868. The first veterinary school in the United States was established at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1868, and the first veterinary college was established at the College of Agriculture at Washington, in 1862.

In the Australian commonwealth there is only one veterinary school, which was established in Melbourne, Victoria, in 1888. The Public Health Departments of New South Wales, Western Australia, Tasmania and the other states employ qualified veterinary surgeons as inspectors of live stock, cattle, sheep, and dairy produce.

There is no veterinary school in New Zealand, but the Department of Agriculture has established a veterinary school at Wellington in connexion with the investigation laboratory and farm of the division of veterinary science at Wallaceville. The New Zealand government employs about forty qualified veterinarians as inspectors of live stock, cattle, sheep, meat, wool and dairy produce.

In Egypt a veterinary school with French teachers was founded in 1830 at Abu-Zabel, near Cairo, by Clot-Bey, a doctor of medicine. This school was discontinued in 1852. The Public Health Department of Egypt, which was established in Cairo in 1801, has established a veterinary school for the instruction of natives. Ten qualified veterinary surgeons are employed in the sanitary service of Egypt.

In South Africa, the College of Agriculture at Pretoria, Orange River Colony, Swaziland, Bechuanaland and Rhodesia has a veterinary sanitary police service engaged in dealing with the contagious diseases of animals. Laboratories for the investigation of disease and the preparation of antitoxins and protective sera have been established at Grahamstown, Pretoria and Pietermaritzburg.

**Characteristics of Veterinary Medicine.**

Veterinary medicine has been far less exposed to the vagaries of theoretical doctrines and systems than human medicine. The explanation may perhaps be that the successful practice of this branch of medicine more clearly than in any other depends upon the careful observation of facts and the rational deduction to be made from them. In this respect veterinarians seem, in later times at least, to have been adopted the doctrine of the medical profession in regard to disease and its treatment has been a medical eclecticism, based on practical experience and anatomical-pathological investigation, rarely indeed on philosophical or abstract theories. In this way veterinary science has become pre-eminent a science of observation. At times indeed it has to some extent been influenced by the doctrines which have controlled the practice of human medicine—such as those of Broussais, Hahnemann, Brown, Ross, Rademacher and others—but this has not been for long: experience of them when tested upon dumb unimaginative animals soon exposed their fallacies and compelled their discontinuance.

Of more moment than the cure of disease is its prevention, and this is now considered the most important object in connexion with veterinary science. More especially is this the case with those contagious disorders that depend for their existence and extension upon the presence of an infecting agent, and whose ravages for so many centuries are written largely in the history of civilization. Every advance made in human medicine affects the progress of veterinary science, and the invaluable investigations of Davaine, Pasteur, Chauveux, Lister and Koch have created a new method of combating the diseases of domestic animals. The knowledge which has been gained in this field has been of the greatest importance to agriculture, and has led to the establishment of veterinary science as an independent and distinct branch of science.

The medicine of the lower animals differs from that of man in no particular so much, perhaps, as in the application it makes of utilitarian principles. The life of man is sacred; but in the case of animals, when there are doubts as to complete restoration to health or usefulness, pecuniary considerations generally decide against the adoption of remedial measures. This is a great advantage to the medicine of domesticated animals. It gives more readily to the general principles of treatment, and the procedures of veterinary medicine are comparatively simple and easy to understand.
VETERINARY SCIENCE

Veterinary pathology in the relations it bears to human medicine, to the public health and wealth, as well as to agriculture, has not been sufficiently appreciated; and in consequence but little allowance has been made for the training of veterinarians, which is a necessary part of medical education and which the veterinary practitioner of animal medicine has to contend. The Board of Agriculture and Fisheries has an efficient staff of trained veterinary inspectors, who devote their whole time to the work in connexion with the scheduled diseases of animals, and are frequently employed to inquire into other diseases of animals, the occasional contagious nature of which, when the circumstances are of general importance to agriculturists.

Veterinary science can offer much assistance in the study and prevention of the diseases to which mankind are liable. Some grave maladies of the human species are certainly derived from animals, and others may yet be added to the list. In the training of the physician great benefit would be derived from the study of disease in animals—a fact which has been strangely overlooked in England, as those who can testify who understand how closely the health of man may depend upon the health of the creatures which are the source of his subsistence, and how much more advantageously morbid processes can be studied in animals than in our own species.

Although as yet few chairs of comparative pathology have been established in British universities, on the European continent such chairs are now looked upon as almost indispensable to every university. Bourgelat, towards the middle of the 18th century, in speaking of the veterinary schools he had been instrumental in founding, urged that "leurs portes soient sans cesse ouvertes à ceux qui, chargés par l'état de la médecine, se sont proposés de faire avancer la science, et de multiplier les analogies, et vérifier des idées dont la conformité ne peut être qu'utilé à l'espèce humaine." And the benefits to be mutually derived from this association of the two branches of medicine inspired Vieç d'Azy to elaborate his Nouveau plan de la constitution de la médecine en France, which he presented to the National Assembly in 1790. His fundamental idea was to make veterinary teaching a preliminary (le premier degré) and, as it were, the principle of instruction in human medicine. His proposal went so far as to insist upon a veterinary school being annexed to every medical college established in France. This idea was reproduced in the Rapport sur l'instruction publique which Talleyrand read before the National Assembly in 1796. In this project veterinary teaching was to form part of the National Institution at Paris. The idea was to initiate students of medicine into a knowledge of diseases by observing those of animals. The suffering animal always appears exactly as it is and feels, without the intervention of mind obscuring the symptomatology, the symptoms being really and truly the symptoms of a disease. The benefits were to be derived from the study of animal diseases, which were always in a fresh and forcible state.

The science of Veterinary Medicine is essentially a study of the diseases affecting domestic animals, and of the means of preventing and curing them. It is important to study the diseases of domestic animals because they are a source of human suffering, and because their control and prevention can have a direct effect on human health. Veterinary medicine also plays a crucial role in the management of disease in the food supply chain, ensuring the safety and quality of food for human consumption. Veterinary medicine is a field of study that has evolved over centuries, with early practitioners like Charles C. Le Moyne and later figures like John Bartram, who were instrumental in establishing the discipline. The study of veterinary medicine involves understanding the biology of animal disease, the epidemiology of disease传播, and the development of effective control strategies. This includes the study of animal disease pathogens, their transmission, and the development of vaccines and treatments. The field also involves the study of animal behavior, physiology, and anatomy, as well as the development of diagnostic tools and techniques. The study of veterinary medicine is closely related to the study of human medicine, as many of the same principles apply to both fields. The development of practices like quarantine, the use of disease control measures, and the development of vaccines have been crucial in the advancement of veterinary medicine, and have had a direct impact on human health. The field is constantly evolving, as new technologies and methods are developed to better understand and control animal disease.
operate most freely in restoring health. This can best be rendered in the form of nursing, which sick animals greatly appreciate. However, ever indifferent a horse may be to caressing or kind attentions and when in pain will often apparently endeavour to attract notice and seek relief from those with whom he is familiar. Fresh air and cleanliness, quiet and comfort, should always be secured, if possible. The horse should be kept clean and be allowed to breathe, and be free from draughts. If the weather is cold, and especially if the horse is suffering from inflammation of the air-passages, it may be necessary to keep the oats and barley warm, as carrots can be taken that this does not render the air too dry to breathe. The surface of the body can be kept warm by rugs, and the legs by woollen bandages. Yet a sick horse is easily fattened and made to digest perfectly from giving him a broad, airy resort to artificial heating of the stable than to overload the body or impede movement by heavy wrappings. If blankets are used, it is well to place a cotton or linen sheet under them, should the horse have been sweating; and they should be employed as little as possible, since it hampers movement. Clean old litter, sawdust or peat-moss litter is the best. If the hoofs are strong, and the horse likely to be confined for some weeks, it affords no harm to take off the shoes. Tying up should be avoided, if possible, unless it is urgently required, the horse being allowed to move about or lie down as he may prefer.

Food for a sick horse. When the horse has lost his appetite, he should be tempted to eat by offering him such food as will be enticing to him. It should be given frequently and in small quantities, but should not be forced on him; the food that is not eaten will not be eaten out of the manger. Whether the animal be fed from a bucket or from a manger, any food that is left should be thrown away, and the remainder removed, as the horse may be compelled to eat it. As the signs of sickness a horse requires laxative food, in order to allay fever or inflammatory symptoms, while supporting the strength. The following list comprises the usual laxative foods employed: green grass, green wheat, barley, oats, barley, carrots, parsnips, gruel, bran mash, linseed and bran mash, boiled barley, linseed tea, hay tea and linseed oil. Green grass, lucerne, and similar articles of food if cut when in wet state, should be dried before being boiled. Bran gruel should be cooked with very little water, so that it may be flouiry and comparatively dry when ready; a little salt should be mixed with it. One gallon of good gruel may be made with a pound of barley, which should be boiled white. One day afterwards permitted to simmer over a gentle fire till the fluid is quite thick. To make a bran mash, scald a stable bucket, throw out the water, put in 3 lb. of bran and 1 oz. of salt, add 24 pints of boiling water, stir up well, cover over and allow the mash to stand for fifteen or twenty minutes until it is well cooked. For a bran and linseed mash, boil slowly for two or three hours 1 lb. of linseed, so as to have about a couple of quarts of thick fluid, to which 2 lb. of bran and 1 oz. of salt may be added. The whole should be stirred up, covered over and allowed to steam as before described. The thicker the mash the more readily will be the digestion. The mashes are usually made with barley, but if the horses are very weak or have suffered from a couple of gallons of water until the grains are quite soft. It may be economically made by using less water to cook the linseed, and afterwards making up the quantity desired by boiling and straining. The gruel be prepared by filling a bucket, after scalding it, with good sweet hay, pouring in as much boiling water as the bucket will hold, covering it over, and allowing it to stand under a cover to cool; it is then ready to use. When this form is employed it may be mixed with mixed linseed meal or a little linseed oil. Antiseptic poultices containing lyeol, ial, carbolic acid or creolin, are very useful in the early treatment of foul and punctured wounds. When such poultices are sometimes employed when there is an offensive smell to be got rid of. It is made by mixing linseed meal with boiling water and stirring until a soft mass is produced; with this same wood charcoal in powder is mixed, and when this is applied some more charcoal is sprinkled on the surface. It may be noted that, in lieu of these materials for poultices, spongipoline can be usefully employed. A piece of sufficient size is steeped in a weak solution of applied to the raw wound, covered with oilcloth or water-proof sheeting, and secured by tapes. Even an ordinary sponge, steeped in hot water and covered with waterproof material, makes a good poulticing medium; it is well adapted for the throat, the grooves of the cannon bone and the branches of the lower jaw, as well as for the lower joints of the limbs.

Enemata or douches are given in fevers, constipation, colic, &c., to assist in the对于的 processes. Some ha A strong food solution of potassium chlorate is also administered by a large syringe capable of containing a quart of more, with a nozzle about 12 in. long, or by a large funnel with a long nozzle at a right angle. Water, soap and water or warm water may be used. The nozzle, covered with oil and water proof sheeting, and secured by tapes. Poudrage is a very convenient form of enema. A mixture of ground charcoal and water is also employed. They may be given at any time, except while the horse is breathing, but it should be given in such quantity as the horse can comfortably bear.

Enemata and Douches.
The epizootic diseases affecting the horse are not numerous, and may generally be considered as specific and infectious or contagious in their nature, circumstances of a favourable kind leading to their extension by propagation of the agent upon which they act. While the effect of the maladies, has been proved to be a micro-organism, and there can be little doubt that it is so for all of them.

Glanders (p. 2), or equina, one of the most serious maladies of the equine system. It is a contagious, infectious disease, caused by the bacillus equi (Glanders equi), and specially affects the lungs, respiratory mucous membranes and lymphatic glands of the systemic. The agent of glanders appears to establish itself most easily among horses kept in foul, crowded, badly ventilated stables, or among such as are over-worked, badly fed or debilitated. Glanders, however, may be transmitted to other animals by contiguity and the causative infection is not unlikely to be transmitted by infection of the virus with food or water, or by inoculation of a wound of the skin or a mucous membrane. Carrievous animals—lions, tigers, dogs and cats—may become infected by eating the flesh of glandered horses; and men attending diseased horses are liable to be infected, especially if they have sores on the exposed parts of their bodies. Though in man infection through wounds is the means of receiving the disease, the bacillus may also obtain access through the digestive organs, the lungs and mucous membranes of the eyes, nose and lips.

The maladies of the equine system sometimes a distinction is made between glanders with nasal ulcers and other symptoms of respiratory disease, and glanders of the skin, or, marcis, but there is no essential difference between them. Glanders and marcis are due to the same infective agent, and treatment is the same. Acute glanders is always rapidly fatal, and chronic glanders may become acute or it may terminate by apparent recovery.

The glanders may become more severe with its accompaniments, thirst, loss of appetite, hurried pulse and respiration, emaciation, languor and disinclination to move. Sometimes the legs or joints are swollen and the horse is stiff; but the characteristic symptoms are a greyish-yellow viscid discharge from one or both nostrils, a peculiar enlarged and nodulated condition of one or both submaxillary lymphatic glands, which though they may be painful very for several days, diminish in size when the inflammation subside.

The discharge from the nose adheres to the nostrils and upper lip, and the mouth is often the seat of inflammation, exudation and frequent snorting. The lymphatic vessels of the face are often involved and appear as painful subcutaneous cords passing across the cheek. These vessels sometimes present nodules which break and discharge a glutinous pus. As the disease progresses, the ulcers on the nose increase in number, enlarge or become confluent, extend in depth and sometimes completely perforate the septum. The nasal discharge now more abundant and discharge from the nose and upper lip, is painless, tenacious, yellow, viscous, sometimes crust forms and on some of the swollen parts. Symptoms of congestion of the lungs, or pneumonia and pleurisy, with extreme prostration, diarrhea and gasping respiration, precede death, which is due to asphyxia or apoplexy.

Chronic or latent glanders generally presents few definite symptoms. The suspected animal may have a discharge from the nose, or an enlarged submaxillary gland, or both, and small unbroken nodules may exist on the septum, but usually there is no visible ulceration of the nasal membrane. In some horses suspicion of glanders may be excited by lameness and sudden swelling of a joint, by profuse staling, sluggishness, loss of condition and general unthriftiness, or by refusal of food, rise of temperature, swollen fetlocks, with dry hacking cough, nasal catarrh and other symptoms of a common cold. In these cases, if the nasal discharge continues, the submaxillary gland enlarge, and, after an interval, ulcers appear in the nose or "farcy buds" form on a swollen leg. In occult glanders the horse may appear to be in good health and be able to perform ordinary work. In these cases the existence of glanders can only be discovered by reserving to inoculation or the mallein test.

In cutaneous glanders, or marcis, symptoms occur on the skin of a glanded horse, or on the body, where the lymphatics become inflamed and ulcerated. The limb is much swollen, and the animal moves with pain and difficulty. The lymphatic vessels appear small, dark, "cordons" or "corduroys" form, and along their course arise nodular swellings—the so-called "farcy buds." These small abscesses break and discharge a yellow, glutinous, blood-stained pus, leaving sores which heal very slowly; the discharge is frequently coated with a greenish white membrane.

Medical treatment of glanders or marcis should not be attempted. The disease is dealt with under the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act—horses which present spasmodic symptoms, or those which have been in contact, or have stood in the same stall with glandered horses, should be isolated and tested with mallein. Animals which are found affected should immediately be destroyed, and their harness, clothing and the utensils employed with them thoroughly disinfected. The slaughtered flesh of horses which the horses have frequented should be disinfected. Forage left by glandered horses should be burned or fed to cattle.

Malenie, which is almost indispensable in the diagnosis of glanders, is by far the best, and is the option of every veterinary surgeon, and the first complete demonstration of its diagnostic value was given in 1891 by Kalning, also of Russia. In brief, preparatory to the diagnosis of glanders in animals, is the sterilization of the filter-paper, the tip of which is placed on the nose of the horse. The horse is not permitted to eat, drink or breathe for a period of 12 hours, when a filter-paper is placed on his nose, and the horse is submitted to test. The first results of the test are seen in about 10 days, and the horse is declared glandered if a small abscess is formed on the filter-paper, which is afterwards examined under a microscope. If the horse is not glandered, then the infection will not cause an abscess, and the horse is declared healthy.

In Epizootic lymphangitis is a contagious eruptive disease of the horse caused by the cryptococcus farcinominus, and characterized by nodular swellings and suppuration of the superficial lymphatic glands. It is a highly contagious disease, and may be artificially transmitted by inoculation or immediate contagion. The eruption usually appears on the limbs, but it may occur on the body or on the head and neck. The symptoms closely resemble those of cutaneous glanders or marcis, but the diagnosis is unequivocally confirmed by microscopic examination of the pus discharged from the sores, or by testing the horse with mallein. Glanders and epidotic lymphangitis may coexist in the same animal. It is a scheduled disease in Great Britain, and is liable to be introduced into the country at any time.
other organs. At various times it has prevailed excessively over different parts of the world, more especially during the 18th and 19th centuries. Perhaps one of the most widespread outbreaks recorded in medical literature was the Rinderpest in Great Britain, which radiates from the district in which it first appears. The symptoms have been enumerated as follows: sudden attack, marked by excessive delirium and stupor, with increased body temperature, quick and often difficult respiration, bloodshot eyes, the eyelids swollen and half closed, eyes lustreless, and tears often flowing down the face. There is great disinclination to move; the body becomes rigid and the legs convulsively extended in the track. The appetite is lost and the mouth is hot and dry; the bowels are constipated and the urine scanty and high-coloured; there is always a deep, painful and harassing cough; on auscultation the lungs are found to be filled with crepitations, and the heart sounds are stertorous; and the membrane lining the eyelids and nose assumes a bright pink colour or a dull leaden hue. A white, yellowish or greenish-coloured discharge flows from the nostrils. In a few days from the time of the outbreak the animal may become torpid, tension and tenderness of the abdominal walls when pressed upon, manifestations of colic, great thirst, a coated tongue, yellowness of the membranes of nose and eyes, high-coloured urine, constipation, and nausea and vomiting. Some of the animals show a peculiar swelling and tenderness takes place in the muscles and joints of the limbs, which may persist for a long time, often shifting from leg to leg, which shows repeatedly acute inflammation of the eyes supervenes, or even paralysis. In this disease good nursing is the chief factor in the treatment. Comfortable, clean and airy stables or loose-boxes should be provided, and the warmth of the body and limbs, and, if possible, a turf bed, to which the animal may be invited, in order that it may have the necessary to adopt such medical measures as the following. For constipation administer enemata of warm water or give a dose of liniment or a mixture of castor oil or milk; for excessive diuresis (as liquor of acetic acid or spirit of nitrous ether), and, if there is cough or nervous excitement, anodyne (such as extract of belladonna). When the fever subsides and the prostration is great, it may be necessary to give stimulating tonics (carbonate of ammonia, nitrous ether, aromatic ammonia) and tonics, both vegetable (gentian, quassia, calumba) and mineral (iron, copper, arsenic). Some veterinary surgeons administer large and frequent doses of atoxyl, and in each country in which it is in use it has shown an excellent effect. If the abdominal organs are chiefly involved, demulcents may supplement the above (linseed boiled to a jelly; to which a small portion of the animals’ fat is added) until the animal is put to rest in a loose box to which the following drugs to allay pain (as opium and chloral hydrate). Olive oil is a safe laxative in such cases. When nervous symptoms are manifested, it may be necessary to apply wet cloths and vinegar to the head and neck, and to give a poultice of mixture of 1:2. Bromide of potassium has been beneficially employed. To combat infiammation of the throat, chest or abdomen, counter-irritants should be given for the period such as anid, to which is a limen or the ordinary white limen composed of oil of turpentine, solution of ammonia and olive oil. The food should be soft mash and gruel of oatmeal, with carrots and green food, and small and frequent quantities of scalded oats in addition when convalescence has been established.

Dourine, maladie du cot, or covering disease of horses, is a contagious malady caused by Trypanosoma equiperdum, and characterized by specific lesions of the male and female genital organs, palpable lymph glands by palpation, fever and vomiting. It occurs in Argentina, and, being closely related to the African, it is easy to fall a victim of the disease. Some cases have been treated with atoxyl with good results. In some cases of this disease the penis becomes enlarged, becomes nodular, and is covered with a glazed appearance, and is often inflamed and inflamed. The urine contains a great deal of pus and blood. The testes are often painful and swollen, and the spleen and liver are enlarged. The disease is usually fatal, and the animal is often weakened and emaciated. It is of great importance to prevent the disease by vaccination.
non-tuberculous animals it has no appreciable action. Medical treatment is of little if any avail. Preventive measures are of the utmost importance. Animals proved free of tuberculous taint should alone be bred from, and those found diseased should be destroyed. The nature of the disease is such that, so long as the food is properly cooked, and the milk from tuberculous cows should be boiled or heated to a temperature of 155° F. (68° C.), and kept in a good state of purity, no harm can follow. A most important point is the disinfection of the premises, which occurs in young stock from a few months to two years old, in various parts of the country, and generally in low-lying damp situations. It was classed with anthrax until the time of Arloing, when it was proved by him that the organism was a different one. A complicated and natural infection takes place through small wounds of the legs and feet or other parts. At first it is a local disease affecting usually a hind quarter, though sometimes the characteristic swellings occur on the shoulders, neck, breast, loins or flank. The chief symptoms are sudden loss of appetite, accelerated pulse and respiration, high temperature, debility, lameness or stiffness, followed by the formation of a small, painful swelling which rapidly increases in extent, becomes emphysematous, and in the centre cold and painless. Incision of the tumour gives escape to a red, frothy, sour-smelling fluid. This disease runs its course very rapidly, and may be arrested sometimes, even cured, by the treatment promptly is applied. Infection can be prevented by resorting to protective inoculation by one of the methods introduced by Arloing, Kitt and others. The natural virus-muscle fractions are used in the introduction of the disease. As the infection is introduced at a high temperature, and a pure culture of the causal organism, are employed as vaccines. The vaccine is introduced subcutaneously at the tip of the tail or behind the shoulder. Immunity lasts for years.

Abortions, or the expulsion of the foetus before viability, is a contagious disease in cows. In a herd a case of abortion or premature birth (from accidents or by disease) appears, but when a number of pregnant females abort the cause of the cases is due to specific infection of the womb. The microbe of abortion induces catarrh of the uterus and the discharge contains the infective anaerobus (enteritis), by irritation of the nerves, or vomiting, or by being associated with a ovarian abscess, catarrhal, or any other disease which has been contaminated by the discharge from an infected cow. Whenever abortion occurs in a cow the milk should be collected from it infected, or if possible, if the cow is aborting, and the infection produced by the organism, the pregnant cow should be quickly removed, with each cow be taken to keep them away from the affected cow and its discharges; the litter and the aborted foetus being burned or otherwise completely destroyed, and the cow thoroughly disinfected with quicklime. To prevent further infection, the hinder parts of the in-calf cows should be washed and disinfected from time to time.

Contagious mammitis is a common disease in milk cows. It has been investigated by Nocard and Mollereau, and proved to be caused by a streptococcus which is transmitted by flies from one gland to another. The microbe gains access to the quarter by the teat and induces catarrhal inflammation of the milk ducts and sinuses, with induration of the glands. This disease develops slowly, and is characterized by suppuration immediately, or after a little or no constitutional disturbance, though sometimes the affected cows lose condition. The milk at first preserves its normal appearance, but is less in quantity; it curdles quickly, is acid, and when mixed with good milk produces clotting; then it becomes thin and watery, and finally viscous, yellowish and foetid. At the base of the teat of the affected quarter induration begins and gradually extends upwards, and if not checked the disease passes from one quarter to another until the whole udder is attacked. Prevention can be secured by washing and disinfecting the udder and teats and the milkers' hands; before and after milking the udders should be isolated, their milk destroyed or boiled and fed to pigs and after each milking the teats should be injected with a warm solution of boric acid or sodium fluoride. Infected cows should be isolated and kept in a different barn.

Parturient paralysis, or mammary toxemia, also known as milk fever, though neither a febrile nor a contagious malady, was until quite recently a very fatal affection of dairy cows. It is caused by a deficiency of calcium in the blood, probably due to the cold weather. The disease commences soon after parturition; and, according to Schmidt, the toxin enters the circulation and affects especially, the central nervous system and in a moderate degree the other body organs. This disease usually attacks good milking cows within a few days of an easy labour and seldom before the third or fourth parturition. In twenty-four to forty-eight hours after calving the cow becomes restless, apprehensive, and不愿 to stand. The hind feet, swells the tail, low, grinds the teeth, staggerers, falls, makes ineffectual attempts to rise, and eventually lies comatose, stretched on the side with the head extended or inclined towards the shoulder. The eyes are dull, injected and insensitive; general sensation, voluntary motion and the power of swallowing are lost. Secretion of milk fails, digestion is suspended, fermentation of the contents of the pouches sets in, with tympany, constipation and retention of urine. The pulse becomes feeble or imperceptible. Respiration becomes laboured and unnatural, and the temperature is low or subnormal. If not treated the animal dies in two or three days from prolonged coma or heart failure.

Black-quarter. This disease is a most lucrative and often highly disastrous, both to the farmer and to the insurance company. It is highly contagious, and used to be very prevalent, though it is very uncommon in the United States at present. It is limited chiefly to the Cattle. In analogy to the disease known as anthrax, it is characterized by a peculiar induration which occurs in young stock from a few months to two years old, in various parts of the country, and generally in low-lying damp situations. It was classed with anthrax until the time of Arloing, when it was proved by him that the organism was a different one. A complicated and natural infection takes place through small wounds of the legs and feet or other parts. At first it is a local disease affecting usually a hind quarter, though sometimes the characteristic swellings occur on the shoulders, neck, breast, loins or flank. The chief symptoms are sudden loss of appetite, accelerated pulse and respiration, high temperature, debility, lameness or stiffness, followed by the formation of a small, painful swelling which rapidly increases in extent, becomes emphysematous, and in the centre cold and painless. Incision of the tumour gives escape to a red, frothy, sour-smelling fluid. This disease runs its course very rapidly, and may be arrested sometimes, even cured, by the treatment promptly is applied. Infection can be prevented by resorting to protective inoculation by one of the methods introduced by Arloing, Kitt and others. The natural virus-muscle fractions are used in the introduction of the disease. As the infection is introduced at a high temperature, and a pure culture of the causal organism, are employed as vaccines. The vaccine is introduced subcutaneously at the tip of the tail or behind the shoulder. Immunity lasts for years.

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stages as that of cowpox. The mortality may extend from 10% in mild outbreaks to 90% or 95% in very virulent ones. Diseased animals are sheltered, and fed on, non-roughage gruels of oatmeal flour or linseed; acidulated water may be allowed. If there is sloughing of the skin or extensive sores, oxide of zinc ointment should be applied. But treatment should not be attempted while the animal is fresh, as the flesh becomes tough and incoherent. All diseased animals should be destroyed, as well as those which have been in contact with them, and thorough disinfection resorted to.

Foot-rot is a disease of the claws of sheep. It occurs most frequently in badly drained, low-lying, marshy land, and is caused by the Bacillus necrophorus. Infection appears to be spread by contaminated urine. The disease should be avoided by raising the feet somewhat on the horn of affected pastures. The disease begins at the sole or between the claws and gradually extends, causing changes in the bones and tendons, with suppuration, degeneration of horn and sloughing. The foot is因此 reassured with both toenails removed at the coronet; the horn soft and rotten. Affected sheep when feeding may rest on the knees, or if fore and hind feet are involved, they lie down counternipped, and must be cleaned, loose and worn horn removed, abscesses opened, and the foot thoroughly disinfected and protected from further infection by an appropriate bandage. Some cases require daily dressing, and all affected feet should receive frequent attention. When large numbers of sheep are attacked they should be slowly driven through a foot-bath containing an antiseptic solution. Pastures on which foot-rot has been contracted should be avoided, the feet examined even after birth or oftener, and where necessary pared and dressed with pine tar.

Diseases of the Pig.
The pig may become affected with anthrax, foot-and-mouth disease and tuberculosis, and it also has its own particular varieties. But the one most deeply feared is swine fever, which has recently become epidemic in the United States, and is spread preparatory to swine fever to other organs. It is spread with great facility by mediate as well as immediate contagion; the virus can be carried by apparently healthy pigs from an infected piggery, by litter, manure, food, attendants, dogs, cats, vermin, croutes, troughs or anything which has been soiled by the discharges from a diseased pig. It is generally very rapid in its course, death ensuing in a very few hours, and when the animal survives, recovery is protracted. After exposure to infection the animal exhibits signs of illness by dullness, weakness, shivering, bunting itself in the litter, disinclination to move, staggering gait, great thirst, hot dry snout, loss of appetite, blood in the excreted products (105°F). Red and violet patches appear on the skin; there is a hacking cough; nausea is followed by vomiting; diarrhoea ensues; the hind legs become paralysed; stouter sets in, and the animal perishes. Treatment is of no avail and cannot be attempted. Notification of the existence of swine fever is compulsory, and outbreaks are dealt with by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries. To suppress the disease pigs are all killed, their organs which have been in contact with the wound or deeply burred, being carcasses and litter, and covered with quicklime. Disinfect everything that may have been contaminated with the virus.

Diseases of the Dog.
The contagious diseases of the dog are likewise very few, but the one which attracts most attention is common and generally known as distemper. This is what is popularly known as distemper, trachoma in the medical nomenclature. It is peculiar to the canine species, for there is no evidence that it can be conveyed to other animals, though the different families of Carnivora appear each to be liable to a similar disease. The disease has a specific mode of attack, young dogs being primarily involved in the respiratory passages, though the brain, spinal cord and abdominal organs may subsequently be involved. Highly bred and pet dogs suffer less severely than the commoner and harder kinds. It is a most infectious disease, and there is much evidence to prove that it owes its existence and prevalence solely to its virulence. One attack is sufficient to make the animal immune, and individuals which have recovered from the disease with sneezing, dullness, loss of appetite, desire for warmth, and increased temperature, respiration and pulse. The eyes are red, and the nose, at first dry and harsh, becomes smeared with the discharge which colour becomes green, and at periods renders the animal sleepy. When the animal is older or wiser, the disease begins at the eyes; vision is more or less impaired by the mucus and pus, and often the cornea becomes ulcerated, and even perforated. There is a cough, which in some cases is so violent as to impede respiration. The eyes and nose are frequently more or less discoloured, and the discharge is sometimes blood-stained. The disease in its acute form often affects the intestines, and the dry diarrhea in the majority of cases sets in; the body emits an unpleasant odour; ulceration of the mouth is noticed; the nostrils become obstructed by the discharge from them; con-
colour. The bot remains in the intestine till the following spring, when it detaches itself, passes into the stomach and is discharged with the faeces. When very numerous, bots may cause symptoms of indigestion, acute diarrhoea, abdominal distension, and in the last stages of the disease, the faeces are black and sometimes indicated by any sign of ill-health. They are difficult to dislodge or kill. Green food, iodine, naphthalin, hydrochloric acid and vinegar, when given in large doses, may expel them, but the treatment of choice is a dose of carbon bisulphide given in a gelatin capsule, repeated in twelve hours, and followed twelve hours later by an aloe bath.

Parasites that infest cattle and sheep mention will only be made of Distomum hepaticum, or common fluke, which causes liver-rot or distomiasis, a very fatal disease of lambs and sheep under two years old. It occurs most frequently in the autumn, on both dry and undrained land, but it may be carried to other pastures by sheep which have been driven through a fluke-infested country, and sheep allowed to graze along the roadsides of such pastures. In the pastures of soft soil, a full description of its anatomy and development see TROMATODES. Preventive treatment comprises the destruction of flukes and snails; avoidance of low-lying, wet pastures draining infested land, and top-dressing with salt, lime-salt, or soil; or supplying sheep with pure drinking water; placing rock-salt in the fields, and providing extra food and a tonic rich consisting of salt, aniseed, ferric sulphate, linearse and peas. In ova passages bronchitis of calves is caused by Strongylus micronus, or pointed-tailed strongyle, a thread-worm 1 to 3 in. long and S. pseudochalcothelium, a similar but smaller nematode; and S. vulgaris, or the parasite of S. vulgaris, or the parasite of S. vulgaris, which, in very young calves, is not accurately known. When expelled and deposited in water or moist earth, the embryos may live for many months. Hoses occur in spring and continues until autumn, when it may be most severe. In sheep the symptoms are coughing at first strong, with long intervals, then weak and frequent, leaving the sheep distressed and wheezing; discharge from the nose, salivation, occasional retching with brought up food, diarrhea, and iron-coloured faeces. Ascaris is seldom found. In calves the symptoms are similar but less acute. Various methods of cure have been tried. Remedies given by the mouth are seldom satisfactory. Good results have followed the use of chloride of lime or formalin. Intratracheal injections of chloroform, iodine and ether, oil of turpentine, carbolic acid, and opium tincture, or chloroform, ether, cresote and olive oil. The system should be supported with as much good nourishing food as possible.

The principal parasites that infest the alimentary canal of cattle or sheep are Strongyloides and Taenia. The strongyles of the fourth stomach are S. contortus, or twisted wire-worm (male 10 to 20 mm., female 20 to 30 mm. long), S. equinum (female 10 to 15 mm.), S. cervicalis (female 10 to 15 mm.), S. gravis (female 10 to 4 mm.), and an unknown species (female 10 to 14 mm. long) discovered by MacCallum. These worms may easily be recognized, but the other parasites, owing to their small size or situation in the mucous membrane, may be overlooked in an ordinary post-mortem examination. The red blood being removed, as the blood is the same colour as the mucous membrane. It lives on the blood which it abstracts from the mucous membrane, and, according to the state of repulsion, its body may be red or white. The ova of this worm are 1/20 to 1/25 of a grain in size. The parasites that infest the sheep may be gathered by the ova of Passer domesticus. The ova hatch in a few days, and, according to Ransom, within a fortnight embryos one-thirtieth of an inch long may be found encased in a chitinous investment. They remain in the effects of excessive cold, heat or moisture, and may live in damp and the temperature not too low, the embryos creep up the leaves of grasses and other plants, but when the temperature is below 40°F., they are inactive (Ransom). Sheep feeding on infected pasture gather the young worms and convey them to the fourth stomach, where they attain maturity in two or three weeks. In wet weather the embryos may be washed into ponds and ditches, and cattle and sheep may swallow them when drinking. Strongyles cause loss of appetite, irritation and inflammation of the stomach and bowels, diarrhea, anaemia, progressive emaciation and, if not destroyed or expelled, a lingering death from exhaustion or failure to thrive. The treatment depends on the degree of infestation. A change of pasture is always desirable, and as remedies a few doses of oil of turpentine in linearse oil, a dose of chloroform, or ether, a dose of strong sulphate, or an erecto of olive oil. The ox may be the bearer of three and the sheep of twelve species of tapeworms, and of these the commonest is Moniezia (taenia) expansa, which is also the largest, and is found in the residual of the largest tapeworm, being from 6 to 30 ft. in sheep and from 40 to 100 ft. in cattle. Its maximum breadth is 1/2 in.; it is found in the small intestine, and sometimes in sufficient numbers in lambs or adult sheep to obstruct the bowel. Infected animals are pastured by feeding the rye segments over the pastures, from which the ova or embryos are gathered by the sheep. The symptoms are inappetence, dry harsh wool, weakness, anaemia and diarrhoea with segments of the worms in the faeces. Various drugs have been prescribed for the expulsion of the worms, but with but little success. The best remedy, and the only one that is likely to succeed, is a dose of carbon bisulphide given in a gelatin capsule, repeated in twelve hours, and followed twelve hours later by an aloe bath.

The principal round-worms of the intestine of ruminants are Ascaris vitulorum, or calf ascarid, Strongylus vulgaris, Trichostrongylus axei, T. axei, T. filiformis, T. paradoxus, T. contortus, and T. spiralis. These are all serious to severe symptoms in sheep. For a full account of the development of Cysticercus bovis, or beef malace, the larval form of Taenia saginata of the human subject, see TAPEWORMS. Another bladder-worm, probably the larval stage of a common sheep and cattle, is Cysticercus collis, or slender-necked hydatid, the larval form of Taenia saginata of the dog. It seldom produces serious lesions. An important parasite of domesticated ruminants in Coenurus cerebralis, which reproduces in sheep, cattle, goats and deer gird or sturdy, a peculiar affection of the central nervous system characterized by congestion, compression of the brain, vertigo, inco-ordination, and other symptoms of cerebrospinal paralysis. This bladder worm is the cystic form of Taenia coeneus of the dog.

The infestation of infected cattle by the enzootia of man. Allusion must be made to Trichinella spiralis, which causes trichinosis. The male is 5th, the female 1st in long, and the embryos 4th to 4th in long. The ova mature 5th to 5th in their long diameter; they are hatched in the body of the female worm. When the female is found in the body of the female worm, the ova have been ingested by the pig, the cysts encysted the larval trichinosis are dissolved by the gastric juice in about eighteen hours, and the worms are found free in the intestine. In twenty-four to forty-eight hours these larvae, having undergone certain transformations, become sexual mature; then they are expelled after a short time the enzootia of man. The enzootia of man is the female worm and immediately begin to penetrate the intestinal wall in order to pass into various voluntary muscles, where they remain and mature. The cysts are expelled in the faeces, or begin their wandering. Usually each larva is found in a capsule, but two or even three larvae have been found in one investment. They have been known to live in their capsules for eighteen months to two years.

Cysticercus cellulosae is the larval form of Taenia solium of man (see Taeworms). "Meaty pork" is caused by the presence in the flesh of the pig of this enzootia, which is bladder-infective. It has also been discovered in the dog. Other important parasites of the pig are Stephanurus dentulatus, or crowned-stomach, Echinobothrix gigas, or thorn-headed worm, Ascaris suis, or pig ascarid, and Strongylus edentatus. For these the most useful remedies are castor oil seeds, given with the food, and oil of turpentine in milk, followed by a dose of Epson salts.

Of all the domesticated animals the dog is by far the most frequently infested with worms. A very common round-worm in the dog is Ascaris margarita (3 to 8 in. long), a variety of the ascarid (A. mystax) of the cat. It occurs in the intestine or stomach of young dogs. The symptoms are emaciation, drooping, listlessness, and intestinal troubles, such as infestation of the worms in mucus, colic and diarrhoea. The treatment comprises the administration of arsena or santonin in milk, followed by a dose of castor oil or bitters, and sulphate of copper. Other infestations, such as the heart of the dog, and its larvae may be found in the blood, causing endocarditis, obstruction of the vessels, and fits, which often end in death. Sporocera sanguinolenta may be found in the dog, and is killed by the white or green medicine, which is given in cattle. Other infestations of the dog are Anchylostomum tricuspis, which causes frequent bleeding from the nose and perniacous anaemia, and Trichocephalus depressus. Other round-worms in the dog and cat that are harboured eight species of taeniae and five species of Bothriocephalus. Taenia serrata, about 3 ft. in length, is found in about 10% of
The vegetable parasites, or Dermatophytes, which cause linear or ringworm in horse, cattle, and dogs, belong to the distinct genera: Trichophyton, Microsporum, Eidomella, Achorion, and Oospora. Ringworm of the horse is either a Tricho-
phyton or a Microsporum fungus. The Microsporum species, especially M. equi, parasitize the horse's skin; and its elasticity and break off, leaving a greyish-yellow, bran-like crust of epidemical products, dried blood and sometimes pus. In the horse, the infection may arise entirely from fungi, and have an outline that of a tobacco leaf. It may affect any part of the skin, but occurs principally on the head, face, neck, back and hind quarters. It is very contagious, and it may be transmitted from one species to another, and from animals to man. The affected parts should be carefully scraped and the crusts destroyed by burning; then the patches should be dressed with tincture, solution of copper sulphate or carbolic acid, or with oil of tar. 

VEETO (Lat. for "I forbid"), generally the right of preventing any act, or its actual prohibition; in public law, the constitutional right of the competent authority, or in republics of the whole people in their primary assembly, to protest against a legislative or administrative act, and to prevent wholly, or for the time being, the validation or execution of the same.

It is generally stated that this right was called into existence in the Roman republic by the tribunica potestas, because by this authority decisions of the senate, and of the consuls and other magistrates, could be declared inoperative. Such a statement must, however, be qualified by reference to the facts that interdicto, interdictum were the expressions used, and, in general, that in ancient Rome every holder of a magistracy would check a negative act with a collegial his equal in rank, by his opposition and intervention. This was a consequence of the position that each of the colleagues possessed the whole power of the magistracy, and this right of intervention must have come into existence with the introduction of collegial authorities, i.e. with the commencement of the republic. In the Roman magistracy a twofold power must be distinguished: the positive management of the affairs of the state entrusted to each individual, and the power of restraining the acts of magistrates of equal or inferior rank by his protest. As the tribunus plebis possessed this latter negative competence to a great extent, it is evident that the powers in question were derived from it.

In the former kingdom of Poland the precedent first set in 1632 was established by law as a constant right, that in the imperial diet a single deputy by his protest "Nie pozwalam," i.e. "I do not permit it," could invalidate the decision sanctioned by the other members. The king of France received the right of a suspensory veto at the commencement of the French Revolution, from the National Assembly sitting at Versailles in 1789, with regard to the decrees of the latter, which was only to be valid for the time being against the decisions contested and set on foot by a collegial his equal in rank, by his opposition and intervention. This was a consequence of the position that each of the colleagues possessed the whole power of the magistracy, and this right of intervention must have come into existence with the introduction of collegial authorities, i.e. with the commencement of the republic. In the Roman magistracy a twofold power must be distinguished: the positive management of the affairs of the state entrusted to each individual, and the power of restraining the acts of magistrates of equal or inferior rank by his protest. As the tribunus plebis possessed this latter negative competence to a great extent, it is evident that the powers in question were derived from it.

According to the constitution of the German empire of 1871, the imperial legislation is executed by the federal council and imperial diet; the emperor is not mentioned. In the federal council the simple majority of votes decides. But in the case of bills concerning the army, the navy and certain specially noted taxes, as well as in the case of decisions concerning the alteration of orders for the administration, and arrangements for the execution of the laws of customs and taxes, the proposal of the federal council is only accepted if the Prussian votes are on the side of the majority in favour of the same (art. vii., sect. 3). This was the case of the colonies and the army bill. But the state of things is, therefore, in fact, as follows: it is not the German emperor, but the same monarch as king of Prussia, who has the right of veto against bills and decisions of the federal council, and therefore can prevent the passing of an imperial law. The superior power of the presidential vote obtains, it is true, its influence only in one legislative body, but in reality it has the same effect as the veto of the head of the empire.

The Swiss federal constitution grants the president of the Confederation no superior position at all; neither he nor the other president is elected by the two houses of parliament. He is elected by the two houses of parliament for a period of three years. The state of things is, therefore, in fact, as follows: it is not the German emperor, but the same monarch as king of Prussia, who has the right of veto against bills and decisions of the federal council, and therefore can prevent the passing of an imperial law. The superior power of the presidential vote obtains, it is true, its influence only in one legislative body, but in reality it has the same effect as the veto of the head of the empire.

In the French republic the president has no veto strictly so called, but he has a power somewhat resembling it. He can, when a bill has passed both Chambers, by a message to them, refer it back for further deliberation. The king or queen of England has the right to withhold sanction from a bill passed by both houses of parliament. This royal prerogative has not been exercised since 1692 and may now be considered obsolete. The governor of an English colony with a representative legislature has the power of veto against a bill passed by the legislative body of the colony. In this case the bill is finally lost, just as a bill would be which had been rejected by the colonial council, or as a bill passed by the English houses of parliament would be if the crown were to exert the prerogative of refusing the royal assent. The governor may, however, without refusing his assent, reserve the bill for the consideration of the crown. In that case the bill does not come into force until it has actually or constructively received the royal assent, which is in effect the assent of the English ministry, and therefore indirectly of the imperial parliament. Thus the colonial liberty of legislation must, legally reconcilable with imperial sovereignty, and conflicts between colonial and imperial rights are prevented.

The constitution of the United States of America contains in art. i., sect. 7, par. 2, the following order:

"Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, if not, he shall return it with his objections to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of both houses shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. Every order, resolution or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representa-

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Notes:
Gustavus Vasa. At Alvastra, 16 m. S. again, are ruins of a Cistercian monastery of the 12th century. Close to Motala are some of the largest mechanical workshops in Sweden, building workshops, forges, smithies, bridges, &c.

**VETULONIA**, or **VETULONIA** (Etruscan *Vetuluna*), an ancient town of Etruria, Italy, the site of which is probably occupied by the modern village of Vetulonia, which up to 1889 bore the name of Colonna. It lies 1130 ft. above sea-level, about 10 m. direct N.W. of Grosseto, on the N.E. side of the hills which project from the flat Maremma and form the promontory of Castiglione. The place is little mentioned in ancient literature, though Silius Italicus tells us that it was hence that the Romans took their magistral insignia (fasces, curule chair, purple toga and brazen truncheons), and it was undoubtedly one of the twelve cities of Etruria. Its site was not identified before 1864, and the identification has been denied in various works by C. Dotto da Dei, who places it on the Poggio Castiglione near Massa Marittima, where scanty remains of buildings (possibly of city walls) have also been found. This site seems to agree better with the indications of medieval documents. But certainly an Etruscan city was situated on the hill of Colonna, where there are remains of city walls of massive limestone, in almost horizontal courses. The objects discovered in its extensive necropolis have, after having been excavated, are now preserved in the museums of Grosseto and Florence. The most important were surrounded by tumuli, which still form a prominent feature in the landscape.

**VEUILLOT, LOUIS** (1813-1883), French journalist and man of letters, was born of humble parents at Boyes (Loiret) on the 11th of October 1813. When Louis Veuillot was five years old his parents removed to Paris. After a very slight education he entered a lawyer's office, and was sent in 1830 to serve on a Rouen paper, and afterwards to Périgueux. He returned to Paris in 1837, and a year later visited Rome during Holy Week. There he embraced extravagant ultramontane sentiments, and was from that time an ardent champion of Catholicism.

The results of his conversion appeared in *Pelerinage en Suisse* (1839), *Rome et Lorette* (1841) and other works. In 1843 he entered the staff of the *Univers religieux*. His violent methods of journalism had already provoked more than one duel, and for his polemics against the university of Paris in the *Univers* he was imprisoned for a short time. In 1848 he became editor of the paper, which was suppressed in 1860, but revived in 1869, when Veuillot recommended his ultramontane brother, which brought about a second suppression of his journal in 1874. When his paper was suppressed Veuillot occupied himself in writing violent pamphlets directed against the moderate Catholics, the Second Empire and the Italian government. His services to the papal see were fully recognized by Pius IX., on whom he wrote (1878) a monograph. He died on the 7th of March 1883.

Some of his scattered papers were collected in *Mélanges religieux, historiques et littéraires* (12 vols., 1855-75), and his *Correspondance* (6 vols., 1883-85) has been published. Eugene Veuillot, published (1901-4) a comprehensive and valuable life, *Louis Veuillot*.

**VEVEY** [German *Viest*], a small town in the Swiss canton of Vaud and near the eastern extremity of the Lake of Geneva. It is by rail 12 m. S.E. of Lausanne or 33 m. N.W. of the Vernet-Montreux railway station, while it is well served by steamers plying over the Lake of Geneva. In 1900 it had a population of 7729, of whom 8878 were French-speaking, while there were 8277 Protestants to 3424 Romanists and 59 Jews. It was the second town in point of population in the canton, coming next after Lausanne, though inferior to the "agglomeration" known as Montreux. It stands at the mouth of the Veveyse and commands fine views of the snowy mountains seen over the glassy surface of the lake. The whole of the surrounding
country is covered with vineyards, which (with the entertainment of foreign visitors) occupy the inhabitants. Every twenty years or so (last in 1889 and 1903) the Fête des Vigneron is held here by an ancient gild of vinecoders, and attracts much attention. Besides a railway line that joins the Montreux-Bernese Oberland line at Chambéry (5 m. from Vevey and 1½ m. below Le Vers) there is a funicular railway from Vevey up the Mont Pèlerin (3557 ft.) to the north-west.

Vevey was a Roman settlement [Viviscus] and later formed part of the barony of Vaud, that was held by the counties and dukes of Savoy until 536, when it was conquered by Bern. In 798 it was freed from Bernese rule and became part of the canton du Léman (renamed canton de Vaud in 1803) of the Helvetic Republic.

**VEXILLUM** (Lat. dim. of *vexelum*, piece of cloth, sail, awning, or from *vexere*, *vectum*, to carry), the name for a small ensign consisting of a square cloth suspended from a cross-piece fixed to a spear. The *vexillum* was strictly the ensign of the maniple, as *signum* was of the cohort, but the term came to be used for all standards or ensigns other than the eagle (*aquila*) of the legion (see FLAC). Caesar (B.G. ii. 20) uses the phrase *vexillum prpopone de* the red flag hoisted over the general's tent as a signal for the march or battle. The standard-bearer of the maniple held a vexillarius and added to his way of the time a vexillum, *vexillum* and *vexillarius* had gained a new significance. Tacitus uses these terms frequently both of a body of soldiers serving apart from the legion under a separate standard, and also with the addition of some word implying connexion with a legion of those soldiers who, after serving sixteen years with the legion, continued their service, under their own *vexillum*, with the legion. The term is also used for the scarf wrapped round a bishop's pastoral staff (*q.v.*). Modern science has adopted the word for the web or veil of a feather of a bird and of the large feathers of the followers, such as the pea, whose corolla is shaped like a butterfly.

**VEXIÓ, or Wexió, a town and bishop's see of Sweden, capital of the district (län) of Kronoberg, 124 m. N.E. of Malmö by rail. Pop. (1900) 3765. It is pleasantly situated among low wooded hills at the north end of Lake Vexiō, and near the south end of Lake Helga. Its appearance is modern, for it was burnt in 1843. The cathedral of St Sigfrid dates from about 1300, but has been restored, the last time in 1868. The Småland Museum has antiquarian and numismatic collections, a library and a building of Linnæus. There are iron furnaces, and the town possesses a glass works &c. Osten, the easternmost town of the province, is without the town, the poet Essaién Tengnér died in 1846, and he is buried in the town cemetery. On the shore of Lake Helga is the royal estate of Kronoberg, and on an island in the lake the ruins of a former castle of the same name.

**VÉZELAY, a village of France, in the department of Yonne, 10 m. W.S.W. of Avallon by road. Its population, which was over 10,000 in the middle ages, was 754 in 1906. It is situated on the summit and slopes of a hill on the left bank of the Cure, and owes its renown to the Madeleine, one of the largest and most beautiful basilicas in France. The Madeleine dates from the 12th century and was skilfully restored by Viollet-le-Duc. It consists of a narthex, with nave and aisles; a triple nave, without triforium, entered from the narthex by three doorways; transepts; and a choir with triforium. The oldest portion of the church is the nave, constructed about 1125. Its groined vaulting is supported on wide, low, semicircular arches, and on piers and columns, the capitals of which are embellished with sculptures full of animation. The narthex was probably built about 1130. The central entrance, leading from it to the nave, as one of the most important features of the church; it consists of two doorways, and is surmounted by a tympanum carved with a representation of Christ bestowing the Holy Spirit upon His apostles. The choir and transepts are later in date than the rest of the church, which they surpass in height and grace of proportion. They resemble the eastern portion of the church of St Denis, and were doubtless built in place of a Romanesque choir damaged in a fire in 1165. A crypt beneath the choir is perhaps the relic of a previous Romanesque church which was destroyed by fire in 1120. The west façade of the Madeleine has three portals; that in the centre is divided by a pier and surmounted by a tympanum sculptured with a bas-relief of the Last Judgment. The upper portion of this front belongs to the 13th century. Only the lower portion of the northernmost of the two flanking towers is left, and of the two towers which formerly rose above the transept that to the north has disappeared. Of the other buildings of the abbey, there remains a chapter-house (13th century) adjoining the south transept. Most of the ramparts of the town, which have a circuit of over a mile, are still in existence. In Père-Louve, consisting of two massive towers flanking a gateway, is in good preservation. There are several interesting old houses, among them one in which Theodore of Beza was born. Of the old parish church, built in the 17th century, the clock-tower alone is left. A mile and a half from Vézelay, in the village of St Père-sous-Vézelay, there is a remarkable Burgundian Gothic church, built by the monks of Vézelay in the 15th century. The west façade, flanked on the north by a fine tower, is richly decorated; its lower portion is formed of a projecting porch surmounted by a balustrade. The church is continued below ground.

The history of Vézelay is bound up with its Benedictine abbey, which was founded in the 9th century under the influence of the abbey of Cluny. This dependence was soon shaken off by the younger monastery, and the acquisition of the relics of St Magdalen, soon after its foundation, began to attract crowds of pilgrims, whose presence enriched both the monks and the town which had grown up round the abbey and acknowledged its supremacy. At the beginning of the 13th century the excitations of the abbey Artau, who required money to defray the expense of the reconstruction of the church, and the refusal of the monks to grant political independence to the citizens, resulted in an insurrection in which the abbey was burnt and the abbots murdered. During the next fifty years three similar revolts occurred, fanned by the counts of Nevers, who wished to acquire the suzerainty over Vézelay for themselves. The monks were, however, aided by the influence both of the Pope and of Louis VII., and the towns- men were unsuccessful on each occasion. During the 12th century Vézelay was the scene of the preaching of the second crusade in 1146, and of the assumption of the cross in 1190 by Richard Coeur de Lion and Philip Augustus. The history of the abbey began to diminish in 1280 when the Benedictines of St Maximin in Provence affirmed that the true body of St Magdalen had been discovered in their church; its decline was precipitated during the wars of religion of the 16th century, when Vézelay suffered great hardships.

**VIANDEN, an ancient town in the grand duchy of Luxemburg, on the banks of the Our, close to the Prussian frontier. Pop. (1903) 2350. It possesses one of the oldest charters in Europe, granted early in the 14th century by Philip, count of Vianden, from whom the family of Nassau-Vianden sprang, and who was consequently the ancestor of William of Orange and Queen Wilhelmina of Holland. The semi-mythical foundress of this family was Bertha, "the White Lady" who figures in many German legends. The original name of Vianden was Viennensis or Viena, and its probable derivation is from the Celtic *Vien* (rock). The extensive ruins of the ancient castle stand on an eminence of the little town, but the chapel which forms part of it was restored in 1849 by Prince Henry of the Netherlands. The size and importance of this castle may be gauged from the fact that the Knights' Hall could accommodate five hundred men-at-arms. A remarkable feature of the chapel is an hexagonal hole in the centre of the floor, opening upon a bare subterranean dungeon. This has been regarded as an instance of the "double chapel," but it seems to have been constructed by order of the crusader Count Frederick II. on the model of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. In the neighbourhood of Vianden are other ruined castles, notably those of Stolzembourg and Falkenstein. The
VIANNA DO CASTELLO—VICAIRE

little town and its pleasant surroundings have been praised by many, among others by Victor Hugo, who resided here on several occasions. During his last visit he wrote his fine work

VIANNA DO CASTELLO, a seaport and the capital of the district of Viana do Castello, Portugal; at the mouth of the river Lima, which is here crossed by the iron bridge of the Oporto-Valença do Minho railway. Pop. (1900) 90,000. Viana do Castello has manufactures of lace and dairy produce. Its fisheries are important. Salmon and lampreys are exported, both fresh and preserved. The administrative district of Viana do Castello coincides with the northern part of the ancient province of Entre Minho e Douro. (q.v.). Pop. (1900) 212,267; area, 837 sq. m.

VIAREGGIO, a maritime town and sea-bathing resort of Tuscany, Italy, in the province of Lucca, on the Mediterranean, 13 m. N.W. of Pisa by rail, 7 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1900) 14,883 (town); 21,557 (commune). Being sheltered by dense pine-woods on the north, and its malaria having been banished by drainage, it is frequented as a winter resort, and in summer by some thousands for its sea-bathing. In 1740 the population was only 300, and in 1841, 6549. The majority of the inhabitants were fishermen, but after his death by drowning in 1822. The town possesses a school of navigation and a technical school, and carries on some shipbuilding.

VIATICUM (a Latin word meaning "provision for a journey"); Gr. τα ἀναμεμελήδεα, is often used by early Christian writers to denote the sacrament of the Eucharist, and is sometimes also applied to baptism. Ultimately it came to be employed in a restricted sense to denote the last communion given to the dying. The 13th council of the council of Nicaea is to the effect that "none, even of the lapsed, shall be deprived of the last and most necessary viaticum (viaticum), and the bishop is to give the obligation to all who desire to partake of the Eucharist on the point of death. The same principle still rules the canon law, it being of course understood that penitential discipline, which in ordinary circumstances would have been due for their offence, is to be undergone by lapsed persons who have thus received the viaticum, in the event of recovery. In extreme cases it is lawful to administer the viaticum to persons not fasting, and the same person may receive it frequently if his illness be prolonged. The ritual to be observed in its administration is that in which the bishop, or another priest, offers the communion of the sick, except in the words of the formula, which is "accipe, carissime frater (carissima soror), viaticum corposi nostri Jesu Christi, quod te custodiat ab hoste maligno, protecte te, et perducat te ad vitam aeternam. Amen." Afterwards the priest raises his fingers in a little water, which the communicant drinks. The viaticum is given before extreme unction, a reversal of the medieval practice due to the importance of receiving the Eucharist while the mind is still clear. In the early centuries the sick, like those in health, generally received both kinds, though there are instances of the viaticum being given under one form only, sometimes the bread and sometimes, where swallowing was difficult, the wine. In times of persecution laymen occasionally carried the viaticum to the sick, a practice that persisted into the 9th century, and deacons continued to do so even after the Council of Ancyra (near Lyons) in 900 restricted the function to priests.

VIBORG, a town of Denmark, capital of the amt (county) of its name, lying in the bleak midland district of Jutland, though the immediate situation, on the small Viborg lake, is picturesque. Pop. (1901) 8623. It has a station on the railway running east and west between Langaa and Vemb. The most notable building is the cathedral (1310-1690, restored 1862-1876). The Black Friars' church is of the 13th century, and the museum possesses specimens of the Stone, Bronze and Iron Ages, also mediaeval antiquities. The Borgevold Park borders the lake on the site of a former castle. The industries embrace distilleries, iron foundries and manufactures of cloth. The country to the south attains to a certain degree of beauty near Lake Hall, where the ground is slightly elevated.

VIBORG (Finnish Viipuri), capital of a province of the same name in Finland, is situated at the head of the Bay of Viborg in the Gulf of Finland, at the mouth of the Saima Canal and on the railway which connects St Petersburg with Helsingfors. Population of the town (1904) 44,672, of the province 458,260. The Saima Canal (37 m. long), a fine engineering work, connects with the sea Lake Saima—the principal lake of Finland, 240 ft. above sea-level—and a series of others, including Puruvesi, Orivesi, Höytlänen and Kallavesi, all of which are navigated by steamers, as far north as Iisalmi in 63° 36' N lat. Viborg is thus the seaport of Karelia and eastern Savolaks, with the towns of Viipuri and the former Finnish city of Viborg (1293), Mysliv (1269), Kupio (13519) and Iisalmi, with their numerous saw-mills and iron-works. Viborg stands most picturesqueon the glaciated and dome-shaped granite hills surrounding the bay, which is protected at its entrance by the naval station of Björkoo and at its head by several forts. The castle of Viborg, built in 1293 by Marshal Torkel Knutson, was the first centre for the spread of Christianity in Karelia, and for establishing the power of Sweden; it is now used as a prison. Its lofty and elegant tower has fallen into decay. The court-house (1839), the town-house, the gymnasia (1641); with an excellent library is a most ancient, and the new one (1904); the imperial grand of Pungaharu; the Imatra rapids, by which the Vuoksen discharges the water of Lake Saima into Lake Ladoga, with the castle of Kexholm at its mouth; Serdobol and Valamo monastery on Lake Ladoga—all visited from Viborg—attract many tourists from St Petersburg as well as from other parts of Finland.

VIBURNUM, in medicine, the dried bark of the black hawk or Viburnum prunifolium, grown in India and North America. The black hawk contains viburnin and valerianic, tannic, gallic, tartaric and malic acids. The British Pharmacopoeial preparation is the Expectorant from Viburnum, Prunifolium liquidum; the United States preparation is the fluid extract prepared from the Viburnum opulus. The physiological action of viburnum is to lower the blood pressure. In overdose it depresses the motor functions of the spinal cord and so produces loss of reflex and paralysis. Therapeutically the drug is used as an anti-spasmodic in dysmenorrhoea and in menorrhagia.

VICAIRE, LOUIS GABRIEL CHARLES (1848-1900), French poet, was born at Belfort on the 25th of January 1848. He served in the campaign of 1870, and then settled in Paris to practise at the bar, which, however, he soon abandoned for literature. His work was twice "crowned" by the Academy, and in 1892 he received the cross of the Legion of Honour. Born in the Vosges, and a Parisian by adoption, Vicaire remained all his life an enthusiastic lover of the country to which his family belonged—La Bresse—spending much of his time at Ambérieu. His freshest and best work is his Émaux bressans (1884), a volume of poems full of the gaiety and spirit of the old French chansons. Other volumes followed: Le Livre de la patrie, L'Heure enchantée (1896), À la bonne franquette (1897), Au bois joli (1892), and Le Clas des fées (1897). He wrote in collaboration with Jules Truffier two short pieces for the stage, Fleurs d'avril (1896) and La Force du mardi refoulée (1897); also the Miracle de Saint Nicolas (1888). With his friend Henri Beaulieu he produced a parody of the Decadents entitled Les Déliteusecques and signed Adoré Floupette. His fame rests on his Émaux bressans and on his Rabelaisian drinking songs; the religious and fairy poems.
VICAR—VICE-CHANCELLOR

Charming as they often are, carry simplicity to the verge of affectation. The poet died in Paris, after a long and painful illness, on the 23rd of September 1900.

See Henri Corbel, Un Poète, Gabriel Vicaire (1902).

VICAR (Lat. vicarius, substitute), a title, more especially ecclesiastical, describing various officials acting in some special way for a superior vicar-apostolic or vicar-general. The institution of vicarius is derived from the condition of an under-slave kept by another as part of his private property. The vicarius was an important official in the reorganized empire of Diocletian. It remained as a title of secular officials in the middle ages, being applied to persons appointed by the Roman emperor to judge cases in distant parts of the empire, or to wield power in certain districts, or, in the absence of the emperor, over the whole empire. The prefects of the city at Rome were called Vicarii Romae. In the early middle ages the term was applied to representatives of a count administering justice for him in the country or small towns and dealing with unimportant cases, levying taxes, &c. Monasteries and religious houses often employed a vicar to answer to their feudal lords for those of their lands which did not pass into mortmain.

The title of "vicar of Jesus Christ," borne by the popes, was introduced as their special designation during the 8th century, in place of the older style of "vicar of St Peter" (or vicarius principis apostolorum). In the early Church other bishops commonly described themselves as vicars of Christ (Du Cange gives an example as late as the 9th century from the capitularies of Charles the Bald); but there is no proof of their case, or indeed in that of "vicar of St Peter" given to the popes, that it was part of their formal style. The assumption of the style "vicar of Christ" by the popes coincided with a tendency on the part of the Roman chancery to insist on placing the pontiff's name before that of emperors and kings and to refuse to other bishops the right to add the latter to their names of the 10th century. (Mas Latrie, s.v. "Sabinien," p. 1047.) It was not till the 13th century that the alternative style "vicar of St Peter" was definitely forbidden, this prohibition thus coinciding with the extreme claims of the pope to rule the world as the immediate "vicar of God" (see INNOCENT III).

All bishops were looked upon as in some sort vicars of the pope, but the title vicarius sedis apostolicae came especially to be applied as an alternative to legatus sedis apostolicae to describe papal legates to whom in certain places the pope delegated a portion of his authority. Pope Benedict XIV. tells us in his treatise De synodo dioecesana that the pope often names vicars-apostolic for the government of a particular diocese because the episcopal see is vacant or, being filled, the titular bishop cannot fulfill his functions. The Roman Catholic Church in England was governed by vicars-apostolic from 1539 to 1559. When Pius IX. re-established the hierarchy, vicars-apostolic at the present day are nearly always titular bishops taking their titles from places not acknowledging allegiance to the Roman Catholic Church. The title is generally given by the pope to bishops sent on Eastern missions.

A neighbouring bishop was sometimes appointed by the pope vicar of a church which happened to be without a pastor. A special vicar was appointed by the pope to superintend the spiritual affairs of Rome and its suburbs, to visit its churches, monasteries, &c., and to correct abuses. It became early a custom for the prebendaries and canons of a cathedral to employ "priest-vicars" or "vicars-choral" as their substitutes when it was their turn to be dehdomedary to sing High Mass and conduct divine office. In the English Church these priest-vicars remain in the cathedrals of the old foundations as beneficed clergy on the foundation; in the cathedrals of the new foundation they are paid by the chapters. "Lay vicars" also were and are employed to sing those parts of the office which can be sung by laymen.

In the early Church the assistant bishops (choreepiscopi) were sometimes described as vicarii episcoporum. The employment of vicar-apostolic was no means general in the early Church but towards the 13th century it became very general for a bishop to employ a vicar-general, often to curb the growing authority of the archdeacons. In the middle ages there was not a very clear distinction drawn between the vicar and the official of the bishop. When the voluntary and contentious jurisdiction came to be distinguished, the former fell generally to the vicars, the latter to the officials. In the style of the Roman chancery, official documents are addressed to the bishops or their vicars for dioceses beyond the Alps, but for French dioceses to the bishops or their vicars-apostolic. The institution of vicar-general is to help the bishop is now general in the Catholic Church, but it is not certain that a bishop is obliged to have such an official. He may have two. Such a vicar possesses an ordinary and not a delegated jurisdiction, which he exercises like the bishop. He cannot, however, exercise functions which concern the episcopal order, or confer benefices without express and particular commission. In the Anglican Church a vicar-general is employed by the archbishop of Canterbury and some other bishops to assist in such matters as ecclesiastical visitations. In the Roman Catholic Church bishops sometimes appoint lesser vicars to exercise a more limited authority over a limited district. They are called "vicars-forane" or rural deans. They are entrusted especially with the surveillance of the parish priests and other priests of their districts, and with matters of ecclesiastical discipline. They are charged especially with the care of sick priests and in case of death with the celebration of their funerals and the charge of their vacant parishes. In canon law priests doing work in place of the parish priest are called vicars. Thus in France the curé or head priest in a parish church is assisted by several vicars.

Formerly, and especially in England, many churches were appropriated to monasteries or colleges of canons, whose custom it was to appoint one of their own body to perform divine service in such churches, but in the 19th century such corporations were obliged to appoint permanent paid vicars who were called perpetual vicars. Hence in England the distinction between rectors, who draw both the greater and lesser tithes, and vicars, who are attached to parishes of the greater tithes, formerly held by monasteries, are now drawn by lay rectors. (See APPROPRIATION.)

See Du Cange, Glossarium medice et infinio Latiniani, ed. L. Favre (Nîort, 1883, &c.); Migne, Encyclopédia theoligique, series i. vol. 10 (Droit Canon): Comte de Mas Latrè, Trésor de chronologie (Paris, 1889); and Sir R. J. Phillimore, Ecclesiastical Law of the Church of England (2d ed. 1893). (E. O’N.)

VICE. (1) (Through Fr. from Lat. vitium), a fault, blemish, more specifically a moral fault, hence depravity, sin, or a particular form of depravity. In the medieval morality plays a special character who acted as an attendant on the devil was styled the "Vice," but sometimes took the name of specific vice such as Envy, Fraud. Iniquity and the like. He was usually dressed in the garb that is identified with that of the domestic fool or jester, and was armed with a wooden sword or dagger. (2) (M.E. vise, vies or vye; Fr. vis; Lat. vitis, a vine, or bryony, i.e. something that twists or winds), a portable or fixed tool or appliance which holds or grips an object while it is being worked; a special form of clamp. The tool consists essentially of movable jaws, either joined by a hinge or moving on slides, and the closing motion is applied by a screw, whence the name, as of something which turns or winds, or by a lever, ratchet, &c. (see TOOLS). (3) (Lat. vicie, in place of, abl. sing. gen. not found in the nom.), a vicar usually used as a possessive in combination with names of office-holders, indicating a position subordinate or alternative to the chief office-holder, especially one who takes second rank or acts in default of his superior, e.g. vice-chairman, vice-admiral, &c.

VICE-CHANCELLOR, the deputy of a chancellor (q.v.). In the English legal system vice-chancellors in equity were formerly important officials. The first vice-chancellor was appointed in 1813 in order to lighten the work of the lord chancellor and the master of the rolls, who were at that time the sole judges in equity. Two additional vice-chancellors were appointed in 1841. The vice-chancellors sat separately from the lord chancellor and the lords justices, to whom there was an appeal from their decisions. By the Judicature Act 1873
they became judges of the High Court of Justice, retaining their titles, but it was enacted that on the death or retirement of any one his successor was to be styled "judge." Vice-chancellor Sir J. Bacon (1798-1853) was the last to hold the office, resigning in 1886.

Vice-chancellor is also the title given to the judge of the ducal court of Lancaster. For the vice-chancellor of a university, see Chancellor.

VICENTE, GIL (1470-1540), the father of the Portuguese drama, was born at Guimarães, but came to Lisbon in boyhood and studied jurisprudence at the university without taking a degree. In 1493 we find him acting as master of rhetoric to the duke of Beja, afterwards King Manoel, a post which gave him admission to the court; and the Cancioneiro Geral contains some early lyrics of his which show that he took part in the famous ares de paso. The birth of King John III. furnished the occasion for his first dramatic essay—The Neatherd's Monologue, which he recited on the night of the 7th-8th June 1502 in the queen's chamber in the presence of King Manoel and his court. It was written in Spanish out of compliment to the queen, a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, and because that language was then the fashionable medium with the higher classes. This manger-hymn, which was a novelty in Portugal, so pleased the king's mother, the infanta D. Beatriz, that she desired Gil Vicente to repeat it the following Christmas, but he composed instead the Castiliano Pastoral Auto, a more developed piece in which he introduced Portuguese society. The infanta, pleased again, required a further diversion for Twelfth Day, whereupon he produced the Auto of the Wise Kings. He had now established his reputation as a playwright, and for the next thirty years he entertained the courts of Kings Manoel and John III., accompanying them as they moved from place to place, and providing by his autos a distraction in times of calamity, and in times of rejoicing giving expression to the feelings of the people. Though himself both author and actor, Gil Vicente had no regular company of players, but it is probable that he easily found students and court servants willing to get up a part for a small fire, and occasionally run for more than one night. The Auto of the Sybil Cassandra (produced at the monastery of Euxorabgas at Christmas 1503), the Auto of St Martin (played in the church at Caldas on the feast of Corpus Christi 1504), and a mystery play, the Auto of the Four Seasons, all belong, like their predecessors, to the religious drama, but in 1505 Gil Vicente wrote a comedy of real life, Who has Bran to sell, a title given it by the public. It is a clever farce depicting an amorous poor squire and his ill-paid servant, and opens a rich portrait-gallery in which the dramatic artist intro due all classes of Portuguese society, depicting the failings of each with the freedom of a Rabelais. The next year saw no new play, but in 1506 Gil Vicente delivered before the court at Almeirim a sermon in verse on the theme Non volo, volo, et deficior, in which he protested against the intolerance shown to the Jews, just as in 1531 he interfered to prevent a massacre of the "New Christians" at Santarem. The Auto of the Soul, a Catholic prototype of Goethe's Faust, containing some beautiful lyrics, appeared in 1508, and in 1509 the Auto da India, a farce which has the earliest enterprise of his countrymen for background, while the Auto da Fama (1516) and the Exhortation to War (1513) are inspired by the achievements that made Portugal a world-power. If the farce of The Old Man of the Garden (1514) breathes the influence and spirit of the Celestina, the popular trilogy of the Beasts of Hell, Purgatory and Glory (1517, 1538, 1550) is at once a death of man, full of splendid pagentry and caustic irony, and a kind of Portuguese Divina Commedia. The Auto of the Fairies (1516), the Face of the Doctors (1530) and the Comedy of Rubens (1521) ridicule unchaste clerics and ignorant physicians with considerable freedom and a medieval coarseness of wit, and the Face of the Giants is interesting as the first piece of the European theatre dealing professedly with that race. Ligez Pereira, which was to be Gil Vicente's masterpiece, was produced in 1523 before King John III. at the convent of Christ at Tomar, and owed its origin to certain men of bom sober, perhaps envious partisans of the classical school. They pretended to doubt his authorship of the autos, and accordingly gave him as a theme for a fresh piece the proverb: "I prefer an ass that carries me to a horse that throws me." Gil Vicente accepted the challenge, and produced a triumphant reply to his detractors in this comedy of ready wit and lively dialogue, the Auto da Esperança (1526), the Forge of Love (1525) and The Beira Priest (1526) satirize the maladministration of justice by ignorant magistrates and the lax morals of the regular clergy, and the Face of the Muleteers (1526) dramatizes the type of poor nobleman described in Cleyhart's Letters. The Comedy of the Arms of the City of Coimbra (1527) has a considerable antiquarian interest, and the facetious Ship of Love is full of quaint imagery, while the lengthy Auto of the Fair (1537), with its twenty-two characters, may be described as at once an indictment of the society of the time and a protest against all that is strange and Christian and a telling appeal for the reform of the church. In this off-quoted romance, Rome personified comes to the booth of Mercury and Time, and offers her indulgences, saying, "Sell me the peace of heaven, since I have power here below"; but Mercury refuses, declaring that Rome absolves the whole world and never thinks of her own sins. The play concludes with a dance and hymn to the Blessed Virgin. The Triumph of Winter (1530) exposes the unskilful pilots and ignorant seamen who cause the loss of ships and lives on the route to India, and the Auto da Lustiania (1532) portrays the household of a poor Jewish tailor, ending with a curious fable about the fool and the three wise men. The Auto of the Pilgrimage of the Agrieved (1533) is an attack on discontent and ambition, lay and clerical. After representing the Auto da Festa for the Conde de Vímioso (1535), and dramatizing the romances of chivalry in D. Duarte's and Amadís de Gaula, Gil Vicente ended his dramatic career in 1536 with a mirthful comedy, The Garden of Deceptions. He spent the evening of life in preparing his works for the press at the instance of King John III., and died in 1540, his wife Branca Beixerra having predeceased him. Four children were born of their union, and among them Paula Vicente attained distinction as a member of the group of cultured women who formed a sort of female academy presided over by the infanta D. Maria.

The forty-four pieces comprising the theatre of Gil Vicente fall into the point of view of two groups: (1) those in Portuguese only, numbering fourteen; (2) those in Spanish only, numbering eleven; and (3) the bilingual, being the remainder, nineteen in all. They are also from their nature divisible as follows: a. Religious plays or of churchmen, which in the main are a development of the mystery or miracle play of the middle ages; and they may be subdivided into (1) Biblical pieces; (2) pieces connected with the history of the Portuguese kingdom. In this department Gil Vicente reaches his highest poetical flights, and the Auto of the Soul is a triumph of elevation of idea and feeling allied to beauty of expression. b. Aristocratic works, or tragedies, the composition of which was the result of his contact with the court; these, though often more spectacular than strictly dramatic, are remarkable for opulence of invention and sweetness of versification. c. The popular theatre, or comedies and farces. Gil Vicente's plays contain some evidence of his knowledge and appreciation of French poetry; e.g. The Beira Judge bears a general likeness to the products of the Clercs de la Basoche, and his Testa- dores and the Portuguese Paré des Fleurs are strongly reminiscent of François Villon. Most of the plays are written in the national redondilha verse, and are preceded by initial rubrics stating the date when, the place where, in whose presence, and on what occasion the play was performed, and these make up the annals of the first thirty-four years of the Portuguese drama. Most of them were put on the stage at the different royal palaces; some, however, were played in hospitals, and, I am told, of which the subjects are liturgical at the great festivals of Christmas, Epiphany and Maundy Thursday, others on the happening of some event of importance to the royal family or the state. Many of them contain episodes that are never set to music by the author, or collected by him from popular sources, while at the close the characters leave the stage singing and dancing, as was the custom in the medieval comedies.

The large number of plays in Spanish, they are all eminently national in idea, texture and subject. No other Portuguese writer reflects so faithfully the language, types, customs and colour of his age as Gil Vicente, and the rudest of his dramas are full of genuine comic feeling. If they never attain to perfect
VICENZA

art, they possess the supreme gift of life. None of them are, strictly speaking, historical, and he never attempted to write a tragedy. However, he was able to create the products of the classical theatre as did Sà de Miranda and Ferreira, but though he remained faithful to the Old or Spanish school in form, yet he had imbued the critical spirit and mental ferment of the Renaissance without its culture or erudition. Endowed by nature with acute observation and considerable powers of analysis, Gil Vicente possessed a felicity of phrase and an unmatched knowledge of popular superstitions and ceramic lore. Above all, he was a moralist, and as such he presented his heart and soul unmasked, without any of his inexcusable parade and ridicule as his main weapons; but if his inventive is often stinging it is rarely bitter, while more than one incident in his career shows that he pitied rather than hated the partiality of the age. In short, he was a great innovator, and, as Dr Garnett truly remarked, "One little corner of Europe alone possessed in the early 16th century a drama at once living, indigenous and admirable as literature."

Gil Vicente perhaps lacks psychological depth, but he possesses a breadth of mental vision and a critical acumen unknown in any national dramatist. In his attitude to religion he acts the spokesman of the better men of his age and country. A convinced but liberal-minded Catholic, he has no sympathy with attacks on the unity of the Church, but he cries out for a reform of morals, pillorying and igniting the popes, as well as those who are paddling the most bitter things of the popes and their court. He strove to take a middle course at a time when moderation was still possible, though, had he lived a few years longer, in the reign of religious persecution, he would have attempted to substitute for religious toleration, had he been able to, what he afterwards found, it not a worse fate. He is a great dramatist in embryo, who, if he had lived several years later, might, with his literary style, and expression, might with added culture have surpassed Calderon and taken his place as the Latin and Catholic rival of Shakespeare.

Some of the plays were printed in Gil Vicente's lifetime, but the first collected edition, which included his lyrics, was published after his death by his son Luiz (1562), with a dedication to King Sebastian. A second edition appeared in 1586, with various omissions and alterations made at the instance of the Inquisition. A critical edition of the text in 3 vols. came out at Hamburg (1834) with a glossary and introductory essay on Vicente's life and writings, and a poor reprint of this edition is dated Lisbon 1852. He has never found a translator, doubtless because of the difficulty of rendering his form and explaining his wealth of topical allusions.

AUTHORITIES.—Dr Theophilo Braga, Gu Vicente e as origens do teatro nacional (Oporto, 1868); J. J. de Brito Rebelo, Gil Vicente (Lisboa, 1902): "The Portuguese Dramas in the 16th Century—Gil Vicente," in the Manchester Quarterly (July and October 1897) introduction by the Conde de Sabugosa to his edition of the Auto de festa (Lisbon, 1890).

VICENZA, a town and episcopal see of Venetia, Italy, capital of the province of Vicenza, 42 m. W. of Venice by rail, 131 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 32,200 (town); 47,535 (commune). It lies at the northern base of the Monti Berici, on level ground, with a river in the town called the Bacchiglione. It was surrounded by 13th century walls, once about 3 m. in circumference, but these are now in great part demolished. Though many of the streets are narrow and irregular, the town has a number of fine buildings, many of them the work of Andrea Palladio. The best of these is the town hall, otherwise known as the basilica, one of the finest works of the Renaissance period, of which Palladio himself said that it might stand comparison with any similar work of antiquity. It is especially noteworthy owing to the difficulty of the task the architect had to accomplish. In the mirror, standing against the Bacchiglione della Ragione, a Gothic building of the latter half of the 15th century, which the colonnades of the basilica entirely enclose. It was begun in 1449, but not finished till 1614, long after his death. He also designed many of the fine palaces which give Vicenza its individuality; only two of them, the Barbarano and Chierici palaces (the latter containing the picture gallery), have two orders of architecture, the rest having a heavy rustic basis with only one order above it. Many palaces, however, have been wrongly attributed to him which are really the work of Scamozzi. This last work he claims for himself, and the Olimpico was begun by him, but only finished after his death; it is a remarkable attempt to construct a theatre in the ancient style, and the stage, with the representation of streets ascending at the back, is curious. The cathedral, which is Italian Gothic, dating mainly from the 13th century, consists of a nave with eight chapels on each side, and a very high Renaissance domed choir; it contains examples of the Montagnas and of Lorenzo da Venezia. The churches of S. Lorenzo (1280-1344) and S. Corona (1260-1300), both of brick, are better examples of Porto Sagredo's style. In 1549, Palladio published his second book on architecture (Architettura universale, 1615). Palladio inaugurated a school of followers who continued to erect similar buildings in Vicenza even down to the French Revolution.

(See V. G. Pettinà, Vicenza (Bergamo, 1905).)

(T. A.)
VICEROY—VICKSBURG

VICEROY (from O. Fr. viceroy, mod. vœro, i.e. Lat. vicere, in place of, and rey or roi, king), the governor of a kingdom or colony to whom is delegated by his sovereign the power to exercise regal authority in his name. The lord-lieutenant of Ireland and the governor-general of India are frequently referred to as viceroys, but the title has no official recognition in British government.

VICH, a city of north-eastern Spain, in the province of Barcelona, on the river Guri, a small right-hand tributary of the Ter, and on the Granollers-Ripoll railway. Pop. (1900) 11,628. Vich is an ancient episcopal city, with narrow, ill-paved streets and many curious old houses irregularly built on the slope of a hill, which rises above one of the side valleys of the Ter basin. The cathedral, founded about 1400 and built chiefly in the 14th century, was to some extent modernized in 1883. Its Gothic choisters (1340) are remarkable for the tasteful tracery in their windows, and there is a fine altar of sculptured marble. Some valuable manuscripts are preserved in the library of the chapter-house, and the museum contains an interesting archaeological collection, besides statuary, pictures, &c. The city is locally celebrated for the manufacture of sausages; other industries include tanning and the weaving of linen and woollen fabrics.

Vich, the Ausa of the ancient geographers, was the chief town of the Ausetani; in the middle ages it was called Ausona and Vicus Ausonensis, hence Vie de Osona, and simply Vich. Vich was a military station of considerable importance in the time of the Romans. It afterwards lost its celebrity and did not regain it till the 17th century, in the latter half of which they were visited and written of by Madame de Sévigné. Within the city or in its immediate vicinity there are between thirty and forty springs, twelve of which are state property, four of these having been tapped by boring. The waters of those which are in the town are drawn by means of aqueducts. The most celebrated and frequented are the Grande Grille, L'Hôpital, the Célestins, and Lardy. The most copious of all, the Puits Carré, is reserved for the baths. All these, whether cold or hot (maximum temperature, 113°F.), are largely charged with bicarbonate of soda; some also are chalybeate and tonic. The waters, which are limpid, have an alkaline taste and emit a slight odour of sulphuretted hydrogen. They are recommended in cases of stomachic and liver complaint, also for diabetes, gravel and gout. Large quantities are bottled and exported. A luxurious bathing establishment, the property of the state, was opened in 1901, and it has since been overwhelmed by the demand for water. The waters of Vich have the hydropathic establishments of Lardy, Larbaud and L'Hôpital, and a large military hospital, founded in 1843. A fine casino and two public parks add to its attraction. The promenade commands a splendid view of the mountains of Auvergne. Gusset, about 1 m. distant, has similar mineral waters and a bathing establishment.

VICKSBURG, a city and the county-seat of Warren county, Mississippi, U.S.A., on the Mississippi and Yazoo rivers, 44 m. by rail W. of Jackson, and 336 m. N. by W. of New Orleans. Pop. (1900) 13,373; (1906) 14,534, of whom 8147 were negroes; (1910 census) 20,814, making it the second largest city in Mississippi. It is served by the Alabama & Vicksburg, the Vicksburg, Shreveport & Pacific, and the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley railways, and by steamboat lines. It is built among the Walnut Hills, which rise about 260 ft. above the river. Among the principal buildings and institutions are the court-house, standing on one of the highest hills, a fine Federal building, the city hall, a state charity hospital, an infirmary, a sanatorium, a public library, the medical college of the university of Mississippi, All Saints' Episcopal College (Protestant Episcopal, 1909) for girls, Saint Francis Xavier's Academy, and Saint Aloysius College (Roman Catholic). The Civil War battle-ground has been converted into a beautiful National Military Park comprising 185 acres, and containing numerous markers, memorials and monuments, including one (1910) to Lieut.-General Stephen Dill Lee, who was superintendent of the Military Park from 1899 until his death in 1908. On the bluffs just beyond the northern limits of the city and adjoining the Military Park is the Vicksburg National Cemetery, in which are the graves of 16,802 Federal soldiers (12,760 unknown). The principal industry of Vicksburg is the construction and repair of rolling stock for steam railways. It has also a dry dock and cotton compresses; and among its manufactures are cottonseed oil and cake, hardwood lumber, furniture, boxes and baskets. In 1905 the factory products were valued at $1,887,924. The city has a large trade in long-staple cotton grown in the surrounding country. It is a port of entry but has practically no foreign trade.

The French built Fort St Peter near the site of Vicksburg early in the 18th century, and on the 2nd of January 1730 its garrison was murdered by the Yasso Indians. As early as 1783 the Spanish erected Fort Nogales, and in 1798 this was taken by some United States troops and renamed Fort McHenry. The first permanent settlement in the vicinity was made about 1811 by Rev. Newell (or Nestell) Vick (d. 1840), a Methodist preacher. In accordance with his will a town was laid out in 1824, and Vicksburg was incorporated as a town in 1825, and was chartered as a city in 1836. The campaigns of which it was the centre in 1862 and 1863 are described below. Vicksburg was the home of Seargent Smith Prentiss from 1832 to 1845.


Campaign of 1862—63.—Vicksburg is historically famous as being the centre of interest of one of the most important campaigns of the Civil War. The command of the Mississippi, which would imply the severance of the Confederacy into two halves, and also the reopening of free commercial navigation from St Louis to the sea, was one of the principal objects of the Western Union armies from the time that they began their southward advance from Illinois, Missouri and Kentucky in February 1862. A series of victories in the spring and summer carried them as far as the line Memphis—Corinth, but in the autumn they came to a standstill and were called back to the Chesapeake. These armies were accompanied by a flotilla of thinly armed but powerful gunboats which had been built on the upper Mississippi in the autumn of 1861, and had co-operated with the army at Fort Donelson, Shiloh and Island No. 10, besides winning a victory on the water at Memphis. At the same time a squadron of sea-going vessels under Flag-officer Farragut had forced the defences of New Orleans (q.v.) and, accompanied by a very small military force, had steamed up the great river. On reaching Vicksburg the heavy vessels again forced their way past the batteries, but both Vicksburg and at Port Hudson they had to deal no longer with low-sited fortifications, but with inconspicuous earthworks on bluffs far above the river-level, and they failed to make any impression. Farragut then returned to New Orleans. From Helena to Port Hudson the Confederates maintained complete control of the Mississippi, the improvised fortresses of Vicksburg, Port Hudson and Arkansas Post (near the mouth of Arkansas river) being the framework of the defence. It was to be the task of Grant's army around Corinth and the flotilla at Memphis to break up this system of defences, and, by joining hands with Farragut and clearing the whole course of the Mississippi, to cut the Confederacy in half.

The long and painful operations by which this was achieved group themselves into four episodes: (a) the Grenada expedition

1 The channel of the Mississippi has changed greatly: until 1876 the entire city was on the Mississippi, which made a bend forming a tongue of land opposite the city; in 1876 the river cut across this tongue and formed an island, making the northern part of the city front on the shallow "Lake Centennial." The Federal government, by turning the Yazoo through a canal across the upper end of the channel, gave the city a river front once more.
of Grant's force, (b) the river column under McClelhand and Sherman, (c) the operations in the bayous, and (d) the final "overland" campaign from Grand Gulf. The country in which these operations took place divides itself sharply into two zones, the upland east of the river, upon which it looks down from high bluffs, and the levels west of it, which are a maze of bayous, backwaters and side channels; the intervening land being kept dry near the river itself by artificial banks (levese) but elsewhere swampy. At Vicksburg, it is important to observe, the bluffs trend away from the Mississippi to follow the course of the Yazoo, rejoining the great river at Memphis. Thus there are two obvious lines of advance for the Northern army, on the upland (Memphis and Grand Junction on Grenada-Jackson), and downstream through the bayou country (Memphis-Helena-Vicksburg). The main army of the defenders, who were commanded by Lieut.-General J. C. Pemberton, between Vicksburg and Jackson and Grenada, could front either north against an advance by Grenada or west along the bluffs above and below Vicksburg.

Retreating from the upland, Grant sailed down the river and joined McCleland and Sherman at Miliken's Bend at the beginning of February, and, superseding the resentful McCleland, assumed command of the three corps (XIII., McCleland; XV., Sherman; XVII., McPherson) available. He had already imagined the daring solution of his most difficult problem which he afterwards put into execution, but for the present he tried a series of less risky expedients to reach the high ground beyond Pemberton's bluffs, without indeed much confidence in their success, yet desirous in these unhealthy flats of keeping up the spirits of his army by active work, and of avoiding, at a crisis in the fortunes of the war, any appearance of discouragement. Three such attempts were made in all, with the co-operation of the flotilla under Captain David D. Porter. First, Grant endeavoured to cut a canal across the bend of the Mississippi at Vicksburg, hoping thus to isolate the fortress, to gain a water connection with the lower river, and to land an army on the bluffs beyond Pemberton's left flank. This was unsuccessful. Next he tried to make a practicable channel from the Mississippi to the upper Yazoo, and so to turn Pemberton's right, but the Confederates, warned in time, constructed a fort at the point where Grant's advance emerged from the bayous. Lastly, an advance through a maze of creeks (Steele's Bayou expedition), towards the middle Yazoo and Haines's Bluff, encountered the enemy, not on the bluffs, but in the low-lying woods and islands, and these so harassed and delayed the progress of the expedition that Grant recalled it. Shortly afterwards Grant determined on the manœuvre in rear of Vicksburg which established his reputation. The troops marched overland from Milliken's Bend to New Carthage, and on the 16th of April Porter's gunboat flotilla and the transports ran past the Vicksburg batteries. All this, which involved careful arrangement and hard work, was done by the 24th of April. General Banks, with a Union army from New Orleans, was now advancing up the river to invest Port Hudson, and by way of diverting attention from the Mississippi, a cavalry brigade under Benjamin Grierson rode from La Grange to Baton Rouge (600 m. in 16 days), destroying railways and magazines and cutting the telegraph
wires en route. Sherman's XV. corps, too, made vigorous demonstrations at Haines's Bluff, and in the confusion and uncertainty Pemberton was at a loss.

On the 30th of April McClernand and the XIII. corps crossed the Mississippi 8 m. below Grand Gulf, followed by McPherson. The nearest Confederate brigades, attempting to oppose the advance at Port Gibson, were driven back. Grant had now deliberately placed himself in the middle of the enemy, and although he had no natural strength of position, other than what was gained by the movement of his barges carrying his supplies from Milliken's Bend to New Carthage, his long line of supply curving round the enemy's flank was very exposed. But his resolute purpose outweighed all text-book strategy. Having crossed the Mississippi, he collected wheeled transport for five days' rations, and on Sherman's arrival cut loose from his base altogether (May 27th). Free to move, he aimed north from the Big Black river, so as to interpose between the Confederate forces at Vicksburg and those at Jackson. A fight took place at Raymond on the 12th of May, and Jackson was captured just in time to forestall the arrival of reinforcements for Pemberton under General Joseph E. Johnston. The latter, being in supreme command of the Confederates, ordered Pemberton to come out of Vicksburg and attack Grant. But Pemberton did not so until it was too late. On May 16th Grant, with all his forces well in hand, defeated him in the battle of Champion Hill with a loss of nearly 4000 men, and sharply pursuing him drove him into Vicksburg. By the 19th of May Vicksburg and Pemberton's army in it was invested by land and water. Grant promptly assailed his works, but was repulsed with loss (May 19th); the assault was repeated on the 22nd of May, with the same result, and Grant found himself compelled to retreat to a blockade. Reinforcements were hurried up from all quarters, Johnston's force (east of Jackson), was held off by a covering corps under Blair (afterwards under Sherman), and though another unsuccessful assault was made on the 25th of June, resistance was almost at an end. On the 4th of July, the day after, far away in Pennsylvania, the great battle of Gettysburg had closed with Lee's defeat, the garrison of Vicksburg, 37,000 strong, surrendered.

**VICO**

**GIOVANNI BATTISTA** (1668-1744), Italian jurist and philosopher, was born at Naples on the 23rd of June 1668. At the university he made rapid progress, especially in jurisprudence, though preferring the study of history, literature, juridical science and philosophy. Being appointed tutor to the nephews of the bishop of Ischia, G. B. Rocca, he accompanied them to the castle of Vatolla, near Cilento, in the province of Salerno. There he passed nine studious years, chiefly devoted to classical reading. Plato and Tacitus being his favourite authors, because "the former described the ideal man, and the latter man as he really is." On his return to Naples he found himself out of touch with the prevailing Cartesianism, and lived quietly until in 1697 he gained the professorship of rhetoric at the university, with a scanty stipend of 100 scudi. On this he supported a growing family and gave himself to untiring study. Two authors exercised a weighty influence on his mind—Francis Bacon and Grotius. He was no follower of their ideas, indeed often opposed to them; but he derived from Bacon an increasing stimulus towards the investigation of certain great problems of history and philosophy, while Grotius proved valuable in his study of philosophic jurisprudence. In 1708 he published his *De ratione studiorum*, in 1710 *De antiquissima Italorum sapientia, in 1730 De universi juris uno principio et fine uno, and in 1721 De constancia jurisprudent.* Of the first, preferring the study of history, literature, and science to the study of philosophy, he was a candidate for the university chair of jurisprudence, but as he had no personal or family influence was not elected. With calm courage he returned to his poverty and his favourite studies, and in 1725 published the first edition of the work that forms the basis of his renown, *Principii d una sciencia nuova.* In 1730 he produced a second edition of the *Sciencia nuova*, so much altered in style and with so many substantial additions that it was practically a new work. In 1735 Charles III. of Naples marked his recognition of Vico's merits by appointing him historiographer-royal, with a yearly stipend of 100 ducats. Soon after his mind began to give way, but during frequent intervals of lucidity he made new corrections in his great work, of which a third edition appeared in 1744, prefaced by a letter of dedication to Cardinal Trojano Acquaviva. He died on the 20th of January of the same year. Fate seemed to be pursuing him to the last. A fierce quarrel arose over his burial between the brotherhood of the Dominicans to which he had belonged, and the university professors, who desired to escort his corpse to the grave. Finally the canons of the cathedral, together with the professors, buried the body in the church of the Gerolimini.

Vico has been generally described as a solitary soul, out of harmony with the average of his time. But a much closer study of his works shows him to have been thoroughly in touch with them. Owing to the historical past of Naples, and its social and economic condition at the end of the 17th century, the only study that really flourished there was that of law; and this soon penetrated from the courts to the university, and was raised to the level of a science. A great school of jurisprudence was thus formed, including many men of vast learning and great ability, although little known outside their immediate surroundings. Three men, however, obtained a place of some distinction. By disposing of his not unformidable kingdom, based on a study of its laws and institutions and of the legal conflicts between the state and the court of Rome, Pietro Giannone was the initiator of what has been since known as civil law. Giovanni Venuti was distinguished for his apologetic work, especially distinguished for its accuracy and elegance. Vico raised the problem to a higher plane, by tracing the origin of law in the human mind and explaining the historical changes of the one by those of the other. Thus he made the original study of ideas which constitute the modern psychologico-historic method. This problem he proceeded to develop in various works, until in his *Saggio* he arrived at a somewhat complete solution, which may be formulated as follows: If the principle of justice and law be one, eternal and immutable, why should there be so many different codes of legislation? These differences are not caused by difference in the essence of the things, but only by the diverse conception of people, even in that of the Romans. This problem is touched upon in his *Gratissi Inaugural Addresses (Orazioni o Prologhi) and in his Minor Works (Scritti minori).* Finally he applied himself to his solution in his *Universal Lane (Diserbo universale),* which is divided into two books. The first of these, *De uno et universi juris principio et fine uno,* was subdivided into two parts; so like wise was the second, with the respective titles of *De constanza philologica et De constanta jurisprudentia.*

The following is the general idea derived from these researches. Vico held God to be the ruler of the world of nations, but ruling, so to speak, providentially and not absolutely. This is a doctrine, which is ascribed tomiracles, but as He rules nature, by means of natural laws. If, therefore, the physicist seeks to discover the laws of nature by study of natural phenomena, so the philosopher must effectual changes of the human events and of the human mind. According to Vico, law emanates from the conscience of mankind, in whom God has infused a sentiment of justice. A sentiment in which human events and the operations of the human mind, and participates in its changes. This sentiment of justice is at first confused, uncertain and almost instinctive— is, as it were, a divine and religious inspiration instilled by Heaven in the primitive tribes of the earth. It is an unconscious, universal sentiment, not the personal, conscious and rational sentiment of the superior few. Hence the law to which it gives birth is enwrapped in religious forms which are likewise visible and palpable, inasmuch as primitive laws are uninculcated, abstract, philosophical ideas. This law is not the individual work of any philosophical legislator, for no man was, or could be, a legislator at that time. It is first displayed in human nature, and naturally crystallizes into laws or works of history, and is not given as a revealed code, but is the result of collective, in the formation of the conscious mind, and participates in its changes. The names of leading legislators, which we so often find recorded in the history of primitive peoples, are symbols and myths, merely serving to mark an historic period or epoch by some definite and regular terminations, or to distinguish a tribe from another tribes, were then distinguished by personal names only. The first obscure and confused conception of law gradually becomes clearer and better defined. Its visible and religious character is at first retained but slowly replaced by the rational manifestation of the philosophic principles of law that gains the victory in the final stage of development, designated by Vico as that of civil and religious law. This work has been divided into three periods—

1. *De uno et universi juris principio et fine uno,* subdivided into two parts; the first of which being called *Universal Lane (Diserbo universale),* which is divided into two books. The first of these, *De uno et universi juris principio et fine uno,* was subdivided into two parts; so like wise was the second, with the respective titles of *De constanza philologica et De constanta jurisprudentia.*
philosophic law of the third period is assuredly very different in form from the primitive law; but in substance it may be said to have laid the foundation of that more perfect form of justice and the just principle which was vaguely felt in primitive times. Hence one development of law may be easily traced from the other, as the stream may be traced by observing the direction of the current. Vico was able to discover a single and enduring principle (De universi juris una principi et fide uno). On these grounds it has been sought to establish a close relation between Vico and Grotius. The latter clearly shows that there was a sequence between him and Vico. Especially of interest is the fact that, in the treatment of primitive nations and a natural law based on a general and unchanging principle of human nature, and therefore obligatory upon all. But Vico will not have it that the history of law is divisible into two periods. He at least implied that the two are not distinct by reason of their origin, and therefore must be considered as existing in two parallel lines. But Vico maintained that the one was continually progressing towards the other, positive law showing an increasing tendency to draw nearer to natural and rational law. Hence the conception that law is of necessity a spontaneous birth, the creation of any individual legislator; and hence the idea that it necessarily proceeds by a natural and logical process of evolution, constituting its history. Vico may have derived from Comenius the idea of natural law; but his discovery of the historic evolution of law was first suggested to him by his study of Roman law. He saw that the history of Roman jurisprudence was a continuous progress, that the same process may be said to have been followed by those nations and a natural law based on a general and unchanging principle of human nature, and therefore obligatory upon all. The Tables of the Romans, having once been conceived from this point of view, becomes a new element in the history of law, that is, a new element that is not only a model of all ancient Roman law, but a model of all natural law. This principle, as we have seen, is a principle of advance, keeping pace with the progress of civilization, towards the philosophic and natural law founded on the principles of natural law.

As already stated, the Scienza nuova appeared in three different editions. The third may be disregarded; but the first and second editions are almost distinct works. In the former the author sets forth the analytical process by which the laws he discovered were deduced from facts. In the second he not only enlarges his matter and gives multiplied applications of his ideas, but also follows the theory of a priori, that is, the first extinction of the laws that had been discovered and then proving them by the facts to which they are applied. In this edition the fragmentary and jerky arrangement, the intricate style, and a peculiar and often purely conventional terminology seriously checked the diffusion of the work, which accordingly was little studied in Italy and remained almost unknown to the rest of Europe. Its fundamental idea consists in that which Vico, in his peculiar terminology, style "poetic wisdom" (sapientia poe"tica) and occult wisdom (sapiencia riptata), and in the historical process by which the one is merged in the other. He frequently declares that this discovery was the result of a night of intellectual inspiration. Vico was the first thinker who asked, Why have we a science of nature, but no science of history? Because our glance can easily be turned outwards and survey the exterior world; but it is for hard thinking to turn inward and comprehend the being of the spirit. All our errors in explaining the origin of human society arise from our obstinacy in believing that primitive man was entirely similar to ourselves, and that we can judge and live in the same possession of the spirit. We must learn to issue from ourselves, transport ourselves back to other times, and become children again in order to comprehend the infancy of the human race. As in children, imagination and the senses prevailed in those men of the past. They had no abstract ideas; in their minds all was concrete, visible and tangible. All the phenomena, forces and laws of nature, together with mental conceptions, were alike personified. To suppose that all mental conceptions are fables invented by the philosophers is to write history backwards and confound the instinctive, impersonal, poetic wisdom of the primitive age, with the civil wisdom of our own day. But how can we explain the formation of this poetic wisdom, which, albeit the work of ignorant men, has so deep and intrinsic a philosophic value? The only possible reply is that already given when treating of the origin of law. Providence has instilled into the heart of man a sentiment of justice and goodness, of beauty and of truth, that is manifested differently at different times. If we look within us, constituting the inner life, we shall find that poetic wisdom is already present. He does not confine himself to the facts of history into assured reality. For Vico psychology and history were the two poles of the new world he discovered. After having analyzed the system of God's world, he passed on to this world, and showing that the poetical and occult emanation of the human conscience, is almost the product of divine inspiration. From this, by the aid of civilization, reason and philosophy, there is gradually developed the civil, occult wisdom. The continual, slow and laborious process from the one to the other is the law which really constitutes history, and man becomes civilized by reasons which are derived from the possession of all that in poetic wisdom remained imper- unal, unconscious, that came, as it were, from without by divine afflatus. The religion of primitive peoples is no less mythical than their history, since they could only conceive of it by means of myths. On these lines he interprets the whole history of primitive Rome. One book speaks of it as a "noble, tender, poetic, and eloquent dream." It is a "discovery of the True Homer." Why all the cities of Greece dispute the honour of being his birthplace is because the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey" are the key epics of an era. And yet there is the true creation of the Greek people which is in every city of Greece. And because the primitive peoples are unconscious and self-ignorant Homer is represented as being blind. In all parts of history in the age of poetry, Vico holds that the greatest and most profound method, and arrives at safer conclusions. This is the case in Roman history, especially in such portions as related to the history of all races. Here he sometimes attains, even in details, to divisions of the truth afterwards confirmed by new documents and later research. The aristocratic origin of Rome, the struggle between the patricians and the plebeians, the laws of the XII. Tables, not, as tradition has it, imported from Greece, but the natural and spontaneous product of ancient Roman customs, and many other similar theories were discovered by Vico, and expounded with his usual originality, though not always without blunders and exaggerations. Having thus formulated his idea, he made it more general in order to apply it to the history of all nations. From the savage state, through the terror that gives birth to religions, through the creation of the human mind, through the increase in the number of nations, and then the advance of knowledge, he led mankind from the dawn of time to the birth of law. As we witness the growth of the human mind, he was led into increased error by this artificial and arbitrary effort.

It has been justly observed by many that this continuous cyclical movement entirely excludes the progress of humanity towards a better state. It is true, it is not possible; but then it is not true, without being identical, and that, if one might differ from another, the idea of progress was not necessarily excluded by the law of cycles. Vico undoubtedly considered the poetic wisdom of the Middle Ages to be different from that of the Greeks and Romans, and Christianity to be very superior to the pagan religion. But he never investigated the question whether, since there is a law of progressive evolution in the history of different nations, separately examined, there may not likewise be another law ruling the general history of these nations, every one of which must have represented one phase of the world, and of which the laws are divided, according to the periods, into different and independent systems. It is true, although the Scienza nuova cannot be said absolutely to deny the law of progress, it must be allowed that Vico not only failed to solve the problem but even shrank from attacking it.

Vico founded no school, and though during his lifetime and for a while after his death he had many admirers both in Naples and the northern cities, his fame and name were soon obscured, especially as the Kantian system dominated the world of thought. At the present day, however, the name of Vico has been restored to the Italian intellectual world. The Milan called attention to the merits of their great countryman, and his reinstatement was completed by Michelet, who in 1857 translated the Scienza nuova into French. Vico's writings suffer through their author's not having followed a regular course of studies, and his style is very involved. He was a deeply religious man, but his exposition of Jewish origins from the poetic point of view is as important as his other works, due to the conditions of his age, which preceded the dawn of Semitic investigation and regarded the Old Testament and the Hebrew religion as sui generis.

Victor I. was bishop of Rome from about 190 to 198. He submitted to the opinion of the episcopate in the various parts of Christendom the divergence between the Easter usage of Rome and that of the bishops of Asia. The bishops, particularly St Ireneus of Lyons, declared themselves in favour of the usage of Rome, but refused to associate themselves with the excommunication pronounced by Victor against their Asiatic colleagues. At Rome Victor excommunicated Theodotus of Byzantium on account of his doctrine as to the person of Christ. St Jerome attributes to Victor some episcula in Latin, which are believed to be in certain apocryphal treatises of St Cyprian.

Victor II., the successor of Leo IX., was consecrated in St Peter's, Rome, on the 13th of April 1055. His father was a Swabian baron, Count Hartwig von Calw, and his own baptismal name was Gebhard. At the instance of Gebhard, bishop of Regensburg, uncle of the emperor Henry III., he had been appointed while still a young man to the see of Eichstätt; in this position his great talents soon enabled him to render important services to Henry, whose chief adviser he undoubtedly became. His nomination to the papacy by Henry, at Mainz, in September 1056, was made at the instance of a Roman deputation headed by Hildebrand, whose policy doubtless was to detach from the imperial interest one of its ablest supporters. In June 1055 Victor met the emperor at Florence, and held a council, which anew condemned clerical marriages, simony and the alienation of the estates of the church. In the following year he was summoned to Germany to the side of the emperor, and was with him when he died at Botfeld in the Harz on the 5th of October 1056. As guardian of Henry's infant son, and adviser of the empress Agnes, Victor now wielded enormous influence, which to a great degree was due to the maintenance of peace throughout the empire and for strengthening the papacy against the aggressions of the barons. He died shortly after his return to Italy, at Arezzo, on the 28th of July 1057. His successor was Stephen IX. (Frederick of Lorraine).

Victor III. (Dauferius Epifani), pope from the 24th of May 1056 to the 16th of September 1057, was the successor of Gregory VII. He was a son of Landolfo V., prince of Benevento, and was born in 1027. After studying in various monasteries he became provost at St Benedict at Capua, and in 1055 obtained permission from Victor II. to enter the cloister at Monte Cassino, changing his name to Desiderius. He succeeded Stephen IX. as abbot in 1057, and his rule marks the golden age of that celebrated monastery; he promoted literary activity, and established an important school of mosaic. Desiderius was created cardinal priest of Sta Cecilia by Nicholas II. in 1059, and as papal vicar in south Italy conducted frequent negotiations between the Normans and the pope. Among the four men suggested by Gregory VII. on his death-bed as most worthy to succeed him was Desiderius, who was favoured by the cardinals because of his connection with the Normans and his diplomatic ability. The abbot, however, declined the papal crown, and the year 1058 passed without an election. The cardinals at length proclaimed him pope against his will on the 24th of May 1058, but he was driven from Rome by imperialists before his consecration was complete, and, laying aside the papal insignia at Terracina, he retired to his beloved monastery. As vicar of the Holy See he convened a synod at Capua on the 7th of March 1057, resumed the papal insignia on the 21st of March, and received tardy consecration at Rome on the 9th of May. Owing to the presence of the antipope, Clement III. (Guibert of Ravenna), who had powerful partisans, his stay at Rome was brief. He sent an army to Tunis, which defeated the Saracens and compelled the sultan to pay tribute to the papal see. In August 1057 he held a synod at Benevento, which renewed the excommunication of Guibert; banned Archbishop Hugo of Lyons and Abbot Ricard of Marseilles as schismatics; and confirmed the prohibition of lay investiture. Falling ill at the synod, Vicar returned to Monte Cassino, where he died on the 16th of September 1057. He was buried at the monastery and is accounted a saint by the Benedictine order. His successor was Urban II.

Victor III., while abbot of Monte Cassino contributed personally to the literary activity of the monastery. He wrote Dialogi de miraculis S. Benedicti, which, along with his Epistolae, are printed by P. Migne, Patrol. Lat. vol. 149, and an account of the miracles of Leo IX. (In Acta Sanctorum, 19th of April). The chief sources for his life are the "Chronica monasterii Cassinensis," in the Mon. Germ. hist. Script. vii., and the Vita in P. Migne, Patrol. Lat. vol. 149, and in J. M. Watterich, Pontif. Roman. Vite.


Victor IV. was a title taken by two antipopes. (1) Gregorio Conti, cardinal priest of Santi Dodi Apostoli, was chosen by a party opposed to Innocent II. in succession to the antipope Anacletus II., on the 15th of March 1138, but through the influence of Bernard of Clairvaux he was induced to make his submission on the 29th of May. (2) Octavian, count of Tusculum and cardinal deacon of St Nicola in carcere Tulliano, the Ghibelline antipope, was elected at Rome on the 7th of September 1159, in opposition to Alexander III., and supported by the emperor Frederick Barbarossa. Consecrated at Farfa on the 4th of October, Victor was the first of the series of antipopes supported by Frederick against Alexander III. Though the excommunication of Frederick by Alexander in March 1160 made only a slight impression in Germany, this pope was nevertheless able to gain the support of the rest of western Europe, because since the days of Hildebrand the pope of the day was in the fullest sense the 'man of the hour. In the fourteenth century the kings of France and of England could not view with indifference a revival of such imperial control of the papacy as had been exercised by the emperor Henry III. He died at Lucca on the 20th of April 1164 and was succeeded by the antipope Paschal III. (1164-1168).

See M. Meyer, Die Wahl Alexanders III. und Victor IV. 1159 (Göttingen, 1871); and A. Hauck, Kirchengeschichte Deutschlands, Band iv. (C. H. Ha.)

VICTOR, GAUDIUS JULIUS (4th cent. a.d.), Roman writer on rhetoric, possibly of Gallic origin. His extant manual (in C. Halm's Rhetores Latini Minores, 1863) is of some importance as facilitating the textual criticism of Quintilian, whom he closely follows in many places.

VICTOR, SEXTUS AURELIUS, prefect of Pannonia about 360 (Amm. Marc. xxi. 10), possibly the same as the consul (jointly with Valentinian) in 373 and as the prefect of the city who is mentioned in an inscription of the time of Theodosius. Four small historical works have been ascribed to him on more or less doubtful grounds—(1) Orig. Gentis Romanae, (2) De Viribus Illustribus Roman, (3) De Caesaribus, (4) De Vita & Moribus Imperatorum Romanorum excerpta ex Libris Sex. Aur. Victoris. The four have generally been published together under the name Historia Romana, but the fourth piece is a retouched of the third. The first piece was first printed at Naples about 1472, in 40, under the name of Pliny (the younger), and the fourth at Strassburg in 1505.

The first edition of all four was that of A. Schottus (Flo, Antwerp, 1579). The most recent edition of De Caesaribus is by F. Pichlmayr (Münich, 1892).
VICTOR AMEDEUS II.—VICTOR EMMAUUEL II.

VICTOR AMEDEUS II. (1666-1732), duke of Savoy and first king of Sardinia, was the son of Duke Charles Emmanuel II. and Jeanne de Savoie-Nemours. Born at Turin, he lost his father in 1675, and spent his youth under the regency of his mother, known as “Madame Reale” (madame royale), an able but ambitious and overbearing woman. He assumed the reins of government at the age of sixteen, and married Princess Anne, daughter of Philip of Orleans and Henrietta of England, and niece of Louis XIV., king of France. That sovereign was determined to dominate the young duke of Savoy, who from the first set against the monarch’s insolent bearing. In 1685 Victor was forced by Louis to persecute his Waldensian subjects, because they had given shelter to the French Huguenot refugees after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. With the unwelcome help of a French army under Marshal Catatin, he invaded the Waldensian valleys, and after a difficult campaign, characterized by great cruelty, he subjugated them. Nevertheless, he became more anxious than ever to emancipate himself from French thraldom, and his first sign of independence was given in 1688, when he adhered to the Protestant faction at Turin, and in 1689, where he conferred on political affairs with Prince Eugène of Savoy and other personages, without consulting Louis. About this time the duke plunged into a whirl of dissipation, and chose the beautiful but unscrupulous Contessa di Verrua as his mistress, neglecting his faithful and devoted wife. Louis having discovered Victor’s intrigues with the emperor, tried to precipitate hostilities by demanding his participation in a second expedition against the Waldensians. The duke unwillingly complied, but when the French entered Piedmont and demanded the cession of the fortresses of Turin and Verrua, he refused, and while still professing to negotiate with Louis, joined the league of Austria, Spain and Venice. War was declared in 1690, but at the battle of Staffarda (18th of August 1691), Victor, in spite of his great courage and skill, was defeated by the French under Catatin. Other reverses followed, but the attack on Cuneo was heroically repulsed by the citizens. The war dragged on with varying success, until the severe defeat of the allies at Marsiglia and their selfish neglect of Victor’s interests induced him to open negotiations with France once more. Louis agreed to restore most of the fortresses he had captured and to make other concessions; a treaty was signed in 1696, and Victor appointed generalissimo of the Franco-Piedmontese forces in Italy operating against the imperialists. By the treaty of Ryswick (1697) a general peace was concluded. On the outbreak of the war of the Spanish Succession in 1700 the duke was again on the French side, but the insolence of Louis and of Philip V. of Spain towards him induced him, at the end of the two years for which he had bound himself to them, to go over to the imperialists (1704). At first the French were successful and captured several Piedmontese fortresses, but after besieging Turin, which was skilfully defended by the duke, for several months, they were completely defeated by Victor and Prince Eugène of Savoy (1706), and eventually driven out of the other towns they had captured. By the peace of Utrecht (1713) the Powers conferred the kingdom of Sicily on Victor Amedeus, whose government proved efficient and at first popular. But after a brief stay in the island he returned to Piedmont and left his new possessions to a viceroy, which caused much discontent among the Sicilians; and when the Quadruple Alliance decreed in 1718 that Sicily should be restored to Spain, Victor was unable to offer any opposition, and had to content himself with receiving Sardinia in exchange.

The last years of Victor Amedeus’s life were saddened by domestic troubles. In 1715 his eldest son died, and in 1728 he lost his queen. After her death, much against the advice of his remaining son and heir, Carlino (afterwards Charles Emmanuel III.), he married the Contessa di San Sebastiano, whom he created Marchesa di Spigno, abdicated the crown and retired to Chambéry to end his days (1730). But his second wife, an ambitious intrigante, soon tired of her quiet life, and induced him to return to the court and resume the crown, which he became in 1731.

This led to a quarrel with his son, who with quite unnecessary harshness, partly due to his minister the Marchési d’Ormea, arrested his father and confined him at Rivoli and later at Moncalieri; there Victor, overwhelmed with sorrow, died on the 31st of October 1732.

Victor Amedeus, although accused not without reason of bad faith in his diplomatic dealings and of cruelty, was undoubtedly a great soldier and a still greater administrator. He not only won for his country a high place in the council of nations, but he doubled its revenues and increased its prosperity and industries, and also emphasized its character as an Italian state. His infidelity to his wife and his harshness towards his son Carlino are blemishes on a splendid career, but he more than expiated these faults by his tragic end.

See D. Carutti, Storia del Regno di Vittorio Amedeo II. (Turin, 1886); and E. Parri, Vittorio Amedeo II. ed Eugenio di Savoia (Milan, 1888). The Romance of Italy (London, 1905), is based on original authorities, and is the most complete monograph on the subject.

VICTOR EMMAUUEL II. (1820-1878), king of Sardinia and first king of Italy, was born at Turin on the 14th of March 1820, and was the son of Charles Albert. He once married a Marchesa di Carignano, who became king of Sardinia in 1821. Brought up in the bigoted and chilling atmosphere of the Piedmontese court, he received a rigid military and religious training, but little intellectual education. In 1842 he was married to Adelaide, daughter of the Austrian Archduke Rainer, as the king desired at that time to improve his relations with Austria. The young couple led a somewhat dreary life, hidebound by court etiquette, which Victor Emmanuel hated. He played no part in politics during his father’s lifetime, but took an active interest in military matters. When the war with Austria broke out in 1848, he was delighted at the prospect of distinguishing himself, and was given the command of a division. At Goito he was slightly wounded and displayed great bravery, and after Custozza defended the rearguard to the last (25th of July 1848). In the campaign of March 1849 he commanded the same division. After the disastrous defeat at Novara on the 23rd of March, Charles Albert, having rejected the peace terms offered by the Austrian field-marshall Radetzky, abdicated in favour of his son, and withdrew to a monastery in Portugal, where he died a few months later. Victor Emmanuel repaired to Radetzky’s camp, where he was received with every sign of respect, and the field-marshall offered not only to waive the claim that Austria should occupy a part of Piedmont, but to give him an extension of territory, provided he revoked the constitution and substituted the old blue Piedmontese flag for the Italian tricolour, which savoured too much of revolution. But although the young king had not yet sworn to observe the charter, and in any case the other Italian princes had all violated their constitutional promises, he rejected the offer. Consequently he had to face the temporary Austrian occupation of the territory comprised within the Po, the Sesia and the Ticino, and of half the citadel of Alessandria, to disband his Lombard, Polish and Hungarian volunteers, and to withdraw his fleet from the Adriatic; but he secured an amnesty for all the Lombards compromised in the recent revolution, having even threatened to go to war again if they were not granted. It was the maintenance of the constitution in the face of the overwhelming tide of reaction that established his position as the champion of Italian freedom and earned him the sobriquet of Re Galantuomo (the honest king). But the task entrusted to him was a most difficult one: the army disorganized, the treasury empty, the people despondent if not actively disloyal, and he himself reviled, misunderstood, and, like his father, accused of treachery. Parliament having rejected the peace treaty, the king dissolved the assembly; in the famous proclamation from Moncalieri he appealed to the people’s loyalty, and the new Chamber ratified the treaty (9th of January 1850). This same year, Cavour (q.v.) was appointed minister of agriculture in D’Azeglio’s cabinet, and in 1852, after the fall of the Ricasoli ministry, became his successor in the post which with brief interruptions he held until his death.

In having Cavour as his chief adviser Victor Emmanuel was
most fortunate, and but for that statesman's astounding diplomatic genius the liberation of Italy would have been impossible. The years from 1829 to 1859 were devoted to restoring the shattered finances of Sardinia, reorganizing the army and modernizing the antiquated institutions of the kingdom. Among other reforms the abolition of the foro ecclesiastico (privileged ecclesiastical courts) brought down a storm of hostility from the Church both on the king and on Cavour, but the latter remained unshaken. He was in command of the civil power. When the Crimean War broke out, the king strongly supported Cavour in the proposal that Piedmont should join France and England against Russia so as to secure a place in the councils of the great Powers and establish a claim on them for eventual assistance in Italian affairs (1854). The following year Victor Emmanuel was stricken with a threefold family misfortune; for his mother, the Queen Dowager Maria Teresa, his wife, Queen Adelaide, and his brother Ferdinand, duke of Genoa, died within a few weeks of each other. The clerical party were not slow to point this circumstance out to the king, who, for the sake of his policies, usually remained princely calm even in the face of heavy disaster. At the end of 1855, while the allied troops were still in the East, Victor Emmanuel visited Paris and London, where he was warmly welcomed by the emperor Napoleon III. and Queen Victoria, as well as by the peoples of the two countries.

Victor Emmanuel's object now was the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy and the expansion of Piedmont into a North Italian kingdom, but he did not regard the idea of Italian unity as coming within the sphere of practical politics for the time being, although a movement to that end was already beginning to gain ground. He was in command of the military, as well as of some of the conspirators, especially with La Farina, the leader of the Società Nazionale, an association the object of which was to unite Italy under the king of Sardinia, and he even communicated with Mazzini and the republicans, both in Italy and abroad, whenever he thought that they could help in the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy. In 1859 Cavour's diplomacy succeeded in drawing Napoleon III. into an alliance against Austria, although the king had to agree to the cession of Savoy and possibly of Nice and to the marriage of his daughter Clothilde to Prince Napoleon. These conditions were judged by the king for what they deemed his sacrilegious policy. At the end of 1855, while the allied troops were still in the East, Victor Emmanuel visited Paris and London, where he was warmly welcomed by the emperor Napoleon III. and Queen Victoria, as well as by the peoples of the two countries.

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which served to embitter Austro-Italian relations. On the 9th of January 1878, Victor Emmanuel died of fever in Rome, and was buried in the Pantheon. He was succeeded by his son Humbert.

Bluff, hearty, good-natured and simple in his habits, yet he always had a high idea of his own kingly dignity, and his really statesmanlike qualities often surprised foreign diplomats, who were deceived by his homely exterior. As a soldier he was very brave, but he did not show great qualities as a military leader in the campaign of 1866. He was a keen sportsman and would spend many days at a time pursuing chamois or steinbock in the Alpine fastnesses of Piedmont with nothing but bread and cheese to eat. He always used the dialect of Piedmont when conversing with natives of that country, and he had a vast fund of humorous anecdotes and proverbs with which to illustrate his arguments. He had a great weakness for female society, and kept several mistresses; one of them, the beautiful Rosa Vercellone, he created Countess Mirafiore e Fontanafreda and married morganatically in 1869; she bore him a son.

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**VICTOR EMMANUEL III.** (1869–), king of Italy, son of King Humbert I. and Queen Margherita of Savoy, was born at Naples on the 11th of November 1869. Carefully educated by his mother and under the direction of Colonel Osio, he owed his elementary education to his mother and his military and horsemanship and military exercises. Entering the army at an early age he passed through the various grades and, soon after attaining his majority, was appointed to the command of the Florence Army Corps. During frequent journeys to Germany he enlarged his military experience, and upon his appointment to the command of the Naples Army Corps in 1896 displayed sound military and administrative capacity. A keen huntsman, and passionate fond of the sea, he extended his yachting and hunting excursions as far east as Syria and as far north as Spitsbergen. As representative of King Humbert II. he attended the coronation of Tsar Nicholas II. in 1896, the Victorian Jubilee celebrations of 1897, and the festivities connected with the coming of age of the German crown prince in 1900. The prince's intellectual and artistic leanings were well known; in particular, he has made a magnificent collection of historic Italian coins, on which subject he became a recognized authority. At the time of the assassination of his father, King Humbert (the 29th of July 1900), he was returning from a yachting cruise in the eastern Mediterranean. Landing at Reggio di Calabria he hastened to Monza, where he conducted with firmness and tact the preparations for the burial of King Humbert and for his own formal accession, which took place on the 9th and 11th of August 1900. On the 24th of October 1896 he married Princess Elena of Montenegro, who, on the 1st of June 1901, bore him a daughter named Yolanda Margherita, on the 10th of November 1902 a second daughter named Mafalda, and on the 15th of September 1904 a son, Prince Humbert.

**VICTORIA [ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA].** Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India (1819–1901), only child of Edward, duke of Kent, fourth son of King George III., and of Princess Victoria Mary Louisa of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (widow of Prince Emich Karl of Leiningen, by whom she already had two children), was born at Kensington Palace on the 24th of May 1819. The duke and duchess of Kent had been living at Amorbach, in Franconia, owing to their strained circumstances, but they returned to London on purpose that their child should be born in England. In 1817 the death of Princess Charlotte (only child of the prince regent, afterwards George IV., and of the Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, afterwards king of the Belgians), had left the ultimate succession to the throne of England. In the younger generation, so uncertain that the three unmarried sons of George III., the dukes of Clarence (afterwards William IV.), Kent and Cambridge, all married in the following year, the two elder on the same day. All three had children, but the duke of Clarence's two baby daughters died in infancy, in 1819 and 1821; and the duke of Cambridge's son George, born on the 26th of March 1819, was only two months old when the birth of the duke of Kent's daughter put her before him in the line of succession. As to what name the child should bear was not settled without bickerings. The duke of Kent wished her to be christened Elizabeth, and the prince regent wanted Georgiana, while the tsar Alexander I., who had promised to stand sponsor, stipulated for Alexandrina. The baptism was performed in a drawing-room of Kensington Palace on the 24th of June by Dr Manners Sutton, archbishop of Canterbury. The prince regent, who was present, named the child Alexandrina; then, being requested by the duke of Kent to give a second name, he said, rather abruptly, "Let her be called Victoria, after her mother, but this name must come after the other." Six weeks after her christening the princess was vaccinated, this being the first occasion on which a member of the royal family underwent the operation.

In January 1820 the duke of Kent died, five days before his brother succeeded to the throne as George IV. The widowed duchess of Kent was now a woman of thirty-four, handsome, homely, a German at heart, and with little liking for English ways. But she was a woman of experience, and shrewd; and fortunately she had a safe and affectionate adviser in her brother, Prince Leopold of Coburg, afterwards (1831) king of the Belgians, who as the husband of the late Princess Charlotte had been a most able and experienced regent of the young prince.

Besides the general works on Italy and Savoy see V. Bersezio, _Il Regno di Vittorio Emanuele II._ (8 vols., Turin, 1869); G. Massari, _La Vita ed il Regno di Vittorio Emanuele II._ (2 vols., Milan, 1878); N. Bianchi, _Storia della Diplomatica Europea in Italia_ (8 vols., Turin, 1865). (L. V.)

In August 1831, in a discussion in parliament upon a grant of £10,000 to the widow of King William IV. of £6000 to Princess Charlotte and £4000 to Elizabeth as “more accordant to the feelings of the people”; and the idea of a change seems to have been powerfully supported. In 1836 William IV. approved of a proposal to change it to Charlotte; but, to the princess's own delight, it was given up.

The question of her name, as that of one who was to be queen, remained even up to her accession to the throne a much-debated one. In August 1831, in a discussion in parliament upon a grant of £10,000 to the widow of King William IV. of £6000 to Princess Charlotte and £4000 to Elizabeth as “more accordant to the feelings of the people”; and the idea of a change seems to have been powerfully supported. In 1836 William IV. approved of a proposal to change it to Charlotte; but, to the princess's own delight, it was given up.
by her first husband, and she became teacher to the Princess Victoria when the latter was five years old. George IV. in 1827 made her a baroness of Hanover, and she continued as lady-in-
attendance after the death of Northumberland was appointed official governess in 1830, but actually performed the functions first of governess and then of private secretary till 1842, when she left the court and returned to Germany, where she died in 1870. The Rev. George Davys, afterwards bishop of Peter-
borough, taught the princess Latin; Mr. J. B. Sale, music;
Mr Westall, history; and Mr Thomas Steward, the writing
master of Westminster School, instructed her in penmanship.
In 1830 George IV. died, and the duke of York (George III.'s second son) having died childless in 1827, the duke of Clarence became king as William IV. Princess Victoria now became the direct heir to the throne. William IV. cherished affectionate feelings towards his niece; unfortunately he took offence at the death of Kent for declining to let her child come and live at his court for several months in each year, and through the whole of his reign there was strife between the two; and Prince Leopold was no longer in England to act as peacemaker.
In the early hours of the 20th of June 1837, William IV. died. His thoughts had dwelt often on his niece, and he repeatedly said that he was sure she would be "a good woman and a good
queen. It will touch every sailor's heart to have a girl queen to fight for. They'll be tattooing her face on their arms, and I'll be bound they'll all think she was christened after Nelson's
ship." Dr Howley, archbishop of Canterbury, and the marquis of Conyngham, bearing the news of the king's death, started in a hired coach for Windsor Victoria, which was reached at five o'clock. Their servants rang, knocked and thumped; and when at last admittance was gained, the prince and the marquis were shown into a lower room and there left to wait. Presently a maid appeared and said that the Princess Victoria was "in a sweet sleep and could not be disturbed." Dr Howley, who was nothing if not pompous, answered that he had come on state business, to which everything, even sleep, must give place. The princess was accordingly roused, and quickly came downstairs in a dressing-gown, her fair hair flowing loose over her shoulders. Her own account of this interview, written the same day in her journal (Letters, i. p. 97), shows her to have been quite prepared.
The privy council assembled at Kensington in the morning; and the usual oaths were administered to the queen by Lord Chancellor Cottenham, after which all present did homage. There was a touching incident when the queen's uncles, the dukes of Cumberland and Sussex, two old men, came forward to perform their obsequies. The queen blushed, and descending from her throne, kissed them both, without allowing them to kneel. By the death of William IV., the duke of Cumberland had become King Ernest of Hanover, and immediately after the ceremony he made haste to reach his kingdom. Had Queen Victoria died without issue, this prince, who was arrogant, ill-tempered and rash, would have become king of Great
Britain; and, as nothing but mischief could have resulted from this, the young queen's life became very precious in the sight of her people. She, of course, retained the late king's ministers in their offices, and it was under Lord Melbourne's direction that the privy council drew up their declaration to the kingdom. This document described the queen as Alexandra Victoria, and all the peers who subscribed the role in the House of Lords on the 20th of June swore allegiance to her under those names. It was not till the following day that the sovereign's style was altered to Victoria simply, and this necessitated the issuing of a new declaration and a re-signing of the peers' role. The public proclamation of the queen took place on the 21st at St James's Palace with great pomp.
The queen opened her first parliament in person, and in a well-written speech, which she read with much feeling, adver-
ted to her youth and to the necessity which existed for her being guided by enlightened advisers. When both houses had voted loyal addresses, the question of the Civil List was considered, and a week or two later a message was brought to parliament requesting an increase of the grant formerly made to the duchess of Kent. Government recommended an addition of £30,000 a year, which was voted, and before the close of the year a Civil
List Bill was passed, settling £38,500 a year on the queen.
The duchess of Kent and her brothers, King Leopold and the
duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, had always hoped to arrange that the queen should marry her cousin, Albert (p.r.) of Saxe-Coburg.
and the prince himself had been made acquainted with this plan from his earliest years. In 1836 Prince Albert, who was born in the same year as his future wife, had come on a visit to England with his father and with his brother, Prince Ernest, and his handsome face, gentle disposition and playful humour had produced a favourable impression on the princess. The
duchess of Kent had communicated her projects to Lord Mel-
bourne, and they were known to many other statesmen, and to persons in society; but the gossip of drawing-rooms during the years 1837-38 continually represented that the young queen
had fallen in love with Prince This or Lord That, and the more imaginative habiters hinted at post-chaises waiting outside Ken-
sington Gardens in the night, private marriages and so forth.
The coronation took place on the 28th of June 1838. No more touching ceremony of the kind had ever been performed in Westminster Abbey. Anne was a middle-aged married woman at the time of her coronation; she waddled and wheezed, and made no majestic appearance upon her throne. Mary was odious to her Protestant subjects, Eliza-
tho to those of the unformed religion, and both these queens succeeded to the crown in times of general sadness; but the
queenVictoria had no enemies except a few Chartists, and the land was peaceful and prosperous when she began to reign over it. The cost of George IV.'s coronation amounted to £240,000; that of William IV. had amounted to £50,000 only; and in asking £70,000 the government had judged that things could be done with suitable luxury, but without waste. The
traditional banquet in Westminster Hall, with the throwing down of the glove by the king's champion in armour, had been dispensed with at the coronation of William IV., and it was
not resolved to revive it. But it was arranged that the sove-
reign's procession to the abbey through the streets should be
the finer show than on previous occasions; and it drew to
London 400,000 country visitors. Three ambassadors for different reasons became objects of great interest on the occasion. Marshal Soulit, Wellington's old foe, received a hearty popular welcome as a military hero; Prince Esterhazy, who represented Austria, dazzled society by his Magyar uniform, which was encircled all over, even to the boots, with pearls and diamonds; while the Turkish ambassador, Sarim Efendi, caused much diversion by his bewilderment. He was so wonder-struck that he could not walk to his place of seating as if he had lost his senses, and kept muttering, "All this for a woman?"
Within a year the court was brought into sudden disfavour with the country by two events of unequal importance, but both exciting. The first was the case of Lady Flora Hastings.
In February 1839 this young lady, a daughter of the
marquis of Hastings, and a maid of honour to the
duchess of Kent, was accused by certain ladies of the
bedchamber of immoral conduct. The charge having been laid before Lord Melbourne, he communicated it to Sir James
Clark, the queen's physician, and the result was that Lady Flora
was subjected to the indignity of a medical examination, which
while it cleared her character, seriously affected her health.
In fact, she died in the following July, and it was then discovered
that the physical appearances which first provoked suspicion
against her had been due to enlargement of the liver. The
queen's conduct towards Lady Flora was kind and sisterly
from the beginning to the end of this painful business; but the scandal was made public through some indignant letters which the marchioness of Hastings addressed to Lord Melbourne
praying for the punishment of her daughter's traducers, and the
general opinion was that Lady Flora had been grossly treated at the instigation of some private court enemies. While the agitation about the affair was yet unappeased, the political
crisis known as the "Bedchamber Plot" occurred. The Whig ministry had introduced a bill suspending the Constitution of Jamaica because the Assembly in that colony had refused to adopt the Prisons Act passed by the Imperial Legislature. Sir Robert Peel made an amendment, which, on a division (6th May), was defeated by a majority of five only in a house of 383, and ministers thereupon resigned. The duke of Wellington was first sent for, but he advised that the task of forming an administration should be entrusted to Sir Robert Peel. Sir Robert was ready to form a cabinet in which the duke of Wellington, Lords Lyndhurst, Aberdeen and Stanley, and Sir James Graham would have served; but he stipulated that the mistress of the bedchamber, the Marchioness ofدنwick-Nairn, should be allowed to have a prominent position in the Whig administration should be removed, and to this the queen would not consent. On the 10th of May she wrote curtly that the course proposed by Sir Robert Peel was contrary to usage and repugnant to her feelings; the Tory leader then had to inform the House of Commons that, having failed to obtain the proof which he desired of her majesty's confidence, it was impossible for him to accept office. The ladies of the bedchamber were so unpopular in consequence of their behaviour to Lady Flora Hastings that the public took alarm at the notion that the queen might be fallen into the hands of an intriguing coterie; and Lord Melbourne, who was anxious about the strength of court favour, resumed office with diminished prestige. The Tories thus felt aggrieved; and the Chartists were so prompt to make political capital out of the affair that large numbers were added to their ranks. On the 14th of June Mr Attwood, M.P. for Birmingham, presented to the House of Commons a Chartist petition alleged to have been signed by 1,280,000 people. It was a cylinder of parchment of about the diameter of a coach-wheel, and was literally rolled up on the floor of the house. On the day after this curious document had furnished both amusement and uneasiness to the Commons, the coterie of the women, whose name as Sophia Elizabeth Guelph Sims, made application at the Mansion House for advice and assistance to prove herself the lawful child of George IV. and Mrs Fitzherbert; and this incident, trumpery as it was, added fuel to the disloyal flame then raging. Going in state to Ascot the queen was hissed by some ladies as her carriage drove on to the course, and two peeresses, one of them a Tory duchess, were openly accused of this unseemly act. Meanwhile some monster Chartist demonstrations were being organized, and they commenced on the 4th of July. At Birmingham, it was an unmixed coincidence that Lady Flora Hastings died on the 5th of July, for though she repeated on her deathbed, and wished it to be published, that the queen had taken no part whatever in the proceedings which had shortened her life, it was remarked that the ladies who were believed to have persecuted her still retained the sovereign's favour. The riots at Birmingham lasted ten days, and had to be put down by armed force. They were followed by others at Newcastle, Manchester, Bolton, Chester and Macclesfield.

This troubled events had the effect of hastening the queen's marriage. Lord Melbourne ascertained that the queen's drop in popularity and the change in her disposition towards her cousin, Prince Albert, were both unalterable, and he advised King Leopold, through M. van der Weyer, the Belgian minister, that the prince should come to England and press his suit. The prince arrived with his brother on a visit to Windsor on the 10th of October 1839. On the 12th the queen wrote to King Leopold:

"Albert's beauty is most striking, and he is so amiable and unaffected—in short, very fascinating." On the 17th all was settled; and the queen wrote to her uncle, "I love him more than words can express." The queen's public announcement of her betrothal was enthusiastically received. But the rule on end was still in force, and still had some parliamentary mortifications to undergo. The government proposed that Prince Albert should receive an annuity of £50,000, but an amendment of Colonel Slithorpe—a politician of no great repute—for making the annuity £50,000 was carried against ministers by 262 votes to 158, the Tories and Radicals going into the same lobby, and many ministerialists taking no part in the division. Prince Albert had not been described, in the queen's declaration to the privy council, as a Protestant prince; and Lord Palmerston was obliged to ask Baron Stockmar for assurance that Prince Albert did not belong to any sect of Protestants whose rules might prevent him from taking the Sacrament according to the ritual of the English Church. He got an answer couched in somewhat ironical terms to the effect that Protestantism owed its existence in a measure to the house of Saxony, from which the prince descended, seeing that this house and that of the landgrave of Hesse had stood quite alone against Europe in upholding Luther and his cause. Even after this certain High Churchmen held that a Lutheran was a "disserter," and that the prince should be asked to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles.

The queen was particularly concerned by the question of the prince's future status as an Englishman. It was impracticable for him to receive the title of king consort; but the queen naturally desired that her husband should be placed by act of parliament in a position which would secure to him precedence, not only in England, but in foreign courts. Lord Melbourne sought to effect this by a clause introduced in a naturalization bill; but he found himself obliged to drop the clause, and to leave the queen to confer what precedence she pleased by her own act. The proposal was not without difficulty, for the queen could only confer precedence within her own realms, whereas an act of parliament bestowing the title of prince consort would have made the prince's right to rank above all royal imperial highnesses quite clear, and would have left no room for such disputes as afterwards occurred when foreign princes chose to treat Prince Albert as having mere courtesy rank in his wife's kingdom. The result of these political difficulties was to make the queen more than ever disgusted with the Tories. But there was no other flaw in the happiness of the marriage, which was solemnized on the 11th of February 1840, at the chapel in St James'. It is interesting to note that the queen was dressed entirely in articles of British manufacture. Her dress was of Spitalfields silk; her veil of Honiton lace; her ribbons came from Coventry; even her gloves had been made in London of English kid—a novel thing in days when the French had a monopoly in the finer kinds of gloves.

From the time of the queen's marriage the crown played an increasingly active part in the affairs of state. Previously, ministers had tried to spare the queen all disagreeable and fatiguing details. Lord Melbourne saw her every day, whether she was in London or at Windsor, and he used to explain all current business in a benevolent, chatty manner, which offered a pleasant contrast to the style of his two principal colleagues, Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston. A statesman of firmer mould than Lord Melbourne would hardly have succeeded so well as he did in making rough places smooth for Prince Albert. Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston were naturally jealous of the prince's interference—and of King Leopold's and Baron Stockmar's—in state affairs; but Lord Melbourne took the common-sense view that a husband will control his wife whether people wish it or not. Ably advised by his private secretary, George Anson, and by Stockmar, the prince thus soon took the de facto place of the sovereign's private secretary, though he had no official status as such; and his system of classifying and annotating the queen's papers and letters resulted in the preservation of what the editors of the Letters of Queen Victoria (1907) describe as "probably the most extraordinary collection of state documents in the world"—those up to 1861 being contained in between 500 and 600 bound volumes at Windsor. To confer on Prince Albert this role of government conscience was to make him gradually into public favour by his own tact, was the advice which Lord Melbourne gave; and the prince acted upon it so well, avoiding every appearance of intrusion, and treating men of all parties and degrees with urbanity, that within five months of his marriage he obtained a signal mark of the public confidence. In expectation of the queen becoming a mother, a bill was passed through parliament providing for the appointment of Prince Albert as sole regent in case the
queen, after giving birth to a child, died before her son or daughter came of age.

The Regency Bill had been hurried on in consequence of the attempt of a crazy actor, Edward Oxford, to take the queen’s life.

On 10th June 1840, the queen and Prince Albert were driving up Constitution Hill in an open carriage, when Oxford fired two pistols, the bullets from which flew, it is said, close by the prince’s head. He was arrested on the spot, and when his lodgings were searched a quantity of powder and shot was found, with the rules of a secret society, called “Young England,” whose members were pledged to murder, “carrying swords and pistols and wearing mask.” These discoveries raised the surmise that Oxford was the tool of a widespread Chartist conspiracy, or, as the Irish press put it, a conspiracy of Orange-gang to set the duke of Cumberland on the throne; and while these delusions were fresh, they threw well-disposed persons into a paroxysm of loyalty. Even the London street dogs, as Sydney Smith said, joined with O’Connell in barking “God save the Queen.” Oxford seems to have been craving for notoriety; but it may be doubted whether the jury who tried him did right to pronounce him an acquittal on the ground of insanity. He feigned madness at his trial, but during the forty years of his subsequent confinement at Bedlam, he talked and acted, like a rational being, and on the queen was at length released and sent to Australia, where he earned his living there as a house painter, and used to declare that he had never been mad at all. His acquittal was to be deprecated as establishing a dangerous precedent in regard to outrages on the sovereign. It was always Prince Albert’s opinion that if Oxford had been flogged the attempt of Francis on the queen in 1842 and of Bean in the same year would never have been perpetrated. After the attempt of Bean—who was a hunchback, really insane—parliament passed a bill empowering judges to order whipping as a punishment for those who Minh the queen; but some how his life was never enforced. In 1850 a half-pay officer, named Pate, assaulted the queen by striking her with a stick, and crushing her bonnet. He was sentenced to seven years’ transportation; but the judge, Baron Alderson, excused him the flogging. In 1869 an Irish lad, O’Connor, was sentenced to eighteen months’ imprisonment and a whipping for presenting a pistol at the queen, with a petition, in St James’s Park; but this time it was the Queen herself who privately remitted the corporal punishment, and she even pushed clemency to the length of sending her assassin to Australia at her own expense. The series of courts was closed when she sentenced a man named Maclean, who fired a pistol at her majesty as she was leaving the Great Western Railway station at Windsor. He, like Bean, was a genuine madman, and was relegated to Broadmoor.

The birth of the princess royal, on the 21st of November 1840, removing the unpopular King Ernest of Hanover from the position of heir-presumptive to the British crown, was a subject of loud congratulations to the people. A curious scene was occasioned at Buckingham Palace, when the little princess was a fortnight old, by the discovery of a boy named Jones concealed under a bed in the royal nursery. Jones had a mania for palace-breaking. Three times he effected a clandestine entry into Buckingham Palace, and twice he managed to spend several days there. By day he concealed himself in cupboards or under furniture, and by night he groped his way into the royal kitchen to eat whatever he could find. After his third capture, in March 1841, he coolly boasted that he had lain under a sofa, and listened to a private conversation between the queen and Prince Albert. This third time he was not punished, but sent to sea, and turned out very well. The incident strengthened Prince Albert’s hands in trying to carry out sundry domestic reforms which were being stoutly resisted by vested interests. The royal residences and grounds were to be under the control of four different officials—the lord chamberlain, the lord steward, the master of the horse, and the commissioners of woods and forests. Baron Stockmar, describing the confusion fostered by this state of things, said—

“The lord steward finds the fuel and lays the fire; the lord chamberlain lights it. The lord chamberlain provides the lamps; the lord steward must clean, trim, and light them. The windows belong to the lord chamberlain’s department, but the outer parts must be attended to by the office of woods and forests, so that windows remain dirty unless the two departments came to an understanding.

“Before Prince Albert four years of firmness and diplomacy before in 1845 he was able to bring the queen’s home under the efficient control of a master of the household.

“At the general election of 1841 the Whigs returned in a minority of seventy-six, and Lord Melbourne was defeated on the Address and resigned. The queen was affected to tears at parting with him; but the crisis had been so fully expected and prepared for by confidential communications between Mr Anson and Sir Robert Peel, who now became prime minister (see Letters of Queen Victoria, i. 341 et seq.) that difficulty as to the appointments to the royal household was tactfully removed, and Tory appointments were made, which were agreeable both to the queen and to Peel. The only temporary embarrassment was the queen’s continued private correspondence with Lord Melbourne, which led Stockmar to remonstrate with him; but Melbourne used his influence sensibly; moreover, he gradually dropped out of politics, and the queen got used to his not being indispensable.

“On Prince Albert’s position the change had a marked effect, for in the absence of Melbourne the queen showed more particularly on her side a disposition to recognize the prince’s unusual charm and capacity. One of the Tory premier’s first acts was to propose that a royal commission should be appointed to consider the best means for promoting art and science in the kingdom, and he nominated Prince Albert as president. The International Exhibition of 1851, the creation of the Museum and Science and Art Department at South Kensington, the founding of art schools and picture galleries all over the country, the spread of musical taste and the fostering of technical education may be attributed, more or less directly, to the commission of distinguished men which began its labours under Prince Albert’s auspices.

“The queen’s second child, the prince of Wales (see EDWARD VII), was born on the 6th of November 1841; and this event ‘filled the measure of the queen’s domestic happiness,’ as he said in her speech from the throne at the opening of the session of 1842. It is unnecessary from this point onwards to go seriatim through the domestic history of the reign, which is given in the article ENGLISH HISTORY. At this time there was much political unrest at home, and serious difficulties abroad. As regards internal politics, it may be remarked that the queen and Prince Albert were relieved when Peel, who had come in as the leader of the Protectionist party, adopted Free Trade and repealed the Corn Laws, for it closed a dangerous agitation which gave them much anxiety. When the country was in distress, the queen felt a womanly repugnance for festivities; and yet it was undesirable that the court should incur the reproach of living meanly to save money. There was a conversation between the queen and Sir Robert Peel on this subject in the early days of the Tory administration, and the queen talked of reducing her establishment in order that she might give away larger sums in charities. I am afraid the people would only say that your majesty was returning them change for their pounds in halfpence,” answered Peel. “Your majesty is not perhaps aware that the most unpopular person in the parish is the relieving officer, and if the queen were to constitute herself a relieving officer for all the parishes in the kingdom she would find her money go a very little further, and she would provoke more grumbling than thanks.”

“Peel added that a sovereign must do all things in order, not seeking praise for doing one particular thing well, but striving to be an example in all respects, even in dinner-giving.

“I mean while the year 1841 was ushered in by splendid fêtes in honour of the king of Prussia, who held the prince of Wales at the font. In the spring there was a fancy-dress ball at Buckingham Palace, which remained memorable owing to the offences
which it gave in France. Prince Albert was costumed as Edward III., the queen as Queen Philippa, and all the gentle-
men of the court as knights of Poitiers. The French chose to
view this as an unfriendly demonstration, and there was some
talk of getting up a counter-ball in Paris, the duke of Orleans
to figure as William the Conqueror. In June the queen took
her first railway journey, travelling from Windsor to Paddington
on the Great Western line. The master of the horse,
whose business it was to provide for the queen’s
ordinary journeys by road, was much put out by this
innovation. He marched into the station several
minutes before the engine was ready to start. It
posted the journey on the way to Paddington in
58 minutes, which was remarkable, as they had examined a steed; but greater merit was occasioned by
the queen’s coachman, who insisted that, as a matter of form,
he ought to make-believe to drive the engine. After some
dispute, he was told that he might climb on to the pilot engine
which was to precede the royal train; but his scarlet livery,
white gloves and wig suffered so much from soot and sparks
that he made no more fuss about his rights in after trips. The
motion of the train was found to be so pleasant that the queen
readily trusted herself to the railway for a longer journey a few
months later, when she paid a visit to London. A report by
Sir John Clark led to the queen’s visiting Balmoral in 1848, and
to the purchase of the Balmoral estate in 1852, and the queen’s diary of her journeys in Scotland shows
what constant enjoyment she derived from her Highland home.
Seven years before this the estate of Osborne had been
purchased in the Isle of Wight, in order that the queen might have
a home of her own. Windsor she considered too stately, and
the Pavilion at Brighton too uncomfortable. The first stone
of Osborne House was laid in 1845, and the royal family entered
into possession in September 1846.

A visit to 1843, the queen and Prince Albert paid a visit to
King Louis Philippe at the chateau d’Eu. They sailed from
Southampton for Tréport in a yacht, and, as it hap-
pened to be raining hard when they embarked, the
loyal members of the Southampton Corporation remem-
bered Raleigh, and spread their robes on the ground
for the queen to walk over. In 1844 Louis Philippe
returned the visit by coming to Windsor. It was the first
visit ever paid by a king of France to a sovereign of England,
and Louis Philippe was much pleased at receiving the Order
of the Garter later on when he paid that honour to the
Queen. A report by Sir John Clark led to the “Club” of European
sovereigns until he received this
collection. As the father of King Leopold of Belgium’s
consort, the queen was much interested in his visit, which
went off with great success and goodwill. The tsar Nicholas had
visited Windsor earlier that year, in which also Prince Alfred,
who was to marry the tsar’s grand-daughter, was born.

In 1846 the affair of the “Spanish marriages” seriously
troubled the relations between the United Kingdom and France. Louis Philippe and Guizot had planned the marriage
of the duke of Montpensier with the infants Louisa of Spain,
younger sister of Queen Isabella, who, it was thought at the
time, was not likely ever to have children. The intrigue was
therefore one for placing a son of the French king on the
Spanish throne. (See SPAIN, HISTORY.) As to Queen Victoria’s
intervention on this question and on others, these words,
written by W. E. Gladstone in 1875, may be quoted:

“Although the admirable arrangements of the Constitution have
now shielded the sovereign from personal responsibility, they have
left ample scope for the exercise of direct and personal influence in
the whole work of government. . . . The sovereign as compared
with her ministers has, because she is the sovereign, the advantage
of long experience, wide survey, elevated position and entire
connection from the bias of party. Further, personal and domestic
relations with the ruling families abroad give openings in delicate
cases for saying more, and saying it at once more gently and more
eloquently. It could be ventured into the formation of the
least rude contacts of government. We know with how much
truth, fulness and decision, and with how much tact and delicacy,
the queen, aided by Prince Albert, took a principal part on behalf
of the nation in the painful question of the Spanish marriages.”

The year 1848, which shook so many continental thrones,
The queen's family life was most happy. At Balmoral and Windsor the court lived in virtual privacy; and the queen and her consort saw much of their children. Countless entries in the queen's diaries testify to the anxious affection with which the progress of each little member of the household was watched. Two more children had been born to the royal pair, Prince Leopold (duke of Albany) on the 7th of April 1853, and on the 14th of April 1857 their last child, the princess Beatrice (Princess Henry of Battenberg), bringing the royal family up to nine—four sons and five daughters. Less than a year after Princess Beatrice's birth the princess royal was married to Prince Frederick William of Prussia, and towards the emperor, the next marriage after the princess royal's was that of the princess Alice to Prince Louis (afterwards grand duke) of Hesse-Darmstadt in 1862. In 1863 the prince of Wales married the princess Alexandra of Denmark. In 1866 the princess Helena became the wife of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein. In 1871 the princess Louise was wedded to the marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the duke of Argyll. In 1874 Prince Alfred, duke of Edinburgh, married Princess Marie Alexandrovna, only daughter of the tsar Alexander II. The duke of Connaught married in 1879 the princess Louise of Prussia, daughter of the soldier and statesman, Prince Frederick Charles. In 1882 Prince Leopold, duke of Albany, wedded the princess Helen of Waldeck-Pyrmont. Finally came the marriage of Princess Beatrice in 1885 with Prince Henry of Battenberg.

On the occasion of the coming of age of the queen's sons and the marriages of their daughters parliament made provision. The prince of Wales, in addition to the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall, had £40,000 a year, the princess £10,000, and an addition of £36,000 a year for their children was granted by parliament in 1869. The princess royal received a dowry of £40,000, and £10,000 a year for life, the younger daughters £6,000 a year. The dukes of Edinburgh, Connaught and Albany were each voted an income of £15,000, and £10,000 on marrying.

The dispute with the United States concerning the "Trent" affair of 1861 will always be memorable for the part played in its settlement by the queen and the prince consort. In 1861 the accession of Abraham Lincoln to the presidency of the United States of America caused the Southern States of the Union to revolt, and the war began. During November the British West India steamer "Trent" was boarded by a vessel of the Federal Navy, the "San Jacinto," and Messrs Slidell and Mason, commissioners for the Confederate States, who were on their way to England, were seized. The British government were on the point of demanding reparation for this act in a peremptory manner which could hardly have meant anything but war, but Prince Albert insisted on revising Lord Russell's despatch in a way which gave the American government an opportunity to concede the surrender of the prisoners without humiliation. The memorandum from the queen on this point was the prince consort's last political draft.
At the time of the prince consort’s death the prince of Wales was in his twenty-first year. He had spent several terms at each of the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and he had already travelled much, having visited most of Europe, Egypt and the United States.

His marriage solemnized at Windsor on the 10th of March 1863. The queen witnessed the wedding from the private pew or box of St George’s Chapel, Windsor, but she wore the deep mourning which she was never wholly to put off to the end of her life, and she took no part in the festivities of the wedding.

In foreign imperial affairs, and in the adjustment of serious parliamentary difficulties, the queen’s dynastic influence abroad and her position as above party at home, together with the respect due to her character, good sense and experience, still remained a powerful element in the British polity, as was shown on more than one occasion. In 1866 the Austro-Prussian War broke out, and many short-sighted people were tempted to side with France when, in 1867, Napoleon III. sought to obtain a “moral compensation” by laying a claim to the duchy of Luxembourg. A conference met in London, and the difficulty was settled by neutralizing the duchy and ordering the evacuation of the Prussian garrison who kept garrison there. But this solution, which averted an imminent war, was only arrived at through Queen Victoria’s personal intercession. In the words of a French writer—

“The queen wrote both to the king of Prussia and to the emperor Napoleon. Her letter to the emperor, pervaded with those most mystic emotions, which she kept for the queen’s mind, particularly since the death of Prince Albert, seems to have made a deep impression on the sovereign who, amid the struggles of politics, had never completely repudiated the philanthropic theories of his youth, and who, on the battle-field of Solferino, covered with the dead and wounded, was seized with an unspeakable horror of war.”

Moreover, Disraeli’s two premierships (1868, 1874-80) did a good deal to give new encouragement to a right idea of the constitutional function of the crown. Disraeli thought that the queen ought to be a power in the state. His notion of duty—that once a loyal and chivalrous word—was that he was obliged to give the queen the best of his advice, but that the final decision in any course lay with her, and that once she had decided, he was bound, whatever might be his own opinion, to stand up for her decision in public. The queen, not unnaturally, came to trust Disraeli implicitly, and she frequently showed her friendship for him. At his death she paid an exceptional tribute to his “dear and honoured memory” from his “grateful and affectionate sovereign and friend.” To something like this position Lord Salisbury after 1886 succeeded. A somewhat different conception of the sovereign’s functions was that of Gladstone, the great rival, Gladstone, who, though his respect for the person and office of the sovereign was unbounded, not only expected all people, the queen included, to agree with him when he changed his mind, but to become suddenly enthusiastic about his new ideas. The queen consequently never felt safe with him. Nor did she like his manner—he spoke to her (she is believed to have said) as if she were a public meeting. The queen was opposed to the Disestablishment of the Irish Church (1863)—the question which brought Gladstone to be premier—and though she had good sense, Gladstone was faultless and astonished because she would not pretend to give a hearty assent to the measure. Through her secretary, General Grey, the queen pointed out that she had not concealed from Gladstone “how deeply she deplored” his having felt himself under the necessity of raising the question, and how apprehensive she was of the possible consequences of the measure; but, when a general election had pronounced on the principle, when the bill had been carried through the House of Commons by unvarying majorities, she did not see what good could be gained by rejecting it in the Lords. Later, when through the skilful diplomacy of the prime the Lords had passed the second reading by a small but sufficient majority (179 to 146), and after amendments had been adopted, the queen wrote—

“The queen... is very sensible of the prudence and, at the same time, the anxiety for the welfare of the Irish Establishment which the archbishop has manifested during the course of the debates, and she will with uprightness in the amendments which have been adopted at his suggestion lead to a settlement of the question; but to effect this, concessions, the queen believes, will have to be made on both sides. The queen must say that she cannot view with much alarm the possible modifications in connection with the Irish Church, and she would ask the archbishop seriously to consider, in case the concessions to which the government may agree should not go so far as he may himself wish, whether the possible inconvenience of 1867 for the Roman Catholics may not be likely to result in worse rather than in better terms for the Church. The queen trusts, therefore, that the archbishop will himself consider, and as far as he can, the probable consequences of a settlement of the question, and any concessions which may be offered by the House of Commons in the most conciliatory spirit.”

The correspondence of which this letter forms a part is one of the few published witnesses to the queen’s careful and active interest in home politics during the latter half of her reign; but it is enough to prove how wise, how moderate and how steeped in the spirit of the Constitution she was. Another instance is that of the County Franchise and Redistribution Bills of 1884-5. There, again, a conflict between the two houses was imminent, and the queen’s wish for a settlement had considerable weight in bringing about the curious but effective conference of the two parties, of which the first suggestion, it is believed, was due to Lord Randolph Churchill.

In 1876 a bill was introduced into parliament for conferring on the queen the title of “Empress of India.” It met with much opposition, and it was put forward with all the force of ministering “Empress simply to a whim of the sovereign, whereby to import the title was intended to impress the idea of British suzerainty forcibly upon the minds of the native princes, and upon the population of Hindustan. The prince of Wales’s voyage to India in the winter of 1875-76 had brought the heir to the throne into personal relationship with the great Indian vassals of the British crown, and it was felt that a further demonstration of the queen’s interest in her magnificent dependency would confirm their loyalty.

The queen’s private life during the decade 1870-80 was one of quiet, broken only by one great sorrow when the Princess Alice died in 1878. In 1886 her majesty had started in authorship by publishing The Early Days of the Prince Consort, compiled by General Grey; in 1889 she gave to the world her interesting and simply written diary entitled Leaves from the Journal of our Life in the Highlands, and in 1874 appeared the first volume of The Life and Letters of the Prince Consort (2nd vol. in 1880), edited by Sir Theodore Martin. A second instalment of the Highland journal appeared in 1885. These literary occupations solaced the hours of a life which was mostly spent in private, and in the interval, that part of the queen’s reign over which her majesty had control, in which she was always accompanied by her youngest daughter, the Princess Beatrice, brought a little variety into the home-life, and aided much in keeping up the good health which the queen enjoyed almost uninteruptedly. So far as public ceremonies were concerned, the prince and princess of Wales were now coming forward more and more to represent the royal family. People noticed meanwhile that the queen had taken a great affection for her Scottish man-servant, John Brown, who had been in her service since 1849; she made him her constant personal attendant, and looked on him more as a friend than as servant. When he died in 1883 the queen’s grief was intense.

From 1880 onwards Ireland almost monopolized the field of domestic politics. The queen was privately opposed to Gladstone’s Home Rule policy; but she observed in public a constitutional reticence on the subject. In the year, however, of the Crimes Act 1887, an event took place which was of more intimate personal concern to the queen, and of more attractive import to the country and the empire at large. June 18, was the fiftieth anniversary of her accession to the throne, and on the following day, for the second time in English history, a great Jubilee celebration was held to commemorate so happy an event. The country threw
itself into the celebration with uncheckd enthusiasm; large
sums of money were everywhere subscribed; in every city,
town and village something was done both in the way of
rejoicing and in the way of establishing some permanent
memorial of the event. In London the day itself was kept by
a solemn service in Westminster Abbey, to which the queen
was in state, surrounded by the most brilliant, royal, and
princely escort that had ever accompanied a British sovereign,
and cheered on her way by the applause of hundreds of thousands
of her subjects. The queen had already paid a memorable visit
to the East End, when she opened the People’s Palace on the
14th of May. On the 2nd of June she reviewed at Buckingham
Park, and the next day she opened the new buildings of a
royal ladies’ college. On the 4th of July she laid the foundation stone of
the Imperial Institute, the building at Kensington to which, at the instance
of the prince of Wales, it had been determined to devote the
large sum of money collected as a Jubilee offering, and which
was opened by the queen in 1893. On the 9th of July the
queen reviewed 60,000 men at Aldershot; and, last and chief
of all, on the 23rd of July, one of the most brilliant days of
a brilliant summer, she reviewed the fleet at Spithead.

The year 1888 witnessed two events which greatly affected
European politics, and the beginning of an epoch opposed to
the life of the English court. On the 9th of March
the emperor William I. died at Berlin. He was
succeeded by his son, the emperor Frederick III.,
regarded with special affection in England as the husband
of the princess royal. But at the same time he was suffering
from a malignant disease of the throat, and he died on the
15th of June, being succeeded by his eldest son, the emperor
William II., the grandson of the queen. Meanwhile Queen
Victoria spent some weeks at Florence at the Villa Palmieri,
and returned home by Darmstadt and Berlin. In spite of the
illness of the emperor Frederick a certain number of court
festivities were held in her honour, and she had long
conversations with Prince Bismarck, who was deeply impressed
by her majesty’s personality. Just before, the prince, who
was still chancellor, had taken a very strong line with regard to
a royal marriage in which the queen was keenly interested—
the proposal that Prince Alexander of Battenberg, lately ruler
of Bulgaria, and brother of the queen’s son-in-law, Prince Henry,
should marry Princess Victoria, the eldest daughter of the
emperor Frederick, Prince Bismarck, who had been anti-
Battenberg since the beginning, vehemently opposed the
marriage, on the ground that for reasons of state policy it would
never do for a daughter of the German emperor to marry
a prince who was personally disliked by the tsar. This affair
caused no little agitation in royal circles, but in the end state
reasons were allowed to prevail and the chancellor had his
way.

The queen had borne so well the fatigue of the Jubilee that
during the succeeding years she was encouraged to make some-
what more frequent appearances among her subjects.

In May 1888 she attended a performance of Sir Arthur
Sullivan’s Golden Legend at the Albert Hall, and in August she
visited Glasgow to open the magnificent new municipal buildings,
remaining for a couple of nights at Blythswood, the seat of
Archibald Campbell. Early in 1889 she received at Windsor
a special embassy, which was the beginning of a memorable
chapter of English history: two Matahele chiefs were sent by
King Lobengula to present his respects to the “great White
Queen,” as to whose very existence, it was said, he had up
till that time been sceptical. Soon afterwards her majesty
went to France, and returned by way of the Ionian Islands
on which she paid to the queen-regent of Spain at San Sebasti-
án, the only visit that an English reigning sovereign had ever
drawn to the Peninsula.

The relations between the court and the country formed
matter in 1889 for a somewhat sharp discussion in parliament
and in the press. A royal message was brought by Mr W. H.
Smith on the 2nd of July, expressing, on the one hand, the
queen’s desire to provide for Prince Albert Victor of Wales, and,
on the other, informing the house of the intended marriage
of the prince of Wales’s daughter, the Princess Louise, to the
earl (afterwards duke) of Fife. ‘On the proposal of
Mr Smith, seconded by Gladstone, a select committee
Parlia-
mentary was appointed to consider these messages and to
report to the house as to the existing practice and as to
the principles to be adopted for the future. The evidence
laid before the committee explained to the country for the first time the actual state of the royal income,
and on the proposal of Gladstone, amending the proposal of
the government, it was proposed to grant a fixed addition of
£25,000 a year to the present income of the sovereign, which
he should be expected to provide for his children without further
application to the country. Effect was given to this proposal
in a bill called “The Prince of Wales’s Children’s Bill,” which
was carried in spite of the persistent opposition of a small group of
Radicals.

In the spring of 1890 the queen visited Aix-les-Bains in
the hope that the waters of that health resort might alleviate
the rheumatism from which she was now frequently
suffering. She returned as usual by way of Darmstadt,
and shortly after her arrival at Windsor paid a visit to Baron
W. Rothschild at Waddesdon Manor. In February
she launched the battleship “Royal Sovereign” at Portsmouth;
and a week later she visited the Horse Show at Islington. Her
annual spring visit to the South was this year paid to the little
town of Grasse.

At the beginning of 1892 a heavy blow fell upon the queen
in the death of the prince of Wales’s eldest son Albert Victor,
duke of Clarence and Avondale. He had never been
of a robust constitution, and after a little more than
a week’s illness from pneumonia following influenza,
he died at Sandringham. The pathos of his death was
increased by the fact that only a short time before it had
been announced that the prince was about to marry his second
cousin, Princess May, daughter of the duke and duchess
of Teck.

The death of the young prince threw a gloom over the
country, and caused the royal family to spend the year in
such retirement as was possible. The queen this year paid
a visit to Costebelle, and stayed there for some quiet weeks.
In 1893 the country, on the expiration of the royal mourning,
began to take a more than usual interest in the affairs of
the royal family. On the 19th of February the queen took
leave home for a visit to Florence, and spent it
in the Villa Palmieri. She was able to display remarkable
energy in visiting the sights of the city, and even went as
far afield as San Gimignano; and her visit had a notable
effect in strengthening the bonds of friendship between
the United Kingdom and the Italian people. On 28th April
she arrived home, and a few days later the prince of Wales’s
second son, George, duke of York (see George V.), who by his
brother’s death had been left in the direct line of succession to
the throne, was betrothed to the Princess May, the marriage
being celebrated on 6th July in the Chapel Royal of St James’s
Palace.

In 1894 the queen stayed for some weeks at Florence, and
on her return she stopped at Coburg to witness the marriage
between two of her grandchildren, the grand duke
of Hesse and the Princess Victoria Melita of Coburg.

On the next day the emperor William officially announced
the betrothal of the Cesarovitch (afterwards the tsar Nicholas II.)
to the princess Alix of Hesse, a grandaughter whom the
queen had always regarded with special affection. After
a few weeks in London the queen went northwards and stopped
at Manchester, where she opened the Ship Canal. Two days
afterwards she celebrated her seventy-fifth birthday in quiet
at Balmoral. A month later (June 23) took place the birth
of a son to the duke and duchess of York, the child receiving
the thoroughly English name of Edward.

In 1895 the queen lost her faithful and most efficient private
secretary, General Sir Henry Ponsonby, who for many years
had helped her in the management of her most private affairs and had acted as an intermediary between her and her ministers with singular ability and success. His successor was Sir Arthur Bigge. The following year, 1896, was marked by a tragic event which touched the queen even more nearly and more personally. At his own urgent request Prince Henry of Battenberg, the queen's son-in-law, was permitted to join the Ashanti expedition, and early in January the prince was struck down with fever. He was brought to the coast and put on board her majesty's ship "Blonde," where, on the 20th, he died.

In September 1896 the queen's reign had reached a point at which it exceeded in length that of any other English sovereign; but by her special request all public celebrations of the fact were deferred until the following June, which marked the completion of sixty years from her accession. As the time drew on it was obvious that the celebrations of this Diamond Jubilee, as it was popularly called, would exceed in magnificence those of the Jubilee of 1857. Mr Chamberlain, the secretary for the colonies, induced his colleagues to seize the opportunity of making the jubilee a festival of the British empire. Accordingly, the prime ministers of all the self-governing colonies, with their families, were invited to come to London as the guests of the country to take part in the Jubilee procession and drafts of the troops from every British colony and dependency were brought home for the same purpose. The procession was, in the strictest sense of the term, unique. Here was a display, not only of Englishmen, Scotsmen, Irishmen, Welshmen, but of Mounted Rifles from Victoria and New South Wales, from the Cape and from Natal, and from the Dominion of Canada. Here were Hausas from the Niger and the Gold Coast, coloured men from the West India regiments, sappers from Cyprus, Chinsmen from Hong Kong, and Dyaks—now civilized—told their own tale. The presence of a large contingent of Sikhs also added to its splendour. Here, most brilliant sight of all, were the Imperial Service troops sent by the native princes of India; while the detachments of Sikhs who marched earlier in the procession received their full meed of admiration and applause. Altogether the queen was in her carriage for more than four hours, in itself an extraordinary physical feat for a woman of seventy-eight. Her own feelings were shown by the simple but significant message she sent to her people throughout the world: "From my heart I thank my beloved people. May God bless them!" The illuminations in London and the great provincial towns were magnificent, and all the hills from Ben Nevis to the South Downs were crowned with bonfires. The queen herself held a great review at Aldershot; but a much more significant display was the review by the prince of Wales of the fleet at Spithead on Saturday, the 26th of June. No less than 165 vessels of all classes were drawn up in four lines, extending altogether to a length of 30 m.

The two years that followed the Diamond Jubilee were, as regards the queen, comparatively uneventful. Her health remained good, and her visit to Cimiez in the spring of 1898 was as enjoyable and as beneficial as before. In May 1890, after another visit to the Riviera, the queen performed what proved to be her last ceremonial function in London; she proceeded in "semi-state" to South Kensington, and laid the foundation stone of the new buildings completing the Museum—henceforth to be called the Victoria and Albert Museum—which had been planned more than forty years before by the prince consort.

Griefs and anxieties encompassed the queen during the last year of her life. But if the South African War proved more serious than had been anticipated, it did more to weld the empire together than years of peaceful progress might have accomplished. The queen's frequent messages of thanks and greeting to her colonies and to the troops sent by them, and her reception of the latter at Windsor, gave evidence of the heartfelt joy with which she saw the sons of the empire giving their lives for the defence of its integrity; and the satisfaction which she showed in the Federation of the Australian colonies was no less keen. The reverses of the first part of the Boer campaign, together with the loss of her eldest daughter, was no small part of that "great strain" of which the Court Circular spoke in the ominous words which first told the country that she was seriously ill. But the queen faced the new situation with her usual courage, devotion and strength of will. She reviewed the departing regiments; she entertained the wives and children of the Windsor soldiers who had gone to the war; she showed by frequent messages her watchful interest in the course of the campaign and in the efforts which were being made throughout the whole empire; and the Christmas gift of a box of chocolate to every soldier in South Africa was a touching proof of her sympathy and interest. She relinquished her annual holiday on the Riviera, feeling that at such a time she ought not to leave her country. Entirely on her own initiative, and moved by admiration for the fine achievements of "her brave Irish" during the war, the queen announced her intention of paying a long visit to Dublin; and there, accordingly, she went for the month of April 1900, staying in the Viceregal Lodge, receiving many of the leaders of Irish society, inspecting some 50,000 school children from all parts of Ireland, and taking many a drive amid the charming scenery of the neighbourhood of Dublin. She went even further than this attempt to conciliate Irish feeling, and to show her recognition of the gallantry of the Irish soldiers she issued an order for them to wear the shamrock on St Patrick's Day, and for a new regiment of Irish Guards to be constituted.

In the previous November the queen had had the pleasure of receiving, on a private visit, her grandson, the German Emperor, who came accompanied by the empress and by two of their sons. This visit cheered the queen, and the successes of the army which followed the arrival of Lord Roberts in Africa and the capture of Pretoria induced the queen to order the Navy to send a special fleet to the Indian Ocean to celebrate the jubilee that had been postponed. When the fleet arrived it was received with much enthusiasm, and a great deal of interest. But independently of the public anxieties of the war, and of those aroused by the violent and unexpected outbreak of fanaticism in China, the year brought deep private griefs to the queen. In 1899 her grandson, the hereditary prince of Coburg, had succumbed to phthisis, and in 1900 his father, the duke of Coburg, the queen's second son, previously known as the duke of Edinburgh, also died (July 30). Then Prince Christian Victor, the queen's grandson, fell a victim to enteric fever at Pretoria; and during the autumn it came to be known that the empress of India was suffering from tuberculosis, a disease that had previously been publicized and of which she had been warned. More recently that very health was very seriously ill. Moreover, just at the end of the year which greatly shocked and grieved the queen was experienced in the sudden death, at Windsor Castle, of the Dowager Lady Churchill, one of her oldest and most intimate friends. These losses told upon the queen at her advanced age. Throughout her life she had enjoyed excellent health, and even in the last few years the only marks of age were rheumatic stiffness of the joints, which prevented walking, and a diminished power of sight. In the autumn of 1900, however, her health began definitely to fail, and though arrangements were made for another holiday in the South, it was plain that her strength was seriously affected. Still she continued the ordinary routine of her duties and occupations. Before Christmas she made her usual journey to Osborne, and there on the 2nd of January she received Lord Roberts on his return from South Africa and handed to him the insignia of the Garter. A fortnight later she commanded a second visit from the field-marshall; she continued to transact business, and until a week before her death she still took her daily drive. A sudden loss of power then supervened, and on Friday evening, the 18th of January, the Court Circular published an authoritative announcement of her illness. On Tuesday, the 22nd of January 1901, she died.

Queen Victoria was a ruler of a new type. When she ascended the throne the popular faith in kings and queens was on the decline. She revived that faith; she consolidated her throne; she not only captivated the affections of the multitude, but
VICTORIA, T. L. DA—VICTORIA (AUSTRALIA)

won the respect of thoughtful men; and all this she achieved by methods which to her predecessors would have seemed impracticable—methods which it required no less shrewdness to discover than force of character and honesty of heart to adopt steadfastly. Whilst all who approached the queen bore witness to her candour and reasonableness in relation to her ministers, all likewise proclaimed how anxiously she considered advice that was submitted to her before letting herself be persuaded that she must accept it for the good of her people.

By her long reign and unblemished record her name had become associated inseparably with British institutions and imperial solidarity. Her own life was by choice, and as far as her position would admit, one of almost austere simplicity and homeliness; and her subjects were proud of a royalty which involved none of the mischiefs of caprice or ostentation, but set an example alike of motherly sympathy and of queenly dignity. She became more and more that day by her own country, not even by all English-speaking people, but by the whole world. The funeral in London on the 2nd and 26th of February, including first the passage of the coffin from the Isle of Wight to Gosport between lines of warships, and secondly a military procession from London to Windsor, was a memorable solemnity: the greatest of English sovereigns, whose name would in history mark an age, had gone to her rest.

There is a good bibliographical note at the end of Mr Sidney Lee’s article in the National Dictionary of Biographies. See also the Letters of Queen Victoria (1907), and the obituary published by The Times, from which some passages have been borrowed above. (H. C. L.)

VICTORIA (or VITTORIA), TOMMASO LUDOVICO DA
(c. 1540-c. 1615), Spanish musical composer, was born at Avila (unless, as Haberl conjectures, his title of Presbyter Abulensis refers not to his birthplace but to his parish as priest, so that his name would indicate that he was born at Vittoria). In 1573 he was appointed as Maestro di Cappella to the Collegium Germanicum at Rome, where he had probably been trained. Victoria left Rome in 1585, being then appointed vice-master of the Royal Chapel at Madrid, a post which he held until 1602. In 1603 he composed the funeral of the empress Maria the greatest requiem of the Golden Age, which is his last known work, though in 1613 a contemporary speaks of him as still living. He was not ostensibly Palestrina’s pupil; but Palestrina had the main influence upon his art, and the personal relations between the two were as intimate as were the artistic. The work begun by Morales and perfected by Palestrina left no stumbling-blocks in Victoria’s path and he was able from the outset to express the purity of his ideals of religious music without having to sift the good from the bad in that Flemish tradition which had centered at Palestrina, in whilst it enlarged his fame. From Victoria’s first publication in 1572 to his last requiem (the Officium Defunctorum of 1604) there is practically no change of style, all being pure church music of unsurpassing loftiness and showing no inequality except in concentration of thought. Like his countryman and predecessor Morales, he wrote no secular music; yet he differs from Morales, perhaps more than can be accounted for by his later date, in that his devotional spirit is impulsive rather than ascetic. His work is the crown of Spanish music: music which has been regarded as not constituting a special school, since it absorbed itself so thoroughly in the Rome of Palestrina. Yet, as has been aptly pointed out in the admirable article “Vittoria” in Grove’s Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Roman music owes so much to that Spanish school which produced Guerrero, Morales and Victoria, that it might fairly be called the Hispano-Roman school. In spite of the comparative smallness of Victoria’s output as compared with that of many of his contemporaries, there is no mistaking his claim to rank with Palestrina and Orlando di Lasso in the triad of supreme 16th-century masters. In any extensive anthology of liturgical polyphony such as the Musica Divina of Proske, his work stands out as impressively as Palestrina’s and Lasso’s; and the style, in spite of a resemblance to Palestrina which amounts to imitation, is as individual as any one a successful imitator of Palestrina can be. That is to say, Victoria’s individuality is strong enough to assert itself by the very act of following Palestrina’s path. When he is below his best his style does not become cradled or harsh, but over-fine and too high never falling in euphony. If he seldom displays an elaborate technique it is not because he conceals it, or lacks it. His mastery is unifying, but his methods are those of direct emotional effect; and the intellectual qualities that strengthen and deepen this emotion are themselves innate and not sought out. The emotion is reasonable and lofty, not because he has trained himself to think correctly, but because he does not know that any one can think otherwise. His works fill eight volumes in the complete edition of Messrs Breitkopf and Härtel.

VICTORIA, a British colonial state, occupying the southeastern coast of Australia. Its western boundary is in 140° 58’ E.; on the east it runs out to a point at Cape Howe, in 150° E. long., being thus rude triangular in shape; the river Murray constitutes nearly the whole of the northern boundary, its most northerly point being in 34° S. lat.; the southern boundary is the coast-line of the Southern Ocean and of Bass Strait; the most southerly point is Wilson’s Promontory in 30° S. lat. The greatest length east and west is about 450 m.; the greatest width, in the west, is about 250 m. The area is officially stated to be 8,854 sq. m.

The coast must be estimated at about 800 m. It begins about the 141st meridian with bold but not lofty sandstone cliffs, worn into deep caves and caved by grassy undulations, which extend inland to pleasant park-like lands. Capes Bridgewater and Nelson form a peninsula of forest lands, broken by patches of meadow. To the east of Cape Nelson lies the moderately sheltered inlet of Portland Bay, consisting of a sweep of sandy beach flanked by bold granite rocks. Then comes a long unbroken stretch of high cliffs, which, owing to inserting currents, have been the scene of many calamitous wrecks. Cape Otway is the termination of a wild mountain range that here abuts on the coast. Its brown cliffs rise vertically from the water; and the steep slopes above are covered with dense forests of exceedingly tall timber and tree-ferns. Eastwards from this cape the line of cliffs gradually diminishes in height to about 20 to 40 ft. at the entrance to Port Phillip. Next comes Port Phillip Bay, at the head of which stands the city of Melbourne. When the tide recedes from this bay through the narrow entrance it often encounters a strong current just outside; the broken and somewhat dangerous sea thus caused is called “the Rip.” East of Port Phillip Bay the coast consists for 15 m. of a line of sandbanks; but at Cape Schanck they suddenly become high and bold. East of this comes Western Port, a deep inlet more than half occupied by French Island and Phillip Island. Its shores are flat and uninteresting, in some parts swampy. The bay is shallow and of little use for navigation. The coast continues rocky round Cape Liptrap. Wilson’s Promontory is a great rounded mass of granite hills, with wild and striking scenery, tree-fern gullies and gigantic gum-trees, connected with the mainland by a narrow sandy isthmus. At its extremity lie a multitude of rocky islets, with steep granite edges. North of this cape, and
opening to the east, lies Corner Inlet, which is dry at low water. The coast now continues low to the extremity of the colony. The slight bend northward forms a sort of bight called the Ninety Mile Beach, but it really exceeds that length. It is an unbroken line of sandy shore, backed by low sandhills, on which grows a sparse dwarf vegetation. Behind these hills comes a succession of lakes, surrounded by excellent land, and beyond these rise the soft blue outlines of the mountain masses of the interior. The shores on the extreme east are somewhat higher, and occasionally rise in bold points. They terminate in Cape Howe, off which lies Gabo Island, of small extent but containing an important lighthouse and signalling station.

The western half of Victoria is level or slightly undulating, and as a rule tame in its scenery, exhibiting only thinly timbered grassy lands, with all the appearance of open parks. The north-west corner of the colony, equally flat, is dry and sometimes sandy, and frequently bare of vegetation, though in one part some seven or eight millions of acres are covered with the dense brushwood known as "mallee scrub." This wide western plain is slightly broken in two places. In the south the wild ranges of Cape Otway are covered over a considerable area with richly luxurious but almost impassable forests. This district has been reserved as a state forest and its coast forms a favourite holiday resort, the scenery being very attractive. The middle of the plain is crossed by a thin line of mountains, known as the Australian Pyrenees, at the western extremity of which there are several irregularly placed transverse ranges, the chief being the Grampians, the Victoria Range and the Sierra Range. Their highest point is Mount William (4600 feet). The eastern half of the colony is wholly different. Though there is plenty of level land, it occurs in small patches, and chiefly in the south, in Gippsland, which extends from Corner Inlet to Cape Howe. But a great part of this eastern half is occupied with the complicated mass of ranges known collectively as the Australian Alps. The whole forms a plateau averaging from 1000 to 2000 ft. high, with many smaller tablelands ranging from 3000 to 5000 ft. in height. The highest peak, Bogong, is 6690 ft. in altitude. The ranges are so densely covered with vegetation that it is extremely difficult to penetrate them. About fifteen peaks over 5000 ft. in height have been measured. Along the ranges grow the giant trees for which Victoria is famous. The narrow valleys and gullies contain exquisite scenery, the rocky streams being overshadowed by groves of graceful tree-ferns, from amid whose waving fronds rise the tall smooth stems of the white gums. Over ten millions of acres are thus covered with forest-clad mountains which in due time will become a very valuable asset of the state. The Australian Alps are connected with the Pyrenees by a long ridge called the Dividing Range (1500 to 3000 ft. high).

Victoria is fairly well watered, but its streams are generally too small to admit of navigation. This, however, is not the case with the Murray river (q.v.). The Murray for a distance of 670 m. (or 1250 m. if its various windings are followed) forms the boundary between New South Wales and Victoria; it receives a number of tributaries from the Victorian side. The Mitta Mitta, which rises in the heart of the Australian Alps, is 150 m. long. The Ovens, rising among the same mountains, is slightly shorter. The Goulburn (330 m.) flows almost entirely through a richly agricultural country, and is deep enough to be used in its lower part for navigation. The valley of this river is a fertile grain-producing district. The Campaspe (150 m.) has too little volume of water to be of use for navigation; its valley is also agricultural, and along its banks there lie a close succession of thriving townships. The Loddon (over 200 m.) rises in the Pyrenees. The upper part flows through a plain to the right agricultural and to the left auriferous, containing nearly forty thriving towns, including Bendigo (formerly named Sandhurst) and Castlemaine. In the lower part of the valley the soil is also fertile, but the rainfall is small. To the west of the Loddon is the Avoca river with a length of 140 m.; it is of slight volume, and though it flows towards the Murray it loses itself in marshes and salt lagoons before reaching that river.

The rivers which flow southwards into the ocean are numerous. The Snowy river rises in New South Wales, and in Victoria flows entirely through wild and almost wholly unoccupied territory.
The Tambo (120 m. long), which rises in the heart of the Australian Alps, crosses the Gippsland plains and falls into Lake King, one of the Gippsland lakes; into the same lake falls the Mitchell river, rising in the same district. The Tambo is a tributary of the Tamar, a short distance. The Latrobe empties itself into Lake Wellington after a course of 135 m.; it rises at Mount Baw Baw. The Yarra Yarra rises in the Grampians and falls into the Yarra river which runs in a deep valley from the ranges, it follows a sinuous course through the undulating plains called the " Yarra Flats," which are wholly enclosed by hills, on whose slopes are some of the best vineyards of Australia. Northwest of Melbourne, between Baillieston and Lyttelton, Hopkins and Glenelg (280 m.) both water the splendid pastoral lands of the west, the lower course of the former passing through the fertile district of Warrnambool, well known throughout Australia as a potato-growing region.

In the west there are Lakes Corangamite and Colac, due north of Cape Otway. The former is intensely salt; the latter is fresh, having an outlet for its waters. Lakes Tyrell and Hindmarsh lies in the plains of the north-west. In summer they are dried up, and in winter are again formed by the waters of rivers that have no outlet. In the east are the Gippsland lakes, formed by the waters of the Dartmouth and Tamar, which are bounded by the sandhills of the Ninety Mile Beach. They are connected with Bass Strait by a narrow and shifting channel through a shallow bar; the government of Victoria has done a great deal of late years to deepen it. Lake Epping forms the head of the Avon Valley; Lake Wellington; a narrow passage leads into Lake Victoria, which is joined to a wider expanse called Lake King. These are all fresh-water lakes and are visited by tourists, being readily reached from Melbourne.

**Geology.**—Victoria includes a more varied and complete geological sequence than any other area of equal size in Australia. Its geological foundation consists of a band of Archean and Lower Paleozoic rocks which forms the backbone of the state. A belt of sedimentary rocks in this foundation have been thrown into folds, of which the axes trend approximately north and south. The London Clay, of the Carboniferous system, is the bed of the London District, Victoria, which occupy the whole width of the state at its eastern end, extending from the New South Wales border on the north to the shore of the Southern Ocean on the south. These Highlands constitute the whole of the mountainous country of Gippsland and the north-eastern districts. They become narrower to the west, and finally, beyond the old plateau of Dundas, disappear beneath the recent loams of the plains along the South Australian border. These strata include an upper series of Upper Cretaceous rocks, surface some Upper Paleozoic rocks, which occur in belts running north and south, and have been preserved by infolding or faulting; such rocks are extensive along the west coast of Victoria and in the Mountain Sandstones to the north-east of Melbourne; the belt of Devonian and Lower Carboniferous rocks that extends across eastern Victoria, through Mount Wellington to Mansfield; and finally the Rocking Hills, in the belt of Devonian rocks, near Cowes, are the remnants of a chain of Lower Devonian volcanoes. Further Upper Paleozoic rocks and the Upper Carboniferous glacial beds occur in basins on both northern and southern flanks of the Highlands. The Mesozoic rocks are confined to southern Victoria; they build up the hills of southern Gippsland and the Otway Ranges; and farther west, hidden by later rocks, they occur under the coast of the western district. Between the southern mountain belt and the Victorian Highlands occurs the Great Valley of Victoria, occupied by sedimentary and volcanic rocks of Kainozoic age. The North-Western Plains, occurring between the northern foot of the Highlands and the coast, is almost entirely covered by the belt of Tertiary rocks, erupted by a chain of Lower Devonian volcanoes. Further Upper Paleozoic rocks and the Upper Carboniferous glacial beds occur in basins on both northern and southern flanks of the Highlands.

Victoria has a fairly complete geological sequence, though it is poorer than New South Wales in the Upper Carboniferous and Lower Mesozoic. The Archean rocks form two blocks of gneisses and schists, both separated by their intrusive rocks, which are found in the middle of the northern part of Victoria. They were originally described as metamorphosed Silurian rocks, but must be of Archean age. The other rocks of the northern part of Victoria, which is mainly the Black Sun of the Australian Alps. Emerging, and forms the old framework upon which the geology of Victoria has been built up. They are known as the Heathcotean series, and consist of phyllites, schists and amphibolites; while their most characteristic feature is the contorted structure of the rocks and beds of jasperoids. Volcanic agglomerates occur in the series at the typical locality of Heathcote. The Heathcotean rocks form the Colibanbean Range, which runs for 40 m. northward and southward along the Coliban River from Mount Stirling. On the east, between the Cuthbert Range and the Victorian Alps, they apparently underlie parts of the Gippsland plains. The Cambrian rocks have so far only been definitely proved near Mansfield. Mr A. M. Howitt has there collected some fragmentary remains of Olenellus and worm tubes of the Cambrian genus Solenella. These beds at Mansfield contain phosphates, and there are deposits of lead and zinc.

The Ordovician system is well developed. It consists of slates and quartzites; and some schists around the granites of the western district. The beds of the former period in Victoria are accompanied by a rich graptolitic fauna, and they have been classified into the following divisions:

- **Upper Ordovician**
  - Darwilli Series
  - Castlemaine Series
  - Lancefield Series

The Ordovician beds are best developed in a band running north-northwest and south-south-east across Victoria, of which the eastern boundary passes through Melbourne. This Ordovician band begins on the south with the block forming the plateau of Ararat and Stony Creek. The northern extension of this belt is the Bassin formation. This outcrop is bounded to the north by the depression of Port Phillip and the basalt plains west of Melbourne. It reappears north of Lancefield, whence it extends along the Highlands, past Ballarat, with southern outcrops as far as St Kilda. It forms the whole of the Ballarat Plateau, and is continued northward through the goldfields of Castlemaine, Bendigo and the Pyreneeus, till it passes under the Northern Ranges. The Silurian rocks include the greater part of the strata of the Pyreneeus, and the age of the rocks in the Pyreneeus has not yet been collected, and they may be pre-Ordovician. Some Upper Ordovician rocks occur in the mountains of eastern Gippsland, as near Woods Point, and in northeastern Victoria and the Grampians.

The Silurian system consists of two divisions: the lower or Melbournian, and the upper or Yeringian. Both consist in the main of sandstones, quartzites and chert. The upper series includes nodules of limestones at Lithdayle, near Colac; and the upper sandstones, near the Thomson river. The limestones are rich in typical Silurian corals and bryozoans, and the shales and sandstones contain brachiopods and bryozoans. These rocks are rich in fossils, and are the most important of Victoria. They are the remnants of an old chain of volcanoes which once extended north and south across Victoria. The Middle Devonian is mainly formed of marine sandstones, and limestones in eastern Gippsland. It is best developed in the valleys of the Mitchell, the Tambo and the Snowy rivers. The Upper Devonian rocks are of Carboniferous age, and they include the beds of the former period, and the beds of the Upper Carboniferous, containing the gravel deposits and boulder clays, by which the occurrence of a Carboniferous glaciation in the Southern Hemisphere was first demonstrated. These beds occur at Heathcote, Bendigo, the Loddon Valley, southern Gippsland and the Northern-Eastern district. The beds are of a type containing ice-scrached boulders, which are sometimes rest upon ice-scrached, montomé surfaces, and some lake deposits, similar to those laid down in glacial lakes. The glacial beds are overlain by sandstones containing Gangamopteris, and a great many species of fossils are contained in this series, which are on the horizon of the Greta or Lower Coal Measures of New South Wales.

The Mesozoic group is represented only by Jurassic rocks, which form the mountains of southern Gippsland and include its coalfields. The rocks contain fossil land plants, occasional fish remains and the claw of a dimosaurus, &c. The coal is of excellent quality. The mudstones, which form the main bulk of this series, are largely composed of volcanic debris, which decomposes to a fertile soil. These rocks trend south-westward along the Bass Range, which reaches Western Port. They skirt the Mornington Peninsula, underlie part of Port Phillip and the Bass, and are exposed in the Barabool Hills to the south-west of Geelong; thence they extend into the Otway Ranges, which are wholly built of these rocks and contain some coal seams. Farther west they disappear into the Barwon or Barwon South district. They are exposed again in the Portland Peninsula, and rise again to form the Wannon Hills, to the south of Dundas. The Lower Coal Measures include three main series: Lower marine and volcanic. The main lacustrine series is probably of Oligocene
age, and is important from its thick beds of brown coal, which are
thickest in the Great Valley of Victoria in southern Gippsland.
A cliff face on the banks of the Latrobe, near Morwell, shows 90 ft.
of it, and a bore near Morwell is recorded as having passed through
88 ft. of it. It is extensive in the Gippsland area, and its influence is
very great. The brown coals occur to the south-east of Melbourne,
under the basaltts between it and Geelong. Brown coal is also
abundant on the plains south of Lakes Entrance, and on the river
westward to Alberton. At the time of the deposition of these
beds Wilson's Promontory probably extended south-eastward and
joined Tasmania; for the mid-Kainozoic marine deposits do not
occur on either coast. The beds are 9 ft. thick where they are found.
They extend up the old valley of Port Phillip as far as Keilor to the
north of Melbourne, and are widely distributed under the volcanic
rocks of the Yarra Plains. They are exposed on the floors of the
volcanic cinder cones, and have been found by mining operations
under the volcanic rocks of the Ballarat plateau near Ballarat.
The Miocene sea extended up the Glenelg valley, round the western
borders of the Dandenong Ranges, and spread over the Lower Murray
Basin into New South Wales; its southern-eastern limit was
in a valley at Stawell. Some later marine deposits occur at the
Lakes Entrance in eastern Gippsland, and in the valley of the
Glenelg.

The volcanic series begins with a line of great dacite domes
including the geburite-dactite of Macedon, which is associated with
southern mountains. Katoomba Kilmartins are associated with the
Katoomba lavas, which are described in the following pages. The
volcanic series was folowed by that of sheets of basalt of several different
ages, and the intrusion of some trachyte dykes. The oldest basaltts
are associated with the Oligocene lake deposits; and fragments of the
last mentioned are still preserved. The larger eruption formed the
lava-tains in the Highlands of eastern Victoria. The gravel revival
is in the works near Geelong and Portland, and on the shores of the
Gippsland lakes, which are occupied by 10,000 sq. m. of south-western Victoria.

There are three main areas of the coalfield: near Melbourne, the
railway for 166 m. from Melbourne to Warrnambool. The
volcanic craters built up by later eruptions are well preserved: such as
Mount Elephant, a simple breached cone; Mount Noorat, with a
lava-flowed crater; and Mount Fyffe, near Colac, with a large
Mount Warrenheip, near Ballarat, a single cone with the crater
bracheted to the north-west. Mount Franklin, standing on the
Oroclivick plans north of Daysley's, is a weathered cone bracheted
in the south-west. In addition to the volcanic craters, there are
numerous volcanic cinder cones supported by substrates, such as
Bullenmerri and Gootuk near Camperdown, Kilcambete near Terang, and
Togia. These conical structures of the Mount Bolingbroke shew
varying from a lake on its floor is a later
volcanic crater.

The Pleistocene, or perhaps Upper Pliocene, deposits of most interest
are found in association with the basaltts. One of the most
notable formations is that of Diprotodon and Palorchestes, which have been found near Geelong,
Castlemaine, Lake Kookungal, &c.; at the last locality Diprotodon
are associated to be seen in the ammonites of the base of the
the diplo. There is no trace in these deposits of the existence of
man, and J. W. Gregory has asserted the striking absence of
 evidence of man's residence in Victoria, except for a very limited
 period. There is no convincing evidence of Pleistocene glacial
deposits in Victoria. Of the many records, the only one that can
be still regarded as at all probable is that regarding Mount Bogong.
The chief literature on the geology of Victoria is to be found in the
volumes and publications of the Geological Survey—this, however,
the Mines Department. A map of the State, on the scale of eight
inches to the mile, was issued in 1902. The Survey has published
numerous maps, showing the tops of hills, the courses of rivers,
and the geological boundaries between the different parishes.
The geology is described in the Reports, Bulletins and Memoirs of the Survey, and in the Quarterly Reports of the Mining
Registrars.

Statistics of the mining industry are stated in the Annual Reports of the Survey. See also the summary of the geology of Victoria, by R. Murray, issued by the
Mines Department in 1887 and 1895. Numerous papers on the
geoology of the State are contained in the Trans. R. Soc. Victoria,
and on its mining geology in the Trans. R. Soc. Victoria and in
the Mining Engineers. The physical geography has been described
by W. G. Gregory in the Geography of Victoria (1903).

Victoria is the home of the Myer, being largely composed of
Eucalyptus or gum trees. There are several
hundred species, the most notable being Eucalyptus amygdalina, a
tree with white wood, smooth, as a marble column, and without
bracken. The wood is of the highest estimate in the gum and
is single. Eucalyptus globulus is a very common tree in
sheds, for these have all the appearance of lofty
pilled cathedrals. These trees are among the tallest in the world,
average in some districts about 300 ft. The longest ever
measured was found prostrate on the Black Spur; it measured
470 ft. in length; it was 81 ft. in girth near the root. Eucalyptus
globulosa or blue gum has broad green leaves, which yield
the eucalyptus oil of the pharmacopoeia. Eucalyptus rostrata is
extensively used in the colony as a timber, being popularly known as
red gum. It is very hard and durable and has a fine grain and
is almost indestructible when used as piles for piles or wharves.

The larger species of eucalyptus form the common "bush." Melaleuca
is probably the most widespread of the Eucalyptae, and is
found in many places along the coasts, where they grow densely on the sand-hills, forming "t-tree" scrub. Eucalyptus dumosa is a species which grows only 6 to 12 ft.
high, but with a straight stem; the trees grow so close together that they form a dense wall. They are found on
porous limestone. V. Eucalyptus acuminata, which has been taken up as an irrigation colony on California principles and laid
out in 40-acre farms and orchards. The Leguminosae are
chiefly represented by acacias, of which the wattle is the
most notable. The black wattle is of considerable value, its gum is being marketable
and its bark worth from $15 to $10 a ton for tanning purposes.
The golden wattle is a beautiful tree, whose rich yellow blossoms fill the
river-valleys in early spring with delicious scent. The Casuarina
or she-oaks are gloomy trees, of little use, but of frequent occurrence.

Heaths, grass-trees and magnificent fenns and ferns-trees are also
notable in the higher districts. The vegetation of the Southern districts is in
any region under the influence of a semi-tropical or a tropical heat.

Gaunt.—The indigenous animals belong almost wholly to the
Marsupialia. The Kangaroo, bandicoot and possum, and the
various wallabies, are widespread, and the destructive diseases of
the same class. The wombat forms extensive burrows in some
districts. The native bear is a frugivorous little animal, and very
numerous. The Possum is a large ratlike animal, which has been
introduced as a pest. The magpie, and the flying fox, very abundant in some districts. Eagles, hawks, thrushes,

pigeons, ducks, quail, snipe and plover are common; but the
characteristic denizens of the forest are the great flocks of parrots,
which are found in the southern forests. The laughing jackass (giant kingfisher) is heard in all the country
parts, and magpies are numerous everywhere. Snakes are numerous,
but less than one-fourth of the species are venomous, and they are
largely destroyed by the ferrets and other fowls. The kangaroo
and the wombat are the only native carnivores. A great change is rapidly taking place in the fauna of the
country, owing to cultivation and acclimatization. Dingoes have
nearly disappeared, and rabbits, which were introduced only a
few years ago, now abound in such numbers as to be a positive
nuisance. Deer are also rapidly becoming numerous. Sparrows
and swallows are as common as in England. The trout, which
have been acclimatized, is taking full possession of some of the
streams.

Climate.—Victoria enjoys an exceptionally fine climate. Roughly
speaking, about one-half of the days in the year present a bright,
cloudless sky, with a bracing and dry atmosphere, pleasantly warm
but not relaxing. These days are mainly in the autumn and
winter. During forty-eight years, ending with 1905, there have
never been more than seventy days during which temperatures averaged more
or less (chiefly in winter, but rainy days do not exceed thirty
in the year. The average yearly rainfall was 25-61 in. The
discreetible feature of the Victorian climate is the occurrence of
north winds, which blow on an average about sixty days in the
year. In winter they are cold and dry, and have a slightly depressing
effect; but in summer they are hot and dry, and generally bring
reflective heat and haze or clouds of dust. The winds themselves blow
for periods of two or three days at a time, and if the summer has
six or eight such periods it becomes relaxing and produces languor.

These winds cease with extraordinary suddenness, being replaced
in a few days by the very warm south-west winds. The temperature often falls 40° or 50°F. in an hour. The
maximum shade temperature at Melbourne in 1905 was 108-5°F.,
and the minimum 52°, giving a mean of 56-1°. The temperature
falling at sunset on the very hot days is considerable, and the
snow in the coldest month. Snow has been known to fall in
Melbourne for a few minutes two or three times during a long
period of years. It is common enough, however, on the plains of
Ballarat, which is over 1000 ft. high, always has a few snowstorms
and the roads to Omeo among the Australian Alps lie under several
feet of snow in the winter. The general healthiness of the climate
in the Melbourne district is due to the fact that the last
fifty years has been only 12-71 of the population.

Population.—As regards population, Victoria maintained the
leading position among the Australasian colonies until the end
of the last century. When New South Wales was the leading colony in
population in 1905 was 1,218,571, the proportion of the sexes being nearly
equal. In 1860 the population numbered 537,847; in 1870,
The number of illegitimate births in 1905 was 1,609, which gives a proportion of 5.6 to 100 births registered. The death rate has greatly improved. Arranged in quinquennial periods the death-rate was:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Deaths per 1000 of Population.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1861-65</td>
<td>17.36</td>
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<tr>
<td>1866-70</td>
<td>16.52</td>
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<tr>
<td>1871-75</td>
<td>15.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>1876-80</td>
<td>14.92</td>
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<tr>
<td>1886-90</td>
<td>13.67</td>
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<td>1891-95</td>
<td>13.67</td>
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<tr>
<td>1901-95</td>
<td>12.71</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The marriages in 1905 numbered 8,774, which represents a rate of 7.2 per 1000 persons. This was the highest number reached during a period of 14 years, and was 564 more than in 1901 and 1169 more than in 1903. In the five years 1871-75 the marriage rate stood at 6.33 per 1000 in 1876-80, 6.02; in 1881-85, 7.77; in 1891-95, 5.13; in 1901-95, 6.96.

Outside Melbourne and suburbs, the most important towns areBallarat (49,643), Bendigo (43,666), Geelong (26,642), Castlemaine (8,683), Warrnambool (6,630), Maryborough (6,000) and Stawell (5,000).

**Religion.**—The Church of England, as disclosed at the census of 1901, had 43,704 adherents; the Roman Catholic Church came next with 26,310; the Presbyterians had 19,725; Wesleyans and Methodists, 18,272; Congregationalists, 17,141; Baptists, 32,648; Lutherans, 13,035; Jews, 9,997; and the Salvation Army, with Australian headquarters are in Melbourne, 8,950.

**Education.**—In 1905 there were 1,190 public schools, in which there were 210,200 children enrolled, the teachers numbering 4,699. There were also 771 private schools with 2,229 teachers and a net enrolment of 43,614 children; the majority of these being connected with one or other of the principal religious denominations. The total cost of primary instruction in 1905 was £67,244, as being 11.8d. per head of population and £4,145.40, per head of scholars in average attendance. Melbourne University maintains its high position as a teaching body. In 1905 the number of matriculants was 493 and the graduates 118.

Crime is decreasing. In 1905 the number of persons brought before the magistrates was 14,345. Drunkenness accounted for 14,458, which represents 11.92 per 1000 of the population; in 1901 the proportion was 14.13. Charges against the person numbered 1952, and against property 4032.

**Administration.**—As one of the six states of the Commonwealth, Victoria returns six senators and twenty-three representatives to the federal parliament. The local legislative authority is vested in a parliament of two chambers, both elective—the Legislative Council, composed of thirty-five members, and the Legislative Assembly, composed of sixty-eight members. One-half of the members of the Council retire every three years. The members of the Assembly are elected by universal suffrage for the term of three years, but the chamber can be dissolved at any time by the Governor in council. Members of the Assembly are paid £300 a year.

The whole of Victoria in 1905 was under the control of municipalities, with the exception of about 300 sq. m. in the mountainous part of Wonangatta, and 64 sq. m. in French Island. The number of municipalities in that year was 206; they comprised 11 cities, 11 towns, 38 boroughs and 146 shires.

**Finance.**—The public revenue in 1905 showed an increase on that of the three previous years, being £7,515,142, equal to £6,48.4d. per head of population; the expenditure amounted to £5,343,742, which showed a slight increase and was equal to £4.10. 4d. per inhabitant. The public debt in 1861 was £18,000, £4,621,282; 1885, £6,396,381; 1895, £8,519,159; 1897, £8,724,312; and in 1901, £9,722,392. The chief sources of revenue in 1905 were licences, £2,017,378; other taxation, £792,029; railway receipts, £5,660,720; agricultural lands, £408,836; other sources, £501,379. The main items of expenditure were railways (working expenses), £2,004,601; public instruction, £158,274; religion, £50,370; other services, £2,793,139. On the 30th of June 1905 the public debt of the state stood at £51,513,767, equal to £42.96.7d. per inhabitant. The great bulk of the proceeds of loans was applied to the reconstruction of railways and of other works, only about three million dollars being otherwise used.

Up to 1905 the state had allocated 26,546,802 acres of the public domain, and had 17,094,233 acres under the area neither alienated nor leased amounted to 11,904,725 acres.

The capital value of properties as returned by the municipalities in 1905 was £210,920,174, and the annual value £11,743,276. In 1905 the property owners paid £59,572, the revenues of the municipalities in the 2nd quarter was £5,161,328; the gross amount of taxation levied in Victoria in 1904 was £2,488,843, the state government £9,079,029, the municipalities £968,009, and the Melbourne Harbour Trust £199,083. The Melbourne and Metropolitan Board of Works, £90,441; Fire Boards, £53,797. The Board of Works is the authority administering the metropolitan water and gas works. Excluding government endowments and special grants, which in 1905 amounted to £90,572, the revenues of the municipalities in the 2nd quarter was £5,161,328; the gross amount of taxation levied in Victoria in 1904 was £2,488,843, the state government £9,079,029, the municipalities £968,009, and the Melbourne Harbour Trust £199,083.

**Provisions and Industry: Minerals.**—About 25,000 persons find employment in the goldfields, and the quantity of gold won in 1905 was 810,090 oz., valued at £1,773,744, a decrease of 10,067 oz. as compared with 1904. The dividends paid by gold-mining companies in 1905 amounted to £45,431, which, although about the average of recent years, showed a decline of £100,000 as compared with the amount distributed in 1904. Up to the close of 1905 the total value of gold won from the first discovery in 1851 was £273,250,000. No other metallic minerals are systematically worked, although many valuable deposits are known to exist. Brown coal, or lignite, is found in varying quantity, an important supply being mined at Wonthaggi, near the mouth of the Gippsland district. The production of coal in 1905 was 155,185 tons, valued at £29,060; £4100 worth of silver and £1,115 worth of tin were raised; the value of other minerals won was £63,920, making a total mineral production (exclusive of gold) of £187,711.

**Agriculture.**—Judged by the area under tillage, Victoria ranks first among the states of the Australian group. The area under crop in 1905 was 1,466,577 acres, compared with 2,116,000 acres in 1901 and 1,435,000 acres in 1881. Wheat-growing claims the chief attention, 2,070,517 acres being under that cereal in 1905. The produce in 1905 was equal to other years, as follows: wheat, 1,040,100 bushels; oats, 312,052 acres; barley, 40,338 acres; other cereals, 14,212 acres; hay, 591,771 acres; potatoes, 44,670 acres; vines, 26,402 acres; olive groves, 34,941 acres; other tillage, 73,574 acres; land in cultivation, 1,047,153 acres; the produce was of unusually fine quality, and usually commands a high price in the London market. The average yield per acre in 1905 was 11.31 bushels; the yield for the year 1904 was 11.28 bushels, and for the year 1900 the average yield per acre was 11.17, while in 1901 and 1902 the highest yields were obtained. The yield of oats was 23.18 bushels per acre, of barley 25.95, and of potatoes 2.58 tons. Great progress has been made in the cultivation of the grape vine, and in 1904 the area was increased to 12,000 acres, and the yield now produces more than one-third of the wine made in Australia.

**Live Stock.**—The number of sheep in 1905 was 11,455,115. The quality of the sheep is steadily improving. Systematic attention has been brought to the improvement of the sheep in the early period since 1864, and careful observations show that between 1861 and 1871 the average weight of wool per sheep increased about one-third; between 1871 and 1881 about one pound was added to the weight.
per fleece, and there has been a further improvement since the year named. The following were the number of sheep depastured at the different pastoral districts for 1890: Bendigo 197,000; Port Elliot, 189,129,000; 1901, 101,841,790. The horses numbers 385,513, the swine 273,682, and the horned cattle 1,737,690; of these last, 647,382 were of the Brahman breed. Beef-making has grown since 1890, and a fairly large export trade has arisen. In 1905, 57,606,821 lb of butter were made, 4,297,350 lb of cheese and 16,433,665 lb of bacon and hams.

The wool trade has been a good deal of fluctuation in the amount of employment afforded by the factories, as the following figures show: hands employed, 1885, 49,297; 1890, 36,639; 1893, 39,473; 1895, 46,095; 1900, 64,207; 1905, 80,235. Of the hands laboring in 1905, 54.3% were male and 45.7% female. The number of establishments was 4,264, and the horse-power of machinery actually used, 43,492. The value of machinery was returned at $30,497,130, and the land and buildings $7,772,218. The majority of the establishments were small; those employing from 50 to 100 hands in 1905 were 161, and upwards of 100 hands, 124.

Commerce.—Excluding the coastal trade, the tonnage of vessels entering Victorian ports in 1890 was $5,899,093, or about 34% tons per inhabitant. The imports in the same year were valued at $22,337,886, and the exports at $27,758,828. These figures represent 18.8, 25.3, and 18.6% per inhabitant respectively. The domestic produce exported was valued at $14,427,661; in 1891 the value was $13,026,426; and in 1891, $12,490,567. The comparatively small increase over the period named is due to the large fall in prices of the staple articles of local production. There has, however, been a marked increase in the cultivation of tobacco by the New South Wales government in extending its railways into districts formerly supplied from Melbourne. The principal articles of local production exported from Victoria, with their wholesale values were as follows: cheese, $1,576,189; gold (coined and bullion), $1,078,560; wheat, $1.835,204; frozen mutton, $755,195; frozen and preserved rabbits and hares, $230,940; skins and hides, $335,808; wool, $2,501,990; hides, $277,489; gold-dust, $9,600; soap, $9,550; barley, $76,886; hogsheads of wine, $165,858; flour, $59,397; hay and chaff, $75,471; bacon and ham, $89,643; jams and jellies, $73,233; fruit (dried and fresh), $125,332. The bulk of the trade passes through Melbourne, the imports at the port in 1905 being $18,112,828.

Defence.—The Commonwealth defence forces in Victoria number about 5,700 men, 4,360 being partially paid militia and 1,340 unpaid volunteers. The state of the army and navy is as follows: 6 officers, 184 other ranks, and 29,400 men. There are 11,400 men, 17,400 women, and 10,000 children belonging to rifle clubs. Besides these there are 200 naval artillerymen, men, capable of being employed either as a light artillery land force, or on board war vessels. The total expenditure in 1905 for purposes of defence in the state was $291,577.

Railways.—The railways have a total length of 3,394 m., and the cost of their construction and equipment up to the 30th of June in 1905 was $41,259,387; this sum was obtained by raising loans, mainly in London, and the security of the general revenues of the state. In 1905 the gross railway earnings were $3,582,266, and the working expenses $2,222,279; so that the net earnings were $1,359,987, which sum represents 3.5% on the capital cost.

Agriculture.—Victoria has a length of 634 miles of telegraph line in operation in 1905; there were 969 stations, and the business done was represented by 2,256,482 telegrams. The post-offices, properly so-called, numbered 1,673; during that year 11,286,240 letters were passed through them, and 17,795,000 postcards. The postal service is carried on at a profit; the revenue in 1905 was $705,396, and the expenditure $733,713. Telephone services are widely used. (Of 9,050 the 1,805 to 1869; Edmund Finn, Chronicles of Early Melbourne (Melbourne, 1889); Philip Mennell, The Dictionary of Australasian Biography (Melbourne, 1892); T. A. Coghlan, Australia and New Zealand (1903). (T. A. C.)

History.—The first discover of Victoria was Captain Cook, in command of H.M.S. "Endeavour," who sighted Cape Everard, about half-way between Cape Howe and the mouth of the Snowy river, on the 19th of April 1770, a few days prior to his arrival at Botany Bay. The first persons to land in Victoria were the supercargo and a portion of the crew of the merchant ship "Sydney Cove," which was wrecked at the Furneaux Islands in Bass Strait on the 6th of February 1797. In the same year, Mr Bass, a surgeon in the navy, discovered the strait which bears his name and separates Victoria from Tasmania. Lieut. Grant in the "Lady Nelson" surveyed the south coast in 1800, and in 1801 Port Phillip was for the first time entered by Lieut. Murray. In 1802 that harbour was surveyed by Captain Flinders, and in the same year Mr Grimes, the surveyor-general of New South Wales, explored the country in the neighborhood of the present site of Melbourne. In 1804 Lieut.-Colonel Collins, who had been sent from England, formed a penal settlement on the shores of Port Phillip, but after remaining a little more than three months near Indented Head, he removed his party to Van Diemen Land. Victoria was visited in 1824 by two sheep farmers named Hume and Hovell, who rode overland from Lake George, New South Wales, to the shores of Corio Bay. In 1826 a convict establishment was attempted by the government of New South Wales at Port Phillip Point, on the Corio Bay, but it was abandoned shortly afterwards. In 1834 Messrs Edward and Francis Henty, who had taken part in the original expedition to Swan river, West Australia, and afterwards migrated to Van Diemen Land, crossed Bass Strait, established a shore whaling station at Portland Bay, and formed sheep and cattle stations on the river Wannon and Wando rivulet, near the site of the present town of Merino, Casterton and Coleraine. In 1835 a number of flock owners in Van Diemen Land purchased through Batman from the aborigines a tract of 700,000 acres on the shores of Port Phillip. The sale was repudiated by the British government, and all unoccupied land in any part of Australia as the property of the crown, and did not recognize the title of the aborigines. Batman, however, remained at Port Phillip, and commenced farming within the boundaries of the present city of Melbourne. He was followed by John Pascoe Fawkner and other settlers from Van Diemen Land, who occupied the fertile plains of the new territory. In 1836 Captain Lonsdale was sent to Melbourne by the government of New South Wales to act as resident magistrate at Port Phillip. The first census taken in 1838 showed that the population was 5,511, of whom 3,080 were males and 2,431 females. In 1839 Mr Latrobe was appointed superintendent of Port Phillip, and a resident judge was nominated for Melbourne, with jurisdiction over the territory which now forms the state of Victoria. The years 1839 and 1841 were periods of depression owing to the decline in the value of all descriptions of live stock, for which the first settlers had paid high prices; but there was a steady immigration from Great Britain of men with means, attracted by the profits of sheep-farming, and of labourers and artisans who obtained free passages under the provisions of the Wakefield system. This was the period when the public lands were sold in the state by auction, and when large tracts were purchased by companies. In 1839 the plan of colonization was put into action in the state, and in 1841 the population had increased to 11,738. Melbourne was incorporated as a town in 1842, and was raised to the dignity of a city in 1847. In that same year the first Anglican was ordained, and in 1848 the first Roman Catholic bishop. The third census (taken in 1846) showed a population of 32,870.

The elective element was introduced into the Legislative Council of New South Wales in 1843, when the colony was thrown open to the franchise of twenty-four members to twelve nominated by the crown, and the district of Port Phillip, including Melbourne, returned six members. But the colonists were not satisfied with government
from and by Sydney; an agitation in favour of separation commenced, and in 1851 Victoria was formed into a separate colony with an Executive Council appointed by the crown, and a Legislative Council, partly elective and partly nominated, on the same lines as that of New South Wales. The population at that date was 77,435. Gold was discovered a few weeks after the colony had entered upon its separate existence, and a large number of persons were attracted to the mines, first from the neighbouring colonies—some of which, such as South Australia, Van Diemen's Land and West Australia, were almost denuded of able-bodied men and women—and subsequently from Europe and America. The administration of the gold-fields was closely watched by the central government, which had to contend, the task of maintaining law and order was fairly grappled with; the foundations of a liberal system of primary, secondary and university education were laid; roads, bridges and telegraphs were constructed, and Melbourne was provided with an excellent supply of water. 

Local self-government was introduced in 1853, and the Legislative Council was able to discuss a new Constitution, which not only eliminated the nominee element from the Legislative Council, but made the executive government responsible to the people. The administration of the gold-fields was no longer left to the miners, and payment at a low rate for permission to mine for gold, and at that being no representation for the gold-fields in the local Legislative Council. The discontent culminated, at Ballarat in December 1854, in riots in which there was a considerable loss of life both amongst the miners and the troops. Eventually, an export duty on gold was substituted for the licence fee, but every miner had to take out a right which enabled him to occupy a limited area of land for mining, and also for residence. The census taken in 1854 showed the population of 236,778. The new Constitution was popular in 1855, and the old Legislative Council was gazetted as the first responsible ministry. It held office for about sixteen months, and was succeeded by an administration formed from the popular party. Several changes were made in the direction of democratizing the government, and vote by ballot, manhood suffrage and the abolition of the property qualification followed each other in rapid succession. To several of these changes there was strenuous opposition, not so much in the Assembly which represented the manhood, as in the Council in which the property of the colony was supreme. The crown lands, which were the original squatters. But a sufficient number of grazing men were held under a licence renewable annually at a low rental. These licences were very valuable, and the goodwill of a grazing farm or "run" commanded a high price. Persons who desired to acquire freehold for the purpose of tillage could only do so by purchasing the land at auction, and the local squatters, unwilling to be deprived of any portion of a valuable property, were generally willing to pay a price per acre with which no person of small means desirous of embarking upon agricultural pursuits could compete. The result was that although the population had increased in 1861 to 340,322, the area of land under crop had not grown proportionately, and Victoria was dependent upon the neighbouring colonies and even more distant countries for a considerable portion of its food. A series of Land Acts was passed, the first in 1860, with the view of encouraging a class of small freeholders. The principle underlying all these laws was that residence by landowners on their farms, and their cultivation, were more important to the state than the sum realized by the sale of the land. The policy was only partially successful, and by a number of ingenious evasions a large proportion of the best land in the colony passed into the possession of the original squatters. But a sufficient proportion was purchased by small farmers to convert Victoria into a great agricultural country, and to enable it to export large quantities of farm and dairy produce.

The greater portion of the revenue was raised by the taxation through the customs of a small number of products, such as spirits, tobacco, wine, tea, coffee, &c. But an agitation arose in favour of such an adjustment of the import duties as would protect the manufacturers which at that time were being commenced. A determined opposition to this policy was made by a large minority in the Assembly, and by a large majority in the Council, but by degrees the democratic party triumphed. The victory was not gained without a number of political crises which shook the whole fabric of society to its foundations. The Assembly tackled the tariff to the Appropriation Bill, and the Council threw out both. The result was that there was no legal means of paying either the civil servants or the contractors, and the government had recourse to an ingenious though questionable system by which advances were made by a bank which was recouped through the crown conferring on it that it would hold the government's account, and deduct from its payment for any recovery to parliament. Similar opposition was made by the Council to payment of members, and to a grant made to Lady Darling, the wife of Governor Sir Charles Darling, who had been recalled by the secretary of state on the charge of having shown partiality to the democratic party. Indeed on one occasion the dispute between the government and the Council was so violent that the former dismissed all the police, magistrates, county court judges and other high officials, on the ground that no provision had been made by the Council, which had thrown out the Appropriation Bill.

Notwithstanding these political struggles, the population of the colony steadily increased, and the Legislature found time to pass some measures which affected the social life and the commercial position of the colonies. State aid to religion was abolished, and divorce was made comparatively easy. A system of free, compulsory and secular primary education was introduced. The import duties were increased and the transfer of land was simplified. In 1880 a fortnightly mail service via Suez between England and Melbourne was introduced, and in 1887 the first International Exhibition ever held in Victoria was opened. In the following year the census showed a population of 862,346, of whom 452,883 were males and 410,263 females. During the same year the lengthy dispute between the two houses of parliament, which had caused so much inconvenience, so many heartburnings and so many political crises, was brought to an end by the passage of an act which reduced the qualifications for members and the election of the Legislative Council, shortened the tenure of their seats, increased the number of provinces to fourteen and the number of members to forty-two. In 1883 a coalition government, in which the Liberal or protectionist and the Conservative or free-trade party were represented, took office, and with some changes remained in power for seven years. During this political truce several important changes were made in the Constitution. An act for giving greater facilities for divorce was passed, and with some difficulty obtained the royal assent. The Victorian railways were handed over to the control of three commissioners, who to a considerable extent were made independent of the government, and the civil service was placed under the supervision of an independent board. In 1887 the representatives of Victoria met those of the other British colonies and of the United Kingdom in London, under the presidency of Lord Knutsford, in order to discuss the questions of defence, postal and telegraphic communication, and the contribution of Australia to the Imperial navy. In 1888 a weekly mail service was established via Suez by the steamers of the P. & O. and the Orient Companies, and the second Victorian International Exhibition was opened. In 1890 all the Australian colonies, including New South Wales and New Zealand, sent representatives to a conference at Melbourne, at which resolutions were passed in favour of the establishment of a National Australian Convention empowered to consider and report upon an adequate scheme for the Federal Constitution. This Convention met in Sydney in 1891 and took the first step towards federation (see AUSTRALIA).

In 1891 the coalition government resigned and a Liberal administration was formed. An act passed in that year placed the railways again under the control of the government. Measures of a democratic and collectivist tendency have since obtained the assent of the Legislature. The franchise of
property-holders not resident in an electorate was abolished and the principle of "one man one vote" was established. Acts have been passed sanctioning Old Age Pensions; prohibiting shops, except those selling perishable goods, from keeping open more than eight hours; compelling the proprietors to give their assistants one half-holiday every six days; preventing persons from working more than forty-eight hours a week; and appointing for each trade a tribunal composed of an equal number of employers and employed to fix a minimum wage. (See Australia.)

Victoria enjoyed a large measure of prosperity during the later 'eighties and earlier 'nineties, and its financial prosperity enabled the government to expend large sums in extending railway communication to almost every locality and to commence a system of irrigation. The soil of Victoria is on the whole more fertile than in any other colony on the mainland of Australia, and in no portion of the continent is there any locality equal in fertility to the western district and some parts of Gippsland. The rainfall is more equitable than in any portion of Australia, but the northern and north-western districts, which are the most remote from the sea and the Dividing Range, are subject to droughts, which, although not so severe or so frequent as in the interior of the continent, are sufficiently disastrous in their effects. The results of the expenditure upon irrigation have not been so & successful as was hoped. Victoria has no mountains covered with snow, which in Italy and South America supply with water the rivers at the season of the year when the land needs irrigation, and it was necessary to construct large and expensive reservoirs. The cost of water is therefore greater than the ordinary agriculturist who grows grain or breeds and fattens stock can afford to pay, although the price may not be too high for orchardists and vine-growers. In 1892 the prosperity of the colony was checked by a great strike which for some months affected production, but speculation in land continued for some time longer, especially in Melbourne, which at that time contained nearly half the population, 900,000 out of a total of 1,140,105. There does not seem to have been any other reasons for this increase in land values, for there was no immigration, and the value of every description of produce had fallen—except that the working classes were prosperous and well paid, and that the purchase of small allotments in the suburbs was a popular mode of investment. In 1893 there was a collapse. The value of land declined enormously, hundreds of persons believed to be wealthy were ruined, and there was a financial panic which caused the suspension of all the banks, with the exception of the Australasia, the Union of Australia, and the New South Wales. Most of them resumed payment, but three went into liquidation. It was some years before the normal condition of prosperity was restored, but the great resources of the colony and the energy of its people discovered new markets, and new products for them, and enabled them materially to increase the export trade.

VICTORIA, a city and port of Brazil, capital of the state of Espiritu Santo, on the W. side of an island at the head of the Bay of Espiritu Santo, 270 m. N.E. of Rio de Janeiro, in lat. 20° 18' S., long. 46° 20' W. Pop. (1902, estimated) 9000. The city occupies the beach and talus at the base of a high, wooded mountain. The principal streets follow the water-line, rising in terraces from the shore, and are crossed by narrow, steep, roughly paved streets. The buildings are old and of the colonial type. The governor's residence is an old convent, with its church at one side. The entrance to the bay is rather tortuous and difficult, but is sufficiently deep for the largest vessels. It is defended by five small forts. The harbour is not large, but is safe and deep, being completely shut in by hills. A large quay, pier, warehouses, &c., facilitate the handling of cargoes, which were previously transported to and from the anchorage by lighters. Victoria is a port of call for coasting steamers and a shipping port in the coffee trade. The other exports are sugar, rice and mandioc (manioc) to home ports.

Victoria was founded in 1535 by Vasco Fernando Coutinho, on the S. side and nearer the entrance to the bay, and received the name of Espiritu Santo. The old site is still occupied, and is known as Villa Velha (Old Town). The name of Victoria was adopted in 1558 in commemoration of a crushing defeat inflicted by Fernando da Sa on the allied tribes of the Aimorés, Tapirequins and Goitacazes in that year. It was attacked (1592) by the freebooter Cavendish, who was repelled by one of the forts at the entrance to the bay.

VICTORIA, the capital of British Columbia and the principal city of Vancouver Island, in the S.E. corner of which it is finely situated (48° 25' 26" N., 123° 22' 24" W.), on a small arm of the sea, its harbour, however, only admitting vessels drawing 18 ft. Pop. (1906) about 25,000. It is the oldest city in the province. It has fine streets, handsome public buildings, government offices and churches. The high school is affiliated with McGill University, in Montreal. Victoria is connected with the mainland by cable, and is a favourite tourist resort for the whole west coast of North America. Till 1858 Victoria was a post of the Hudson's Bay Company. The city was incorporated in 1862, and according to the census of 1880 the population was 14,000, including Chinese and Indians; spread over an area of 4 sq. m. Until the redistribution of the fleet in 1905, the headquarters of the British Pacific squadron was at Esquimalt, a fine harbour about 3 m. W. of Victoria. This harbour, though spacious, is not much used by merchant vessels. It is provided with a large dry-dock and is defended by fortifications of a modern type.

VICTORIA FALLS, the greatest waterfall in the world, forming the most remarkable feature of the river Zambezi, Central Africa. The falls are about midway in the course of the Zambezi in 15° 51' S., 25° 41' E. For a considerable distance above the falls the river flows over a level sheet of basalt, its valley bounded by low and distant sandstone hills. Its clear blue waters are dotted with numerous tree-clad islands. These islands increase in number as the river, without quickening its current, approaches the falls, whose nearness is indicated only by a veil of spray. At the spot where the Zambezi is at its widest—over 1800 yds.—it falls abruptly over the edge of an almost vertical chasm with a roar as of continuous thunder,
sending up vast columns of vapour. Hence the native name Musi-o-itu, "Smoke does sound there." The chasm extends the whole breadth of the river and is more than twice the depth of Niagara, varying from 250 ft. at the right bank to 375 ft. of the left. Unlike Niagara the water does not fall into an open basin but is arrested at a distance of from 80 to 240 ft. by the opposite wall of the chasm. Both walls are of the same height, so that the falls appear to be formed by a huge crack in the bed of the river. The only outlet is a narrow channel cut in the barrier wall at a point about three-fifths from the western end of the chasm, and through this gorge, not more than 100 ft. wide, the whole volume of the river pours for 130 yds. before emerging into an enormous zigzag trough (the Grand Cañon) which conducts the river past the basin plateau. The pressure with which the water is subjected in the confinement of the chasm causes the perpetual columns of mist which rise over the precipice.

The fall is broken by islands on the lip of the precipice into four parts. Close to the right bank is a sloping cataract 36 yds. wide, called the Leaping Water, then beyond Boaruka Island, about 300 yds. wide, is the Main Fall, 473 yds. broad, and divided by Livingstone Island from the Rainbow Fall 535 yds. wide. At both these falls the rock is sharp cut and the river maintains its level to the edge of the precipice. At the left bank of the river is the Eastern Cañon, a mile long, blocking the Least Water. From like Niagra the western end of the falls to Danger Point, which overlooks the entrance of the gorge, the escarpment of the chasm is covered with great trees known as the Rain Forest; looking across the gorge the eastern part of the wall (the Knife Edge) is less densely wooded.

At the end of the gorge the river has hollowed out a deep pool, named the Boiling Pot. It is some 500 ft. across; its surface, smooth at low water, is at flood-time troubled by slow, enormous swirls and heavy boilings. Hence the channel turns sharply westward, beginning the great zigzag mentioned. This is about 1 mile long. In unbroken height the perpendicular walls are over 400 ft. high, the level of the escarpment being that of the lip of the falls. A little below the Boiling Pot, and at almost right angles to the falls, the cañon is spanned by a bridge (completed in April 1905) which forms a link in the Cairo railway scheme. This bridge, 65 ft. long, with a main arch of 500 ft. span, is slightly below the top of the gorge. The height from low-water level to the rails is 420 ft.

The volume of water borne over the falls varies greatly, the level of the river in the upper lake being almost as much as 60 ft. between the full flood of April and the end of the dry season in October. When the river is high the water rolls over the main falls in one great unbroken expanse; at low water (when alone it is possible to look into the grey depths of the great chasm) the falls are broken by crevices in the rock into numerous cascades.

The falls are in the territory of Rhodesia. They were discovered by David Livingstone on the 17th of November 1855, and by him named after Queen Victoria of England. Livingstone approached them from above and gained his first view of the falls from the island on its lip now named after him. In 1905 Dr. John Pinto, marine botanist of the South African Institute, made a careful investigation of the falls, but, until the opening of the railway from Bulawayo (1905) they were rarely visited. The land in the vicinity of the falls is preserved by the Rhodesian government as a public park.

fluctuations, which has its rise in the hill country east of Lake Kyus, and enters the west side of the nyanza just north of 1° S., is described in the treatise De Definitionibus (ed. T. Stangl in Tulliana et Mariae-Victoriana, Munich, 1893), and in other treatises. The other rivers entering Victoria Nyanza from the west are the Katonga and Ruizi, both north of the Kagera. The Katonga rises in the plateau east of the Dkea branch of the river Eastern Nyanza, and after a course of 155 miles enters Victoria Nyanza as a swift and swamp at its N.W. corner. The Ruizi (180 m.) is a deep, wide and swift stream with sinuous course flowing in part through great gorges, which is the source of the Victoria Nile. Other large rivers rise in the district and reaches the nyanza a little north of the Kagera. Between the Katonga and the Nile outlet, the rivers which rise close to the lake drain away northward, the watershed being the lake shore of the Victoria Nile, and both the main and overflowed streams reach the lake—notably the Sio, Nzoia and Lukos (or Yala). The Nzoia (150 m.), the largest of the three, rises in the Elgon Park. The Elgon Park, traversing an area of over a rocky bed in a south-western direction, emptying into the lake south of Berkley Bay. On the east side the Mara Dabaghi enters the lake between 1° and 2° S. It is, next to the Kagera, the largest of the lake tributaries. All the rivers mentioned are perennial, and most of them bring down a considerable volume of water, even in the dry season. On the S. E. and S.W. shores a number of short rivers drain into the lake. They traverse a tree less and arid region, have but an intermittent flow, and are of little importance in the hydrography of the district. The only outlet of the lake is the Nile (q.v.).

Area and Lake Level.—The very important part played by the Victoria Nyanza in the Nile system has led to careful study of its drainage basin and rainfall and the perplexing variations in the level of the lake. The area drained by the lake covers, with the Nile itself, the area of 15,000 square miles, of which 14,500 square miles are grassy districts, and a considerable portion is somewhat arid tableland. According to the calculations of Sir William Garstin the rainfall over the whole area averages 50 in. a year. Allowing that as much as 25% of this amount enters the lake, this is equivalent to a total of 3,750,000,000 cub. metres in a year. Measurements at the Ripon Falls show that 18,000,000,000, or some 15% of this amount, enters the Nyanza lake, and some allowance has been made for the annual rise and fall of the lake-level is apparent that by far the greater part of the water which enters the nyanza is lost by evaporation; in fact, that the amount drawn off by the Nile is only a small part in the total fluctuation of the level, and that a large amount of rain falls on the water surface. Rain falls more or less in every month, but is heaviest during March, April, May and again in September, October and November. The level of the lake is chiefly affected by the autumn falls and generally reaches its lowest maximum in July. The annual rise and fall is on an average from 1 to 3 ft., but between November 1900 and June 1901 a difference of 42 in. was recorded. Considerable speculation was caused by the fact that whereas in 1878-79 the lake level was high, from 1880 to 1890 the level was falling, and that after a few years (1892-95) of higher level there was, from 1896 to 1900, again a gradual fall leading in successive years to new records. Sir William Garstin attributes the cause to deficient or excess of rainfall. Any secular sinking of the lake in common with the lakes of Central Africa generally must be so gradual as to have no practical importance. It must also have been noticed in such a lake as Nyaza that the wind exercises an influence on the level, tending to pile up the water at different parts of the lake. The winds may also be the cause of the daily variation of level, which on Speke Gulf has been found to reach 20 in.; but this may also partake of the character of a "seiche." Currents setting towards the north or north-west have been observed in various parts of the lake.

Discovery and Exploration.—The quest for the Nile sources led to the discovery of the lake by J. H. Speke in 1858, and it was by Speke and his companion, J. A. Grant, in 1862, that the Cf. the N.W. shore, leaving the lake at the Nile outlet. Great differences of opinion existed as to its size until its circumnavigation in 1874 by H. M. Stanley, which proved it to be of vast extent. The invitation sent by King Mtesa of Uganda through Stanley to the Christian missionaries led to the dispatch from England in 1876 of the Rev. C. T. Wilson, to whom we owe our first detailed knowledge of the nyaza. Mr Wilson and Lieut. Shergold Smith, R.N., made, in 1877, the first voyage across the nyaza in the E.M. weyhe. Some years later members of the Church Missionary Society, were in the same year murdered on Ukerebe Island. In 1880 Stanley further explored the lake, discovering Emin Pasha Gulf, the entrance to which is masked by several is. In 1890 the ownership of the lake was divided by Great Britain and Germany, the first degree of south latitude being taken as the boundary line. The southern portion, which fell to Germany, was visited and described by scientists of that nation, whose objects, however, were not primarily geographic. At the instance of the British Foreign Office a survey of the southern shores of the lake was carried out in 1899-1900 by Commander B. Whitehouse, R.N., as a special officer, in 1903, undertook, in agreement with the German government, a survey of the southern shores. Commander Whitehouse's work led to considerable modification of the previously accepted maps. He discovered numerous islands and bays whose existence had previously been unknown. Previously to 1896 navigation was confined to Arab shawls, which trade took place on the south end of the lake and Uganda, and to canoes. In the year named a small steamer (the "Ruwenzori") was launched on the lake by a Zanzibar firm, while in 1900 a somewhat larger steamer (the "William Mackinnon"), built in Glasgow at the instance of Sir W. Mackinnon, and afterwards taken over by the British government, made her first trip on the lake. In 1903, the year in which the railway from Mombasa to the lake was completed, a steamer of 600 tons burden was launched at Port Florence. Since that date trade has considerably increased.

See Nile and Uganda and the British Blue-book Egypt No. 2 (1904), which is a report by Sir Wm. Garstin upon the Basin of the Uganda Nile. This report contains the most important information upon the Victoria Nyanza, summarizes the information of previous travellers, whose works are quoted. In 1908 the British Admiralty published a chart of the lake (scale 4 in. to the mile). The survey was made by a special party to the survey, which include: C. T. Wilson, Uganda and the Soudan (London, 1882); (Sir) F. D. Lugard, The Rise of our East African Empire, London, 1896; (Sir) H. E. Stanley, Mtn Emin Pasha, &c, &c. (Berlin, 1894); Paul Kollmann, "The Victoria Nyanza" (English translation; London, 1890); E. G. Ravenstein, "The Lake-level of the Victoria Nyanza," Geographical Journal, October 1901; Sir H. H. Johnston, "The Uganda Protectorate" (London, 1902). In most of these publications the descriptions of the lake occupy but a small part. (W. E. G.; F. R. C.)

VICTORINUS, GAUDE MARIUS (4th century A.D.), Roman grammarian, rhetorician and neo-Platonic philosopher, an African by birth (whence his surname Afer), lived during the reign of Constantius II. He taught rhetoric at Rome (one of his pupils being Jerome), and in his old age became a convert to Christianity. His conversion is said to have greatly influenced that of Augustine. When Julian published an edict forbidding Christians to lecture on polite literature, Victorinus closed his school. A statue was erected in his honour as a teacher in the Forum Trajanum.

His translations of platonic writers are lost, but the treatise De Definitionibus (ed. T. Stangl in Tulliana et Mariae-Victoriana, Munich, 1893) is properly a commentary, containing much original material. His man of prose, in four books, taken almost literally from the work of Aphthonius, is extant (H. Heil, Grammatici Latini, v. ); it is doubtless whether he is the author of certain other extant treatises attributed to him on metrical and grammatical subjects, which will be found in Heil. His commentary on Cicero's De Inventione (in Halm's Rhetorei Latinorum adjecta) has been lost and is itself in need of commentary. His extant theological writings, which will be found in J. F. Migne, Corpus Patrologiae Latinae, vi, include commentaries on Galatians, Ephesians and Philippians; De Trinitate contra Arius; Justice and Nature: a question already raised by Plotinus. In the little tract on "The Evening and the Morning were one day" (the genuineness of the last two is doubtful). Some Christian poems which he prefixed to the name of Victorinus are probably not his.

See G. Geiger, C. Marius Victorinus Aen, ein neuplatonischer Philosoph (Metten, 1888); G. Koffmann, De Mario Victorino philosopho Christiano (Breslau, 1888); R. Schmid, Marius Victorinus Rhetor et seine Beziehungen zu Augustinus (in Dictionary of Christian Biography, iv, M. Schanz, Geschichte der römischen Literatur, iv, 1 (1904); Teuffel, Hist. of Roman Literature (Eng. tr., 1900), 408.

VICTOR-PERRIN, CLAUDE DEKSF BELLON (1764-1841), marshal of France, was born at La Marche, Vosges, on Mr. G. Henry, on November 30, 1764. In 1788 he entered the army as a private soldier, and after ten years' service he received his discharge and settled at Valence. Soon afterwards he joined the local volunteers, and distinguishing himself in the war on the Alpine frontier, in less than a year he had risen to the
command of a battalion. For his bravery at the siege of Toulon in 1793 he was raised to the rank of general of brigade. He afterwards served for some time with the army of the Eastern Pyrenees, and in the Italian campaign of 1796-97 he so acquitted himself at Mondovi, Roveredo and Mantua that he was promoted to be general of division. After commanding for some time the viceroyalty of La Vendée, he was again employed in Italy, where he did good service against the papal troops, and he took a very important part in the battle of Marengo. In 1802 he was governor of the colony of Louisiana for a short time, in 1803 he commanded the Batavian army, and afterwards he acted for eighteen months (1805-6) as French plenipotentiary at Copenhagen. On the outbreak of hostilities with Prussia he joined the V. army corps (Marshal Lannes) as chief of the general staff. He distinguished himself at Saalfeld and Jena, and at Friedland he commanded the L. corps in such a manner that Napoleon gave him the marshalate. After the peace of Tilsit he became governor of Berlin, and in 1808 he was created duke of Belluno. In the same year he was sent to Spain, where he took a prominent part in the Peninsular War (especially at Espinosa, Talavera, Barrosa and Cadiz), until his appointment in 1812 to a corps command in the invasion of Russia. Here his most important service was in protecting the retreating army at the crossing of the Beresina. He took an active part in the wars 1813-14, till in February of the latter year he had the misfortune to arrive too late at Montecucco-sur-Yonne. The result was a scene of violent recrimination, and his supersession by the emperor; he transferred his command to Gérard. Thus wounded in his amour-propre, Victor now transferred his allegiance to the Bourbon dynasty, and in December 1814 received from Louis XVIII. the command of the second military division. In 1815 he accompanied the king to Ghent, and on the second restoration he was made a peer of France. He was also president of a commission which inquired into the conduct of the officers during the Hundred Days, and dismissed Napoleon's sympathizers. In 1821 he was appointed war minister and held this office for two years. In 1825 he was made major-general of the royal guard, and after the revolution of that year he retired altogether into private life. His death took place at Paris on the 1st of March 1842.

His papers for the period 1793-1800 have been published (Paris, 1846).

VICTUAL, food, provisions, most commonly in the plural, "victuals." The word and its pronunciation came into English from the O. Fr. vitaille. The modern French and English spelling are due to a pedantic approximation to the Latin original, vicītāliu, a neuter plural substantive formed from vitālis, vitus, nourishment, provisions (hence, to live). The most familiar use of the term is in "licensed victuallers," to which the Licensing Act 1872 (§ 27) has applied the wide significance of any person selling any intoxicating liquor under a licence from a justice of the peace. Properly a "victualling house" is one where persons are provided with food and drink but not lodgings, and is thus distinct from an inn, which also provides the last.

VICUGNÁ, one of the two wild living South American representatives of the camel-tribe, a Camelidae (see Tylopoda). From its relative the vicuña, it is separated by the longer, more slender build and shorter head, as well as by the absence of bare patches of callousities on the hind limbs. The general colour of the woolly coat is orange-red. Vicugnas live in herds on the bleak and elevated parts of the mountain range bordering the region of perpetual snow, amidst rocks and precipices, occurring in various parts of Peru, in the southern part of Ecuador, and as far south as the middle of Bolivia. The wool is extremely delicate and soft, and highly valued for the purposes of weaving, but the quantity which each animal produces is not great.

VIDA, MARCO GIROLAMO (c. 1480-1566), Italian scholar and Latin poet, was born at Cremona shortly before the year 1490. He received the name of Marcantonio in baptism, but changed this to Marco Girolamo when he entered the order of the Canonici Regolari Lateranensi. During his early manhood he acquired considerable fame by the composition of two didactic poems in the Latin tongue, on the Game of Chess (Scacchiæ Ludus) and on the Silkworm (Bombyx). This reputation induced him to seek the papal court in Rome, which was rapidly becoming the headquarters of polite learning, the place where students might expect advancement through their literary talents. Vida reached Rome in the last years of the pontificate of Julius II. Leo X., on succeeding to the papal chair (1513), treated him with marked favour, bestowed on him the priory of St Sylvester at Frascati, and bade him compose a heroic Latin poem on the life of Christ. Such was the origin of the Christiadi, Vida's most celebrated, if not his best, performance. It did not, however, see the light in Leo's lifetime. Between the years 1520 and 1527 Vida produced the second of his masterpieces in Latin hexameters, or didactic poems on the Art of Poetry (see Baldi's edition, Würzburg, 1851). Clement VII. raised him to the rank of apostolic protonotary, and in 1532 conferred on him the bishopric of Alba. It is probable that he took up his residence in this town soon after the death of Clement; and here he spent the greater portion of his remaining years. Vida attended the council of Trent, where he enjoyed the society of Cardinals Cervini, Pole and Del Monte, together with his friend the poet Flaminio. A record of their conversations may be studied in Vida's Latin dialogue De Poëtu. Later, among his works, might be mentioned three eloquent orations in defence of Cremona against Pavia, composed upon the occasion of some dispute as to precedence between those two cities. Vida died at Alba on the 27th of September 1566. See the Life by Lancetti (Milan, 1840).
their private seigneuries. Thus the vidame de Ploëguyn was the representative of the bishop of Amiens, the vidame de Gerberoy of the bishop of Beauvais. In many sees there were no vidames, their function being exercised by viscounts or châteauxains. With the growth of the central power and of that of the municipalities the vidames gradually lost all importance, and the title became merely honorary.

See A. Luchaire, Manuel des institutions françaises (Paris, 1892); De la France des origines à l'année 1500, Mem. Ist. France, 8e année, (1900); M. Mallet, "Étude hist. sur les avoués et les vidames," in Position des thèses de l'Ecole des charles (an. 1870-72).

VIDIN (formerly written WIDIN or WIDDIN), a fortified river-port and the capital of a department in the extreme N.E. of Bulgaria; on the right bank of the river Danube, near the Servian frontier and 151 m. W.N.W. of Sofia. Pop. (1806) 16,168, including about 3000 Turks and 1500 Spanish Jews—descendants of the refugees who fled hither from the Inquisition in the 16th century. Vidin is an episcopal see and the headquarters of a brigade; it was formerly a strongly built town, and was rendered difficult to besiege by the surrounding marshes, formed where the Topolovita and other streams join the Danube. A steam ferry connects it with Calafat, on the Rumanian bank of the Danube, and there is a branch railway to Medzra, on the main line Sofia-Plevna. The city consists of three divisions—the modern suburbs extending beside the Danube, the citadel and the old town, still surrounded by walls, though only four of its nine towers remain standing. The old town, containing several mosques and synagogues and a bazaar, preserves its oriental appearance; the citadel is used as a military magazine. There are a modern cathedral, a school of viticulture and a high school, besides an ancient clock-tower and the palace (Konak) formerly occupied by the Turkish pašas. Vidin exports cereals and fruit, and is locally celebrated for its gold and silver filigree. It has important fisheries and manufactures of spirits, beer and tobacco.

Vidin stands on the site of the Roman town of Bononia in Moesia Superior, not to be confounded with the Pannonian Bononia, which stood higher up the Danube to the north of Sirmium. Its name figures prominently in the military annals of medieval and recent times; and it is specially memorable for the overthrow of the Turks by the imperial forces in 1689 and for the crushing defeat of the hospodar Michael Sustos by Pasvan Oglu in 1801. It was again the scene of stirring events during the Russo-Turkish Wars of 1854-55 and 1877-78, and successfully resisted the assaults of the Servians in the Servo-Bulgarian War of 1886-87.

VIDOCQ, FRANÇOIS EUGÈNE (1775-1857), French detective, was born at Arras in 1775 (or possibly 1773). After an adventurous youth he joined the French army, where he rose to be lieutenant. At Lille he was imprisoned as the result of a quarrel with a brother officer, and while in gaol became involved, possibly innocently, in the forgery of an order for the release of another prisoner. He was sentenced to eight years' hard labour, and sent to the galleys at Brest, whence he escaped twice but was recaptured. For the third time he succeeded in getting free, and lived for some time in the company of thieves and other criminals in Paris and elsewhere, making a careful study of their methods. He then offered his services as a spy to the Paris police (1809). The offer was accepted, on condition that he should extend his knowledge of the criminal classes by himself serving a further term in prison in Paris, and subsequently Vidocq was made chief of the reorganized detective department of the Paris police, with a body of ex-convicts under his immediate command. In this capacity Vidocq was extremely successful, for he possessed unbounded energy and a real genius for hunting down criminals. In 1827, having saved a considerable sum of money, he retired from his post and started a paper-mill, the workpeople in which were drawn entirely from ex-convicts. The venture, however, was a failure, and in 1832 Vidocq re-entered the police service and was employed mainly in political work, though given no special office.

Anxious to get back to his old detective post he himself foolishly organized a daring theft. The authorities were unable to trace the thieves, who at the proper moment were "discovered" by Vidocq. His real part in the matter became known, however, and he was dismissed from service. He subsequently started a private inquiry agency, which was indifferently successful, and was finally suppressed. Vidocq died in great poverty in 1857. Several volumes have been published under his name, "Vie de Vidocq," and "Memoires d'un inspecteur de police," but they were written by Vidocq (1858). It is, however, extremely doubtful whether he wrote any of them.

See Charles Ledru, La Vie, la mort et les derniers moments de Vidocq (Paris, 1857).

VIDYASAGAR, ISWAR CHANDRA (1820-1891), writer and social reformer of Bengal, was born at Bir sina in the Midnapur district in 1820, of a Kulin Brahman family. He was removed to Calcutta at the age of nine, was admitted into the Sanskrit College, and carried on his studies in the midst of privations and extreme poverty. In 1839 he obtained the title of Vidyasagar ("the learning one") after passing a brilliant examination, and in 1850 was appointed head-pendant of Fort William College. In 1846 appeared his first work in Bengali prose, The Twenty-Five Tales of a Betal. This was succeeded by his Sakuntala in 1855, and by his greatest work, The Exile of Sita, in 1862. These are marked by a grace and beauty which Bengal prose had never known before. The literature of Bengal, previous to the 19th century, was entirely in verse. Ram Mohan Roy, the religious reformer of Bengal, created the literary prose of Bengal early in the 19th century by his numerous translations and religious tracts; and Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar and his fellow-worker, Akhoy Kumar Datta, added to its power and beauty the middle of that century. These three writers are generally recognized as the fathers of Bengali prose literature. As a social reformer and educationist, too, Iswar Chandra made his mark. He associated himself with Drinkwater Bethune in the cause of female education; and the management of the girls' school, called after Bethune, was entrusted to him in 1851. And when Rosomoy Datta resigned the post of secretary to the Sanskrit College of Calcutta, a new post of principal was created, and Iswar Chandra was appointed to it. Iswar Chandra's influence in the education department was now unbounded. He simplified the method of learning Sanskrit, and thus spread a knowledge of that ancient tongue among his countrymen. He was consulted in all educational matters by Sir Frederick Halliday, the first lieutenant-governor of Bengal. And when the great scheme of education under Sir Charles Wood's despatch of 1854 was inaugurated in India, Iswar Chandra established numerous aided schools under that scheme in the most advanced districts of Bengal. In 1858 he resigned his appointment under government, and shortly afterwards became manager of the Metropolitan Institution, a private college at Calcutta. But a greater task than literary work or educational reforms claimed his attention. He had discovered that the ancient Hindu scriptures did not enjoin perpetual widowhood, and in 1855 he startled the Hindu world by his work on the Remarriage of Hindu Widows. Such a work, from a learned and presumably orthodox Brahman, caused the greatest excitement, but Iswar Chandra remained unmoved amidst a storm of indignation. Associating himself with the most influential men of the day, like Prosno Kumar Tagore and Ram Gopal Ghosh, he appealed to the British government to declare that the sons of remarried Hindu widows should be considered Hindus. The British government responded; the act was passed in 1856, and some years after Iswar Chandra's own son was married to a widow. In the last years of his life Iswar Chandra wrote works against Hindu polygamy. He was as well known for his charity and wide philanthropy as for his educational and social reforms. His large income, derived from the sale of school-books, was devoted almost entirely to the succour of the needy; hundreds of young men owed their education to him; hundreds of widows depended on him for their daily bread. The Indian government made him a Companion of the Indian Empire in 1880. He died on the 29th of July 1891. 

(R. C. D.)
VIEIRA, ANTONIO (1608-1697), Portuguese Jesuit and
writer, the "prince of Catholic pulpit-orphants of his time," was
born in Lisbon on the 6th of February 1608. Accompanying
his parents to Brazil in 1615 he received his education at the
Jesuit college at Bahia. He entered the Jesuit novitiate in
1625, and two years later pronounced his first vows. In
the next year he was teaching rhetoric and a little later
dogmatic theology, at the college of Olinda, besides writing
the "annual letters" of the province. In 1635 he received
the priesthood. He soon began to distinguish himself as an orator,
and the three patriotic sermons he delivered at Bahia (1638-40)
are remarkable for their imaginative power and dignity of
language. The sermon for the success of the arms of Portugal
against Holland was considered by the Abbé Raynal to be
"perhaps the most extraordinary discourse ever heard from a
Christian pulpit." When the revolution of 1640 placed
John IV. on the throne of Portugal, Brazil gave him its allegi-
ance, and Vieira was chosen to accompany the viceroy's son to
Lisbon to congratulate the new king. His talents and aptitude
for affairs impressed John IV. so favourably that he appointed
him royal preacher, gave him free access to the palace and
continuously consulted him on the business of the state. Pos-
sessed of great political sagacity and knowledge of the lessons
of history, Vieira used the pulpit as a tribune from which he
propounded measures for improving the general and particularly
the economic condition of Portugal. His pen was as busy as his
mouth. In 1651 he embarked his career as a diplomat, in the course of which he visited England, France,
Holland and Italy. In his Papel Furto he urged the cession of
Pernambuco to the Dutch as the price of peace, while his mission
to Rome in 1650 was undertaken in the hope of arranging
a marriage between the heir to the throne of Portugal and the
only daughter of King Philip IV. of Spain. His success, freedom
of speech and reforming zeal had made him enemies on all
sides, and only the intervention of the king prevented his
expulsion from the Company of Jesus, so that prudence coun-
selled his return to Brazil.
Vieira was a devoted friend of the Jesuit order, and he vowed to consecrate his life to the con-
version of the negro slaves and native Indians of his adopted
country, and arriving in Maranhão early in 1653 he recom-

cended his apostolic labours, which had been interrupted
during his stay of fourteen years in the Old World. Starting
from Pará, he penetrated to the banks of the Tocantins, making
numerous converts to Christianity and civilization among the
most savage tribes; but after two years of unceasing labour,
during which every difficulty was placed in his way by the
colonial authorities, he saw that the Indians must be with-
drawn, either by force or by persuasion. As long as they
remained at such distances as could not be visited by the
exploitation, and placed under the control of the members of a
single religious society. Accordingly in June 1654 he set sail
for Lisbon to plead the cause of the Indians, and in April 1655
he obtained from the king a series of decrees which placed
the missions under the Company of Jesus, with himself as their
superior, and prohibited the enslavement of the natives, except
in certain specified cases. Returning with this charter of
freedom, he organized the missions over a territory having a
coast-line of 400 leagues, and a population of 200,000 souls,
and in the next six years (1655-61) the indefatigable mis-
sionary set the crown on this work. After a time, however,
the colonists, attributing the shortage of slaves and the con-
sequent diminution in their profits to the Jesuits, began actively
to oppose Vieira, and they were joined by members of the
secular clergy and the other Orders who were jealous of the monopoly enjoyed by the Company in the government of the
Indians. Vieira was accused of want of patriotism and usurpa-
tion of jurisdiction, and in 1661, after a popular revolt, the
authorities sent him with thirty-one other Jesuit missionaries
back to Portugal. He found his friend King John IV. dead, and
the court a prey to faction, but, dauntless as ever in the pursuit
of his ambition, he resorted to his favourite arm of preaching,
and on Epiphany Day, 1662, in the royal chapel, he replied
to his persecutors in a famous rhetorical effort, and called for
the execution of the royal decrees in favour of the Indians.
Circumstances were against him, however, and, the count of
Castelmalhor, fearing his influence at court, had him exiled
first to Oporto and then to Coimbra; but in both these places
he continued his work of preaching, and the reform of the
Inquisition also occupied a large part of his literary enemies
then denounced him to that tribunal, and he was cited to appear before the Holy Office at Coimbra to answer
points smacking of heresy in his sermons, conversations and
writings. He had believed in the prophecies of a 16th-century
shoemaker poet, Bandarra, dealing with the coming of a ruler
who would inaugurate an epoch of unparalleled prosperity
for the church and for Portugal, and in the Quinto Imperio
or Clavis Prophetarum he had endeavoured to prove the truth
of his dreams from passages of Scripture. As he refused to
submit, the Inquisitors kept him in prison from October 1665
to February 1667, and finally imposed a sentence which pros-
hibited him from teaching, writing or preaching. It was
a heavy blow for the Company, and though Vieira recovered his
freedom and much of his prestige shortly afterwards on the
accession of King Pedro II., it was determined that he should
go to Rome to procure the revision of the sentence, which still
hung over him though the penalties had been removed. During
a six years' residence in the Eternal City Vieira won his greatest
triumphs. Pope Clement X. invited him to preach before the
College of Cardinals, and he became confessor to Queen
Catherine. He was appointed to the chair of theology in Rome
and the position of rector of the College of Jesus. At the request of the pope he drew up a report of two hundred
pages on the Inquisition in Portugal, with the result that
after a judicial inquiry Pope Innocent XI. suspended it for
five years (1667-81). Ultimately Vieira returned to Portugal with a papal bull exempting him from the jurisdiction of the
grand inquisitor, and in January 1681 he embarked for Brazil.
He resided in Bahia and occupied himself in revising his sermons
for publication, and in 1687 he became superior of the province.
A false accusation of complicity in an assassination, and the
intrigues of members of his own Company, clouded his last
months, and on the 18th of October 1687 he died.
His works form perhaps the greatest monument of Portuguese
prose. Two hundred discourses exist to prove his fecundity,
while his versatility is shown by the fact that he could treat
the same subject differently on half a dozen occasions. His
letters, simple and conversational in style, have a deep his-
torical and political interest, and form documents of the first
value for the history of the period. As a man, Vieira would
have made a nobler figure if he had not been so great an egotist
and so clever a courtier, and the readiness with which he sus-
pected and feared all his enemies, and the impatience of his
warmth argues a certain lack of sincerity. His name, how-
ever, is identified with great causes, justice to the Jews
and humanity to the Indians, and the fact that he was in advance
of his age led to many of his troubles, while his disinterested-
ness in money matters is deserving of all praise.

Principal works: Sermones (Sermons) (15 vols., Lisbon, 1679-
1742); there are many subsequent editions, but none complete;
translations exist in Spanish, Italian, German and French,
which have gone through several editions. Historia do Futuro
(Lisbon, 1718; 2nd ed., ibid., 1755); this and the Quinto Imperio
and the Clavis Prophetarum seem to be in essence one and the
same book in different redactions. Cartas (Letters) (3 vols., Lisbon,
1735-46). Noticias recolhidas do modo de proceder a Inquisição de
Portugal com os seus processos (Lisbon, 1821). A Arte de Predicar,
published under Vieira's name in many editions is now known not
to be his. A badly edited edition of the works of Vieira in 27 volumes appeared in Lisbon, 1854-58. There are unpublished MSS. of his in the British Museum in London, and in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris. A bibliography of Vieira will be found in Sommervogel, Bibliothèque de la compagnie de Jésus, viii. 653-89.

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VIÉLÉ-GRIFLIN, FRANCIS (1864— ), French poet, was born at Norfolk, Virginia, U.S.A., on the 26th of May 1864. He was educated in France, dividing his time between Paris and Tournai. His volumes include Cuadelle d’avit (1885); Les Cygnes (1887; new series, 1892); La Chevauchée d’Yeldis (1893); Swinhilde, a dramatic poem (1894); Louis Veneris (1899), a volume of vielleurs in France, an oval, which with its modifications remained in favour until the guitar-fiddle, the Italian lyra, asserted itself as the finest type, from which also the violin was directly evolved. (K.S.)

VIEN, JOSEPH MARIE (1716-1800), French painter, was born at Montpellier on the 18th of June 1716. Protected by Comte de Caylus, he entered at an early age the studio of Natoire, and obtained the grand prix in 1745. He used his time at Rome in applying to the study of nature and the development of his own powers all that he gleaned from the masterpieces around him; but his tendencies were so foreign to the reigning taste that on his return to Paris he owed his admission to the academy for his picture “Daedalus and Icarus” (Louve) solely to the indignant protests of Boucher. When in 1776, at the height of his established reputation, he became director of the school of France at Rome, he took David with him amongst his pupils. After his return, five years later, his fortunes were wrecked by the Revolution; but he undauntedly set to work, and at the age of eighty (1796) carried off the prize in an open government competition. Bonaparte acknowledged his merit by making him a senator. He died at Paris on the 27th of March 1809, leaving behind him several brilliant pupils, amongst whom were Vincent, Regnault, Suve, Ménageot, Taillasson and others of high merit; nor should the name of his wife, Marie Thérèse Reboul (1728-1805), herself a member of the academy, be omitted from this list. Their son, Marie Joseph, born in 1761, also distinguished himself as a painter.

VIENNA (Ger. Wien; Lat. Vindobona), the capital of the Austrian empire, the largest city in the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and the fourth city in Europe as regards population. It is situated on the right bank of the Danube, at the base of the Wiener Wald, and at the beginning of the great plain which separates the Alps from the Carpathians. This plain is continued on the opposite bank of the Danube by the valley of the March, which constitutes the easiest access to the north. Thus Vienna forms a junction of natural ways from south to north, and from west to east. It also lies on the frontier which separates from one another three races, the German, the Slavonic and the Hungarian.

Curiously enough, Vienna has for a long time turned its back, so to speak, on the magnificent waterway of the Danube, the creation being built about 14 m. away from the main stream. Only an arm of the river, the Danube Canal, so called because it was regulated and widened in 1598, passes through the city, dividing it into two unequal parts. It is true that the river forms at this point several arms, and the adjoining districts were subjected to periodical inundations, while navigation was by no means easy here. But in 1870 works for the regulation of the river were started with the object of making it quite safe for navigation, and of avoiding the dangers of inundation. By these magnificent works of regulation the river was brought nearer to the town, and the new river channel has an average width of 15 m. and a depth of about 1 m.

On its left bank stretches the so-called inundation region, 1535 ft. wide, while on the right bank quays have been constructed with numerous wharfs and warehouses. By these works of regulation over 2400 acres of ground were gained for building purposes. This new bed of the Danube was completed in 1876. In conjunction with this work the entire Danube Canal has been transformed into a harbour by the construction of a lock at its entrance, while increased accommodation for shipping has also been provided at the other end of the canal known as the winter harbour. Into the Danube Canal flows the small stream, called Wien, now arched over almost in its entirety. Vienna extends along the right bank of the Danube from the historic and legendary Kahlenberg to the point where the Danube Canal rejoins the main stream, being surrounded on the other side by a considerable stretch of land which is rather rural than suburban in character.

Vienna is officially divided into twenty-one districts or Bezirke. Until 1892 it contained only ten of the present districts; in that year nine outlying districts were incorporated with the town; in 1900 Birkittau was created out of part of the old district of Leopoldstadt, and in 1905 the Floridsdorf district was made up by the incorporation of the following former suburbs: Aspern-der-Donauf, Donaufeld, Floridsdorf, Gross Jedlersdorf, Hirschstetten, Jedlesee, Kragan, Leopoldau, Lobau-Insel and Stadlau. By the incorporation of the suburbs in 1892, the area of Vienna was more than trebled, namely, from 214 sq. m. to 69 sq. m.; while a new increase of about one-fifth of its total area was added by the incorporation of 1902. A feature of the new city is the unusually large proportion of woods and arable land within its bounds. These form nearly 60% of its total area, private gardens, parks and open spaces occupying a further 15%. While from the standpoint of population it takes the fourth place among European capitals, Vienna covers about three times as much ground as Berlin, which occupies the third place. But the bulk of its inhabitants being packed into a comparatively small portion of this area, the working classes suffer greatly from overcrowding, and all sections of the community from high rents.

The inner city, or Vienna proper, was formerly separated from the other districts by a circle of fortifications, consisting of a rampart, fossé and glacis. These, however, were removed in 1858-60, and the place of the glacis has been taken by a magnificent boulevard, the Ring-Strasse, 2 m. in length, and about 150 ft. in average width. Another series of works, consisting of a rampart and fossé, were constructed in 1704 to surround the whole city at that time, i.e. the first ten districts of modern Vienna. This second girdle of fortifications was known as the Lines (Linien), and a second wide boulevard (Gürtel-Strasse) follows their course round the city. This second or outer girdle of fortifications formed the boundary
between the city and the outlying suburbs, but was removed in 1892, when the incorporation of the suburbs took place.

The inner town, which lies almost exactly in the centre of the others, is still, unlike the older parts of most European towns, the most aristocratic quarter, containing the palaces of the emperors and of the nobility. The government houses, many of the embassies and legations, the opera house and the principal hotels, Leopoldstadt which together with Brigitenau are the only districts on the left bank of the Danube Canal, is the chief commercial quarter, and is inhabited to a great extent by Jews. Marienhilf, Neubau and Margarethen are the chief seats of manufacturing industry. Landstrasse may be described as the district of officialism; here too are the British and German embassies. Alsergrund, with the enormous general hospital, the military hospital and the municipal asylum, is the medical quarter.

Near the centre of the inner city, most of the streets in which are narrow and irregular, is the cathedral of St Stephen, the most important medieval building in Vienna, dating in its present form mainly from the 14th and 15th centuries, but incorporating a few fragments of the original 12th-century edifice. Among its most striking features are the fine and lofty tower (450 ft.), rebuilt in 1860-64; the extensive catacombs, in which the emperors were formerly interred; the sarcophagus (1513) of Frederick III.; the tombs of Prince Eugene of Savoy; thirty-eight marble altars; and the gigantic ceiling. A little to the south of the cathedral is the Hofburg, the imperial palace, a huge complex of buildings of various epochs and in various styles, enclosing several courtyards. The oldest part of the present edifice dates from the 13th century, and extensive additions have been made since 1887. In addition to private rooms and state apartments, the Hofburg contains a library of about 800,000 volumes, 7000 incunabula and 24,000 MSS., including the celebrated "Papyrus Rainer"; the imperial treasury, containing the family treasures of the house of Habsburg-Lorraine, and other important collections.

In the old town are the two largest of the Hofte, extensive blocks of buildings belonging to the great abbeys of Austria, which are common throughout Vienna. These are the Schottenhof (once belonging to the "Scoti," or Irish Benedictines) and the Mollerhof, adjoining the open space called the Freiung, each forming a little town of itself. As in most continental towns, the custom of living in flats is prevalent in Vienna, where few except the richer nobles occupy an entire house. Of late the so-called "Zinspaläste" ("tenement palaces") have been built on a magnificent scale, often profusely adorned without regard to artistic or sculptural effect. Other notable buildings within the line of the old fortifications are the Gothic Augustine church, built in the 14th century, and containing a fine monument of Canova; the Capuchin church, with the burial vault of the Habsburgs; the church of Maria-Stiegen, an interesting Gothic church of the 14th century, restored in 1820; the handsome Greek church, by T. Hansen (1813-1891), finished in 1828; the Minorite church, a Gothic edifice of the 14th century, containing an admirable mosaic of Leonardo da Vinci's "Last Supper" by Raffael, executed in 1806-14 by order of Napoleon and placed here in 1846. Other churches worth mentioning are the Snabchurch, one of the busiest of the city, reconstructed in the 17th and restored by H. von Ferstel (1828-1853), containing the tombs of the counts of Starhemberg, the defender of Vienna against the Turks in 1683, and of Duke Heinrich Jasomirgott (d. 1777); the church of St Peter, reconstructed by Fischer von Erlach in 1702-13, and the University church, erected by the Jesuits in 1625-31, both in the baroque style with rich frescoes; lastly, the small church of St Ruprecht, the oldest church in Vienna, first built in 740, and several times reconstructed; and the old Rathaus. At the corner of the Graben and the bar of the cathedral, thoroughfares, containing the most fashionable shops in Vienna, is the Stock im Eisen, the stump of a tree, said to be the last survivor of a holy grove round which the original settlement of Vindomina sprang up. It is full of nails driven into it by travelling journeymen.

The Ring-Strasse ranks as one of the most imposing achievements of modern street architecture. Opposite the Hofburg, the main body of which is separated from the Ring-Strasse by the Hofgarten and Volksgarten, rise the handsome monument of the empress Maria Theresa (erected 1807) and the imperial museums of art and natural history, two extensive Renaissance edifices. Near the Ring (erected 1787-89), matching each other in every particular and grouping finely with the new part of the palace. Hans Makart's painted dome in the natural history museum is the largest pictorial canvas in the world. Adjoining the museums to the west is the palace of justice (1881), and this is closely followed by the houses of parliament (1883), in which the Grecian style has been successfully adapted to modern requirements. Beyond the houses of parliament stands the new Rathaus, an immense and exquisitely decorated Gothic building, erected in 1873-83. It was designed by Friedrich Schmidt (1825-1891), who may be described as the chief exponent of the modern Gothic tendency as T. Hansen and G. Semper, the creators respectively of the parliament house and the museums, are the leaders of the Classical and Renaissance styles which are so strongly represented in Viennese architecture. Opposite the Rathaus, on the inner side of the Ring, is the new court theatre, another specimen of Semper's Renaissance work, finished in 1889. To the north stands the new building of the Academy of Fine Arts and of Architecture erected by H. von Ferstel, erected in 1873-84 and rivalling the Rathaus in magnificence, and separated from the Ring by a garden, stands the votive church in Alsergrund, completed in 1879, and erected to commemorate the emperor's escape from assassination in 1853, one of the most elaborate and successful of modern Gothic churches (Ferstel). The other important buildings of the Ring-Strasse include the magnificent opera house, built 1861-69, by E. Van der Nul (1812-1868) and A. von Sicardsburg (1861-1860), the sumptuous interior of which is modelled on that of Paris; the academy of art, built in 1872-74; the Alte Hofburg (1812-1868) a reconstruction of the first imperial palace, the Austrian museum of art and industry, an Italian Renaissance building erected by Ferstel in 1868-71. On the north side the Ring-Strasse gives place to the spacious Franz Josef's quay, flanking the Danube Canal. The municipal districts outside the Ring also contain numerous handsome modern buildings. Vienna possesses both in the inner city and the outlying districts numerous squares adorned with artistic monuments. One of the finest squares in the world for the beauty of the buildings which encircle it is the Rathausplatz, adjoining the Ring-Strasse.

Vienna is the intellectual as well as the material capital of Austria—eminently so in regard to the German part of the empire. Its university, established in 1365, is now attended by nearly 6000 students, and the medical faculty enjoys a world-wide reputation. Its scientific institutions are headed by the academy of science. The academy of art was founded in 1707.

Museums.—In the imperial art-history museum are stored the extensive art-collections of the Austrian imperial family, which were formerly in the Hofburg, in the Belvedere, and in other places. It contains a rich collection of Austrian, German, and Italian Roman and Etruscan antiquities; of coins and medals, and of industrial art. The last contains valuable specimens of the industrial art of the middle ages and of the Renaissance period in gold, silver, bronze, glass, enamel, ivory, and wood. The famous salt-cellar (soleria) of Benvenuto Cellini, executed in 1539-43 for Francis I. of France, is here. Then comes the collection of weapons and armour, including the famous Ambra collection, so called after the castle of Ambra near Innsbruck, where it was for a long time stored. The picture gallery, which contains the collection formerly preserved in the Belvedere, contains also collections of almost every school in the world, but it is unsurpassed for its specimens of Rubens, Dürer and the Venetian masters. Next come the imperial treasury at the Hofburg, already mentioned; the famous collection of drawings and engravings known as the Kupferstichkabinett, which contains over 200,000 engravings and 16,000 drawings; the picture gallery of the academy of art; the collection of the Austrian museum of art and industry: the historical museum of the city of Vienna; and the military museum at the arsenal.
Besides, there are in Vienna a number of private picture galleries of great importance. The largest is that belonging to Prince Lichtenstein, containing about 2000 paintings, and another, still larger, in important works by Rubens and Van Dyck; the picture gallery of Count Harrach, with over 400 paintings, possessing numerous examples of the later Italian and French schools; that of Count Czernin, a collection of 7000 paintings; and that of Count von Sturmer, containing 110 pictures. The imperial natural history museum contains a mineralogical, geological and zoological section, as well as a pre-historic and ethnographical collection.

Government and Administration.—Vienna is the residence of the emperor of Austria, the seat of the Austrian ministers, of the Reichsrat and of the Diet of Lower Austria. It is also the seat of the common ministries for the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, of the foreign ambassadors and general consuls and the commercial representatives. By the constitution of 1867, 227 Eugenists, of whom 144 are naturalized Hungarians, have the right to vote for representatives of the chamber of deputies. The municipal council of the city and the county council are elected by universal and equal suffrage. The constitution of the government is a free and popular constitution, with an emperor and a representative legislature which is elected for six years. The government by theRecently popularized in Vienna has been the action of a bill of exchange for certain transactions, and the provision of separate institutions, churches, schools (thus far private) and places of rest. The consequence is that they take a pride in the sense of the great qualities of their native city, and that a demand, which threatens to develop into a new source of discord, in 1900 the population included 1,386,115 persons of German nationality, 21,733 Serbo-Croats, 3,329 Slovences, 3,631 Serbs and Montenegrins, 1,298 Germans, 3,322 Czechs, 271 Serbo-Croatians, 1,329 Slovences, 271 Serbo-Croats, and 1,368 Italians, all Austrian subjects. To these should be added 133,144 Hungarians, 21,733 natives of Germany (37,000 less than in 1890), 2,006 natives of Italy, 1,323 natives of Bohemia (36,364), 1,323 natives of Switzerland (184), described as the German capital of a Slav empire. Formerly the Czech labourers, artisans and domestic servants who came to Vienna were somewhat ashamed of their mother-tongue and religion, and not evidence of their origin as speedily as possible. The revival of the nationality agitation has produced a marked change in this respect. The Czech immigrants, attracted to Vienna as to other German towns by the growth of industry, are now too numerous for easy absorption, which is further retarded by their national organization, and the provision of separate institutions, churches, schools (thus far private) and places of rest. The consequence is that they take a pride in the sense of the great qualities of their native city, and that a demand, which threatens to develop into a new source of discord,

The Austro-Hungarian government has had a large extent covered its own expenses through the acquisition by the town of the old port of Augarten, and 1,100 acres of land, and the expense of putting up a line of houses and trees, and of the extra burdens assumed on the incorporation of the suburbs, the equilibrium of the communal budget was maintained up to the fall of the Liberal administration. In spite of shortighted parsimony in the matter of schools, &c., and increased resources through the allocation to the municipality of a certain percentage of new state and provincial taxation, their anti-Semitic successors have been unable to avoid a deficit, and have been obliged to increase the rates. But the direct damage done in this and other ways would seem to be less than that produced by the mistrust they inspired for a time among the property owners, who considered the community's course of action as an anti-Magyar attitude has driven away a certain amount of Hungarian custom, and helped to increase the political difficulties of the cisleithanian government.

Vienna is situated at an altitude of 550 ft. above the level of the sea, and possesses a healthy climate. The mean annual temperature is 48.6°F., and the range between January and July is about 40°F. The climate is rather changeable, and rapid falls of temperature are not uncommon. Violent storms occur in spring and autumn, and the rainfall, including snow, amounts to 35 in. The air is very sharp in the winter months, and drinking water of any European capital. The water is furnished by an aqueduct direct from the Alps, viz. from the Schnenberg, a distance of nearly 60 m. to the south-west. These magnificent waterworks were opened in 1873, and their sanitary
metropolis which its geographical position entitles it to be. But during the last quarter of the 19th century active steps were taken to modernise the capital. The most important advantage of the Danube, mentioned above, the conversion of the entire Danube Canal into a harbour, the construction of the navigable canal Danube-March-Oder—all gave a new impetus to the trade of Vienna. The last remaining activity of the port of Triest, and the new and shorter railway line constructed between it and Vienna also contribute to the same effect. Vienna carries on an extensive trade in corn, flour, wine, hemp, and a large amount of raw cotton and manufactured articles. Besides the Danube it is served by an extensive net of railways, which radiate from here to every part of the empire.

The staple productions are machinery, railway engines and carriages, steel and bronze wares, pottery, beer and wine, furniture, textiles and chemicals. In the number and variety of its leather and other fancy goods Vienna rivals Paris, and is also renowned for its manufacture of jewelry and articles of precious metals. Its pivots and iron goods, its chemical goods, its optical instruments, and artistic goods generally. Its articles of clothing, silk goods and millinery also enjoy a great reputation for the taste with which they are manufactured. Books, artistic publications, paper and beer are amongst the other principal goods. The building trade and its allied trades are also extensive.

History.—For several centuries Vienna filled an important rôle as the most advanced bulwark of Western civilization and Christianity against the Turks, for during the whole of the middle ages Hungary practically retained its Asiatic character. The story of Vienna begins in the earliest years of the Christian era, with the seizure of the Celtic settlement of Vinodomina by the Romans, who changed its name to Vindobona, and established a fortified camp here to command the Danube and protect the northern frontier of the empire. The fortress grew in importance, and was afterwards the seat of a bishopric. The Emperor Marcus Aurelius died in 180. On the decline of the Roman empire Vindobona became the prey of successive barbarian invaders. Attila and his Huns were among the temporary occupants of the place (5th century), and in the following century it came into the possession of the Avars, after which its name disappears from history until towards the close of the 8th century, when Charlemagne expelled the Avars and made the district between the Enns and the Wiener Wald the boundary of his empire. In the time of Otho II. (976) this “East Mark” (Ostmark, Oesterreich, Austria) was granted in feoff to the Babenbergers, and in the reign of Frederick Barbarossa (1156) it was advanced to the rank of a duchy. There is no certain record that the site of Vindobona was occupied at the time of the formation of the Ostmark, though many considerations make it probable. It is not likely that the Avars, living in their “ring” encampments, destroyed the Roman municiplum; and Becs, the Hungarian name for Vienna to this day, is susceptible of a Slavonic interpretation only, and would seem to indicate that the site had been occupied in Slavonic times. The first mention of Vienna is in the “Nibelungenlied” in the oldest extant version of the Nibelungenlied points in the same direction. Passion over a doubtful mention of “Wvesi” in the annals of 1030, we find the “civitas” of Vienna mentioned in a document of 1130, and in 1156 it became the capital and residence of Duke Heinrich Jasoningott. In 1237 Vienna received a charter of freedom from Frederick II., confirmed in 1247. In the time of the crusades Vienna increased so rapidly, in consequence of the traffic that flowed through it, that in the days of Ottacar II. of Bohemia (1231-70), the successor of the Babenbergers, it had assumed the dimensions of the present inner town. A new era of power and splendour began when it became the capital of the Habsburg dynasty, after the defeat of Ottacar by Rudolph of Habsburg. From this time on it has shared the fortunes of the house of Austria. In 1427 Vienna was besieged unsuccessfully by the Hungarians, and in 1458 it was taken by Matthew Corvinus. Of more importance were the two sieges by the Turks (1529 and 1683), when the city was saved on the first occasion by the gallant defence of Count Niclas von Salm (1459-1530), and on the second by Rüdiger von Staremburg (1638-1701), who held out until the fall of the Poles and Germans under John Sobieski of Poland. The suburbs, however, were destroyed on both occasions. In 1805, and again in 1809, Vienna was for a short time occupied by the French. In 1814-15 it was the meeting-place of the congress which settled the political affairs of Europe after the overthrow of Napoleon. In 1848 the city was for a time in the hands of the revolutionary party; but it was bombarded by the imperial forces and compelled to surrender on 30th October of the same year. Vienna was not occupied by the Prussians in the war of 1866, but the invaders marched to within sight of its towers. In 1873 a great international exhibition was held here.

While Berlin and Budapest have made the most rapid progress of all European cities, having multiplied their population by nine in the period 1800-90, Vienna— even including the extensive annexations of 1802—only increased sevenfold. Many causes conspired to this end, but most of them date from the years 1859, 1866 and 1873. The combined effect of these successive blows, aggravated by the long period of decentralizing policy from Taffe to Badeni, is still felt in the Kaisersstadt. The gaiety of Vienna had for centuries depended on the brilliancy of its court, recruited from all parts of Europe, including the nobility of the whole empire, and on its musical, light-hearted and contented population. Even before it fell from its high estate as the social centre of the German-speaking world, it had suffered severely by the crushing defeats of 1879 and the consequent exodus of the Austrian nobles. These were held responsible for the misfortunes of the army, and to escape the atmosphere of popular odium retired to their country seats and the provincial capitals. They have never since made Vienna their home to the same extent as before. The change thus begun was confirmed by the exclusion of Austria from the German Confederation in 1866 and the subsequent activities of her Constitution. However, which gave an immense impetus to the two rival capitals.

Thus within eight years the range of territory from which Vienna drew its former throngs of wealthy pleasure-seeking visitors and more or less permanent inhabitants—Italian, German and Hungarian—was enormously restricted. Since then Vienna has benefited largely by the enlightened efforts of its citizens and the exceptional opportunities afforded by the removal of the fortifications. But a decline of its importance, similar to that within the larger sphere which it influenced prior to 1870, has continued uninterruptedly within the Habsburg dominions up to the present day. Its commercial classes constantly complain of the increasing competition of the provinces, and of the progressive industrial emancipation of Hungary. The efforts of the Hungarians to complete their social and economic, no less than their political, emancipation from Austria and Vienna have been unremittingly pursued. The formal recognition of Budapest as a royal residence and capital in 1852, and the appointment of independent Hungarian court functionaries in November 1853, mark new stages in its progress. It would no longer be correct to speak of Vienna as the capital of the dual monarchy. It merely shares that distinction with Budapest.

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VIENNA, CONGRESS OF (1814-1815). The fall of Napoleon was only achieved by the creation of a special alliance between Great Britain, Austria, Russia and Prussia. By the Treaty of Chaumont of March 10, 1814, these four powers bound themselves together in a bond which was not to be dissolved when peace was concluded. When Napoleon had been beaten, France conceded to these allies by a secret article of the first Treaty of Paris of May 30, 1814, the disposition of all countries which Napoleon’s fall had freed from French suzerainty. This stupendous task was reserved for a general congress, and it was agreed to meet at Vienna. The visit of the allied sovereigns to England and the pressing engagements of the emperor Alexander and Lord Castlereagh delayed the congress until the
autumn, when all Europe sent its representatives to accept the hospitality of the impoverished but magnificent Austrian court.

Metternich, though he had not yet completely established his position, acted as chief Austrian representative, and he was naturally in his capacity as host the president of the congress. Friedrich v. Gentz acted as secretary both to him and the congress and did much of the routine work. Alexander of Russia directed his own diplomacy, and round him he had gathered a brilliant body of counsellors, but not control their master's desires. Of these the chief were foreigners, according to the traditions of Russian diplomacy. Capo d'Istria, Nesselrode, Stein, Pozzo di Borgo were perhaps the best men in Europe to manage the Russian policy, while Castoriski represented at the imperial court the hope of Polish nationality. Frederick William III. of Prussia was a weaker character and, as will be seen, his policy was largely determined by his ally, Prince von Hardenberg, who by no means shared all the views of his master but was incapacitated by his growing infirmities, yet first Prussian plenipotentiary, and ally of the great Baron von Humboldt. Great Britain was represented by Lord Castlereagh, and under him were the British diplomats who had been attached to the foreign armies since 1815, Clancarty, Stewart and Cathcart. Castlereagh brought with him decided views, which however were not altogether those of his cabinet, and his position was weakened by the fact that Great Britain was still at war with the United States, and that public opinion at home cared for little but the abolition of the slave trade. When parliamentary duties called Castlereagh home in February 1815, the duke of Wellington filled his place with adequate dignity and statesmanship until the war broke out.

France sent Prince Talleyrand to conduct her difficult affairs. No other man was so well fitted for the task of maintaining the interests of a defeated country. His rare diplomatic skill and supreme intellectual endowments were to enable him to play a deciding part in the coming congress. All the minor powers of Europe were represented, for all felt that their interests were at stake in the coming settlement. Gathered there also were a host of publicists, secretaries and courtiers, and never before had Europe witnessed such a collection of rank and talent. From the first the soundness of the congress impressed observers with its wealth and variety, nor did the statesmen disdain to use the dining-table or the ballroom as the instruments of their diplomacy.

All Europe awaited with eager expectation the results of so great an assembly. The fate of Poland and Saxony hung in the balance; Germany awaited an entirely new reorganization; Italy was again ready for dismemberment; rumours went that even the pope and the sultan might be largely affected. Some there were who hoped that so great an opportunity would not be lost, but that the statesmen would initiate such measures of international disarmament as would perpetuate the blessings of that peace which Europe was again enjoying after twenty years of warfare.

It was not long, however, before the allies displayed their intention of keeping the management of affairs entirely in their own hands. At an informal meeting on the 22nd of September the four great powers agreed that all subjects of general interest were to be settled by a committee consisting of Austria, Russia, Prussia and Great Britain together with France and Spain. At the same time, however, it was decided by a secret protocol that the four powers should first settle among themselves the distribution of the conquered territories, and that France and Spain should only be consulted when their final decision was announced.

This was the situation which Talleyrand had to face when he arrived on the 24th of September. His first step when he was admitted to the European committee, which was in the plans of the allies to act so colourless a part, was to ignore the position of the Four and to assert that only the congress as a whole could give the committee full powers. He would have meant an almost indefinite delay, for how was it possible to decide the exact rights of all the different states to a voice in affairs? After some heated discussion a compromise was arrived at. The opening of the congress was postponed, and Sweden and Portugal were added to the European committee, but the Four still persisted in the informal meetings which were to decide the important questions. Meanwhile separate committees were formed for the discussion of special problems. Thus a special committee was appointed consisting of the five German powers to discuss the constitution which was to replace the Holy Roman Empire, and another, the Czar and others for other minor questions. Talleyrand had, however, already shaken the position of the allies. He had posed as the defender of the public rights of Europe and won to his side the smaller powers and much of the public opinion of Europe, while the allies were beginning to be regarded more in the light of rapacious conquerors than as disinterested defenders of the liberties of Europe.

Had the Four remained united in their views they would still have been irresistible. But they were gradually dividing into two parties upon the Saxo-Polish question. Alexander, exaggerating the part he had played in the final struggle, and with some vague idea of nationality in his brain, demanded that the whole of Poland should be added to the Russian dominions. Austria was to be compensated in Italy, while Prussia was to receive the whole of Saxony, whose unfortunate monarch had been the most faithful of Napoleon's vassals.

It was Castlereagh that led the opposition to these almost peremptory demands of Alexander. A true disciple of Pitt, he came to the congress with an overwhelming distrust of the growing power of Russia, which was only second to his hatred of revolutionary France. He considered that the equilibrium of Europe would be irretrievably upset were the Russian boundaries to be pushed into the heart of Germany. Thus while willing, even anxious that Prussia should receive Saxony, in order that she might be strong to meet the danger from the East, he was prepared to go to any lengths to resist the claims of Russia. For Austria Saxony was really of more vital interest than Poland, but Castlereagh, despite a vigorous resistance from a section of the Austrian court, was able to win Metternich over to his views. He hoped to gain Prussia also to his side, but in the end the British, who from the position he had so uncompromisingly laid down. With the Prussian statesmen he had some success, but he could make no impression on Frederick William. Alexander used to the utmost that influence over the mind of the Prussian monarch which he had been preparing since the beginning of 1815. Against Castlereagh he entered the lists personally, and memorandum after memorandum was exchanged. Despite the warning letters of the British cabinet which, dismayed at the long continuance of the American War, counselled caution on a question in which England had no immediate interest, Castlereagh yielded no inch of his ground. But Metternich wavered on the question of Saxony, and December saw the allies hopelessly at difference. It seemed by no means unlikely that the armies which had conquered Napoleon would soon be engaged in conflict with one another.

It was Talleyrand's opportunity. As Castlereagh and Metternich began to regard the position as hopeless they began to look upon him as a possible ally. Talleyrand had constantly defended the rights of France's old ally Saxony in the name of the principle which his master Louis XVIII. represented. His passionate appeal on behalf of "legitimacy" was particularly adapted to the necessities of the situation. Alexander was driven into transports of rage by this championship of the ancien régime by one who had been a servant of its bitterest foe. But Castlereagh saw that war could only be avoided if one party was made stronger than the other. The reluctant consent of the British cabinet was obtained and Talleyrand was approached as an equal. He came boldly to the front in the middle of December as the champion of Saxony, and as Russia was still obstinate, Metternich and Castlereagh demanded the admission of France to the secret council. This was refused, and on the 3rd of January
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1815 a secret treaty of defensive alliance was signed between France, Austria and Great Britain. For some time affairs hung in the balance, but Alexander could not mistake the tone of his opponents. Gradually a compromise was arranged, and by the end of the month all danger was past. Eventually Austria and Prussia retained most of their Polish dominions, and the latter power only received about two-fifths of Saxony. The rest of Poland was incorporated as a separate kingdom in the Russian dominions with a promise of a constitution of its own. Talleyrand had rescued France from its humiliating position, as equal as the side of the allies. Henceforward he made no effort for the rights of the whole congress.

Meanwhile other affairs had been progressing more harmoniously under the direction of special committees, which included representatives of the powers specially interested. Switzerland was given a constitution which led it in the direction of its later federalism. In Italy Austria retained her hold on Lombardy and Venetia, Genoa was assigned to the kingdom of Sardinia, while Parma went to Marie Louise, the legitimate heir, Carlo Ludovico, having to be content with the reversion after her death, the congress meanwhile assigning Lucca to her; the claims of the young Napoleon to succeed his mother in Parma were only destroyed by the efforts of France and England. The other petty monarchs were restored, and Murat's rash attempt, after Napoleon's return from Elba, to make himself king of united Italy, gave back Naples to the Bourbons, an event which would have been brought about in any case in the course of the next few years (see MURAT, JOACHIM). Holland was confirmed in the possession of Belgium and Luxemburg, Limburg and Liège were added to her dominions. Sweden, who had sacrificed Finland to Russia, obtained Norway.

German affairs, however, proved too complicated for complete solution. It was difficult enough to decide the claims of the states in the struggle for territory. Eventually, however, by methods of compromise, this was adjusted fairly satisfactorily. The greater states gained largely, especially Prussia, who was given large acquisitions of territory on the Rhine, partly as a compensation for her disappointment in the matter of Saxony, partly that she might act as a bulwark against France. Some disputes between Baden and Bavaria remained unsettled, and many questions arising out of the national confederations in Germany, which had been hurriedly patched together under the influence of the news of Napoleon's return, had to be postponed for further discussion, and were not settled until the Final Act agreed upon by the conference of German statesmen at Vienna in 1821.

Other more general objects, such as the free navigation of international rivers and the regulation of the rights of precedence among diplomatists (see DIPLOMACY), were managed with much address. Castlereagh's great efforts were rewarded by a declaration that the slave trade was to be abolished, though each power was left free to fix such a date as was most convenient to itself. The Final Act, embodying all the separate treaties, was signed on the 9th of June 1815, a few days before the battle of Waterloo.

Before the work of the congress was completed Napoleon was again at Paris, and the closing stages were hurried and ill-considered. One negotiation of supreme importance was cut short for this reason. Castlereagh had left Vienna with the hope that the powers would solemnly guarantee their territorial settlement and promise to make collective war on whoever dared to disturb it. This guarantee was to include the Ottoman dominions, in whose interests, indeed, it had been brought forward. Alexander made no objection provided that the Porte would submit all outstanding claims to arbitration. The distance of Constantinople from Vienna and the obstinacy of the sultan would probably have prevented a settlement, but the return of Napoleon rendered all such proposals almost absurd, and the scheme was dropped.

Thus the congress of Vienna failed to institute any new system for securing the stability of the European polity. nor did it recognize those new forces of liberty and nationality which had really caused Napoleon's downfall. Following the tradition of all preceding congresses, it was mainly a scramble for territory and power. Territories were distributed among the powers with no consideration for the feelings of their inhabitants, and in general the right of the strongest prevailed. For this reason it has often met with a condemnation that has perhaps been unmerited. It is true that the map of Europe shows to-day but little trace of its influence; but much of its work was determined by conditions over which statesmen had little control. Europe was not ready for the recognition of nationality and liberalism. What it wanted most of all was peace, and by establishing something like a territorial equilibrium the congress did much to win that breathing space which was the cardinal need of all.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The treaties and acts of the congress may be consulted in J. L. Klüber, Actes des Wien Congresses (9 vols.); Comte d'Angersberg, Le Congrès de Vienne (4 vols.); British and Foreign State Papers, vol. ii., gives some of the documents in English, and the Final Act is found in many collections. For the diplomacy, Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, vol. ix. and x.; Castlereagh's Letters and Despatches, vol.x.; Talleyrand's Mémoires, vols. ii. and iii., the works of Gontz (see GONTZ, F. VON) and the Mémoirs of Hardenberg and Cartorovsky are very useful. Other records have been collected in Memoires sur la Conférence de la Paix de Vienne (9 vols.); V. R. Siger, n'y sont spécialement consacrées. L'Empereur des Français. (1 vol.) and J. J. Custot, Contributions à l'Histoire de la Conférence de Vienne (3 vols.).

VIENNE, a river of central France, a left-hand tributary of the Loire, watering the departments of Corrèze, Haute-Vienne, Charente, Vienne and Indre-et-Loire. Length, 210 m.; area of basin, 8266 sq. m. Rising on the plateau of Millevaches 14 m. N.W. of Ussel (department of Corrèze) at a height of 2780 ft., the Vienne flows westward, between the highlands of Limousin on the south and the plateaux of Champagne, Franche-Comté, and the Jura mountains. The first large town on its banks is Limoges (Haute-Vienne), below its confluence with the Taurion: in this part of its course the river supplies motive power to paper-mills and other factories. The river next reaches St Junien, below which it turns abruptly northwards to Confolens (Charente). Flowing through a picturesque and now wider valley, and passing in its course the churches and châteaux of Chauvigny, the river proceeds to the confluence of the Clain just above Châtellerault. Below that town it receives the Creuse (rising on the plateau of Millevaches and reaching the Vienne after a course of 159 m.), and turns northwest, uniting with the Loire below the historic town of Chinon. There is little river-traffic on the Vienne, and that only below its confluence with the Creuse (30 m.).

VIENNE, a department of west-central France, formed in 1790 out of Poitou (four-fifths of its present area), Touraine (one-seventh) and Berry, and bounded by Deux-Sèvres on the W., Charente on the S., Haute-Vienne on the S.E., Indre on the E., Indre-et-Loire on the N.E. and N., and Maine-et-Loire on the N.W. Pop. (1906) 333,621. Area, 2719 sq. m. The river Vienne, which gives the department its name, is, there are the Creuse (subtributary of the Garonne) on the east and the Clain on the west, flows from south to north. The general slope of the department is in the same direction, the highest point (764 ft.) being in the south-east and the lowest (113 ft.) at the junction of the Vienne and the Creuse. In the south the Charente, on the north-west the Dive, and in the west some streams belonging to the basin of the Sèvre-Niortaise drain small portions of the department. The average temperature is 54° F. The prevailing winds are from the south-west and west. The annual rainfall is 24 in.
Wheat, oats and barley are the principal cereals cultivated, other important crops being lucerne, sainfoin, clover, mangel-wurzel, and potatoes. The vines are numerous and the wine is highly esteemed. Oak, ash, alder and birch are the principal forest trees, and among the fruit trees are the chestnut, walnut and almond. Figuring among the products of the département are numerous and the wool-spinning industry is well developed.

The most industrious of the occupations are the national arms manufacture at Châtellerault and the cutlery works near that town. In other parts of the department we find hemp-spinning mills, manufactures of soap and candles and the manufacture of cheese and goat's cheese, and numerous flour-mills. Corn, wine, brandy, vegetables, fruit, chestnuts, fodder, cattle, stone, cutlery, arms and dressed hides are exported; there are distilleries, cutlery, manufactory of skins, and other products are exported.

The administration of the department is highly esteemed. Many of the churchmen who have nome statesmen have been of the administrative body, and many have been distinguished by their intellect and industry. The most important of these are the Bishops of Poitiers, its own bishops, and other bishops of the region of the 19th century. The present bishop is, certainly known to be Vector, who was present at the Council of Arles in 314. About 430 Vienne became an archbishopric and was restored by Pope St. Trophime in 1075, when the see was suppressed. The archbishops were disputing with those of Lyons the title of "Primate of All the Gauls." Vienne was conquered by the Burgundians in 438, and in 1534 was taken by the Franks. Sacked in 558 by the Lombards and in 737 by the Saracens, the government of the district was given by Charles the Bold in 869 to a certain Count Boso, who in 879 was proclaimed king of Provence, and was buried on his death in 887 in the cathedral church of St. Maurice. Vienne continued to form part of the kingdom of Provence or Arles till in 1052 it reverted to the Holy Roman Empire. The sovereigns of that kingdom, as well as the emperors of the 12th century (in particular Frederick Barbarossa in 1153), recognized the rights of the archbishops as the rulers (in the name of the emperor) of Vienne. But the growing power of the counts of Albigeois, later Dauphins of the neighbouring county of the Viennois, was the cause of many disputes between them and the archbishops. In 1349 the reigning Dauphin sold his Dauphiné to France, but the town of Vienne was not included in this sale, and the archbishops did not give up their rights over it to France till 1449, when it first became French. In 1511-12 the fifteenth General Council was held at Vienne, when Cardinal Vertu abolished the order of the Knights Templar. Vienne was sacked in 1562 by the Protestants under the banner of the Adrets, and was held for the Ligue 1590-95, when it was taken in the name of Henri IV. by Montmorency. The fortifications were demolished between 1589 and 1656. In 1790 the archbishopric was abolished, the title "Primate of All the Gauls" being attributed to the archbishops of Lyons. Among famous natives of Vienne may be mentioned St. Julian (3rd century) and Nicholas Chortter (1612-1662), the historian of the Dauphiné, while Gué de Bourgogne, who was bishop 1590-1119, became pope in 1199 as Calixtus II. (d. 1214).

Vienne was originally the capital of the Allobroges, and became a Roman colony about 47 B.C. under Caesar, who embellished and fortified it. A little later these colonists were expelled by the Allobroges; the exiles then founded the colony of Lyons (Lugdunum). It was not till the days of Augustus and Tiberius that Vienne regained all its former privileges as a Roman colony. Later it became the capital of the Province of Vienne, which was declared to be a Roman province in 21 B.C. and was divided into the two provinces of Poitou and Auvergne. It was also restored to the name of the village, St. Romain en Gal, to the N.W. of St. Colombes. The Gère supplies the motive power to numerous factories. The most important are those which produce cloth (about 30 factories, turning out daily about 15,000 yards), and numerous other industrial establishments (paper mills, iron foundries, brick works, refining furnaces, etc.)

Vienne is rich in megalithic monuments. The streets of the town are narrow and tortuous, but it possesses two Roman monuments of the first class. One is the temple of Augustus and Livia, a rectangular building of the Corinthian order, erected by the emperor Claudius, and inferior only to the Maison Carrée of Nîmes. The other is the basilica of St. Savin near Poitiers, the abbey church of St. Savin being remarkable for its mural paintings; Ligugé, with an abbey church of the 15th and 16th centuries; Châteaux, which has a Romanesque octagonal tower and other remains; and La Rochefoucauld, near a famous abbey, the ruins of a theatre and other Gallo-Roman remains.}

VIENNE, the chief town of an arrondissement of the department of the Isère, France. Historically the first, it is by population (24,619 in 1901) the second city of the department of the Isère, after Grenoble; and the third, after Valence, of the Dauphiné. It is situated on the left bank of the Rhône just below the junction of the Rhône with the Rhone, 20 m. by rail S. of Lyons. On the N., E. and S. the town is sheltered by low hills, the Rhône flowing along its western side. Its site is an immense mass of ancient debris, which is constantly yielding interesting antiquities. On the bank of the Gère are traces of the ramparts of the old Roman city, and on the Mont Pipet (E. of the town) are the remains of an amphitheatre, while the ruined castle there was built in the 13th century on Roman substructures. Several of the ancient aqueducts (one only is now actually in use) are still to be seen, while in the middle of the city some bits of the old Roman roads may still be found.

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the presidency of Pope Clement V. The transference of the Curia from Rome to Avignon (1309) had brought the papacy under the influence of the French crown; and this position Philip the Fair of France now endeavoured to utilize by demanding from the pope the dissolution of the powerful and wealthy order of the Temple, together with the introduction of a trial for heresy against the late Pope Boniface VIII. To evade the second claim, Clement gave way on the first. Legal trials and acts of violence against the Templars had begun as early as the year 1307 (see TEMPLES); and the principal object of the council was to secure a definite decision on the question of their continuance or abolition. In the committee appointed for preliminary consultation, one section was for the immediate condemnation of the order, and declined to allow it any opportunity of defence, on the ground that it was now superfluous and simply a source of strife. The majority of the members, however, regarded the case as non-proven, and demanded that the order should be heard on its own behalf; while at the same time they held that its dissolution was unjustifiable. Under pressure from the king, who was his host in Vienne, the pope determined that, as the order gave occasion for scandal but could not be condemned as heretical by a judicial sentence (de jure), it should be abolished per modum provisionis seu ordinationis apostolicae; in other words, by an administrative ruling based on considerations of the general welfare. To this procedure the council agreed, and on the 22nd of March the order of the Temple was suppressed by the bull Vox clamantis; while further decisions as to the treatment of the order and its possessions followed later.

Vierge's earlier drawings were announced in the opening speech, regarding measures for the reformation of the Church and the protection of her liberties, took place; and a part of the Constitutions found in the Clementinum, published in 1317 by John XXII., were probably enacted by the council. Still it is impossible to say with certainty what decrees were actually passed at Vienne. Additional decisions were necessitated by the violent disputes which raged within the Franciscan order as to the observance of the rules of St Francis of Assisi, and by the multitude of subordinate questions arising from this. Resolutions were also adopted on the Beguines and their mode of life (see BEGUNES), the control of the hospitals, the institution of instructors in Hebrew, Arabic and Chaldaic at the universities, and on numerous details of ecclesiastical discipline and law.


VIEGE, DANIEL (1581-1604), Spanish painter and draughtsman, was born in Madrid in 1581. He went to Paris in 1607 to seek his fortune, fired by the vivid energy of his national temperament. He became attached to the Monde illustré in 1370, just before the Franco-Prussian War broke out, and, like other artists in the paper, came under the powerful influence of Edmond Morin, the first newspaper draughtsman in France who sought to impart to drawings for journals the character of a work of art. Vierge's earlier drawings, therefore, partly took part of Morin's style; such are, "The Shooting in the Rue de la Paix," "The Place d'Armes at Versailles," "The Loan," "The Great School-Fête of Lyons," "Anniversary of the Fight of Aydes" and "Souvenir of Couillers." Vierge lost no time in proving the extraordinary vigour and picturesque quality of his art. Apart from the contribution of his own original work, he was employed as a drawing master to redress the evil for the engraver, the sketches sent in by artist-correspondents, such as Luc Olivier Merson in Rome and Samuel Urrabieta (Vierge's brother) in Spain. From 1871 to 1878 his individuality became more and more pronounced, and he produced, among his best-known drawings, "Christmas in Spain," "The Republican Meeting in Trafalgar Square," "Attack on a Train in Andalusia," "Feast of St Rosalia in Palermo," "In the Jardin d'Acclimatation." "The Burning of the Library of the Escorial, 1872," "Grasshoppers in Algiers," "Brigandage in Sicily," "Night Fête in Constantinople," "Episode of the Civil War in Spain," "Marriage of the King of Spain," and "The Bull Fight." About this time he illustrated with remarkable dash and skill Victor Hugo's Année terrible (Michel Lévy, 1874, and Hugues, 1879), "1813" (Hugues, 1877) and Les Misérables (1882). His masterpiece of illustration is Michelet's History of France (1876), consisting of 26 volumes containing 1000 drawings. In 1879 he was drawing for La Vie moderne, and then proceeded to illustrate Pablo de Segorbe. While engaged upon this work he was attacked by paralysis in the right arm, but with characteristic energy and courage he set himself to acquire the necessary skill in drawing with the left, and calmly proceeded with the illustrations to the book. In 1891 he illustrated L'Espagnole, by Bergerat, and in 1895 Le Cabaret des trois verts. In 1898 he held, at the Pelletan Gallery in Paris, an exhibition of his drawings for Chateaubriand's Le Dernier Abencerrage ("The Last of the Abencerrages"), and in the following year a comprehensive exhibition of his work (including the illustrations to Don Quixote) at the Art Nouveau Gallery, also in Paris. In 1898 Vierge contributed to L'Image, a magazine devoted to the encouragement of engraving upon wood; and two years later, at the International Exhibition at Paris, he was awarded a grand prix. In 1902 he exhibited at the New Salon a scene from the Franco-Prussian War. He died at Boulougue-sur-Seine in May 1904.

See Roger Marx, L'Image (1868); Béraldi, La Grave au 19e siècle.

VIERSEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine province, 11 m. by rail S.W. from Crefeld, and at the junction of lines to München-Gladbach, Venlo, &c. Pop. (1905) 27,577. It has an evangelical and four Roman Catholic churches, among the latter the handsome parish church dating from the 15th century, and various educational establishments. Viersen is one of the chief seats in the lower Rhine country for the manufacture of velvets, silks (especially umbrella covers) and plush.

VIERZON, a town of central France, in the department of Cher, 20 m. N.W. of Bourges by rail. The Cher and the Yère unite at the foot of the hill on which lie Vierzon-Ville (pop. 1906 town, 11,812) and Vierzon-Village (pop. town, 2036; commune, 9710); Vierzon-Bourgneuf (pop. town, 1482) is on the left bank of the Cher. The town has a port on the canal of Berry and is an important junction on the Orléans railway; there are several large manufactories for the production of agricultural machines, also foundries, porcelain, brick and tile works and glass works. A technical school of mechanics and a branch of the Bank of France are among the institutions of the town.

VIETA (or VIET), FRANÇOIS, SEIGNEUR DE LA BAGOTIÈRE (1540-1603), more generally known as FRANÇOIS DE VIET, French mathematician, was born in 1540 at Fontenay-le-Comte, in Poitou. According to F. Ritter, Vieta was brought up as a Catholic, and died in the same creed; but there can be no doubt that he belonged to the Huguenots for several years. On the completion of his studies in law at Poitiers Vieta began his career as an advocate in his native town. This he left about 1567, and somewhat later we find him at Rennes as a councillor of the parlement of Brittany. The religious troubles drove him thence, and Rohan, the well-known chief of the Huguenots, took him under his special protection. He recommended him in 1580 as a "maitre des requêtes" (master of requests); and Henry of Navarre, at the instance of Rohan, addressed two letters to Henry III. of France on the 3rd of March and the 26th of April 1585, to obtain Vieta's restoration to his former office, but without result. After the accession of Henry of Navarre to the throne of France, Vieta filled in 1589 the position of councillor of the parlement at Tours. He afterwards became a royal privy councillor, and remained so till his death, which took place suddenly at Paris in February 1603, but in what manner we do not know; Anderson, the editor of his scientific writings, speaks only of a "praeceps et immaturum autoris fatum."

1 Boletino Boncompagni (Rome, 1868), vol. i. p. 227, n. 1.
We know of one important service rendered by Vieta as a royal officer. While at Tours he discovered the key to a Spanish cipher, consisting of more than 500 characters, and thenceforward all the despatches in that language fell into the hands of the French could be easily read. His fame now rests, however, entirely upon his achievements in mathematics. Being a man of wealth, he printed at his own expense the known mathematical works, which he afterwards, with the help of various branches of this science, and communicated them to scholars in a number of manuscripts.

Vieta's writings thus became very quickly known; but, when Franciscus van Schooten issued a general edition of his works in 1646, he failed to make a complete collection, although probably nothing of very great value has perished.

The form of Vieta's writings is their weak side. He indulged freely in flourishes; and in devising technical terms derived from the Greek he seems to have aimed at making them as unintelligible as possible. Now his is a style, which he himself, in a letter written in 1593, has stood out against; and even his proposal to denote unknown quantities by the vowels A, E, I, O, U, Y—the consonants, c, k, g, w, —being reserved for general known quantities, was not followed up. In this denotation he followed, perhaps, some older contemporaries, and designated the points in geometrical figures by vowels, making use of consonants, R, S, T, &c., only when these were exhausted. Vieta is written, an orthography which no one can think mean, what is often alleged, that nobody before him had ever thought of choosing symbols different from numerals, such as the letters of the alphabet, to denote the quantities of arithmetic, but that he made a general custom of what until his time had been only an exceptional attempt. All that is wanting in his writings, especially in his Igagio in artem analysicam (1591), in order to make them clear to the uninitiated reader, is a compression of the sign of equality—a want which is the more striking because Robert Recorde had made use of our present symbol for this purpose since 1557, and Xylander had employed vertical parallel lines since 1575.

On the other hand, Vieta was well skilled in the art of preparing theorems and problems, and of reducing general propositions to particular applications. The method of simplification of equations by the substitution of new quantities having a certain connexion with the primitive unknown quantities. Another of his works, Recensio conspecta effectuum geometricarum, bears a stamp not less modern, being what we now call an algebraic geometry—in other words, a collection of precepts how to construct algebraic expressions with the use of rule and compasses. These were the germ of the generality, and therefore of the greatest didactic importance, the principle of homogeneity, first enunciated by Vieta, was so far in advance of his times that most readers seem to have passed it over without apprehending its importance. That principle has been known from the Greek authors of the classic age; but of later mathematicians only Hero, Diophantus, &c., ventured to regard lines and surfaces as mere abstractions, which could be joined to give a new number, their sum. It may be that the study of Vieta's sums, the results of his calculations, was the first step towards the development of the science of form, where the objects of study are the properties of the straight line, the plane, the space, and the universe. Vieta, in his works on Diophantus, prompted him to lay it down as a principle that quantities occurring in an equation ought to be homogeneous, all of them lines, or surfaces, or solids, or superordinates; an equation between mere numbers being inadmissible. During the three centuries that have elapsed between Vieta's day and our own several changes of opinion have taken place on this subject, and the principle has at last proved so far victorious that modern mathematicians like to make homogeneous such equations as are not so from the beginning, in order to get values of a symmetrical shape, of course, in the most general case. Nevertheless the merit cannot be denied him of having indirectly suggested the thought. Nor are his writings lacking in actual inventions. He conceived methods for the general resolution of equations of the second, third and fourth degrees different from those of Ferro and Ferrari, with which, however, it is difficult to believe he has been unacquainted. He devised an approximate numerical solution of equations of the second and third degrees, wherein Leonardo of Pisa must have preceded him by a long time. He also gave a problem to all mathematicians an equation of the 45th degree, which, being recognized by Vieta as depending on the equation between sin φ and sin φ/45, was resolved by him at once, all the twenty-three positive roots of which the said equation was capable being given at the same time (see Trigonometry). Such was the first encounter of the two scholars. A second took place when Vieta pointed to Apollonius's problem of tactic as not yet mastered, and he published himself, in Apollonius Galilaei presentibus, a solution of the problem which he discovered by the hyperbola. Vieta, however, did not accept it, as there existed a solution by means of the rule and the compass only, which he published himself in his Apollonius Galilaei presentibus. In this paper Vieta made use of the centre of similitude of two circles. Lastly he gave an infinite product for the number π (see Circle, Squaring of).

Vieta's collected works were issued under the title of Opera Mathematica in 1615, and again in a revised edition at Leiden in 1626. (M. C.)

**VIEUXTEMPS, HENRI** (1852-1881), Belgian violinist and composer, was born at Verviers, on the 20th of February 1852. Until his seventh year he was a pupil of Lecloux, but when De Bériot heard him he adopted him as his pupil, taking him to appear in Paris in 1858. From 1833 onwards he spent the greater part of his life in concert tours, visiting all parts of the world with uniform success. He first appeared in London at a Philharmonic concert on the 8nd of June 1834, and in the following year at Paris. He published himself in his Apollonius Galilaei presentibus, a solution of the problem which he discovered by the hyperbola. His staccato was famous all over the world, and his tone was exceptionally rich and full.

**VIGAN,** a town and the capital of the province of Ilocos Sur, Luzon, Philippine Islands, at the mouth of the Abra river, about 200 m. N. by W. of Manila. Pop. of the municipality (1903) 14,945; after the census of 1903 was taken there were united to Vigan the municipalities of Bantay (pop. 7020), San Vicente (pop. 5060), Santa Catalina (pop. 5625) and Cagayan (pop. 6209), making the total population of the municipality 39,852. Vigan is the residence of the bishop of the diocese of Segovia and has a fine cathedral, a substantial court-building, and the building of boats. The language is Ilocano.

**VIGEE-LEBRUN, MARIE-ANNE ELISABETH** (1755-1842), French painter, was born in Paris, the daughter of a painter, from whom she received her first instruction, though she benefited more by the advice of Doyen, Greuze, Joseph Vernet and other masters of the painting Art; she was occupied about twenty years of age she had already risen to fame with her portraits of Count Orloff and the duchess of Orleans, her personal charm making her at the same time a favourite in society. In 1776 she married the painter and art-critic J. B. P. Lebrun, and in 1783 her picture of "Peace bringing back Abundance" (now at the Louvre) gained her the membership of the Academy. When the Revolution broke out in 1789, she escaped first to Italy, where she worked at Rome and Naples. At Rome she painted the portraits of Princesses Adelaide and Victoria, and at Naples the "Lady Hamilton as a Bacchante," now in the collection of Mr Tankelle's Chambly. After a journey to Vienna, Berlin and St Petersburg, she returned to Paris in 1781, but went in the following year to London, where she painted the portraits of Lord Byron and the prince of Wales, and in 1808 to Switzerland. Her numerous journeys, and the vogue she enjoyed wherever she went, account for the numerous portraits from her brush that are to be found in the great collections of many countries. Having returned to France from Switzerland, she lived first at her country house near Marly and then in Paris, where she died at the age of eighty-eight, in 1842. It has been estimated for two hundred years. She published her own memoirs under the title of Souvenirs (Paris, 1835-37). Among her many sitters was
VIGEVO—VIGILANCE COMMITTEE

Marie Antoinette, of whom she painted over twenty portraits between 1770 and 1789. A portrait of the artist is in the hall of the painters at the Uffizi, and another at the National Gallery. The Louvre owns two portraits of Mme Lebrun and her daughter, besides five other portraits and an allegorical composition.

A full account of her eventful life is given in the artist’s Sauterne, and in C. Pillet’s Mme Vigée-Le Brun (Paris, 1890). The artist’s autobiography has been translated by Lionel Strachey, Memoirs of Mme Vigée-Lebrun (New York, 1903), fully illustrated.

VIGEVO, a town and episcopal see of Lombardy, Italy, in the province of Pavia, on the right bank of the Ticino, 24 m. by road from the town of the line to Mortara, 38 ft. above sea level. Dep. (1901) 18,048, of whom 3,658 are (complied with 1861). It is a medieval walled town, with an arcaded market-place, a cathedral, the Gothic church of S. Francesco, and a castle of the Sforza family, dating from the 14th century and adorned with a loggia by Bramante and a tower imitating that of Filarete in the Castello Sforzesco at Milan. It is a place of some importance in the silk trade and also produces excellent macaroni. There is a steam tramway to Novara.

VIGFUSSON, GUDBRANDUR (1528-1588), the foremost Scandinavian scholar of the 16th century, was born of a good and old Iceland-sired (with Urness), Bremsbury, in 1528. He is said to have brought up till he went to a tutor’s, by his kinswoman, Kristina (his dottor, to whom, he records, he “owed not only that he became a man of letters, but almost everything.” He was sent to the old and famous school at Bessastad and (when it removed thither) at Reykjavik; and in 1549, already a fair scholar, he came to Copenhagen University as a bursarius in the Regense College. He was, after his student course, appointed stipendiarius by the Anna-Magnaean trustees, and worked for fourteen years in the Anna-Magnaean Library till, as he said, he knew every single volume of the Iceland-sired written paper in that whole collection. During his Danish life he has himself revisited Iceland (last in 1585), and made short tours in Norway and South Germany with friends. In 1566, after some months in London, he settled down in Oxford, which he made his home for the rest of his life, only quitting it for visits to the great Scandinavian libraries or to London (to work during two or three long vacations with his fellow-labourer, F. Y. Powell), or for short trips to places such as the Isle of Man, the Orkneys and Shetlands, the old moor-stead of the West Saxons at Downton, the Roman station, Cartumney, the burial-place of Bishop Brynjulf’s ill-fated son at Yarmouth, and the like. He held the office of Reader in Scandinavian at the university of Oxford (institutus and created for him) from 1584 till his death. He was a Jubilee Doctor of Upsala, 1877, and received the Danish order of the Dannebrog in 1885. Vigfusson died of cancer on the 31st of January 1889, and was buried in St Sepulchre’s Cemetery, Oxford, on the 3rd of February. He was an excellent judge of literature, reading most European languages well and being acquainted with their classics. His memory was remarkable, and if the whole of the Edda poems had been lost, he could have written them down from memory. He spoke English well andidiomatically, but with a strong Icelandic accent. He wrote a beautiful, distinctive and clear hand, in spite of the thousands of lines of MS. copying he had done in his early life.

By his Tútalið (written between October 1534 and April 1585) he laid the foundations for the chronology of Icelandic history, in a series of conclusions that have not been displaced (save by his own additions and corrections), and that justly earned the praise of Jacob Grimm. His editions of Icelandic classics (1588-68), Bisopav Sögur, Bards Saga, Forn Sögur (with Möbus), Eyvbygging Saga and Skaldic Poems, etc., have made the Icelandic scholarship, and can only fitly be compared to the Rolls Series edition of chronicles by Dr Stubbs for the interest and value of their prefaces and texts. Seven years of constant and severe toil (1566-73) were given to the Oxford Icelandic-English Dictionary, incomparable as the best guide to classic Icelandic, and a monumental example of single-handed work. His later series of editions (1874-85) included Oðars saga (a collection of Sögur, the great and complex mass of Icelandic historical sagas, under Sæmund’s known as the Poeticum Boreale), in which he edited the whole body of classic Scandinavian poetry. As an introduction to the Sturlunga, he wrote a complete though concise history of the classic Northern

literature and its sources. In the introduction to the Corpus, he laid the foundations of a critical history of the Eddic poetry and Court poetry of the North in a series of brilliant, original and well-substantiated theories that are gradually being accepted even by those who were at first inclined to reject them. His little Icelandic

Prose Reader (with F. York Powell) (1879) furnishes the English student with a pleasant and trustworthy path to a sound knowledge of the language. The Corpus Poetiarum Scandicarum (1886) give good examples of the range of his historic work, while his Appendix on Icelandic currency to Sir G. W. Daunt’s Burnt Njal is a model of methodological investigation and a study of a kind and somewhat important subject. As a writer in his own tongue he has once again made a high mark by his excellent and delightful Relations of Travel in Norway and South Germany, in English, as his “Visit to Grimm,” and his finished and charming Travels to the Tuscan Hills, and his VITA, which is a model account of his the life is a record of three efficient and well-directed labour in Denmark and Oxford.

VIGIL (Late Vigilia, “watch”), in the Christian Church, the eve of a festival. The use of the word is, however, late, the

vigilae (pernoctationes, σνυρακθές) having originally been the services, consisting of prayers, hymns, processions and sometimes the eucharist, celebrated on the preceding night in preparation for the feast. The oldest of the vigils is that of Easter Eve, the vigil of Pentecost and Christmas.

The abbeys connected with night vigils 1 led to their being attacked, especially by Vigilantius of Barcelona (c. 400), against whom Jerome fulminated in this and as other matters. The custom, however, increased, vigils being instituted for the other festivities, including those of saints.

In the middle ages the nocturnal vigil were, except in monasteries, gradually discontinued, matins and vespers on the preceding day, with fasting, taking their place. In the Roman Catholic Church the vigil is now usually celebrated on the morning of the day preceding the festival, except at Christmas, when a midnight mass is celebrated, and on Easter Eve. These vigils are further distinguished as privileged and unprivileged. The former (except that of the Epiphany) have special offices; in the latter the vigil is merely commemorated.

The Church of England has reverted to early custom in so far as only “Easter Even” is distinguished by a special collect, gospel and epistle. The other vigils are recognized in the calendar (including those of the saints) and the rubric directs the ushers to collect appropriate fasting and Holy Day that habits of the Vigil or Easter Eve, shall be said at the evening Service next following.

VIGILANCE COMMITTEE, in the United States, a self-constituted judicial body, occasionally organized in the western frontier districts for the protection of life and property. The first committee of prominence bearing the name was organized in San Francisco in June 1851, when the crimes of desperadoes who had immigrated to the gold-fields were rapidly increasing in numbers and it was said that there were venal judges, packed juries and false witnesses. At first this committee was composed of about 200 members; afterwards it was much larger. The general committee was governed by an executive committee and the city was policed by sub-committees. Within about thirty days four desperadoes were arrested, tried by the executive committee and hanged, and about thirty others were banished. Satisfied with the results, the committee then quietly adjourned, but it was revived five years later. Similar committees were common in other parts of California and in the mining districts of Idaho and Montana. That in Montana exterminated in 1863-4 a band of outlaws organized under Henry Plummer, the sheriff of Montana City; twenty-four of their number were hanged within a few months. Committees or societies of somewhat the same nature were formed in the Southern states during the Reconstruction period (1865-72) to protect white families from negroes and “carpet-baggers,” and besides these there were the Ku-Klux-Klan (q.v.) and its branches; the Knights of the White Camelia, the Pale Faces, and the Invisible Empire of the South, the principal object of which was to control the negroes by striking them with terror.

1 The 35th congress of the council of Elvira (305) forbids women to attend them.
The Vigilantius controversy.

They reached the city of Aquitania, where Vigilantius, the presbyter, celebrated as the author of a work, no longer extant, against superstitious practices, which called forth one of the most violent and scurrilous attacks of Jerome’s polemical treatises, was born about 370 at Calagurris in Aquitania (the modern Cazères or perhaps Saint Bertrand de Comminges in the department of Haute-Garonne), where his father kept a “stato” or inn on the great Roman road from Aquitania to Spain. While still a youth his talent became known to Sulpicius Severus, who had estates in that neighbourhood, and in 395 Sulpicius, who probably baptized him, sent him with letters to Paulinus of Nola, where he met with a friendly reception. On his return to Severus in Gaul he was ordained; and, having soon afterwards inherited means through the death of his father, he set out for Palestine, where he was received with great respect by Jerome at Bethlehem.

The stay of Vigilantius lasted for some three years, and it is not at all strange that he should have dragged himself into the dispute then raging about Origen, in which he did not see it wholly to adopt Jerome’s attitude. On his return to the West he was the bearer of a letter from Jerome to Paulinus, and at various places where he stopped on the way he appears to have expressed himself about Jerome in a manner that when reported gave great offence to that father, and provoked him to write a reply (Ep. 61). Vigilantius—now settled for some time in Gaul, and is said by one authority (Gennadius) to have afterwards held a charge in the diocese of Paris—was born about 370. After his return from the East, Vigilantius wrote his celebrated work against superstitious practices, in which he argued against the adoration of saints and relics. All that is known of his work is through Jerome’s treatise Contra Vigilantium, or, at least, a controversy would seem to prefer saying, “Contra Dormitantium.”

Notwithstanding Jerome’s exceedingly unfavourable opinion, there is no reason to believe that the tract of Vigilantius was exceptionally illustrative, or that the views it advocated were exceedingly “heretical.” Soon, however, the great influence of Jerome in the Western Church caused its leaders to espouse all his quarrels, and Vigilantius gradually came to be ranked in popular opinion among heretics, though his influence long remained potent both in France and Spain, as is proved by the polemical tract of Faustus of Rhenium (d. c. 490).

Vigilius, pope from 537 to 555, succeeded Silverius and was followed by Pelagius I. He was ordained by order of Belisarius while Silverius was still alive; his elevation was due to Theodora, who, by an appeal at once to his ambition and, it is said, to his covetousness, had induced him to promise to disallow the council of Chalcedon, in connexion with the “three chapters” controversy. When, however, the time came for the fulfilment of his bargain, Vigilius declined to give his assent to the condemnation of that council involved in the imperial edict against the three chapters, and for this act of disobedience he was peremptorily summoned to Constantinople, which he reached in 547. Shortly after his arrival there he issued a document known to history as his Judicatum (548), in which he condemned indeed the three chapters, but expressly disavowed any intentions thereby to disparage the council of Chalcedon. After a good deal of trimming (for he desired to stand well with his own clergy, who were strongly orthodox, as well as with the court), he prepared another document, the Constitutum ad Imperatorem, which was laid before the emperor, with the request that he might be displaced by his condemnation by the majority of that body, some say even to his banishment. Ultimately, however, he was induced to assent to and confirm the decrees of the council, and was allowed after an enforced absence of seven years to set out for Rome. He died, however, at Syracuse, before he reached his destination, on the 7th of June 555.

Vigintiseverus, in Roman history, the collective name given in republican times to “twenty-six” magistrates of inferior rank. They were divided into six boards, two of which were abolished by Augustus. Their number was thereby reduced to twenty and their name altered to vigintiviri (“the twenty”). They were originally nominated by the higher magistrates, but subsequently elected in a body at a single sitting of the comitia tributa; under the empire they were chosen by the senate. The following are the names of the six boards: (1) Tresviri capitales (see Tresviri); (2) Tresviri monetales; (3) Quatuorviri viis in urbe purgandis, who had the care of the streets and roads inside the city; (4) Duoviri viis extra uram purgandis (see Duoviri), abolished by Augustus; (5) Decemviri aediles judicandis (see Decemviri); (6) Quatuorviri Capitales, abolished by Augustus. The members of the last-named board were appointed by the praetor urbanus of Rome to administer justice in ten Campanian towns (list in Mommsen), and received their name from the two most important of these. They were subsequently elected by the people under the title of quatuorviri jure dicundo, but the date is not known.

See Mommsen, Römisches Staatsrecht, ii. (1887), p. 592.

Viglius, the name taken by Wigm van Attia van Zuchem (1507–1577), Dutch statesman and jurist, a Friesian by birth, and who, at the age of 20, was made a prebendary of the church of Delft. He became a great friend of Philip the Second and was received into the chancery of Dole in 1535, and was later made a councilor with the title of “general” of the Netherlands. He was elected a member of the council of Mechlin, and spent many years there. He was subsequently made a member of the council of Breda, and finally placed in the council of the city of Antwerp. He was, however, not always successful in his efforts to reconcile the emperor with the emperor, but was instrumental in bringing about a truce between the two powers, and was eventually rewarded with the title of “grand councilor” and a pension of 50,000 ducats.

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opposed the duke's scheme of extortion, and sought to induce Philip to himself to visit the Low Countries. His health was now impaired and his work was nearly over. Having suffered a short imprisonment with the other members of the state council in 1576, he died at Brussels on the 5th of May 1577, and was buried in the abbey of St Bavon.

Viglius was an advocate of peace and moderation, and as such could not expect support or sympathy from men engaged in a life-and-death struggle for liberty, or from their relentless enemies. He was undoubtedly avaricious, and accumulated great wealth, part of which he left to found a hospital in his native place, Zwischen, and a college at the university of Louvain. He married a rich lady, Jacqueline Damant, but had no children.

He wrote a Tagebuch des Schmähsatidens Denauwrig, edited by A. von Druijff (Munich, 1877), and some of his lectures were published under the title Commentarii in decem Institutionum vulos (Lyons, 1562). His Vita et opera historicis are given in the Annales Belgicae of C. P. Huygen van Papendrecht (the Hague, 1743). See L. P. Gachard, Correspondance de Philippe II. sur les affaires des Pays-Bas (Brussels, 1846-79); and Correspondance de Marguerite d'Auvergne, duchesse de Parme, with Philippe II. (Brussels, 1867); and E. Roull, Correspondance de cardinal de Granvelle (Brussels, 1877-81).

VIGNY, PAUL DE (1834-1901), Belgian sculptor, was born at Ghent. He was trained by his father, a statuary, and began by exhibiting his "Fra Angelico da Fiesole" at the Ghent Salon in 1868. In 1872 he exhibited at the Brussels Salon a marble status, "Heliotrope" (Ghent Gallery), and in 1875, at Brussels, "Beatriz" and "Domenica." He was employed by the government to execute carvings for the conservatoire at Brussels. In 1876 at the Antwerp Salon he had busts of E. H. and W. Wilson, which were afterwards placed in the communal museum at Brussels. Until 1882 he lived in Paris, where he produced the marble status "Immorality" (Brussels Gallery), and "The Crowning of Art," a bronze group on the façade of the Palais des Beaux-Arts at Brussels. His monument to the popular heroes, Jean Breydel and Pierre de Coninck, was unveiled at Bruges in 1887. At his death he left unfinished his principal work, the Anspach monument, which was erected at Brussels under the direction of the architect Janlet with the co-operation of various sculptors. Among other notable works by De Vigne may be mentioned "Volumnia" (1875); "Poverella" (1878); a bronze bust of "Psyche" (Brussels Gallery), of which there is an ivory replica; the marble status of Marnix de Ste Alekonde in the Square du Sablon, Brussels; the Metopenningen monument in the cemetery at Ghent; and the monument to Canon de Haerne at Courtrai.

See E. L. Detage, Les Artistes Belges contemporains (Brussels), and O. G. Destre's, The Renaissance of Sculpture in Belgium (London, 1895).

VIGNETTE (Fr. for "little vine"), in architecture, a running ornament, representing, as its main vine, a little vine, with branches, leaves and grapes. It is common in the Tudor period, and runs or roses in a large hollow or covegement. It is also called trèzel. From the transference of the term to book-illustration resulted the sense of a small picture, vanishing gradually at the edge.

VIGNY, ALFRED DE (1797-1863), French poet, was born at Loches (Indre-et-Loire) on the 27th of March 1797. Sainte-Beuve, in the rather ill-natured essay which he devoted to Vigny after his death, expresses a doubt whether the title of count which the poet bore was well authenticated, and hints that no very ancient proofs of the nobility of the family were forthcoming; but it is certain that in the 18th century persons of the name occupied positions which were not open to any but men of noble birth. For generations the ancestors of Alfred de Vigny had been soldiers, and he himself joined the army, with a commission in the Household Troops, at the age of sixteen. But the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars were over, and after twelve years of life in barracks he retired, preserving, however, a very high estimate of the duties and career of the soldier. While still serving he had made his mark, if as yet unrecognized, by the publication in 1822 of a volume of poems, and in 1826 by another, together with the famous prose romance of Cinque-Mars. Sainte-Beuve asserts that the poet antedated some of his most remarkable work. This may or may not be the case; he certainly could not antedate the publication. And it so happens that some of his most celebrated pieces—Elia, Dolorida, Moïse—appeared (1822-23) before the work of younger members of the Romantic school whose productions strongly resemble these poems. Nor is this originality limited to the poems which were first published in the "Recueil des Poésies" in 1827—that they were "the first of their kind in France, in which philosophic thought is clothed in epic or dramatic form." Indeed this claim is disputable in itself, and has misled not a few of Vigny's recent critics. It is in poetic, not philosophic, quality, that his idiosyncrasy and preciosity are most remarkable. It is quite certain that the other Alfred—Alfred de Musset—felt the influence of his elder namesake, and an impartial critic might discern no insignificant marks of the same effect in the work of Hugo himself. Even Lamartine, considerably Vigny's elder and not so much of a successor, seems rather to have been guided by Vigny than Vigny by him. No one can read Dolorida or Le Cor without seeing that the author had little to learn from any of his French contemporaries and much to teach them. At the same time Vigny, from whatever cause, hardly make any further public appearance in poetry proper during the more than thirty years of his life, and his entire poems, including posthumous fragments, form but one very small pocket volume. Cinque-Mars, which at least equalled the poems in popularity, will hardly stand the judgment of posterity well. It had in its favor a support of the Royalist party, the immense vogue of the novels of Walter Scott, on which it was evidently modelled, the advantages of an exquisite style, and the taste of the day for the romance as opposed to the novel of analysis. It therefore gained a great name both in France and abroad. But any one who has read it critically must acknowledge it to be disappointing. The action is said to be dramatic; if it be so, it can only be said that this proves very conclusively that the action of drama and the action of the novel are two quite different things. To the reader who knows Scott or Dumas the story is singularly uninteresting (far less so than the poem itself), the characters want life; and the book generally stagnates.

Its author, though always as a kind of outsider (the phrase constantly applied to him in French literary essays and histories being that he shot himself up in a tour d'écriture), attached himself more or less to the Romantic movement of 1830 and the years immediately preceding and following it, and was stimulated by this movement both to drama and to novel-writing. In the year before the revolution of July he produced at the Théâtre Français a translation, or rather paraphrase, of Othello, and an original piece La Mardoché d'Ancre. In 1832 he published the curious book Stello, containing studies of unlucky youthful poets—Gilbert, Chatterton, Chénier—and in 1835 he brought out his drama of Chatterton, which, by the hero's suicide, shocked French taste even after five years of Romantic education, but had a considerable success. The same year saw the publication of Servitude et grandeur militaires, a singular collection of sketches rather than a connected work in which Vigny's military experience, his idea of the soldier's duties, and his rather poetical views of history were all worked in. The subjects of Chatterton and Othello naturally suggest a certain familiarity with English, and in fact Alfred de Vigny knew English well, lived in England for some time and married in 1828 an Englishwoman, Lydia Bunbury. His father-in-law was, according to French gossip, so conspicuous an example of insular eccentricity that he never could remember his son-in-law's name or anything about him, except that he was a poet. By this, and the kindness of casual Frenchmen who went through the list of the chief living poets of their country, he was sometimes able to discover his daughter's husband's designation. In 1845 Alfred de
Vigny was elected to the Academy, but made no compromise in his "discourse of reception," which was un Winningly Romantic. Still, he produced nothing save a few scraps; and, beyond the work already enumerated, little has to be added except his Journal d’un poète and the poems called Les Destinées, edited, with a few fragments, by Louis Ratisbonne after his death. Among his dramatic work, however, should be mentioned Quoîte pour la pêcher and an adaptation of the Merchant of Venice called Skyluck. Les Destinées excited no great admiration in France, but they were at least published in some highly- esteemed poetry (including the austere kind, such as the magnificent speech of Nature in "La Maison du berger") and the remarkable poem entitled "La Colère de Samson." Vigny died at Paris on the 17th of September 1863.

His later life was almost wholly uneventful, and for the most part, as has been said, spent in retirement. His reputation, however, is perfectly secure. It may, and probably will, rest only on his small volume of poems, though it will not be lessened, as far as qualified literary criticism is concerned, should the reader proceed to the rest of the work. The whole of his non-dramatic verse does not amount to two lines; it may be a good deal less. But the range of his subject is comparatively wide, and extraordinary facility of execution, not merely in language, but in thought, is evident throughout. Vigny, as may be seen in the speech of Nature referred to above, had the secret of the essentially beautiful with French grace, and attacked it without grandiosity, by means of an almost classical precision and gravity of form. The defect of volatility, of never leaving off, which makes most of Hugo's works (Hugo, in his time, and in him, and he is equally free from the looseness and disorderliness of form which are sometimes blemishes in Musset, and from the effeminacy of Lamartine, while once more his nobility of thought and pleasantness of style have him in a different rank to a different school thought to rest on the technically perfect work of Théophile Gautier. The dramatic work is, perhaps, less likely to interest English than French readers, the local colour of Chatterton being entirely false, the sentiment conventional in the extreme, and the real paths of the story exchanged for a commonplace devotion on the poet's part to his host's wife. In the same way, the finest passages of Othello simulate Vigny's verse. In his remaining works the defect of skill in managing the plot and characters of prose fiction, which has been noticed in Cing-Mara, reappears, together (in the case of the Journal d'un poète and elsewhere) with signs of the fastness and slightness which are seen in Hugo. Vigny was Vigny as a man. In his poems proper none of these faults appears, and he is seen wholly at his best. It should be said that of his posthumous work not a little had previously appeared piecemeal in the Revue des deux Mondes, to which he was an occasional contributor. The prettiest of the complete editions of his works (of which there are several) is to be found in what is called the Petite bibliothèque Charpentier. For information general attention is invited to the following: Recendly there has been a revival of interest as shown by monographs: M. Paléologue's "Alfred de Vigny" in the Grands écrivains français (1861); L. Dorison's Alfred de Vigny, poète-philosophe (1895); J. Vitalis's Alfred de Vigny, les éditions originales de sa poésie (1893); E. Dupuy's La Jeunesse des Romantiques (1903); and E. Lauvriere's Alfred de Vigny (Paris, 1910). But is most of these rather excessive attention has been paid to the "philosophy" of a pessimistic kind which succeeded Vigny's early Christian Romanticism. This, though not unworthy, is separable from his real poetical quality, and concentration on it rather obscures the latter, which is of the rarest kind. It should be added that an interesting sidelight has been thrown on Vigny by the publication (1905) of his Fragments inédits sur P. et T. Corneille.

VIKING.

VIKO, a seaport and naval station of north-western Spain, in the province of Pontevedra; on Vigo Bay (Ría de Vigo) and on a branch of the railway from Tuy to Corunna. Pop. (1890) 23,250. Vigo Bay, one of the finest of the Galician fjords, extends inland for 10 m., and is sheltered by low mountains and by the islands (Islas de Cies, ancient Insecte Siccus) at its mouth. The town is built on the south-eastern coast, and occupies a hilly site dominated by two obsolete forts. The older streets are steep, narrow and tortuous, but there is also a large modern quarter. Vigo owes its importance to its deep and spacious harbour, and to its fisheries. It is a port of call for many lines trading between Western Europe and South America. Shipbuilding is carried on, and large quantities of fish are canned for export. In 1899, 2041 ships of 2,710,601 tons (ex. 1,554,782), besides 369, the imports in that year, including tin and tapanite, coal, machinery, cement, sulphate of copper and foodstuffs, were valued at £81,752; the exports, including sardines, mineral waters and eggs, were valued at £55,824. The town contains flour, paper and sawmills, sugar and petroleum refineries, tanneries, distilleries and soap works; it has also a large agriculural trade and is visited in summer for sea-bathing.

Vigo was attacked by Sir Francis Drake in 1582 and 1589. In 1792 a combined British and Dutch fleet under Sir George Rooke and the duke of Ormonde destroyed a Franco-Spanish fleet in the bay, and captured treasure to the value of about £1,000,000; numerous attempts have been made to recover the larger quantity of treasure which was supposed, on doubtful evidence, to have been sunk during the battle. In 1796 Vigo was captured by the British under Viscount Cobham.

VIJAYANAGAR, or BIJAPUR ("the city of victory"), an ancient Hindu kingdom and ruined city of southern India. The kingdom lasted from about 1336 to 1565, forming during all that period a bulwark against Mahomedan invasion from the north. Its foundation, and even great part of its history, is obscure; but its power and wealth are attested by more than a thousand miles of fortifications, and by the character of the existing ruins. At the beginning of the 14th century Mahomedan raiders had effectually destroyed every Hindu principality throughout southern India, but did not attempt to occupy the country permanently. In this state of desolation Hindu nationality rose again under two brothers, named Hariraha and Bukka, of whom little more can be said than that they were Kanarese by race. Hence their kingdom was afterwards known as the Carnatic. At its widest extent, it stretched across the peninsula from sea to sea, from Masulipatnam to India, and even beyond the limits of the south acknowledged its supremacy. The site of the capital was chosen, with strategic skill, on the right bank of the river Tungabhadra, which here runs through a rocky gorge. Within thirty years the Hindu Rayas of Vijayanagar were able to hold their own against the Bahmani sultans, who had now established their independence of Delhi in the Deccan proper. Warfare with the Mahomedans across the border in the Raichur doab was carried on almost unceasingly, and with varying result. Two, or possibly three, different dynasties are believed to have occupied the throne of Vijayanagar, as time went on; and its final downfall may be ascribed to the domestic discontents thus produced. This occurred in 1565, when the confederate sultans of Bijapur, Ahmednagar and Golconda, who had divided amongst themselves the Bahmani dominions, overwhelmed the Vijayanagar army in the plain of Talikota, and sacked the defenceless city. The Raya fled south to Penukonda, and later to Chandragiri, where one of his descendants granted to the English the site of Fort St George or Madras. The city has ever since remained a wilderness of immense ruins, which are now conserved by the British government.
to whom a saga is dedicated: who possessed rather peculiar institutions evidently the relic of what is now called the Viking Age, that preceded the Saga Age by a century. Another instance of such more generic use occurs in the following typical passage from the Landnámabók (Sturlabók), where it is recorded how Harald Fairhair harried the Vikings of the Scottish isles—that famous harrying which led to most of the settlement of Iceland and the birth of Icelandic literature:

"Haraldr en harfari herjaði vestr am haf ... Hann lagði "undir sig allar" Sudreyjar ... En er hann for ystann slogsgru ... 1"

At this Viking Age, the Saxo-Norse literature we have preserved is to a large extent the fruit of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. That is why this book ends with the 1800s, with the publication of the monumental work of Steenstrup, and with the discovery of the Viking Age. The Viking Age was an age of war and pirates, an age of conquest and plunder. It was an age of danger and adventure, an age of glory and fame. It was an age of progress and innovation, an age of change and development.

The Viking Age was the age of the Vikings. It was a time of great expansion and exploration, a time of great wealth and power. It was a time of great creativity and innovation, a time of great achievement and success. It was a time of great challenge and opportunity, a time of great promise and potential.

The Viking Age was a time of great change and turmoil. It was a time of great struggles and conflicts, a time of great losses and gains. It was a time of great losses and gains, a time of great successes and failures. It was a time of great persistence and perseverance, a time of great determination and dedication.

The Viking Age was a time of great change and progress. It was a time of great developments and discoveries, a time of great advancements and innovations. It was a time of great changes and improvements, a time of great developments and advancements.

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VIKING

This brief sketch may be taken as the prototype of viking invasion of any region of western Christendom which was the object of their continuous attacks. Of such regions we may distinguish five. The west was simultaneously with the attacks on Ireland came others, probably also from Norway, on the western regions (coasts and islands) of Scotland. Plunderings of Iona are mentioned in A.D. 802, 806. In the course of a generation almost all the monastic communities in western Scotland had been destroyed. But details of these viking plunderings are wanting. On the continent there were three distinct regions of attack. First the mouth of the Scheldt. There the Danes very early settled on the island of Walcheren, which had in fact been given by the emperor Louis the Pious in lieu to Louis, the king, and named after him, who supported the help of Louis, and adopted Christianity. After the partition of the territory of Charlemagne's empire among the sons of Louis the Pious, Walcheren and the Scheldt-mouth fell within the possessions of the emperor Lothair, and in the region subsequently distinguished as Lotharingia. From this centre, the Scheldt, the viking raids extended on either side; sometimes eastward as far as the Rhine, and so into Germany proper, the territory assigned to Louis the German; at other times westward to the Somme, and thus into the territory of Charles the Bald, the future kingdom of France. In the event, toward the end of the 9th century all Frisian and East Teutonic, and the German Ocean seems to have become the permanent possession of the invaders. In like fashion was it with the next district, that of the Seine, only that here no important island served the pirates for their first arsenal and winter quarters. The serious attacks of the pirates in any part of this region distant from their own lands begin about the time of the battle of Fontenoy between Louis' sons (A.D. 841). The first wintering of the vikings in the Seine territory (A.D. 850) was in "Givoldi fossa," the tomb of one Givodius, not far from the mouth of the river, but northward. Their first attack on Paris was in A.D. 845: a much more important but unsuccessful one took place in A.D. 883-87, unsuccessful that is so far as the city itself was concerned; but the invaders received an indemnity for raising the siege and leave to pass beyond Paris into Burgundy. The settlement of Danes under Rollo or Roll on the lower Seine, i.e. in Normandy, dates from the treaty of St Clair-sur-Epte, A.D. 912 (or 911).

The third region is the mouth of the Loire. Here the island point d'appui was Noirmoutier, an island with an abbey at the Loing; its position in the Loire estuary and the course of the Loire in this region was more often ravaged than that of the lower Loire, so rich in abbeys—St Martin of Tours, Marmoutiers, St Benedict, &c. But the country ceded to the vikings under Hastig at the Loire mouth was insignificant and not in permanent occupation.

Near the end of the 9th century, however, the plundering expeditions which emanated from these three sources became so incessant and so widespread that we can signalize no part of west France as free from them, at the same time that the vikings wrought immense mischief in the Rhine country and in Burgundy. The defences of west France seem quite to have broken down, as did the Irish when Turgesius took "Con's half," or when in A.D. 853 Olaf the White became over-king of Ireland. Unfortunately at this point our best authority ceases; and we cannot well explain the changes which brought about the Christianization of the Normans and their settlement in Normandy as vassals, though recalcitrant ones, of the West Frankish kings.

For the viking attacks in the 5th (or 6th) territory, our own country, the course of events is much clearer. As a part of English history it is, however, sufficiently known. The briefest summary thereof must suffice. That will show how in its general features it follows the normal course. The first appearance of the vikings in England we saw was in A.D. 789. The first serious attacks do not begin till 838. The island of Sheppey, however, was attacked in 835, and in the following year the vikings entrenched themselves there. The first wintering of the pirates in England was on the contiguous island of Thanet in A.D. 830. The breakdown of the English defences in all parts of the country save Wessex dates from 868; in Wessex that occurs in 876-88. This is, of course, what is suddenly recovered by Alfred in 878, by the battle of Aethandunum, as suddenly though not so unaccountably as it was later in West Francia. As Rollo was to do in 912, the Danish leader Guthorm received baptism, taking the name of Aethelstane, and settled in his assigned territory, East Anglia, according to the terms of the peace of Wedmore. But the forces which Alfred defeated at Aethandunene represented but half of the viking army in England at the time. The other half under Halfdan (Ragnar Lodbrog's son?) had never troubled itself about Wessex, but had journeyed north, through Norway, to Iona in Italy. The six territories which we have signalized—Ireland, Western Scotland, England, the three in West Francia which merge into each other by the end of the 9th century—do not comprise the whole field of viking raids or attempted invasion. For farther still to the east they twice sailed up the Elbe (A.D. 851, 880) and burnt Hamburg. Southwards they plundered far up the Garonne, and in the north of Spain; and one fleet of them sailed all round Spain, plundering, but attempting in vain to establish themselves in this Arab caliphate. They plundered on the East or African coast, and at last got as far as the mouth of the Rhine. What we found in the case of the Irish raids, that at first they are quite anonymous, but that presently the names of the captains of the expeditions emerge, is likewise the case in all other lands. In Ireland, besides the important and successful Turgesius, we read of a Saxulf who early met his death, as well as of Ivar (Ingvar), famous also in England and called the son of Ragnar Lodbrog, and of Osifa, Ivar's comrade; finally (the vikings in Ireland being mostly of Norse descent) of the well-known Olaf the White, who became king of all the Scandinavian world, both in Norway and Iceland, and the most illustrious and most successful of the invaders. Later the name of Ragnar (probably Ragnar Lodbrog) appears, along with Weland, Hastig and one of the sons of Ragnar, Bjørn. Farther to the east we meet the names of Rurik, Godfried and Siegfried. In the eastern region the viking leaders seem to have been closely connected with one of the Danish royal families, the kings of Jutland. The practical though short-lived conquest of England begins under Ivar, Ubbe and Halfdan, reputed sons of Ragnar, and is completed by the last of the three in conjunction with Sweyn, who doubtless benefitted by the previous changes. We may expect that larger acquaintance gives to the Christian chroniclers more knowledge of their enemy. Precisely the same process in a converse sense develops the casual raids of early times into a scheme of conquest. For at the outset the Christian world was wholly strange to these northernmen. We have, it has been said, hardly any means of viewing these raids from the other side. But one small point of light is so suggestive that it may be cited here. The mythical saga of Ragnar Lodbrog is undoubtedly concerned with the Viking Age, though it is impossible now to identify most of the expeditions attributed to this northern hero, stories of conquest in Sweden, in Finland, in Russia and in England, which belong to quite a different age from this one. In the Christian chronicles the name of Ragnar is associated with an attack on Paris in A.D. 845, when the adventurers were (through the interposition of St Germain, say the Christians) suddenly enveloped in darkness—in a thick fog—and fell before the arms of the defenders. In Saxo Grammaticus' account of Ragnar Lodbrog, this event seems to be reflected in the story of an expedition of Ragnar's to Bjarmeland or Russland. For Bjarmaland, though at first anchored to its old seat in the north, is also in North Norway a wholly mythical and mythological place, more or less identical with the under-world (Nifethel, mist-hell). So it appears in the history given by Saxo Grammaticus of the voyage to Bjarmaland of one "Gorm the old." It "looks like a vaporous cloud" and is full of tricks and illusions of sense. We see then that in virtue of some quite historical misfortune to the viking invaders,
connected with a mist and with a great sickness which invaded the army, the place they have come to (in reality Paris) is in Scandinavian tradition identified with the mythical Bjarnaland; and later, in the history of Saxo Grammaticus, it is identified with the geographical Bjarnaland or Perm. (Saxo Grammat., Hist. Dan., p. 452, Gylfaginning (Edda Snorra); Acta SS. 18th May and 11th Oct.; Steenstrup, Norsmannerne, i. p. 97 seq.; Keary, The Vikings in Western Christendom, pp. 162, 266.)

No example could better than this bring home to us the strangeness of the Christian world to the first adventurers from the north. Ordering them to destroy the Saxon resistance, which gradually extended the sphere of their ambition. The expedition which we have made mention of took place almost in the middle of the 9th century, and exactly fifty years after the effective opening of the Viking Age. But after this date events developed rapidly. It was fourteen years later (in A.D. 859) that Ragnar's son Bjorn Ironside and Hasting made their great expedition round Spain to the Mediterranean. In 865 or 866 came to England what we know as the Army, or the Great Army, whose first attacks were in the north of England. Five kings are mentioned in their ravages on every side in invasion of England and many parts. Their course was not unchequered; but it was only in Wessex that they met with any effective resistance, and the victory of Ashdown (571) put no end to their advance; for, as we know, Alfred himself had at last to wander a fugitive in the fastnesses of Selwood Forest. Much was retrieved by the victory of Aethandune; yet even after the peace of Wedmore as large a part of the land lay under the power of the Danes as of the English.

It is from this time that we discern two distinct tendencies in the Viking people. While one section is ready to settle down and receive territory at the hands of the Christian rulers with or without homage, another section still adheres to a life of mere adventure and of plunder. A large portion of the Great Army refused to be bound by the peace of Wedmore, made some further attempts on England which were frustrated by Alfred's powerful new-built fleet, and then sailed to the continent and spread devastation far and wide. We see them under command of two Danish "kings," Godfred and Siegfried, first in the country of the Rhine-mouth or the Lower Scheldt; afterwards dividing their forces and, while some devastate far into Germany, others extend their ravages on every side in invasion France down to the Loire. The whole of these vast countries, Northern France, with part of Burgundy, and the Rhineland, seem to lie as much at their mercy as England had done before Aethandune, or Ireland before the death of Turgesius. But in every country alike the wave of Viking conquest now begins to recede. The settlement of Normandy was the only permanent outcome of the Viking Age in France. In England under Edward the Elder and Aethelflaed, Mercia recovered a great portion of what had been ceded to the Danes. In Ireland a great expulsion of the invaders took place in the beginning of the 11th century. Eventually the Norsemen in Ireland tented themselves with a small number of colonies, strictly confined in territory around certain seaports which they themselves had created: Dublin, Waterford and Wexford; though as the whole of Ireland was divided into petty kingdoms, it might easily happen that the Norse king in Ireland rose to the position—not much more than nominal—of over-king (Ard-Ri) for the whole land.

Character of the Vikings.—Severe, therefore, as were the viking raids in Europe, and great as was the suffering they inflicted on account of which a special prayer, A ferue Normannorum libera nos, was inserted in some of the litanies of the West—if they had been pirates and nothing more their place in history would be an insignificant one. If they had been no more than what the Illyrian pirates had been in the early history of Rome, or than the Arabic corsairs were at this time in southern Europe, the disappearance of the evil would have been quickly followed by its oblivion. But even at the outset the vikings were more than isolated bands of freebooters. As we have seen, the viking outbreak was probably part of a national movement. We know that at the same time that some Scandinavian folk were harring all the western lands, others were founding Garðarki (Russia) in the east; others were pressing still farther south till they came in contact with the eastern empire in Constantinople, which the northern folk knew as Mikillgarðr (Mikkelegard); so that when Hasting and Bjorn had sailed to Luna in the gulf of Genoa the northern folk had almost put a girdle round the Christian world. There is every evidence that the vikings were not a mere lawless folk—that is, in their internal relations—but that a system of laws and a settled society were working out among them. A special approach to it now preserved is probably the code of laws attributed to the mythical king Frodi (the Wise) and preserved in the pages of Saxo Grammaticus. It contains provisions for the partition of booty, punishments for theft, desertion and treachery. But some of the clauses securing a comparative liberty for women appear less characteristic of the Viking Age (cf. Alexander Bugge, Vikingerne, vol. 1. p. 49). Women, indeed, did not take part in their first expeditions. In the constitution of the Jomborg state and again in that of the eastern Vaering people, women are absent. But, as we see from the next new Empire, we see a constitution which looks like the foretaste of that of the Templars or the Teutonic Knights. Steenstrup thinks the code cited by Saxo may be identical with the laws which Rollo promulgated for his Norman subjects. In any case, they fall more near the Viking period than any other northern table of laws. A certain republicanism was professed by these adventurers. "We have no king," one body answered to some Frankish delegates. We do read frequently of kings in the accounts of their hosts; but their power may not have extended beyond the leadership of the expedition; they may have been princes of rank, but not of a princely spirit. The viking tradition (Teutonic and Scandinavian tradition alike) forbids us to suppose that any would be elected to that office who was not of noble or princely blood. They were not entirely unlettered; for the use of runes dates back considerably earlier than the Viking Age. But these were used almost exclusively for lapidary inscriptions. What we can alone describe as a literature, first the early Eddic verse, next the habit of narrating sagas: these things the Norsemen learned probably from their Celtic subjects, partly in Ireland, partly in the western islands of Britain; certainly a large number of this literature is written on the soil of Iceland. Nevertheless, some of the Eddic songs do seem to give the very form and pressure of the viking period.1

In certain material possessions—those, in fact, belonging to their trade, which was war and naval adventure—these viking folk were ahead of the Christian nations: in shipbuilding, for example. There is certainly a historical connexion between the ships which the tribes on the Baltic possessed in the days of Tacitus and the viking ships (Keary, The Vikings in Western Europe, pp. 185-9): a fact which would lead us to believe that the art of shipbuilding had been better preserved there than elsewhere in northern Europe. Merchant vessels must of course have plied between England and France or Frisia. But it is certain that even Charlemagne possessed no adequate navy, though a late chronicler tells us how he thought of building one. His descendants never carried out his designs. Nor was any English king before Alfred stirred up to undertake the same task. And yet the Romans, when threatened by the Carthaginian power, built in one year a fleet capable of holding its own against the, till then, greatest maritime nation in the world. The viking ships had a character apart. They may have owed their origin to the Roman sail-makers: they did without doubt owe their sails to them.2 Equally certain is it that this special type of shipbuilding was developed in the Baltic, if not before

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1 More especially the beautiful series contained in book iii. of the Corpus Poeticum Boreale, and ascribed by the editors of that collection to one poet—"the Helgi Poet." Here vikings are mentioned by name—e.g., Varðr ór ok larna glymr; brast rönd við rönd; rero vikingar.

2 "Sail," in every Teutonic language is practically the same word, and derived from the Latin sagulum.

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5 XVIII. 3
VIKRAMADITYA—VILAS

the time of Tacitus, long before the dawn of the Viking Age. Their structure is adapted to short voyages in a sea well studded with harbours, not exposed to the most violent storms or most dangerous tides. To the last, judging by the specimens of Scandinavian boats which have come down to us, they must have been not very seaworthy; they were shallow, narrow in the beam, pointed at both ends, and so eminently suitable for manoeuvring (with oars) in creeks and bays. The Viking ship had but one large and heavy square sail. When a naval battle was in progress, it would depend for its manoeuvring on the rowers. The accounts of naval battles in the sagas show us, too, that this was the case. The rowers in each vessel, the stouter men, generally manned the northern side of it, and there were also many of the most warlike warriors, not slaves as in the Roman and Carthaginian gallogal, would yet need to be supplemented by a contingent of fighting men, marines, in addition to their crew. Naturally the ship-building developed: so that vessels in the Viking age would be much smaller than in the Saga Age. In saga literature we read of craft (of "long ships") with 20 to 30 benches of rowers, which would mean 40 to 60 oars. There exist at the museum in Christiania the remains of two boats which we found in the neighbourhood: one, the Gokstad ship, is in very tolerable preservation. It belongs probably to the 11th century, or to the north of that district, but there are two or three oars a side. It is not probable that the largest Viking ships had more than 10 oars a side. As these ships must often, against a contrary wind, have had to row both day and night, it seems reasonable to imagine the crew divided into three shifts (as they call them in mining districts), which would give double the number of men available to fight on any occasion as to row. Thus a 20-oared vessel would carry 60 men. But some 40 men per ship seems, for this period, nearer the average. In 896, toward the end of our age, it is incidentally mentioned in one piece of a dramatized account of the battle of Hafrsfjord, that there were 40 ships, an average of 40 per ship. Elsewhere about the same time we read of 12,000 men carried in 250 ships, an average of 48.

The round and painted shields of the warriors hung outside along the bulwarks: the vessel was steered by an oar at the right side (as whaling boats are to-day), the steerboard or starboard side. Prow and stern rose high; and the former was carved most often into the likeness of a snake's or a dragon's head: so generally that "dragon" or "worm" (snake) became synonymous with a war-ship. The warriors were well armed. The byrnie or mail-shirt is often mentioned in Eddic songs: so are the axe, the spear, the bow and arrows and the sword. The Danes were specially renowned for their axes; but about the sword the most of northern poetry and mythology clings. An immense joy in battle breathes through the earliest Norse literature, which has scarce its like in any other literature; and we know that the language recognized a peculiar battle fury, a veritable madness by which certain were seized and which went by the name of "berserk's way" (berserkganger). The courage of the Vikings was proof against anything, even as a rule against superstitious terrors. "We cannot easily realize how all-embracing that courage was. A trained soldier is often afraid at sea, a trained sailor lost if he has not the protecting sense of his own ship beneath him. The Viking ventured upon unknown waters in ships very ill-fitted for their work. He had all the spirit of adventure of a Drake or a Hawkins, all the trained valour of reliance upon his comrades that mark a soldierly fighting a militia" (The Vikings in Western Christendom, p. 143). He was unfortunately hardly less marked for cruelty and faithlessness. Livy's words, "inhumana crudelitas, perfidia plus quam Punica," might, it is to be feared, have been applied justly to the Vikings as to any people of western Europe. It is also true, however, that the showe a great capacity for government, and in times of peace for peaceful organization. Normandy was the best-governed part of France in the 11th century; and the Danes in East Anglia and the Five Burgs were in many regards a model to their Saxon neighbours (Steensstrup, op. cit. iv. ch. 2). Of all European lands England is without doubt that on which the Viking Age has left most impression: in the number of original settlers after 878; in the way which these prepared for Canute's conquest; and finally in that which she absorbed from the conquering Normans. England's gain was France's loss: had the Normans turned their attention in the other direction, they might likely have broken the last efforts of the Merovingian kings, and saved that country from the intermittent anarchy from which it suffered from the 11th till the middle of the 15th century.

Sources of Viking History.—These are, as has been said, almost exclusively the chronicles of the lands visited by the Vikings. For Ireland we have, as on the whole our best authority, the Annales Ulfanenses (C. O'Connor, Scr. Rev. Hib., iv.), supplemented by the Annales of the Four Masters (ed. O'Donovan) and the Chronicorum Scotorum (ed. Hennessy). Finally, The War of the Gaedhil with the Gaill (ed. Todd); Three Fragments of Irish History (O'Donovan); Smith, History of the Vikings; Harmsworth's History of the Nations; Gaill's Chronicle, Annales Lindisfarrense (in Persz, Monumenta, vol. xii.); Simeon of Durham, Historia Dunelmii Ecclesiast. For the Frankish empire the chief sources of our information are The Annales Regni Franci and the Annales Bertiniani, Worsaae, Annales Bertiniani (Persz, vol. ii.), the authorities for the northern and eastern regions, and the Annales Fuldenses (which begin with Pipan of Herve, are divided down to A.D. 900; Persz, vol. i.) for Germany. Toward the end of the 9th century the Annales Vedastini (Persz, vol. i. and ii.) are almost the exclusive authority for the western raids. In the historians of Normandy, especially in Dudo of St Quentin, much incidental matter may be found.

References to the Viking Age in a general way are to be found in a large number of books, especially histories of the Scandinavian countries, of which Munch's Det Norrøne Folks Historie (1852, &c.) is the most distinguished: J. J. A. Worsaae has written Minder om Danes og Nord-Mandene i England, Skotland og Irelanden (1883), an antiquarian rather than an historical study; C. G. Deppen, L'Histoire des expéditions maritimes des Normands (1843), a not very critical work, and E. Mahille, Les Invasions Normandes dans la Loire (1885). A. Worsaae has prepared a very complete set of books, The Vikings in Western Christendom (1904-6), in four volumes, is not without much historical value; and the work of R. H. Pertz, Persz, is an antiquarian rather than an historical study; Pertz, vol. ii., still on on the most northern side of the Vikings, or, one should rather say, of the earliest Scandinavian folk.

VIKRAMADITYA, a legendary Hindu king of Ujkain, who is supposed to have given his name to the Vikram Samvat, the era which is used all over northern India, except in Bengal, and at whose court the "nine gems" of Sanskrit literature are also supposed to have flourished. The Vikram era is reckoned from the vernal equinox of the year 57 B.C., but there is no evidence that that date corresponds with any event in the life of a king or a group of kings, and all dates in this era down to the roth century never use the word Vikram, but that of Malava instead, that being the tribe that gives its name to Malwa. The name Vikramaditya simply means "sun of power," and was adopted by several Hindu kings, of whom Chandragupta II. (Chandragupta Vikramaditya), who ascended the throne of the Gupta Empire over A.D. 375, approaches most nearly to the legend.

See Alexander Cunningham, Book of Indian Races (1883); and Worsaae, Smith, and Persz, Annales Bertiniani, ii. 1885.

VILAS, WILLIAM FREEMAN (1840-1908), American political leader and lawyer, was born in Chelsea, Vermont, on the 9th of July 1840. His father, Levi B. Vilas, a lawyer and Democratic politician, emigrated in 1853 to Madison, Wisconsin, William graduated at the university of Wisconsin in 1858, and at the Albany (New York) Law School in 1860, and began to practise law in Madison with his father. In 1862 he recruited and became captain of Company A of the Twenty-Third Wisconsin
Volunteers, of which he was made lieutenant-colonel in 1863, and which he commanded in the siege of Vicksburg. In August 1863 he resigned his commission and resumed his law practice. He was professor of law in the university of Wisconsin in 1868-85, and again in 1889-92, and in 1875-78 was a member of the commission which revised the statutes of Wisconsin. From 1876 to 1886 he was a member of the National Democratic Committee, and virtually the leader of his party in his state; he was a delegate to the National Democratic Conventions of 1876, 1880 and 1884, and was permanent chairman of the last. In 1885 he was a member of the state Assembly. He was postmaster-general in President Grover Cleveland's cabinet from March 1885 until January 1888, and was then secretary of the interior until March 1889. From 1891 until 1897 he was a member of the United States Senate, in which, during President Cleveland's second term, he was recognized as the chief defender of the Administration, and he was especially active in securing the repeal of the silver-purchase clause of the Sherman Act. He was a delegate to the Democratic National Convention of 1896, but withdrew after the adoption of the free-silver plank. He then became one of the chief organizers of the National (or Gold) Democratic party, attended the convention at Indianapolis, and was chairman of its committee on resolutions. In 1881-85 and in 1898-1905 he was a regent of the university of Wisconsin; and he was a member (1897-1903) of the commission which had charge of the erection of the State Historical Library at Madison. In 1896-98 of the commission for the construction of the new state capital. He died at Madison on the 27th of August 1908.

With E. E. Bryant he edited vols. i. to xx., except vol. v., of the Report of the Wisconsin Supreme Court.

VILL, the Anglicized form of the word villa, used in Latin documents to translate the Anglo-Saxon tun, township, "the unit of the constitutional machinery, the simplest form of social organization" (Stubbs, Const. Hist. § 39). The word did not always and at all times have this meaning in Latin-English documents, but "villa" and "township" were ultimately, in English law, treated as convertible terms for describing a village community, and they remained in use in legal nomenclature until the ecclesiastical parishes were converted into areas for civil administration under the Poor Law Acts. This technical sense is derived from the late Latin use of villa for vicus, a village. Thus Flæts (vi. c. 51), writing in the time of Edward I., distinguishes the villa, as a collection of habitations and their appurtenances, from the manor, a single house, nulì vicina, and the manor, which may embrace one or more villæ. In classical Latin villa had meant "country-house," "farm," "villa" (see Villa); but the word was probably an abbreviation of vîcula, diminutive of vicus, and in the sense of vicus it is used by Apuleius in the 2nd century. Later it even displaced civitas, for city; thus Rutulii Nama-
tianus in his Itinerarium speaks of villæ insigntes, oppida parva; whence the French ville (see Du Cange, Glossarium lat. s.v. Villa). In the Frankish empire villa was also used of the royal and imperial palaces or seats with their appurtenances. In the sense of a small collection of habitations the word came into general use in England in the French form "village." From "villa," too, are derived villain and villenage (q.v.) (see also Village Communities).

VILLA, the Latin word (diminutive of vicus, a village) for a country-house. This term, which in England is usually given to a small country-house detached or semi-detached in the vicinity of a large town, is being gradually superseded by such expressions as "country" or "suburban house," "bungalow," &c., but in Italy it is still retained as in Roman times and means a summer residence, sometimes being of great extent. References to the villa are constantly made by Roman writers. Ciceró is said to have possessed no less than seven villas, the oldest of which was near Arpinum, which he inherited. Pliny the younger had three or four, of which the example near Laurentium is the best known from his descriptions.

There is too wide a divergence in the various conjectural restorations to make them of much value, but the remains of the villa of Hadrian at Tivoli, which covered an area over seven miles long and in which reproductions were made of all the most celebrated buildings he had seen during his travels, those in Greece seeming to have had the most attraction for him, and the villas of the 16th century on similar sites, such as the Villa d'Estè near Tivoli, enable one to form some idea of the exceptional beauty of the positions selected and of the splendour of the structures which enriched them. According to Pliny, there were two kinds of villas, the villa urbana, which was a country seat, and the villa rustica, the farm-house, occupied by the servants who had charge generally of the estate. The Villa Boscoreale near Pompeii, which was excavated in 1803-94, was an example of the villa rustica, in which the principal room was the kitchen, with the bakery and stables beyond and room for the wine presses, oil presses, horse stables, &c. The villas near Rome were all built on hilly sites, so that the laying out of the ground in terraces formed a very important element in their design, and this forms the chief attraction of the Italian villas of the 16th century, among which the following are the best known: the Villa Madama, the design of which, attributed to Raphael, was carried out by Giulio Romano in 1520; the Villa Medici (1540); the Villa Albani, near the Porta Salaria; the Borghese; the Doria Pamphilj (1650); the Villa di Papa Giulio (1550), designed by Vignola; the Aldobrandini (1593); the Farnesini and the Montdragon (1640); and the Villa d'Este near Tivoli in which the terraces and staircases are of great importance. In the proximity of other towns in Italy there are numerous villas, of which the example best known is that of the Villa Rotunda or Capra near Vicenza, which was copied by Lord Burlington in his house at Chiswick.

The Italian villas of the 16th and 17th century, like those of Roman times, included not only the country residence, but the whole of the other buildings on the estate, such as bridges, casinos, pavilions, small temples, rectangular or circular, which were utilized as summer-houses, and which seem to have had a certain influence in England, which may account for the numerous examples in the large parks in England of similar erections, as also the laying out of terraces, grottos and formal gardens. In France the same influence was felt, and at Fontainebleau, Versailles, Meudon and other royal palaces, the celebrated Le Nôtre transformed the parks surrounding them and introduced the cascades, which in Italy are so important a feature, as at St Cloud near Paris.

(R. P. S.)

VILLACH, a town in Carinthia, Austria, 24 m. W. of Klagen-furt by rail. Pop. (1900) 13,608. It is situated near the Drave, near its confluence with the Gail, in a broad fertile basin at the foot of the Dobratsch or Villach Alp (3107 ft.). The parish church is an interesting Gothic edifice of the 15th century. The principal industry of Villach consists in the fabrication of various lead wares, and is mostly dependent on the lead mines of Bleiberg, which is situated about 9 m. to the west. This village (pop. 3435) is one of the richest lead-mining centres in Europe. The ores found here comprise silver-free galena, sulphate of zinc and calamine. The mines were already worked during the middle ages. Warmbad Villach, a watering-place with hot sulphur baths, and Mittweid, a favourite summer resort, where the ascent of the Dobratsch can be made, are in the neighbour-

hood of Villach. Some of the prettiest Carinthian lakes are to be found near Villach, as the Ossiacher-see, on whose southern shore stands the ruined castle of Landskron, dating from the middle of the 16th century, the Wörther-see and the small but lovely Faaker-see.

Villach is an old town, which was given by Heinrich II. to the bishopric of Bamberg in 1007. During the middle ages it was an important centre of commerce between Germany and Italy. With the advent of new trade routes at the beginning of modern times the town lost its importance, and in 1745 the citizens nearly decided to emigrate en masse. Its trade revived during the French occupation of 1809-13, and it
continued to improve during the 19th century. The Turks were defeated here in 1492 by Maximilian I, and an engagement between the Austrians and the French took place here on the 21st of August 1873.

VILLA DEL PILAR, a city of Paraguay, 104 m. S. by E. of Asuncion, on the left bank of the navigable river Paraguay, which receives the Bermejo from the right immediately opposite. Pop. (1910) about 10,000. Villa del Pilar is a thriving modern city, containing barracks, law courts, a national college, several schools and a branch of the Agricultural Bank. It has a fine harbour, and is one of the principal centres in the republic for the exportation of oranges.

VILLAFRANCA DI VERONA, a town of Venetia, Italy, in the province of Verona, 11 m. S.S.W. of Verona, on the railway to Mantua, 174 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 5057 (town); 9635 (commune). It has considerable silk industries. Here preliminaries of peace were signed between Napoleon III. and the Austrians in 1859 after the battle of Solferino. Five miles to the N. is Custozza, where the Italians were defeated by the Austrians in 1848 and 1866. Villafranca is a common place name in Italy.

Village Communities. The study of village communities has become one of the fundamental methods of discussing the ancient history of institutions. It would be out of the question here to range over the whole field of human society in search for communal arrangements of rural life. It will be sufficient to confine the present inquiry to the varieties presented by nations of Nordic stock, for the subject is here only to be attached to these nations than to other branches of humankind, although this view might also be reasonably urged, but principally because the Aryan race in its history has gone through all sorts of experiences, and the data gathered from its historical life can be tolerably well ascertained. Should the road be sufficiently cleared in this particular direction, it will not be difficult to connect the results with similar researches in other racial surroundings.

The best way seems to be to select some typical examples, chiefly from the domain of Celtic, Slavonic and Germanic social history, and try to interpret them in regard to the general conditions in which communal institutions originate, grow and decay. As the principal problem will consist in ascertaining how far land was held in common instead of being held, as is usual at present, by individuals, it is advisable to look out for instances in which this element of holding in common is very clearly expressed. We ought to get, as it were, acclimated to the mental atmosphere of such social arrangements in order to counteract a very natural but most pernicious bent in the human mind to apply to the modern view of the matter of any existence of the communal conditions as a provincial and habitational notion. A certain acquaintance with the structure of Celtic society, more especially the society of ancient Wales, is likely to make it clear from the outset to what extent the husbandry and law of an Aryan race may depend on institutions in which the individual factor is greatly reduced, while the union first of kinsmen and then of neighbours plays a most decisive part.

F. Seebohm has called our attention to the interesting surveys of Welsh tracts of country made in the 14th century, soon after these regions passed into the hands of the English lords. Some fragments from memoirs of these surveys published by him and his contributors on them are very illuminating, but further study of the documents themselves discloses many important details and helps to correct some theories propounded on the subject. Let us take up a concrete and simple case, e.g. the description of Astret Canon, a trev or township (villata) of the honour of Denbigh, surveyed in 1334. In the time of the native Welsh princes it was occupied entirely by a kindred (progenies) of free tribesmen descended from a certain Canon, the son of Llauwarch. The kindred was subdivided into four gavells or bodies of joint tenancy. On the half-gavell of Monton, Cynon Canon, e.g., there were no less than sixteen coparceners, of whom eight possess houses. The peculiarity of this system of land tenure consists in the fact that all the tenants of these gavells derive their position on the land from the occupation of the township by their kindred, and have to trace their rights to shares in the original unit. Although the village of Astret Canon was occupied under the Survey by something like fifty-four male tenants; the majority of whom were settled in houses of their own, it continued to form a unit as well in regard to the payment of tungspond, that is, of the direct land tax and other services and payments, but also in respect of the possession and usage of the soil. On the other hand, movable property is owned in severally. Services have to be apportioned among the members of the kindreds according to the number of heads of cattle owned by them. From the description of another township—Pireyon—

we may gather another important feature of this tribal tenure. The population of this village also clustered in gavells, and we hear that these gavells ought to be considered as equal shares in respect of the arable, the wood and the waste of the township. If the shares were reduced into acres there would have fallen to each of the eight gavells of Pireyon ninety-one acres, one rood and a half and six perches of arable and woodland, and fifty-three and one-third of an acre and half a rood of waste land. But as a matter of fact the land was not divided in such a way, and the rights of the tenants of the gavell were realized not through the appropriation of definite acres, but as proportionate opportunities in regard to tillage and to usages in pasture, wood and waste. Pastoral habits must have greatly contributed to give the system of landholding its peculiar character. It was not necessary, it would have been even disadvantageous, if in the centre of the area which was here, the cows and the flocks of sheep and goats were grazing. Stil Welsh rural life in the 14th century had already a definite though subordinate agricultural aspect, and it is important to notice that individual appropriation had as yet made very slight progress in it.

We do not notice any systematic equalization between members of the tribal communities of the trevs. In fact, both differences in the ownership of cattle and differences of tribal standing, established by complex reckonings of pedigree and of social rank, led to marked inequalities. But there was also the notion of birthright, and we find in the laws that every free tribesman considered himself entitled to claim from his kindred grazing facilities and five erws for tillage. Such a claim could be made unconditionally only at a time when there was a superabundance of land to dispose of. In the 14th century, to which our typical descriptions refer, this state of things had ceased to be universal. Although great tracts of Welsh land were undoubtedly still in a state of wilderness, the soil in more conveniently situated regions was beginning to be scarcer, and considerable pressure of population was already felt, with a consequent transition from pastoral pursuits to agriculture. The tract appropriated to the township of Astret Canon, for instance, contained only 574 acres of land of all kinds. In this case there was hardly room for the customary five erws per head of grown-up males besides commons. And yet although the population lived on a small pittance, the system of tribal tenure was not abandoned.

Although there are no rearrangements or redistribution within the tribe as a whole, inside every gavell, representing more narrow circles of kinsmen, usually descendants of a kindred, i.e. an individual, the shares were shifted and readjusted according to one of two systems. In one case, that of the treycyrrv or joint-account village, every man receives "as much as another yet not of equal value"—which means, of course, that the members of such communities were provided with equal allotments, but left to make the best of them, each according to chance and ability. This practice of reallocation was, however, restricted in the 14th century to taeg trevs, to villages occupied by half-free settlers. The free tribesmen, the pridori of Wales, held by doddenwed, and redivided shares within the trev on the coming of each new generation or, conversely, on the going out, the dying out, of each older generation. In other words: at the demise of the last of the grandfathers in a gavell, all the fathers took
equal rank and claimed equal shares, although formerly some of the portions had been distributed equally only between the grandfather's or their offspring (stirs). The right to claim redivision held good only within the circle of second cousins. Members of the kindred who stood further than that from each other, that is, third cousins, were not entitled to reallotment on the strength of daddemoud.

Another fact which is brought out with complete evidence by the Welsh Surveys is that the tenure is ascribed to communities of kinsmen and not to chiefs or headmen. The latter certainly existed and had exerted a powerful influence on the disposal of common land as well as on government and justice. But in the view of 14th-century surveys each township is owned not by this or the other elder, but by numerous bodies of coparceners. The gavell of Owen Gogh, for instance, contained twenty-six coparceners. In this way there is a clear attribution of rights of communal ownership, if we like to use the term, and not merely of rights of maintenance. Not is there any warrant for a construction of these arrangements on a supposed patriarchal system.

Let us now compare this description of Celtic tribal tenure with Slavonic institutions. The most striking modern examples of tribal communities settled on a territorial basis are presented by the history of the Southern Slavs in the Balkan Peninsula and in Austria, of Slovones, Croats, Serbs and Hungarians, but it is to trace customs of the same kind in the memories of Western Slavs conquered by Germans, of the Poles and of the different subdivisions of the Russians. A close clue to this subject is provided by a case of the Galatians, which shows that a man by himself is bound to be a bretstvo. One might almost suggest that these popular customs illustrate the Aristotelian conception of the single man seeking the "autarkia," a complete and self-sufficient existence in the society of his fellow-men, and arriving at the stage of the tribal village, the "gêmos," which is also a "kôyem," as described in the famous introductory chapter of the Greek philosopher's Politics. The Slavs of the mountainous regions of the Balkans and of the Alps in their stubborn struggle with nature and with human enemies have clustered and still clung to some extent (e.g., in Montenegro) in closely united and widely spreading brotherhoods (bretstvo) and tribes (plemena). Some of these brotherhoods derive their names from a real or supposed common ancestor, and are composed of relatives as well as of affiliated strangers. They number sometimes hundreds of members,1 of guns, as the fighting males are characteristically called. Such are—the Vukotiči, Kovačevići, as one might say in Old English—the Vukotings or Kovachevings, of Montenegro. The dwellings, fields, and pasturages of these brotherhoods or kindreds are scattered over the country, and it is not always possible to trace them in compact divisions on the map. But there was the closest union in war, revenge, funeral rites, marriage arrangements, provision for the poor and for those who stand in need of special help, as, for instance, in case of fires, inundations and the like. And corresponding to this union there existed a strong feeling of unity in regard to property, especially property in land. Although ownership was divided among the different families, a kind of superior or eminent domain stretched over the whole of the bretstvo, and was expressed in the participation in common in pasture and wood, in the right to control alienations of land and to exercise pre-emption. If any of the members of the brotherhood wanted to get rid of his share he had to apply first to his next of kin within the family and then to the further kinsmen of the bretstvo.

As the Welsh kindred (progenies) were subdivided into gavells formed of extended family communities, even so the Bosnian, Montenegrian, Servian, Slovone tribes fell into house communities, Kucias, Zodrugias, which were built up on the principle of keeping blood-relatives and their property together as long as possible. They consisted generally of some 15 to 20 grown-up persons, some 6 or 7 first and second cousins with their wives and children, living in a hamlet around the central house of the domatin, the house leader. In some instances the number of coparceners increased to 50 or even to 70. The members of the united house community, which in fact is a small village or hamlet, joined in meals and work. Their rights in the undivided household of the hamlet were apportioned according to the pedigree, i.e. this apportionment took account first of the stirs of exact descendents of former scions of the family, so that, say, the offspring of each of two grandfathers who had been brothers were considered as equal sharers although the stirs, the stock, of one was represented only by one person, while the stirs of the other had grown to consist of two uncles and of three nephews all alive. There was no resettlement of shares, as in the case of Wales, but the life of the house community while it existed unbroken led to work in common, the contributions to which are regulated by common consent and supervised by the leader. Grounds, houses, implements of agriculture (ploughs, oxen, carts) and of viniculture—vasks, cauldrons for the making of brandy, &c., are considered to be common capital and ought not to be sold unless by common consent. Divisions were not prohibited. Naturally a family had to divide sooner or later, and the shares have to be made real, to be converted into fields and vineyards. But this was an event which marks, as it were, the close of the regular existence of one union and the birth of similar unions derived from it. As a rule, the kucas kept together as long as it could, because co-operation was needed and isolation dangerous—for economic considerations as well as for the sake of defence.

Attention, however, should be called more particularly to the parallel phenomena in the social history of the Russians, where the conditions seem to stand out in specially strong contrast with those prevailing among the mountain Slavs of the Balkans and of the Alps. In the enormous extent of Russia we have to reckon with widely different geographical and racial areas, among other, with the Steppe settlements of the so-called Little Russians in the Ukraine and the forest settlements of the Great Russians in the north. In spite of great divergencies the economic history of all these branches of Slavonic stock gravitates towards one main type, viz. towards rural unions of kinsmen, on the basis of enlarged households. In the south the typical village settlement is the dvorîše, the big court or hamlet consisting of some four to eight related families holding together; in the north it is the petlîše, the big oven, a hamlet of somewhat smaller size in which three to five families are closely united for purposes of common husbandry.

It is interesting to notice that even the break-up of the joint household does not lead to an entire severance of the ties between its members. They mostly continue in another form, viz. in the shape of an open-field system with mixture of strips, and also to a certain extent against ever past and of wood, sometimes shifting allotments as regards meadows. There is, e.g. an act of division between six brothers from the north of Russia of the year 1640. They agree to divide bread and salt, house and liberties, money, cloth and stores of all kinds and to settle apart. As to arable, Shumila is to take the upper strip in the field by the settlement, and next to him Tretjak, then Maxim, then Zaviala, then Shestoï, then Lukë. In the big harvest furlong likewise, and in the small likewise, and by the meadow likewise and so on through all the furlongs. So that in this case and in innumerable others of the same kind the open-field system with its inconvenient intermixture of plots and limited power of every husbandman to manage his land appears as a direct continuation of the joint tribal households.

Another fact to be noticed is the tendency to form artificial associations on the pattern of the prevailing unions of kinsmen. People who have no blood-relations to appeal to for clearing the waste, for providing the necessary capital in the way of cattle and plough implements, for raising and fitting out buildings, join in order to carry on these economic undertakings, and also to help each other against enemies and aggressors. The members of these voluntary associations,
which at once call to mind German, Norse and English gilds, are called "siabri," "skladiński," and the gilds themselves "spółki," in south Russia. In a district of the Ukraine called the "Ratenšky Sharostvo" there were no fewer than 278 such gilds interchanging with natural kindreds. The organization of all independence of kindred was not the custom. Even in cases when there is a definite elder or headman (bolshoy), he was only the first among equals and exercised only a limited authority over his fellows: all the important decisions had to be taken by the council of the community.

In Great Russia, in the districts gathered under the sway of the Moscow tsars, the basis of the household community and of the rural settlements which sprang from it was modified in another direction. The entire agricultural population was subjected to strict supervision and coercive measures for purposes of military organization and taxation. Society was drilled into uniformity and service on the principle that every man has to serve the tsar, the upper class in war and civil administration, the lower class by agricultural labour. A consequence of the heavy burden laid on the land and of the growth of a landed aristocracy somewhat resembling the gentry and the noblesse of the West was a change in the management of land allotments. They became as much a badge of service and a basis for fiscal requirements as a means of livelihood.

The result was the practice of reallocations according to the needs of different families. The shifting of fertile and infertile (peredelok) tracts was not the reappropriation of rights, but a consequence of the correspondence between rights and obligations. But although this admixture of claims appears as a comparatively recent growth of the system, the fundamental solidarity by kinsmen or neighbours associates grouped into villages was in no way an invention of the tsars or of their officials: it was rooted in traditional customs and naturally suggested by the practices of joint households. When these households become crowded in certain areas, open-field systems arise; when they are burdened with public and private service their close co-operation produces occasional or periodical redivisions of the soil between the shareholding.

Let us now pass to village communities in Teutonic countries, including England. A convenient starting-point is afforded by the social and economic conditions of the southern part of Jutland.

Now the Saxon or Ditmarschen portion of this region gives us an opportunity of observing the effects of an extended and highly systematized tribal organization on Germanic soil. The Saxon kindred is named after the family groupings which reminds one of the Swiss cantons, lasted until the time of the Reformation. We find the Ditmarschen organized in the 11th, as they had been in the 10th century, in a number of large kindreds, partly composed of relatives by blood and partly of "cousins" who had joined them. The membership of these kindreds is based on agnatic ties—that is, on relationship through males—or on affiliation as a substitute for such agnatic kinship. The families or households are grouped into brotherhoods, and these again into clans or "Schlachten" (Geschlechter), corresponding to Roman gentes. Some of them could put as many as 8,000 warriors in the field. They took their names from ancestors and chieftains: the Wollersmannen, Hennekommnen, Jerremannen, &c.—that is, the men of Woll, the men of Henne, the men of Jerre. In spite of these personal names the organization of the clans was by no means a monarchical one: it was based on the participation of the full-grown fighting men in the government of each clan and on a council of co-opted elders at the head of the entire federation. We need not repeat here what has already been stated about the mutual support which such clans afforded to their members in war and wisdom, in judicial and in commercial matters.

Let us notice the influence of this tribal organization on husbandry and property. The regular economic arrangement was an open-field one based on a three-field and similar systems. The furlongs were divided into intermixed strips with compulsory rotation on the usual pattern. And it is interesting to notice that in these economic surroundings indivisible holdings corresponding to the organic units required for efficient agriculture arose of themselves. In spite of the equal right of all coheirs to an estate, this estate does not get divided according to their numbers, but either partition of divided or else falls into such fractions, halves or fourths, which will enable the farming to be carried on successfully, without mischievous interruption and disruption. Gradually the people settled down into the custom of united succession for agrarian units.

The Hufe or Hof, the virgate, as might have been said in England, goes mostly to the eldest son, but also sometimes to the youngest, while the brothers of the heir either remain in the same household with him, generally unmarried, or leave the house after having settled with the heir, who takes charge of the holding, as to an indemnity for their relinquished claims. This indemnity is not equivalent to the market price, but is fixed, in case of dispute or doubt, by an award of impartial and expert neighbours, who have to consider not only the claims of interested persons but also the economic quality and strength of the holding. In other words, the heir has to pay so much as the estate can conveniently provide without being wrecked by the outlay.

This evidence is of decisive importance in regard to the formation of unified holdings; we are on entirely free soil, with no vestige whatever of manorial or communal origin remaining. The tenant by the lord, and yet the Hufe, the normal holding, comes to the fore as a result of the economic situation, on the strength of considerations drawn from the efficiency of the farming. This "Anerben" system is widely spread all through Germany. The question whether the eldest or the youngest succeeds is a subordinate one. Anyhow, manorial authority is not necessary to produce the limitation of the rights of succession to land and the creation of the system of holdings, although this has been often asserted, and one of the arguments for a servile origin of village communities turns on a supposed incompatibility between unified succession and the equal rights of free coheirs.

We need not speak at any length about other parts of Germany, as space does not permit of a description of the innumerable combinations of communal and individual elements in German law, the various shapes of manorial and political institutions with which the influence of blood relationship, gild and neighbourly union had to struggle.

But we must point out some facts from the range of Scandinavian customs. In the mountainous districts of Norway we find the same representation of the different generations as in the plains and hills of Schleswig and Holstein. The border of Gudbrandsdalen and Telemarken, the free peasantry tilling the soil and pasturing herds on the slopes of the hills since the days of Harold Hárfagri to our own times, sit in Odalgaards, or freehold estates, from which supernumerary heirs are removed on receiving some indemnity, and which are protected from alienation into strange hands by the privilege of pre-emption exercised by relatives of the seller. Equally suggestive are some facts on the Danish side of the Straits, viz. the arrangements of the bøls which correspond to the virgates of England and to the Hufen of Germany. Here again we have to do with normal holdings independent of the number of coheirs, but dependent on the requirements of agriculture—on the plough and oxen, on certain constant relations between the arable of an estate and its outlying commons, meadows and woods. The bøl does not stand by itself like the Norwegian gaard, but is fitted into a very close union with neighbouring bøls of the same kind. Practices of corosation, of open-field intermixture, of compulsory rotation of lot-meadows, of stinting the commons, arise of themselves in the villages of the ancient bøls, but based on even more ancient customs give us most interesting and definite information as to Scandinavian practices of allotment.

We catch a glimpse, to begin with, of a method of dividing
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fields which was considered archaic even in those early times. The Swedish laws use the expression "forniskft," which means ancient mode of allotment, and another term corresponding to it is "hamariskft," which may possibly be connected with throwing the hammer in order to mark the boundary of land occupied by a man's strength. The two principal features of forn or hamar skift are the irregularity of the resulting shapes of plots and the temporary character of their occupation. The first observation may be substantiated by a description like that of Laasby in Jutland: "These lands are to that extent scattered and intermixed by the joint owners that it cannot be said for certain what (or how much) they are." Swedish allotments, on the other hand, speak expressly of practices of shifting arable and meadows periodically; sometimes year by year.

Now the uncertainty of these practices based on occupation became in process of time a most inconvenient feature of the situation and evidently led to constant wrangling as to rights and boundaries. The description of Laasby which I have just quoted ends with the significant remark: "They should be compelled to make allotment by the cord." This making of allotments by the cord is the process of redivision, from 

The two fundamental positions from which this form of allotment proceeds are: (1) that the whole area of the village is common land (fællesjord), which has to be lotted out to the single householders; (2) that the partition should result in the creation of equal holdings of normal size (bøls). In some cases we can actually recognize the effect of these allotments by ancient solskift in the 18th century, at a time when the Danish enclosure acts produced a second general revolution in land-handling.

The oldest twelve inhabitants, elected as sworn arbitrators for effecting the allotments, begin their work by throwing together into one mass all the grounds owned by the members of the community, including dwellings and farm-buildings, with the exception of some privileged plots. There is a close correspondence between the sites of houses and the shares in the field. The first operation of the surveyors consists in marking out a village green for the night-rest and pasture of the cattle employed in the tillage (jord), and to assign sites to the tenants of the coparceners with orchards appendant to their hold (toft); each householder having the exactly the same extent of land as his neighbour. From the tofts they proceeded to the fields on the customary notion that the toft is the mother of the field. The fields are disposed into furlongs and shots, as they were called in England, and divided among the members of the village with the strictest possible equality. This is effected by assigning to every householder a strip in every one of the furlongs constituting the arable of the village. Meadows were often treated as lot-meadows in the same way as in England. According to the account of a solskift executed in 1513 (Oester Hoesisted), every ething, the eighth part of a bolt (corresponding to the English oxgang or bovate), got a toft of 40 roods in length and 6 in breadth. One of the coparceners received, however, 8 roods because his land was worse than that of his neighbours. Of the arable there were allotted to each otting two roods' breadth for the plough in each furlong and appendant commons "in damp and in dry" — in meadow and pasture. After such a "solskift" the peasants held their tenements in undisturbed ownership, but the eminent demesne of the village was recognized and a revision of the allotment was possible. When such revisions did actually take place, and in such cases all rights and claims were proportioned according to the standard of the original shares. Needless to say that these shares were subjected to all the usual limitations of champion farming.

After having said so much about different types of village communities which occur in Europe it will be easier to analyse the incidents of English land tenure which disclose the working of similar conceptions and arrangements. Features which have been very prominent in the case of the Welsh, Slavs, Germans or Scandinavians recur in the English instances sometimes with equal force and at other times in a mitigated state.

There are some vestiges of the purely tribal form of community on English soil. Many of the place-names of early Saxon and Anglican settlements are derived from personal names with the suffix ing, as designations like Oakington, the town of the Hockings.

True, it is just possible to explain some of these place-names as pointing to settlements belonging to some great man and therefore taking their designation from him with the adjunct of an ing indicating possession. But the group of words in question falls in exactly with the common patrimonies of Saxon and German families and kindreds, and therefore it is most probable, as Kemble supposed, that we have to do in most of these instances with tribal and family settlements, although the mere fact of belonging to a great landowner or a monastery may have been at the root of some cases.

A very noticeable consequence of tribal habits in regard to landownership is presented by the difficulties which stood in the way of alienation of land by the occupiers of it. The Old English legal system did not originally admit of any alienation of folkland, land held by folkright, or, in other words, of the land owned by the members of the tribe, and this law of the people. Such land could not be bequeathed out of the kindred and could not be sold without the consent of the kinsmen. Such complete disabilities could not be upheld indefinitely, however, in a growing and progressive community, and we find the ancient folkright assailed from different points of view. The Church insists on the right of individual possessors to give away land for the sake of their souls; the kings grant exemption from folkright and constitute privileged estates held by book and following in the main the rules of individualized Roman law, and in the case of private persons to make provision for daughters and to deal with land as with other commodities producing constant collisions with the customary tribal views. Already, by the end of the Saxon period transfer and alienation of land make their way everywhere, and the Norman conquest brings these features to a head by substituting the notion of tenure—that is, of an estate burdened with service to a superior—for the ancient notion of tribal folkland.

But although the tribal basis of communal arrangements was shaken and removed in England in comparatively early times, it had influenced the practices of rural husbandry and landed life, and it has been so modified form of the Anglo-Saxon system that it survived right through the feudal period, leaving characteristic and material traces of its existence down to the present day.

To begin with, the open-field system with intermixture of strips and common rights in pasture and wood has been the prevailing system in England for more than a thousand years. Under the name of champion farming it existed everywhere in the country until the Inclosure Acts of the 18th and 19th centuries put an end to it; it may be found in operation even now in some of its features in backward districts. It would have been absurd to build up these practices of compulsory rotation of crops, of a temporary relapse of plots into common pasture between harvest and ploughing time, of the interdependence of thrifty and negligent husbandmen in respect of weeds and times of cultivation, &c., from the point of view of individual appropriation. On the other hand, it was the natural system for the apportionment of claims to the shareholders of an organic and perpetual joint-stock company.

Practices of shifting arable are seldom reported in English evidence. There are some traces of periodical redivisions of arable land in Northumberland: under the name of runrig system such practices seem to have been not uncommon in the outer fields, the non-manured portions of townships in Scotland, both among the Saxon inhabitants of the lowlands and the Celtic population of the highlands. The joining of small tenants for the purpose of coaration, for the formation of the big,
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heavy ploughs, drawn by eight oxen, also produced sometimes
the shifting in the possession of strips between the coparceners
of the undertaking. But, as a rule, the arable was held in
severalty by the different members of the township.

On the other hand, meadows were constantly owned by entire
townships and distributed between the tenements entitled to
shares from year to year either by lot or according to a definite
order. These practices are in full vigour in some places even
at the present day. Any person living in Oxford may witness
the distribution by lot on Lammas day (1st of August) of the
Lammas meadow, that is, the meadows inclosed for the sake
of raising hay-grass in the village of Yarnton, some three miles
to the north of Oxford.

Let us, however, return for a moment to the arable. Although
held in severalty by different owners it was subjected to all
sorts of interference on the part of the village union as repre-
sented in later ages by the manorial court framing by-laws and
settling the course of cultivation. It might also happen
that in consequence of encroachments, disputes and general
uncertainty as to possession and boundaries, the whole distrib-
ution of the strips placed among the various holdings had to be
given over and regulated anew. In an interesting case reported
from a Cartulary of Dunstable in Bedfordshire, all the possessions
of the villagers in a place called Segenhoe were thrown together
in the 12th century and redivided according to an award of
experts chosen by a meeting of the villagers from among the
oldest and wisest inhabitants.

Exactly as in the Danish examples quoted before, the strips
were apportioned, not to the single owners, but to the normal
holdings, the hides, and the actual owners had to take them
in proportion to their several rights in the hides. This point
is very important. It gives the English village community its
peculiar stamp. It is a community not between single members
or casual households, but between determined holdings con-
structed on a proportional scale. Although there was no provision for the admeasurement and equalization of the claims
of Smith and of Brown, each hide or ploughland of a township
took as much as every other hide, each virgate or yardland as
every other yardland, each bovate or oxgang as every other
oxgang. Now the proportions themselves, although varying
in respect of the number of acres included in each of these
united identical parts, were constant in their relation to each
other. The yardland was almost everywhere one-fourth of the
hide or ploughland, and corresponded to the share of two
oxen in an eight-oxen plough; the oxgang was reckoned at
one-half of the yardland, and corresponded to the share of one
ox in the same unit of work. The constant repetition of these
fractions and units proves that we have to do in this case with
phenomena arising not from artificial devices but from the very
nature of the case. Nor can there be a doubt that both the unit
and the fractions were produced by the application to land
of the chief factor of working strength in agrarian husbandry,
the power of the ploughteam for tillage.

The natural composition of the holdings has its counterpart,
as in Schleswig-Holstein and as in the rest of Germany, in the
customs of united succession. The English peasantry worked
out customary rules of primogeniture or of so-called Borough
English or claim of the youngest to the land held by his father.
The German examples adduced in the beginning of this article
teach us that the device is not suggested primarily by the in-
terest of the landlord. Unified succession takes the place of the
equal rights of sons, because it is the better method for preserving
the economic efficiency of the household and of the tenement
Corresponding to it. There are exceptions, the most notorious
being that of Kentish gavelkind, but in agricultural districts the
holding remains undivided as long as possible, and if it gets
divided, the division follows the lines not of the casual number
of coheirs, but of the organic elements of the ploughlands.
Fourth and eighths arise in connexion with natural fractions of
the ploughteam of eight oxen.

One more feature of the situation remains to be noticed,
and it is the one which is still before our eyes in all parts of
the country, that is, the commons which have survived the
wholesale process of inclosure. They were an integral part
of the ancient village community from the first, not only because
the whole ground of a township could not be taken up by arable
and meadows, at a time when population was scanty, but because
there existed the most intimate connexion between the
agricultural and pastoral part of husbandry in the time of the
open-field system. Pasture was not treated as a commodity
by itself but was mostly considered as an adjunct, as appendant
to the arable, and so was the use of woods and of turf. This
system was fully endorsed, e.g., in an Elizabethan case reported
by Coke—Tyringham's case. The problem of admeasurement
of pasture was regulated in the same way as that of the apportion-
tment of arable strips, by a reference to the proportional
holdings, the hides, yardlands and oxgangs of the township,
and the only question to be decided was how many heads of
beasts or of cattle and how many sheep each hide and yardland had
the right to send to the common pasturage grounds.

When in course of time the open-field system and the tenure
of arable according to holdings were given up, the right of free-
holding and occupancy of the old manors in which the ancient
townships were, as it were, encased, still held good, but it became
much more difficult to estimate and to apportion such rights.

In connexion with the individualistic policy of inclosure
the old writ of admeasurement of commons was abolished in
1837 (3 & 4 Will. IV.). The ordinary expedient is to make
out how much commonable cattle could be kept by the tene-
ments claiming commons through the winter. It is very
characteristic and important that in the leading modern case on
sufficiency of commons— in Robertson v. Hartopp—it was
admitted by the Court of Appeal that the sufficiency did not
to be construed as a right of turning out a certain number of
beasts on the common, quite apart from the number which
had been actually turned out at any given time. Now a vested
right has to be construed from the point of view of the time
when it came into existence. The standards used to estimate
such rights ought not to be drawn from modern practice, which
might help to dispense altogether with commons of pasture by
stable feeding, substitutes for grass, &c., but ought to correspond
to the ordinary usages established at a time when the open-field
system was in full vigour. The legal view stands thus at
present, but we cannot conscientiously consider ourselves
as equal to the task of discussing the intricacies incident to
the inroads achieved by individual appropriation it is by no means
certain that the reference to the rights and rules of a previous
period will continue to be recognized. However this may be,
in the present commons we have certainly a system which
draws its roots from customs, as to the origin of which legal
memory does not run.

We may, in conclusion, summarize very briefly the principal
results of our inquiry as to the history of European village
communities. It seems that they may be stated under the
following heads: (1) Primitive stages of civilization disclose
in human society a strong tendency towards mutual support
in economic matters as well as for the sake of defence. (2) The
most natural form assumed by such unions for defence and
co-operation is that of kinship. (3) In epochs of pastoral
husbandry and of the beginnings of agriculture land is mainly
owned by tribes, kindreds and enlarged households, while
individuals enjoy only rights of usage and possession. (4) In
course of time unions of neighbours are substituted for unions
of kinsmen. (5) In Germanic societies the community of the
tenure rests on the foundation of efficient holdings—the
hides, huften—kept together as far as possible by rules of united
or single succession. (6) The open-field system, which prevailed
in the whole of Northern Europe for nearly a thousand years,
was closely dependent on the customs of tribal and neighbourly
unions. (7) Even now the treatment of commons represents
the last manifestations of ancient communal arrangements, and
it can only be reasonably and justly interpreted by reference
to the law and practice of former times.

Authors.—Sir H. S. Maine, Village Communities in the
East and West (1872); E. de Laveleye, Das Ureigentum, übers. von
VILLALBA—VILLANELLE

The future editor of Mendoza’s Guerra de Granada, and to Bartolomé Jiménez Pátron, who subsequently dedicated Mercurius Triumregiustus to his pupil. On leaving Salamanca the youth married in 1604, and succeeded to the title on the death of his father in 1607; he was prominent in the life of the capital, acquired a bad reputation as a gambler, was forbidden to attend court, and resided in Italy from 1611 to 1617. On his return to Spain, he soon proved himself a fearless, pungent satirist. Such public men as Lerma, Rodrigo Calderón and Jorge de Tobar writhed beneath his murderous invective; the foibles of humbler private persons were exposed to public ridicule in verses furiously passed from hand to hand.

So great was the resentment caused by these envenomed attacks that Villamediana was once more ordered to withdraw from court in 1618. He returned on the death of Philip III, and was appointed gentleman in waiting to Philip IV’s young wife, Isabel de Bourbon, daughter of Henri IV. Secure in his position, he scattered his scathing epigrams in profusion; but his ostentatious attentions to the queen supplied his countless foes with a weapon which was destined to destroy him. A fire broke out while his masque, La Gloria de Nigua, was being acted before the court on the 15th of May 1622, and Villamediana carried the queen to a place of safety. Suspicion deepened; Villamediana neglected a significant warning that his life was in peril, and on the 21st of August 1622 he was murdered as he stepped out of his coach. For his death was divided between Philip IV. and Olivares; the actual assassin was either Alonso Mateo or Ignacio Mendez; and naturally the crime remained unpunished.

Villamediana’s works, first published at Saragossa in 1629, contain not only the nervous, blighting verses which made him widely feared and hated, but a number of more serious poems embodying the most exaggerated conceits of gongerism. But, when adopting the perversive conventions of the hour, he remains a poet of high distinction, and his satirical verses, more profound in form, are instinct with a cold, concentrated scorn which has never been surpassed. VILLANELLE, a form of verse, originally loose in construction, but since the 16th century bound in exact limits of an arbitrary kind. The word is ultimately derived from the Latin villa, a country house or farm, through the Italian villana, a peasant or farm hand, and a villanelle was primarily a round song taken up by men on a farm. The Spaniards called such a song a villancico or villanceto or a villancico, and a man who improvised such a villancico was a villanciquero. The villanelle was a pastoral poem made to accompany a rustic dance, and from the first it was necessary that it should contain a regular system of repeated lines. The old French villanelles, however, were irregular in form. One of the most celebrated, the “Rosette, pour un peu d’absence” of Philippe Desportes (1545-1606), is a sort of ballade, and those contained in the Aestre d’Urfe, 1610, are scarcely less unlike the villanelles of modern times. It appears, indeed, to have been by an accident that the special and rigorously defined form of the villanelle was invented. In the posthumous poems of Jean Passerat (1534-1602), which were printed in 1606, several villanelles were discovered, in which the first two lines of the stanza were to contain the title, and the last line give the title and its proper noun.

Villafranca, a town of north-western Spain, in the province of Lugo; on the left bank of the river Ladra, one of the head-streams of the Miño, and at the junction of the main roads from Ferrol and Mondrago to the city of Lugo. Pop. (1900) 13,572. Villalba is the chief town of the district watered by the Ladra. Tamboga and other small streams—a fertile plateau. Hot, above sea-level, cloth and pottery are manufactured, and there is some trade in grain and livestock. The nearest railway station is Otero, 15 m. S. by E. on the Lugo-Corunna line.

Villamediana, Count De (1582-1623), Spanish poet, was born at Lisbon towards the end of 1582. His father, a distinguished diplomatist, upon whom the dignity of count was conferred in 1603, entrusted the education of the brilliant boy (Juan de Tassis y Peralta) to Luis Triibaldos de Toledo,
This exquisite lyric has continued to be the type of its class, and the villanelle, therefore, for the last three hundred years has been a poem, written in tercets, on two rhymes, the first and the third line being repeated alternatively in each tercet. It is usual to confine the villanelle to five tercets, but that is not essential; it must, however, close with a quatrains, the last two lines of which are the first and third line of the original tercet. The villanelle was extremely admired by the French poets of the Parnasse, and one of them, Théodore de Banville, compared it to a ribband of silver and gold traversed by a thread of rose-colour. Boublier, who was the first to point out that Passerat was the inventor of the definite villanelle, published collections of these poems in 1787 and 1789, and was preparing another when he died in 1881. When, in 1877, so many of the early French forms of verse were introduced, or reintroduced, into English literature, the villanelle attracted a great deal of attention; it was simultaneously cultivated by W. E. Henley, Austin Dobson, Lang and Gosse. Henley wrote a large number, and he described the form itself in a specimen beginning:

"A dainty thing’s the Villanelle,
Sly, musical, a jewel in rhyme,
It serves its purpose passing well."

It has since then been very frequently used by English and American poets. There are several excellent examples in English of humorous villanelles, especially those by Austin Dobson and by Henley.


E. G.)

VILLANI, GIOVANNI (c. 1275-1348), Italian chronicler, was the son of Villano di Stollo, and was born at Florence in the second half of the 13th century; the precise year is unknown. He was of good burgher extraction, and, following the traditions of his family, applied himself to commerce. During the early years of the 14th century he travelled in Italy, France and the Netherlands to buy men and things with the sagacity alike of the man of business and the historian. Before leaving Florence, or rather in the interval between one journey and another, he had at least taken some part in that troubled period of civil contentions which Dino Compagni has described and which swept Dante Alighieri into banishment. In 1301 Villani saw Charles, count of Valois, ruining his country under the false name of peacemaker, and was witness of all the misery which immediately followed. Somewhat later he left Italy, and in September 1304 he visited Flanders. It is not well ascertained when he returned to his native city. He was certainly living there shortly after the emperor Henry VII. visited Italy in 1312, and probably he had been there for some time before. While still continuing to occupy himself with commerce, he now began to take a prominent part in public affairs. In 1316 and 1317 he was one of the priors, and shared in the crafty tactics whereby Pisa and Lucca were induced to conclude a peace with Florence, to which they were previously averse. In 1317 he also had charge of the mint, and during his administration of this office he collected its earlier records and had a register made of all the coins struck in Florence. In 1321 he was again chosen prior; and of the Florentines having just then undertaken the rebuilding of the city walls, he and some other citizens were deputed to look after the work. They were afterwards accused of having diverted the public money to private ends, but Villani clearly established his innocence. He was next sent with the army against Castruccio Castracani, lord of Lucca, and was present at its defeat at Altopascio. In 1328 a terrible famine visited many provinces of Italy, including Tuscany, and Villani was appointed to guard Florence from the worst effects of that distressing period. He has left a record of what was done in a chapter of his Chronicle, which shows the economic wisdom in which the medieval Florentines were often greatly in advance of their age. In 1339, some time after the death of Castruccio, some rich Florentine merchants, and among them Villani, treated for the acquisition of the island of Ischia by Florence for 80,000 florins, offering to supply the larger part of that sum out of their own private means; but the negotiations fell through, owing to the discords and jealousies then existing in the government (Chron. x. 143). The following year Villani superintended the making of Andrea Pisano's bronze doors for the baptistry. In the same year he watched over the raising of the campanile of the Badia, erected by Andrea and Giovanni Orsini (Chron. x. 177). In 1341 the acquisition of Lucca was attempted, and, this time with Martino della Scala, for 250,000 florins. Villani was Flino with Etins as a hostage to Ferrara, where he remained for some months. He was present in Florence during the unhappy period that elapsed between the entry of Walter of Brienne, duke of Athens, and his expulsion by the Florentines (1342-43). Involved through no fault of his own in the failure of the commercial company of the Bonaccorsi, which in its turn had been drawn into the failure of the company of the Bardol, Villani, towards the end of his life, suffered much privation and for some time was in prison. In 1348 he fell a victim to the plague described by Boccaccio.

The idea of writing the Chronicle was suggested to Villani under the following circumstances: "In the year of Christ 1300 Pope Boniface VIII. made in honour of Christ's nativity a special and general indulgence. Accordingly, putting myself in that blessed pilgrim-age in the holy city of Rome, seeing her great and ancient remains, and reading the histories and great deeds of the Romans as written by Virgil, Sallust, Lucan, Livy, Valerius, Paulus Orosius and other many other historians who wrote the exploits and glory, great and small, of the Romans and also of strangers, in the whole world... considering that our city of Florence, the daughter and offspring of Rome, is on the increase and destined to do great things, as Rome is by former declension and by being neglected in this volume and new chronicle all the facts and beginnings of the city of Florence, in as far as it has been possible to me to collect and discover them, and to follow the doings of the Florentines at length... and so in the year 1300, on my return from Rome, I began to compile this book, in honour of God and of the blessed John, and in praise of our city of Florence." Villani's work, written in a style which makes it a classic example in the historical literature of Italy, just as the history of Florence, the moment it emerges from the humble and uncertain origin assigned to it, is swept into a rich and powerful life of thought and action. Nothing but a careful perusal of the records that had preceded Villani's work, which rests in part on them. The Gesta Florentinorum of Sanzanne, starting from these vague origins, runs about to be dated 1225, at the union of Fiesole with Florence. The Cronica de Origine Civilitatis seems to be a compilation, made by various hands and at various times, in which the different legends regarding the city's origin have been gradually collected. The Annales Fiesolani (1110-1173) and the Annales Florentini Secundi (1107-1247), together with a list of the consuls and podestas from 1197 to 1267, and another chronicle, formerly attributed, but apparently without good reason, to Brunetto Latini, complete the series of ancient Florentine records. To these must, however, be added a certain quantity of facts which were to be found in various manuscripts, being used and quoted by authors, so that an unexpectedly rich and valuable periodical, posterior to Villani's time, of old records from which several chroniclers may have drawn, either without citing them at all or only doing so in a vague manner. The Historia Florentina, or Cronica universale, of Villani begins with Biblical times and comes down to 1348. The universality of Villani's work is extensive, especially in the times near Villani's own, while it bears witness to the great erudition of his mind, makes one also feel that the book was inspired within the walls of the universal city. Whereas Dino Compagni's Chronicle is confined within definite limits of time and place, this of Villani is a general chronicle extending over the whole of Europe. Dino Compagni feels and lives in the facts of his history; Villani looks at them and relates them calmly and fairly, with a serenity which makes him seem an outsider, though when he is mixed up in them. While very important for Italian history in the 14th century, this work is the cornerstone of the
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early medieval history of Florence. Of contemporary events Villani has a very exact knowledge. Having been a sharer in the public affairs and in the intellectual and economic life of his native city, in its public and university cares, he has left us a clear and vivid account of what he saw with the vividness natural to a clear mind accustomed to business and to the observation of mankind. He was Guelf, but without passion; and his book is much more taken up with an interesting knowledge of fact than with the emotion of party conflicts. He is really a chronicler, not an historian, and has but little method in his narrative, often reporting the things which occurred long ago through tradition, and even interpolating, as if he fell into some inaccuracy; but such defects as he has are largely compensated for by his valuable qualities. He was for half a century a eyewitness of his history, and he provides abundant information about the customs and usages of the Tuscan com- mercies and arts; and among the chronicles throughout Europe he is perhaps unequalled for the value of the statistical data he has preserved. As a writer Villani is clear and acute; and, though his prose has not the force and colouring of Compagni's, it has the advantage of greater simplicity, so that, taking his work as a whole, he may be regarded as the greatest chronicler who has written in Italian. The many difficulties connected with the publication of this important text have hitherto prevented the presentation of a perfect edition. However, the Chronica has been printed by L. A. Muratori in tomo xii. of the Series Italicarum Scriptores (Milan, 1743), and has been edited by L. Moutier and F. G. Droz for the Bibliotheque de l'Universite de Geneve in 1849, and Reprint Edition, Leipzig (1852). Among other editions is one published at Trieste in 1857 and another at Turin in 1879. Selections have been translated into English by R. E. Sellans (1896).

Villani's works were continued by two other members of his family. (1) Matteo Villani, his brother, of whom nothing is known save that he was twice married and that he died of the plague at Milan in 1359. Yet he is inferior to Giovanni's, is nevertheless very valuable. A more prolix writer than his brother and a less acute observer, Matteo is well informed in his facts, and for the years of which he writes is one of the most important sources of Italian history.

(2) Filippo Villani, the son of Matteo, flourished in the end of the 14th and the beginning of the 15th century. In his continuation which goes down to 1404, though showing greater literary merit, he is very inferior as an historian to his predecessor. His most valuable work was a collection of lives of illustrious Florentines. Twice, in 1401 and 1404, he was chosen to explain in public the Dietas of the Medici, of his death is unknown.

See P. Scheffer-Boichorst, Florentiner Studien (Leipzig, 1874); G. Gervinus, "Geschichte der Florentinischen Historiographie" in his Historische Schriften (1833); U. Balzani, Le cronache italiane nel medio evo (Milan, 1884); A. Gaspari, Geschichte der italienischen Literatur (Berlin, 1885); G. Knoll, Beiträge zur italienischen Historiographie im 14. Jahrhundert (Gottingen, 1876), and O. Hartwig, "G. Villani und die Leggende di Messer Gianni di Procida" in Band xxv. of H. von Sybel's Historische Zeitschrift. (U. B.)

VILLANOVA, the name given to an ancient cemetery in the neighbourhood of Bologna, Italy, and generally applied by archaeologists to all the remains of that period, and to the period itself, owing to the discovery therein of a large number of the characteristic remains of the earliest Iron Age of Italy. The antiquities of this culture are widely spread over upper Italy and differ essentially from those of the previous epoch known as Terramara, and they have been described by some as following at a considerable interval, for they show a great advance in metal work. The chief cemeteries of the Villanova period are at Bologna, Este, Villanova, Golasca, Trezzo, Rivoli and Oppiano. As there can be no doubt that the Terramara culture was that of the aboriginal Ligurians (see, however, Terramara), so the Villanova is that of the Umbrians, who, according to the historians, were masters of all northern Italy, as far as the Alps at the time of the Etruscan conquest (c. 1000 B.C.). They contain cist-graves, the bottoms, sides and tops being formed of flat unhewn stones, though sometimes there are only bottom and top slabs; the dead were burnt, and the remains are usually in a crouched position, playing the chief role but one ossuary; sometimes the vessel is covered with flat unhewn stones, inverted, sometimes the urns are deposited in the ground without any protection. The vases are often hand-made and adorned with incised linear ornament, though in later times the bones were often placed in bronze urns or buckets. Though iron is steadily making its way into use, flat, flanged, and socketed and looped celts of bronze are found in considerable numbers. Brooches of many kinds, ranging from the most primitive safety-pin fashioned out of a common bronze pin (such as those found in the Bronze Age settlement at Peschiera on Lake Maggiore), through many varieties, are in universal use. Representations of the human figure are practically unknown, but models of animals of a rude and primitive kind are very common, probably being votive offerings. These are closely parallel to the bronze figures found at Olympia, where human figures were likewise rare. All these objects are decorated in repoussé with geometric designs. The culture of the Villanova period is part of the Iron Age civilization, though the contents of the Hallstatt (grave) graves differ very considerably from the antiquities of the ordinary Villanova period, there is no breach of continuity between Hallstatt and Villanova, for the types of Vadaniana, Estense, Golasca and Villanova are found in the Hallstatt culture. The connexion between the north and the south of the Alps is never interrupted. The chief difference lies in the fact that the Celts of the Danubian region made greater advances in the development of weapons and defensive armour than their kindred in northern Italy. The Po and Danube regions alike are characterized by bronze buckles, cist-graves and the like, wrought in repoussé work and with geometric designs; but the introduction of iron into Italy is considerably posterior to its development in the Hallstatt area.

See Montelius, La Civilisation primitive en Italie; Ridgeway, Early Age of Greece, vol. i.; Brizio, in C. R. Acad. Itur. (1907), pp. 145, 154. Villanueva is a town of western Spain, in the province of Badajoz, near the left bank of the river Guadiana, and on the Madrid-Badajoz railway. Pop. (1900) 12,840. Villanueva is a busy modern town, with manufactures of cotton, woolen, silk, and other goods, and a paper mill. It has also ironfoundries and an important agricultural trade, with good markets and deep anchorage; it is a lifeboat station and the headquarters of a large fishing fleet. The coasting trade is also considerable. Villanueva has a museum, founded by the Catalan poet, historian and diplomat, Vittorio Balaguer (1824-1901), which contains collections of Roman, Egyptian and prehistoric antiquities, besides paintings, engravings, sculptures, coins and a large library, including many valuable MSS.

VILLARD, HENRY (1835-1900), American journalist and financier, was born in Speyer, Rhenish Bavaria, on the 10th of April, 1835. His baptismal name was Ferdinand Heinrich Gustav Hilgard. His parents removed to Zweibrücken in 1839, and in 1856 his father, Gustav Leonhard Hilgard (d. 1867), became a justice of the Supreme Court of Bavaria, at Munich. Henry was educated at the Gymnasium of Zweibrücken, at the French semi-military academy in Phalsbourg in 1849-50, at the gymnasium of Speyer in 1850-52, and at the universities of Munich and Würzburg in 1852-53; and in 1853, having had a disagreement with his father, emigrated—without his parents' knowledge—to the United States. It was at this time that he adopted the name of Villard. Making his way westward in his native land, he held in turn at Cincinnati, Belleville (Illinois) and Chicago, engaged in various employments, and in 1856 formed a project, which came to nothing, for establishing a colony of "free soil" Germans in Kansas. In 1856-57 he was editor, and for part of the time was proprietor, of the Racine (Wis.) Volksblatt, in which he advocated the election of John C. Frémont (Republican). Thereafter he was associated (in 1857) with the Staats-Zeitung, Frank Leslie's and the Tribune, of New York, and with the Cincinnati Commercial
in 1859-60; was correspondent of the New York Herald in 1861 and of the New York Tribune (with the Army of the Potomac) in 1862-63, and in 1865 was at the front as the representative of a news agency established by him in that year at Washington. In 1865 he became Washington correspondent of the Chicago Tribune, and in 1866 was the correspondent of that paper in the Prusso-Austrian War. He began to take an interest in railway financing in 1871, when he was elected president of the Oregon & California railroad and of the Oregon Steamship Company in 1876, was receiver of the Kansas Pacific railway in 1876-78, organized the Oregon Railway & Navigation Company in 1879, the Oregon Improvement Company in 1880, and the Oregon & Transcontinental Company in 1881, becoming in that year president of the Northern Pacific railway, which was completed under his management, and of which he remained president until 1883. In 1887 he again became connected with the Northern Pacific, and in 1889 was chosen chairman of its finance committee. He was actively identified with the financing of other Western railway projects until 1893. In 1881 he acquired the New York Evening Post and the Nation. In 1883 he paid the debt of the state university of Oregon, and gave to the institution $50,000, and he also gave to the town of Zwillbrücken, the home of his boyhood, an orphan asylum (1891). He died on the 12th of November 1900.


VILLA REAL, the capital of the district of Villa Real, Portugal; 10 m. N. of the river Douro and 47 m. by road E.N.E. of Oporto. Pop. (1900) 6716. The town has a large trans-Atlantic trade in wine, mineral waters and live stock, especially pigs. The administrative district of Villa Real corresponds with the western part of the ancient province of Traz os Montes (q.v.). Pop. (1900) 242196; area, 1656 sq. m. There are alkaline waters and baths at Vidago (near Chaves) and at Pedras Salgadas (near Villa Pouca d'Aguilar). The district adjacent to the Douro is known as the Pâiz do vinho, or "wine country"; here are the vineyards from which "port" wine is mostly charged.

VILLARET DE JOUYUSE, LOUIS THOMAS (1759-1812), French admiral, was born at Auch, of a noble family of Languedoc. He was originally destined for the church, but served for some time in the royal guard, which he had to leave at the age of sixteen after killing one of his comrades in a duel. He then entered the navy, and in 1773 left the French and in Indian waters. In 1778 he distinguished himself at the siege of Pondicherry and was promoted captain. He afterwards served under Suffren, took part in the battle of Cuddalore, and in 1781 was taken prisoner in a force encounter with an English vessel. He was released in 1785, and, unlike the majority of naval officers, did not emigrate during the Revolution. In 1791 he was in command of the Prudente in the waters of San Domingo, and in 1792 was appointed rear-admiral and assisted the Conventional, St André, in the reorganization of the fleet. Villaret was in command of the French fleet at the battle of the First of June. He was appointed a member of the Council of the Ancients in 1796, and was sentenced to deportation in the following year on account of his royalist sympathies. He escaped arrest, however, and until the Consulate lived in obscurity at Oléron. In 1801 he commanded the squadron which transported the French army to San Domingo, and the following year was made captain-general of Martinique, which he surrendered to the English in 1809 after a brave defence. In 1811, after some hesitation on the part of Napoleon, Villaret was rewarded for his services with the command of a military division and the post of governor-general of Venice. He died at Venice.

VILLARI, PASQUALE (1827-1905), Italian historian and statesman, was born at Naples on the 1st of October 1827. He studied together with Luigi la Vista under Francesco de Sanctis. He was implicated in the riots of the 15th of May 1848 at Naples, against the Bourbon government, and had to take refuge in Florence. There he devoted himself to teaching and historical research in the public libraries, and in 1859 he published the first volume of his Storia di Girolamo Savonarola e de' suoi tempi, in consequence of which he was appointed professor of history at Pisa. A second volume appeared in 1861, and the work, which soon came to be recognized as an Italian classic, was translated into various foreign languages. (See for instance Note e documenti del conte Niccolò Machiavelli e i suoi tempi (1877-83).) In the meantime Villari had left Pisa and was transferred to the chair of philosophy of history at the Institute of Studii Superiori in Florence, and he was also appointed a member of the council of education (1862). He served as a juror at the international exhibition of that year in London, and contributed an important monograph on education in England and Scotland. In 1869 he was appointed under-secretary of state for education, and shortly afterwards was elected member of parliament, a position which he held for several years. In 1884 he was nominated senator, and in 1891-92 he was minister of education in the Marchese di Rudini's first cabinet. In 1893-94 he collected a number of essays on Florentine history, originally published in the Nuova Antologia, under the title of I primi due secoli della storia di Firenze, and in 1901 he produced Le invasioni barbariche in Italia, a popular account in one volume of the events following the dissolution of the Roman empire. All these works have been translated into English by the historian's wife, Linda White Villari. Another side of Villari's activity was his interest in the political and social problems of the day; and although never identified with any political party, his speeches and writings have always commanded considerable public attention.

Among his other literary works may be mentioned: Saggi Critici (1868); Arte, Storia, e Filosofia (Florence, 1884); Scritti storici (Bologna, 1893); another volume of Saggi Critici (Bologna, 1896); and a volume of Discusioni istoriche e discorsi (Bologna, 1905), containing his speeches as president of the Dante Alighieri Society. His most important political and social essays are collected in his Lettere Meridionali ed altri scritti sulla questione sociale in Italia (Turin, 1885), and Scritti sulla questione sociale in Italia (Florence, 1902). The Lettere Meridionali (originally published in the newspaper L'Opinione in 1875) produced a deep impression, as they were the first expression of the real conditions of southern Italy. A selection of Villari's essays, translated by his wife, has been published in England (1907).

See also Francesco Baldasseroni, Pasquale Villari (Florence, 1907).

VILLA RICA, the largest city in the interior of Paraguay, on the railway from Asuncion (70 m. N.W.) to Encarnacion, Pop. (1910) about 25,000. Situated in a rich agricultural region watered by the upper Tepereyac, with finely timbered and extensive lands, it is a healthy place. It has an important trade in tobacco and yerba mate. It is to a great extent modern, and contains some fine buildings, including a national college, a church, many schools, and a branch of the Agricultural Bank.

VILLARREAL, a town of eastern Spain, in the province of Castellón de la Plana; 4 m. from the Mediterranean Sea, near the right bank of the river MiJares, and on the Barcenal-Valencia railway. Pop. (1900) 16,668. Villarreal has a station on the light railway between Onda and the seaports of Castellon de la Plana and Burriana. Under Moorish rule, up to the expulsion of the Moriscos in 1609, it was the headquarters of a flourishing trade, and in modern times its industries have revived. Palm-groves, churches with blue-tiled cupolas, and houses with flat roofs and view-turrets (miradores) to some extent preserve the Moorish character of the town. There are extensive orange-groves, watered by the irrigation canal of Castellon, which is a good example of Moorish engineering skill. The local industries include manufacture of paper, woolen goods and silk products.
served in the light cavalry in the Dutch wars, and distinguished himself by his daring and resourcefulness. But in spite of a long record of excellent service under Tyrone, Condé and Luxembourg, and of his aristocratic birth, his promotion was but slow, for he had incurred the enmity of the powerful Louvois, and although he had been proprietary colonel (mestre de camp) of a cavalry regiment since 1674, thirteen years elapsed before he was made a maréchal de camp. In the interval between the Dutch wars and the formation of the League of Augsburg, Villars, who combined with his military gifts the tact and subtlety of the diplomatist, was employed in an unofficial mission to the court of Bavaria, and there became the constant companion and friend of the Elector Charles with whom the Turks and fought at Mohacs. He returned to France in 1690 and was given a command in the cavalry of the army in Flanders, but towards the end of the Grand Alliance War he went to Vienna as ambassador. His part in the next war (see Spanish Succession War), beginning with Friedlingen (1702) and Hochstadt (1703) and ending with Denain (1712), has made him immortal. For Friedlingen he received the marshalate, and for the pacification of the insurgent Cévennes the Saint-Ésprit order and the title of duke. Friedlingen and Hochstadt were barren victories, and the Treaty of Utrecht ruined the prospects of Villars. Villars's glory thus begins with the year 1709 when France, apparently helpless, was roused to a great effort of self-defence by the exorbitant demands of the Coalition. In that year he was called to command the main army opposing Eugene and Marlborough on the northern frontier. During the famine of the winter he shared the soldiers' miserable rations. When the campaign opened the old Marshal Boufflers volunteered to serve under him, and after the terrible battle of Malplaquet (9th), in which he was gravely wounded, he was able to tell the king: "If it please God to give your majesty's enemies another such victory, they are ruined." Two more campaigns passed without a battle and with scarcely any advance on the part of the invaders, but at last Marlborough manoeuvred Villars out of the famous Ne plus ultra lines, and the power of the defence seemed to be broken. But Louis made a last effort, the English contingent and its great leader were withdrawn from the enemy's camp, and Villars, though still suffering from his Malplaquet wounds, outmanoeuvred and decisively defeated Eugene in the battle of Denain. This victory saved France, though the war dragged on for years more and again came to the Rhine, where Villars took Landau, led the stormers at Freiburg and negotiated the peace of Rastatt with Prince Eugene.

He played a conspicuous part in the politics of the Regency period as the principal opponent of Cardinal Dubois, and only the memories of Montmorency's rebellion prevented his being made constable of France. He took the field for the last time in the War of the Polish Succession (1734), with the title "marshal-general of the king's armies," that Turenne alone had held before him. But he was now over eighty years of age, and the war was more diplomatic than earnest, and after opening the campaign with the fire and resolute energy of his youth he died at Turin on the 17th of June 1734.

Villars's memoirs show us a "fanfaron plein d'honneur," as Voltaire calls him. He was indeed boastful, with the gaiety of his native province, and also covetous of honours and wealth. But he was an honourable man of high courage, moral and physical, and a soldier who stands above all his contemporaries and successors in the 18th century, on the same height as Marlborough and Frederick.

The memoirs, part of which was published in 1734 and afterwards several times published in various versions, were for the first time completely edited by the Marquis de Vogué in 1884-92.

VILLAVICIOSA, a seaport of northern Spain, in the province of Oviedo; on the Ria de Villaviciosa, an estuary formed by the small river Villaviciosa which here enters the Bay of Biscay. Pop. (1900) 20,995. The town is the headquarters of a large fishery, and has some coating trade. Its exports are chiefly agricultural produce. Villaviciosa suffers from the competition of the neighbouring ports of Gijón and Avilés, and from the lack of railway communication. It is connected by good roads with Siero (9 m.), and Inteles (60 m.) on the Oviedo-Infanzón railway.

VILLEFRANCHE-DE-ROUERGUE, a town of France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Aveyron, 36 m. W. of Rodez by road. Pop. (1906) town, 6297; commune, 3352. Villefranche, which has a station on the Orleans railway, lies amongst the hills on the right bank of the Aveyron at its junction with the Alzou. One of the three bridges that cross the river belongs to the 13th century, and the straight, narrow streets are full of gabled houses of the 13th and 14th centuries. One of the principal thoroughfares passes beneath the porch of Notre-Dame. The church is of the 13th and 14th centuries and the cloisters date from 1260 to 1381, the massive tower which surmounts its porch being of late Gothic architecture. The remarkable woodwork in the choir dates from the 13th century. A Carthusian monastery overlooking the town from the left bank of the Aveyron derives much interest from the completeness and fine preservation of its buildings, which date from the 15th century. They include a fine refectory and two cloisters, the smaller of which is a masterpiece of the late Gothic style. The manufacture of leather, animal-traps, hosery, bell-founding, hemp-spinning, and mills of low water-power are worked.

Villefranche, founded about 1252, owes its name to the numerous immunities granted by its founder Alphonse, count of Toulouse (d. 1271), and in 1348 it was so flourishing that sumptuary laws were passed. Soon afterwards the town fell into the hands of Edward, the Black Prince, but was the first place in Guienne to rise against the English. New privileges were granted to the town by King Charles V., but these were taken away by Louis XI. In 1588 the inhabitants repulsed the forces of the League, and afterwards murdered a governor sent by Henry IV. The town was ravaged by plague in 1643, 1658 and 1668, and in 1643 a revolt, excited by the actions of the intendents, was cruelly repressed.

VILLEFRANCHE-SUR-SAÔNE, a manufacturing town of east-central France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Rhône, on the Morzon near its junction with the Saône, 21 m. N. by W. of Lyons by rail. Pop. (1906) 14,704. Among its industries the chief are the manufacture of working clothes, the manufacture, dyeing and finishing of cotton fabrics, the spinning of cotton thread, copper founding, and the manufacture of paper. The Beaujolais, hemp, cloth, linen, cottons, drapery goods and cattle are the principal articles of trade. An old Renaissance house is used as the town hall. The church of Notre-Dame des Marais, begun at the end of the 14th and finished in the 16th century, has a tower and spire (rebuilt in 1862), standing to the right of the façade (15th century), in which are carved wooden doors. Villefranche is the seat of a sub-prefecture and has tribunals of first instance and of commerce, a chamber of commerce and a communal college among its public institutions.

Founded in 1112 by Guichard IV., count of Beaujeu, Villefranche became in the 14th century capital of the Beaujolais. As a punishment for an act of violence towards the mayor's daughter, Edward II. was forced to surrender the Beaujolais to the duke of Bourbon.

VILLEGAS, ESTEBAN MANUEL DE (1589-1660), Spanish poet, was born at Matute (Logroño) on the 3th of February 1589, matriculated at Salamanca on the 20th of November 1610, and challenged attention by the mingled arrogance and accomplishment of Las Eréticas (1617), a collection of clever translations from Horace and Anacreon of original poems, the charm of which was marred by the writer's petulant vanity. Married in 1626 or earlier, Villegas practised law at Nájera till 1659, when he was charged with expressing unorthodox views on the subject of free will; he was exiled for four years to Santa Maria de Ribaredonda, but was allowed to return for three months to Nájera in March 1660. It seems probable that the rest of the sentence was remitted, for the report of the local inquisition lays stress on Villegas's simple piety, on the extravagance of his attire,
VILLEHARDOUIN

GEORGY DE (c. 1160-c. 1213), the first vernacular historian of France, and perhaps of modern Europe, who possesses literary merit, is rather supposed than known to have been born at the château from which he took his name, near Troyes, in Champagne, about the year 1160. Not merely his literary and historical importance, but almost all that is known about him, comes from his chronicle of the fourth crusade, or Conquête de Constantinople. Nothing is positively known of his ancestry, for the supposition (originating with Du Cange) that a certain William, marshal of Champagne between 1148 and 1157, was his father is erroneous. Villehardouin himself, however, undoubtedly held this dignity, and certain minute and perhaps not very trustworthy indications, chiefly of an heraldic character, have led his most recent biographers to lay it down that he was not born earlier than 1150 or later than 1164. He introduces himself to us with a certain abruptness, merely specifying his own name as one of a list of knights of Champagne who with their count, Thibault, took the cross at a tournament held at Escry-sur-Aisne in Advent 1189, the crusade in contemplation having been started by the preaching of Puille de Neully, who was commissioned thereto by Pope Innocent III. The next year six deputies, two appointed by each of the three allied counts of Flanders, Champagne and Blois, were despatched to Venice to negotiate for ships. Of these deputies Villehardouin was one and Quenes de Béthune, the poet, another. They concluded a bargain with the seigniors for transport and provisions at a fixed price. Villehardouin had hardly returned when Thibault fell sick and died; but this did not prevent, though it somewhat delayed, the enterprise of the crusaders. The management of that enterprise, however, was a difficult one, and cost Villehardouin another embassy into Italy. In 1201 he was left in the charge of the crusade, and breaking the treaty with the Venetians by embarking at other ports and employing other convey. He was only in part successful, and there was great difficulty in raising the charter-money among those who had actually assembled (in 1202) at Venice, the sum collected falling far short of the stipulated amount. It is necessary to remember this when the somewhat erratic and irregular character of the operations which followed is judged. The defence that the crusaders were bound to pay their passage-money to the Holy Land, in one form or other, to the Venetians, is perhaps a weak one in any case for the attack on two Christian cities, Zara and Constantinople; it becomes weaker still when it is found that the expedition never went or attempted to go to the Holy Land at all. But the desire to discharge obligations incurred is no doubt respectable in itself, and Villehardouin, as one of the actual negotiators of the bargain, must have felt it with peculiar strength.

The crusaders set sail at last, and Zara, which the Venetians coveted, was taken without much trouble. The question then arose whether the host should go next. Villehardouin does not tell us what effect the taking of Zara had on his impression of the empire of the East—debates in which the chief ecclesiastics present strongly protcated against the diversion of the enterprise from its proper goal. It is quite clear, however, that the marshals of Champagne, who was one of the leaders and inner counsellors of the expedition throughout, sympathized with the majority, and it is fair to point out that the temptation of chivalrous adventure was probably as great as that of gain. He narrates spiritedly enough the discussions and decisions in the winter camp of Zara and at Corfu, but is evidently much more occupied when the voyage was again resumed, and, after a fair passage round Greece, the crusaders at last saw before them the great city of Constantinople which they had it in mind to attack. When the assault was decided upon, Villehardouin himself was in the fifth "battle," the leader of which was Mathieu de Montmorency. But, though his account of the siege is full of personal touches, and contains one reference to the number of witnesses whose testimony he took for a certain wonderful fact, he does not tell us anything of his own prowess. After the flight of the usurper Alexius, and when the blindлас was taken, the chronicler accounts in detail of the expedition taken by the Greeks from prison and placed on the throne, Villehardouin, with Montmorency and two Venetians, formed the embassy sent to arrange terms. He was again similarly distinguished when it became necessary to remonstrate with Alexius, the blind man's son and virtual successor, on the non-keeping of the terms. Indeed Villehardouin's talents as a diplomatist seem to have been held in very high esteem, for later, when the Latin empire had become a fact, he was charged with the delicate business of mediating between the emperor Baldwin I. and the Venetian capitols, and on the occasion of which task he had at least partial success. He was also appointed by the Bishop of "Romanie"—a term very vaguely used, but apparently signifying the mainland of the Balkan peninsula, while his nephew and namesake, afterwards prince of Achaia, took a great part in the Latin conquest of Peloponnesus. Villehardouin himself before long received an important command against the Bulgarians. He was left to maintain the siege of Adrianople when Baldwin advanced to attack the relieving force, and with Dandolo had much to do in saving the defeated crusaders from utter destruction, and conducting the retreat, in which he commanded the rear-guard, and brought his troops in safety to the sea of Rodosto, and thence to the capital. As he occupied the post of honour in this disaster, so he had that (the command of the vanguard) in the expedition which the regent Henry made shortly afterwards to revenge his brother Baldwin's defeat and capture. And, when Henry had succeeded to the crown on the announcement of Baldwin's death, it was Villehardouin who fetched home his bride Agnes of Montferrat, and shortly afterwards commanded under him in a naval battle with the ships of Theodore Lascaris at the fortress of Rodosto. The following battle on the Lascari coast, in which with Lascaris, Villehardouin received the fief of Messinopolis (supposed to be Mosynopolis, a little inland from the modern Gulf of Lagos, and not far from the ancient Abdera) from Boniface of Montferrat, with the record of whose death the chronicle abruptly closes.

In the foregoing account only those particulars which bear directly on Villehardouin himself have been detailed; but the chronicle is as far as possible from being an autobiography, and the displays of the writer's personality, numerous as they are, are quite involuntary, and consist merely in his way of handling the subject, not in the references (as brief as his functions as chronicler will admit) to his own proceedings. The chronicle of Villehardouin quickly and to be the very best historical of the history of the crusades is written for the interest which brought about the crusades, stimulated the vast literary development of the 12th and 13th centuries, and sent knights-errant, principally though not wholly of French blood, to establish principalities and kingdoms throughout Europe and the nearer East. On the whole, no doubt, it is the more masculine and practical side of this enthusiastic state of mind which Villehardouin shows. No woman makes any but the most subordinate appearances in his pages, and it must of course be remembered that he was certainly a man past middle life when the events occurred, and perhaps a man approaching old age when he set out from Acre. Despite the strong personal touch and there, exhibiting the impression which the beauty of sea and land, the splendour of Constantinople, the magnitude of the effects but still imposing Greek power, made on him, there is not only an entire absence of dilution and conflation of such subjects as a modern would have dilated on (that was to be expected), but an absence likewise of the elaborate and painful description of detail in which contemporary
The book appears to have been known in the ages immediately succeeding his own; and, though there is no contemporary manuscript in existence, there are some half-dozen which appear to date from the end of the 13th or the course of the 14th century, and at least appears to be a copy made from his own work in that spirit of unintelligent faithfulness which is much more valuable to posterity than more pragmatical editing. The first printed edition was a French book, Le Francos, by L. Villehardouin, published in Paris in 1585, is dedicated to the seignory of Venice (Villehardouin, it should be said, was accused of a rather unfair predilection for the Venetians), and speaks of either a part or the whole of the memoirs in its edition of 1823. On the whole, this whole work is a patched-up nothing seems to be known. A better edition, founded on a Netherlandish MS, appeared at Lyons in 1601. But these were the greatly anticipated and a new edition of Du Cange in 1787, wherein that learned writer employed all his knowledge, never since equalled, of the subject, but added a translation, or rather paraphrase, into modern French which is scarcely worthy of the credit of his author. Dom Brial gave a new edition from different MS sources in 1823, and the book figures with different degrees of dependence on Du Cange and Brial in the collections of Petit, Bouhon, and Michaud and Poujoulat. All these editions were the productions of Natais de Wailly (1872 and 1874), in which the text is critically edited from all the available MSS. and a new translation added, while there is still later and rather better one by E. Bouchet (2 vols., Paris, 1891), which, however, rests mainly on N. de Wailly for text. The charm of Villehardouin can escape no reader; but few readers will fail to derive some additional pleasure from the two essays which Sainte-Beuve devoted to him, reprinted in the ninth volume of the "Coutures du lundi." See also A. Deliboud, Les Chroniqueurs (1888). There are English translations by T. Smith (1829), and (more literally) Sir F. T. Marzials (Everyman's Library, 1908).

**Villéle, Jean Baptiste Guillaume Marie Sérarin, Comte de (1773-1830)**

Villéle, the French statesman, was born at Toulouse on April 1773 and educated for the navy. He joined the "Bayonnaise" at Brest in July 1788 and served in the West and East Indies. Arrested in the Isle of Bourbon under the Terror, he was set free by the revolution of Thermidor (July 1794). He acquired some property in the island, and married in 1799 the daughter of a great proprietor, M. Desbassins de Richemont, whose estates he had managed. His apprenticeship to politics was served in the Colonial Assembly of Bourbon, where he fought successfully to preserve the colony from the consequences of perpetual interference with the American War. Prosperity and peace made it necessary to prevent local discontent from appealing to the English for protection. The arrival of General Decaen, sent out by Bonaparte in 1802, restored security to the island, and five years later Villèle, who had now realized a large fortune, returned to France. He was mayor of his commune, and a member of the council of the Haute-Garonne under the Empire. At the restoration of 1814 he at once declared for royalist principles. He was mayor of Toulouse in 1814-15 and deputy for the Haute-Garonne in the "Chambre Introuvable" of 1815. Villèle, who before the promulgation of the charter had written "Le projet de constitution" opposing it, as too democratic in character, naturally took his place on the extreme right with the ultra-royalists. In the new Chamber of 1816 Villèle found his party in a minority, but his personal authority nevertheless increased. He was looked on by the
ministerialists as the least unreasonable of his party, and by the "ultras" as the safest of their leaders. Under the electoral law of 1817 the Abbé Grégoire, who was popularly supposed to have voted for the death of Louis XVI. in the Convention, was admitted to the Chamber of Deputies. The Conservative party gained strength from the alarm raised by this incident and withdrew from the shock caused by the assassination of the Duc de Berri. The Duc de Richelieu was compelled to admit to the cabinet two of the chiefs of the Left, Villèle and Corbière. Ville de Richelieu resigned within a year, but on the fall of Richelieu at the end of 1821 he became the real chief of the new cabinet, in which he was minister of finance. Although not himself a courtier, he was backed at court by Sosthènes de Rochecoult and Madame du Cayla, and in 1822 Louis XVIII. gave him the title of count and made him formally prime minister. He immediately proceeded to muzzle opposition by stringent press laws, and the discover of minor liberal conspiracies afforded an excuse for further repression. Forced against his will into interference in Spain by Mathieu de Montmorency and Chateaubriand, he contrived to reap some credit for the monarchy from the successful campaign of 1823. Meanwhile he had consolidated the royal power by persuading Louis XVIII. to swamp the liberal majority in the upper house by the nomination of twenty-seven new peers; he availed himself of the temporary popularity of the monarchy after the Spanish campaign to summon a new Chamber of Deputies. This new and obedient legislature, in which only nineteen peers were included, was brought to order by a new ministry, the legislature, the ministry to which the upper house was subject, was thus deprived of a greater advantage than the lower house. The ministry, thus providing time, it was thought, to restore some part of the ancien régime. Ville de Villèle's plans were assisted by the death of Louis XVIII. and the accession of his bigoted brother. Prudent financial administration since 1815 had made possible the conversion of the state bonds from 3 to 4%. It was proposed to utilize the money set free by this operation to indemnify by a milliard francs the emigrés for the loss of their lands at the Revolution; it was also proposed to restore their former privileges to the religious congregations. Both these propositions were, with some restrictions, secured. Socialism was made a crime punishable by death, and the ministry were preparing a law to alter the law of equal inheritance, and thus create anew the great estates. These measures roused violent opposition in the country, which a new and stringent press law, nicknamed the "law of justice and love," failed to put down. The peers rejected the law of inheritance and the press law; it was found necessary to disband the National Guard; and in November 1827 seventy-six new peers were created, and recruse was had to a general election. The new Chamber proved hostile to Ville de Villèle, and the ministry resigned. The ministry of moderate ministry of Martignac.

The new ministry made Ville de Villèle's removal to the upper house a condition of taking office, and he took no further part in public affairs. At the time of his death, on the 13th of March 1834, he had advanced as far as 1816 with his memoirs, which were completed from his correspondence by his family as Mémoires et correspondance du comte de Villèle (Paris, 5 vols., 1887-90).

See also C. de Marade, L'Opposition royaiste (Paris, 1843); J. C. Hyndman, Notice sur le comte de Villèle (Paris, 1899); and M. Chotard, "L'œuvre financière de M. de Villèle," in Annales des sciences politiques (vol. v., 1890).

VILLEMAIN, ABEL FRANÇOIS (1790-1867), French politician and man of letters, was born in Paris on the 9th of June 1790. He was educated at the lycée Louis-le-Grand, and became assistant master at the lycée Charlemagne, and subsequently at the École Normale. In 1812 he gained a prize from the Academy with an éloge on Montaigne. Under the restoration he was appointed, first, assistant professor of modern history, and then professor of French eloquence at the Sorbonne. Here he delivered a series of literary lectures which had an extraordinary effect on his younger contemporaries. Villemain had the great advantage of coming just before the Romantic movement, of having a wide and catholic love of literature without being an extremist. All, or almost all, the clever young men of the brilliant generation of 1830 passed under his influence; and, while he pleased the Romantics by his frank appreciation of the beauties of English, German, Italian and Spanish poetry, he had not the least inclination to decry the classics—either the classics proper of Greece and Rome or the so-called classics of France. In 1819 he published a book on Cromwell, and two years later he was elected to the Académie. Villemain was appointed by the restoration government "chef de l'imprimerie et de la librairie," a post involving a kind of irregular censorship of the press, and afterwards to the office of master of requests. Before the revolution of July he had been deprived of his office for his liberal tendencies, and had been elected deputy for Évreux. Under Louis Philippe he received a peerage in 1832. He was a member of the council of public instruction, and was twice minister of that department, and he also became secretary for the learned academy. During the whole of the July monarchy he was thus one of the chief dispensers of literary patronage in France, but in his later years his reputation declined. He died in Paris on the 8th of May 1867.

Villemain's chief work is his Cours de la littérature française (5 vols., 1828-39). Among his other works are: Tableau de la littérature du moyen âge (2 vols., 1845); Tableau de la littérature au XVIIIe siècle (4 vols., 1845); Souvenirs contemporains (2 vols., 1856); Histoire de Grégoire VII. (2 vols., 1873; Eng. trans., 1874). Among notices on Villemain may be cited that of Louis de Loménie (1841), E. Mirecourt (1858), J. L. Dubut (1875). See also Sainte-Beuve, Notes et pensées (1876).
VILENA—VILLENAGE

19th century in Larra's Macias and in Hartzenbusch's play La Redoma encantada. (J. F. K.)

VILENA, a town of eastern Spain, in the province of Alicante; on the right bank of the river Vinalapo, and at the junction of railways from Valencia, Alicante, Alhacete and Yecla. Pop. (1900) 14,090. Vilena is a labyrinth of winding alleys, which contain some interesting examples of Moorish domestic architecture. It is dominated by a large and picturesque Moorish castle. The surrounding hills are covered with vines, and to the east there is an extensive salt lagoon. Silk, linen, flour, wines, oranges, and tobacco are among the chief crops of the district.

VILLENAGE (Villainage, Villenage, Villegenage), a medieval term (from villa, villanus), pointing to serfdom, a condition of men intermediate between freedom and slavery. It occurs in France as well as in England, and was certainly imported into English speech through the medium of Norman French. The earliest instances of its use are to be found in the Latin and French versions of English documents in the 11th and 12th centuries (cf. Domesday Book; Liebermann, Glossary to the Gesetze der Angelsachsen, s.v. villanus, vilain). The history of the word and of the condition is especially instructive in England.

The materials for the formation of the villein class were already in existence in the Anglo-Saxon period. On the one hand, the Saxon ceorls (twyndynden), although considered as including the typical freemen in the earlier laws (Ethelberht, Hlothhere and Edric, Ine), gradually became differentiated through the action of political and economic causes, and many of them had to recognize the patronage of magnates or to seek livelihood as tenants on the estates of the latter. These ceorls, sitting on gallo-lend, were, though personally free, considered as a lower order of men, and lapsed gradually into more or less oppressive subjection in respect of the great landowners. It is characteristic in this connexion that the West Saxon laws do not make any distinction between ceorls and laets or half-freemen as the Kentish laws had done; this means that the half-free people were, if not Welshmen, reckoned as members of the ceorl class. Another remarkable indication of the decay of the ceorl's estate is afforded by the fact that in the treaties with the Danes the twyndynden are equated with the Danish leydings or freemen. It does not mean, of course, that their condition was practically the same, but it does mean that the tenure which had come to separate the two principal subdivisions of the free class—the ceorl and the thane. The Latin version of the Rectitudines Singularum Personarum, a document compiled probably in the 11th century, not long before the Conquest, renders genet (a peasant tenant of a superior kind performing lighter services than the gebur, as he was burdened with heavy week-work) by villanus; but the gebur came to be also considered as a villanus according to Anglo-Norman terminology. The group designated as geburs in Anglo-Saxon charters, though distinguished from mere slaves (thene baerde-baerdebaerde, Kemble, Cod. Dipl. 1079), undoubtedly included many freemen who in point of services and economic subjection were not very much above the slaves. Both ceorls and geburs disappear as separate classes, and it is clear that the greater part of them must have passed into the rank of villeins.

In the terminology of the Domesday Inquest we find the villeins as the most numerous element of the English population. Out of about 240,000 households enumerated in Domesday 100,000 are marked as belonging to villeins. They are rustics performing, as a rule, work services for their lords. But not all the inhabitants of the villages were designated by that name. Villeins are opposed to socmen and freemen on one hand, to bordarii, cottagers and slaves on the other. The distinction in regard to the first two of these groups was evidently derived from their greater freedom, although the difference is only one in degree and not in kind. In fact, the villein is assumed to be a person free by birth, but holding land of which he cannot dispose freely. The distinction as against bordarii and cottagers is based on the size of the holding; the villeins are holders of regular shares in the village—that is, of the virgates, bovates or half-hides which constitute the principal subdivisions in the fields and contribute to form the plough-teams; whereas the bordarii hold smaller plots of some 5 acres, more or less, and cotarii are connected with mere cottages and crofts. Thus the terminology of Domesday takes note of two kinds of differences in the status of rustics: a legal one in connection with the right to dispose of property in land, and an economic one reflecting the opposition between the holders of shares in the fields and the holders of auxiliary tenements. The feature of personal servitude is also noticeable, but it provides a more extensive foundation for the division of the tenants, for only about 25,000 are enumerated in Domesday Book.

The contrast between this exceptionally situated class and the rest of the population shows that personal slavery was rapidly disappearing in England about the time of the Conquest. It is also to be noticed that the Domesday Survey constantly mentions the terra villanorum as opposed to the demesne in the estates or manors of the time, and that the land of the rustics is taxed separately for the geld, so that the distinction between the property of the lord and that of the peasant dependent on him is clearly marked and of practical importance.

The Domesday Survey points to the vital importance of England as it was at the very beginning of the Norman and at the close of the Saxon period. The development of feudal society, of centralizing kingship and ultimately of a system of common law, brought about great changes which all hinge on the fundamental fact that the kings, while increasing the power of the state in other respects, surrendered it completely as regards the relations between the peasants and their lords. The protection of the assizes was tendered in civil matters to free tenants and refused to villeins. The royal courts refused to entertain suits of villeins against their lords, although there was a good deal of vacillation before this position was definitely taken up. Bracton still speaks in his treatise of the possibility for the courts to interfere against intolerable cruelty on the part of the lord involving the destruction of the villein's waynage, that is, of his ploughteam, and in the Notebook of Bracton there are a couple of cases which prove that 13th-century judges occasionally allowed themselves to entertain actions by persons holding in villeinage against their lords. Gradually, however, the exception of villeinage became firmly settled. As the historical and practical position was developing on these lines, the lawyers who fashioned English common law in the 12th and 13th centuries did not hesitate to apply to it the teaching of Roman law on slavery. Bracton fits his definition of villeinage into the Romanscean scheme of Azo's Summa of the Institutes, and the judges of the royal courts made sweeping inferences from this general position. To begin with, the relation between the villein and his lord was regarded as a personal and not a praelial one. Everyone born of villein stock belonged to his master and was bound to undertake any service which might be imposed on him by the master's or the steward's command. The distinction between villeins in gross and villeins regarded as of which much is made by modern writers, was suggested by modes of pleading and does not make its appearance in the Year-Books before the 15th century. Secondly, all independent proprietary rights were denied to the villein as against his lord, and the legal rule "quia quicquid servio acquiritur domino acquiritur" was extended to villeins. The fact that a great number of these serfs had been enjoying protection as free ceorls in former ages made itself felt, however, in three directions: (1) In criminal matters the villein was treated by the King's Court irrespective of any consideration as to his debased condition. More especially the police association, organized for the keeping of the peace and the presentation of criminals—the frankpledge groups were formed of all "worthy of were and wise," villeins as well as freemen. (2) Politically the villeins were not eliminated from the body of citizens: they had to pay taxes, to serve in great emergencies in the militia, to serve on inquests, &c., and although there was a tendency to place them on a lower footing in all these respects yet the fact of their being lesser members of the commonwealth did not remove the fundamental
qualification of citizenship. (3) Even in civil matters villeins were deemed free as regards third persons. They could sue and be sued in their own name, and although they were able to call in their lords as defendants when proceeded against, there was nothing in law to prevent them from appearing in their own right. The state even afforded them protection against extreme cruelty on the part of their masters in respect of life and limb, but in laying down this rule English lawyers were able to follow the precedents set by late Roman jurisprudence, especially by measures of Hadrian, Antonine and Constantine the Great.

There was one exception to this harsh treatment of villeins, namely, the rustic tenantry in manors of ancient demesne, that is, in estates which had belonged to the crown before the Conquest, had a standing-ground even against their lords as regards the tenure of their plots and the fixity of their services. Technically this right was limited to the inhabitants of manors entered in the Domesday Survey as terra regis of Edward the Confessor. On the other hand the doctrine became effective if the manors in question had been granted by later kings to subjects, because if they remained in the hand of the king the only remedy against ejectment and execation lay in petitioning for redress without any definite right to the latter. If, however, the two conditions mentioned were forthcoming, villeins, or, as they were technically called, villein somen of ancient demesne manors, could resist any attempt of their lords to encroach on their rights by depriving them of their holdings or increasing the amount of their customary services. Their remedy was to apply for a little writ of right in the first case and for a writ of monstrotrum in the second. These writs enabled them to appear as plaintiffs against the lord in his own manorial court and, eventually, to have the question at issue examined by way of appeal, on a writ of error, or by reservation on some legal points in the upper courts of the king. A number of cases arising from these privileges of the men of ancient demesne are published in the Notebook of Bracton and in the Abbreviatio plactiorum. This exceptional procedure does not simply go back to the rule that persons who had been tenants of the king ought not to have their condition altered for the worse in consequence of a royal grant. If this were the only doctrine applicable in the case there would be no reason why similar protection should be denied to all those who held under grantees of manors escheated after the Conquest. A material point for the application of the privilege consists in the fact that ancient demesne has to be proved from the time before the Conquest, and this shows clearly that the theory was partly derived from the recognition of tenant right in villeins of the Anglo-Saxon period who, as we have said above, were mostly freemen, that is, freeborn men.

In view of the great difference in the legal position of the free man and of the villein in feudal common law, it became very important to define the exact nature of the conditions on which the status of a villein depended. The legal theory as to these conditions was somewhat complex, because it had to take account of certain practical considerations and of a rather abrupt transition from a previous state of things based on different premises. Of course, persons born from villein parents in lawful wedlock were villeins, but as to the condition of illegitimate children there was a good deal of hesitation. There was a tendency to apply the rule that a bastard follows the mother, especially in the case of villeile women. In the case of mixed marriages, the condition of the child is determined by the free or villein condition of the tenement in which it was born. This notion of the influence of the tenement is well adapted to feudal notions and makes itself felt again in the case of the pursuit of a fugitive villein. He can be seized without further formalities if he is caught in his "nest," that is, in his native place. If not, the lord can follow him in fresh pursuit for four days; once these days past, the fugitive is provisionally in possession of his liberty, and the lord has to bring an action de nativo habendo and has to assume the burden of proof.

So much as to the proof of villeinage by birth or previous condition. But there were numbers of cases when the discussion as to servile status turned not on these formal points but on an examination of the services performed by the person claimed as a villein or challenged as holding in villeinage. In both cases the courts had often recourse to proof derived not from direct testimony but from indirect indications as to the kind of services that had been performed by the supposed villein. Certain services, especially the payment of merchandise, were considered to be the badge of serfdom. Another service, the performance of which established a presumption as to villeinage, was compulsory service as a reeve. The courts also tried to draw a distinction from the amount and regularity of agricultural services to which a tenant was subjected. Bracton speaks of the contrast between the irregular services of a serf, "who could not know in the evening what he would have to do in the morning," and services agreed upon and definite in their amount. The customary arrangements of the work of villeins, however, render this contrast rather fictitious. The obligations of downright villeins became to that degree settled and regular that one of the ordinary designations of the class was castamarii. Therefore in most cases there were no arbitrary exactions to go by, except perhaps one or the other tallage imposed at the will of the lord. The original distinction seems to have been made not between arbitrary and agreed but between occasional services and regular agricultural work-week. While the occasional services, even when agricultural, in no way established a presumption of villeinage, and many serfs, freemen and holders by serjeancy submitted to them, agricultural work-week was primarily considered as a trait of villeinage and must have played an important part in the process of classification of early Norman society. The villein was in this sense emphatically the man holding "by the fork and the flail."

This point brings us to consider the matter-of-facts condition of the villeins during the feudal period, especially in the 12th, 13th and 14th centuries. As is shown by the Hundred Rolls, the Domesday of St Paul, the Surveys of St Peter, Gloucester Abbey, Ramsey Abbey and countless other records of the same kind, the customary conditions of villeinage did not tally by any means with the identification between villeinage and slavery suggested by the jurists. It is true that in nomenclature the word "servi" is not infrequently used (e.g. in the Hundred Rolls) where villani might have been mentioned, and the feminine nief (neltie) appears as the regular parallel of villanus, but in the descriptions of usages and services we find that the power of the lord loses its discretionary character and is in every respect moderated by custom. As personal dependents of the lord native villeins were liable to be sold, and were, actual sales recorded: Glastonbury Abbey says: sell a certain Philipp Hardynge for 20 shillings. But such transfers of human chattels occur seldom, and there is nothing during the English feudal period corresponding to the brisk trade in men characteristic of the ancient world. Merchel was regarded, as has been stated already, as a badge of serfdom in so far as it was said to imply a "buying of one's own blood" (serus de sanguine suo emando). The explanation is even more characteristic than the custom itself, because fines on marriage may be levied and were actually levied from people of different condition, from the king of the Saxons up to the serf who married a serf. Still the tendency to treat mercel as a distinctive feature of serfdom has to be noted, and we find that the custom spread for this very reason in consequence of the encroachments of powerful lords: in the Hundred Rolls it is applied indiscriminately to the whole rustic population of certain hundreds in a way which can hardly be explained unless by artificial extension. Iteriol, the surrender of the best horse or ox, is also considered as the common incident of villein tenure, although, of course, its very name proves its intimate connexion with the outfit of soldiers (here-goats).

Economically the institution of villeinage was bound up
VILLENAGE

with the manorial organization—that is, with the fact that the country was divided into a number of districts in which central
home farms were cultivated by the help of work supplied by
vilin households.

The most important of vilin services is the week-work per-
formed by the peasantry. Every virger or holder of a bovate
does to send a labourer to do work on the lord's farm for some days
in the week. Three days is indeed the most common standard
for service of this kind, though four or even five occur some-
times, as well as two. It must be borne in mind in the case of heavy
charge, that as four or five days' work would, only one
labourer from the whole holding is meant, while generally there
were many men living on every holding—otherwise the service
of five days would be impossible to perform. In the course of
these three days, or whatever the number was, many require-
ments of the demesne had to be met. The principal of these
was ploughing the fields belonging to the lord, and for such
ploughing the peasant had not only to appear personally as a
labourer, but to bring his oxen and plough, or rather to join with
his oxen and plough in the work imposed on the village: the
beast, costly, expensive with meat and drink, was given to
every day by several peasants contributing their beasts and implements
for the work. In the way the villages had to go through the work of harrowing with their harrows, and of
removing the harvest in their vats and carts. Carriage duties
in carts and on horseback were also apportioned according to the
time they took as a part of the week-work. Then came
innumerable varieties of manual work for the erection and
keeping up of hedges, the preservation of dykes, canals and
ditches, the threshing and garnering of corn, the tending and shearing of sheep and so forth. All this hand-work was reckoned
according to customary standards as day-work and week-work.
But besides all these services into which the regular week-work
of the peasantry was differentiated, stood some additional duties.
The ploughing for the lord, for instance, was not only imposed
in the shape of a certain number of days in the week, but took
sometimes the shape of a certain number of acres which the
village had to plough and to sow for the lord irrespectively of the
time employed on it. This was sometimes termed
gefolerk. Exceedingly burdensome services were required in the
seasons when farming processes are, as it were, at their height,—in the season of mowing and reaping, when every day is
of special value and the working power of the farm hands is
strained to the utmost. At that time it was the custom to call
up the whole able-bodied population of the manor, with the
exception of the housewives for two, three or more days of
mowing and reaping on the lord's fields; to these boon-works
the peasantry was asked or invited by special summons, and
their value was so far appreciated that the villagers were
usually treated to meals in cases where they were again and
again called off from their own fields to the demesne. The
liberality of the lord actually went so far, in exceptionally hard
straits, that some ale was served to the labourers to keep them in
good humour.

In the 14th century this social arrangement, based primarily
on natural economy and on the feudal disruption of society, began
to give way. The gradual spread of intercourse rendered un-
necessary the natural husbandry of former times which sought
to produce a complete set of goods in every separate locality.
Instead of acting as a little world by itself for the raising of corn,
the breeding of cattle, the gathering of wool, the weaving of
linen and common cloths, the fabrication of necessary imple-
ments of all kinds, the local group began to buy some of these
goods and to sell some others, renouncing isolation and making
its destiny dependent on commercial intercourse. Instead of
requiring from its population all kinds of work and reducing
its ordinary occupations to a hard-and-fast routine meeting
in a slow and unskilled manner all possible contingencies, the
local group began to move, to call in workmen from abroad for
tasks of a special nature, and to send its own workmen to
look out for profitable employment in other places. Instead of
managing the land by the constant repetition of the same
processes, by a customary immobility of tenure and service, by
communalistic restrictions on private enterprise and will, local
society began to try improvements, to escape from the bounds of
champion farming. Instead of producing and collecting
services, goods for immediate consumption, local society came more and
more into the habit of exchanging corn, cattle, cloth, for money,
and of laying money by as a means of getting all sorts of
exchangeable goods, when required. In a word, the time of
commercial, contractual, cash intercourse was coming fast. What
was exceptional and local at times came to obtain
general recognition in the course of the 14th and 15th centuries.
and, for this very reason, assumed a very different aspect.
A similar transformation took place in regard to government.
The local monarchy of the manorial lords was fast giving way to a
central power which maintained its laws, the circuits of its
judges, the fiscal claims of its exchequer, the police interference
of its civil officers all through the country, and, by prevailing
over the franchises of manorial lords, gave shape to a vast
domain of legal equality and legal protection, in which the
forces of commercial exchange, of contract, of social intercourse,
and, to some extent, and welcome sphere of acts and
transactions. In the course of these processes, the economic and the political one, worked so much
together that it is hardly possible to say which influenced
the other more, which was the cause and which the effect.
Government grew strong because it could draw on a society
which was going ahead in enterprise and well-being; social
intercourse progressed because it could depend on a strong
government to safeguard it.

If we now turn to the actual stages by which this momentous
passage from the manorial to the commercial arrangement was
achieved, we have to notice first of all a rapid development of
contractual relations. We know that in feudal law there ran a
standing contrast between tenure by custom—vilin tenure—and
tenure by contract—free tenure. While the manorial system was
in full force this contrast led to a classification of holdings and
affected the whole position of people on the land. Still, even at
that time it might happen that a freeholder owned some land
in vilinage by the side of his free tenement, and that a vilin
held some land freely by agreement with his lord or with a
third person. But these cases, though by no means infrequent,
were still exceptional. As a rule people used land as holdings,
and these were rigorously classified as of or free tenure. In this
interest point to be noticed is that, without any formal break,
leasing land for life and for term of years is seen to be rapidly
spreading from the end of the 13th century, and numberless small
tenancies are created in the 14th century which break up the
disposition of the holdings. From the close of the 13th century
downwards countless transactions on the basis of leases for terms
of years occur between the peasants themselves, any suit-
able set of 14th-century court rolls contains entries in
which such and such a vilin is said to appear in the haltitie
and to surrender for the use of another person named a piece of
land belonging to the holding. The number of years and the
conditions of payment are specified. Thus, behind the screen
of the normal shares a number of small tenancies arise which run
their economic concerns independently from the cumbersome
arrangements of tenure and service, and, needless to add, all these
tenancies are burdened with money rents.

Another series of momentous changes took place in the
arrangement of services. Even the manorial system admitted
the buying off for money of particular dues in kind and of
specific performance of work. A vilin might be allowed
to bring a penny instead of bringing a chicken or to pay a rent
instead of appearing with his oxen three times a week on the
lord's fields. Such rents were called mal or mail in contrast with the
gof, ancient rents which had been imposed inde-
pendently, apart from any buying off of customary services.
There were even whole bodies of peasants called Molmen, because
they had bought off work from the lord by settling with him
on the basis of money rents. As time went on these practices of
commutation became more and more frequent. There were,
for both sides, many advantages in arranging their mutual
relations on this basis. The lord, instead of clumsy work, got clear money, a much-coveted means of satisfying needs and wishes of any kind—instead of clumsy performances which did not come always at the proper moment, were carried out in a half-hearted manner, yielded no immediate results, and did not admit of convenient rearrangement. The peasant got rid of a hateful drudgery which not only took up his time and means in an unprofitable manner, but placed him under the rough control and the arbitrary discipline of stewards or reeves and gave occasion to all sorts of fines and extortions.

With the growth of intercourse and security money became more frequent and the number of such transactions increased in proportion. But it must be kept in mind that the conversion of services into rents went on very gradually, as a series of private agreements, and that it would be very wrong to suppose, as some scholars have done, that it had led to a general commutation by the middle or even the end of the 14th century. The 14th century was marked by frequent fluctuations in the demand and supply of labour, and particularly the tremendous loss in population occasioned in the middle of this century by the Black Death called forth a most serious crisis. No wonder that many lords clung very tenaciously to customary services, and ecclesiastical institutions seem to have been especially backward in going over to the system of money rents. There is evidence to show, for instance, that the manors of the abbey of Ramsey were managed on the system of enforced labour right down to the middle of the 14th century, and, of course, survivals of these customs in the shape of scattered services lived on much longer. A second drawback from the point of view of the landlords was called forth by the fact that commutation for fixed rents gradually lessened the value of the exactions to which they were entitled. Money not only became less scarce but it became cheaper, so that the couple of pence for which a day of manual work was bought off in the beginning of the 13th century did not fetch more than half of their former value at its end. As quit rents were customary and not rack rents, the successors of those who had redeemed their services were gaining the whole surplus in the value of goods and labour as against money, while the successors of those who had commuted their right to claim services for certain sums in money lost all the corresponding difference. These inevitable consequences came to be perceived in course of time and occasioned a backward tendency to services in kind which could not prevail against the general movement from natural economy to money dealings, but was strong enough to produce social friction and grave disturbances.

The economic crisis of the 14th century has its complement in the legal crisis of the 15th. At that time the courts of law begin to do away with the denial of protection to villeins which, as we have seen, constituted the legal basis of villenage. This is effected by the recognition of copyhold tenure (see Copyhold).

It is a fact of first-rate magnitude that in the 15th century customary relations on one hand, the power of government on the other, ripened, as it were, to that extent that the judges of the king began to take cognizance of the relations of the peasants to their lords. The first cases which occur in this sense are still treated not as a matter of common law, but as a manifestation of equity. As doubtful questions of trust, of wardship, of testamentary succession, they were taken up not in the strict course of justice, but as matters in which redress was sorely needed and had to be brought by the exceptional power of the court of chancery. But this interference of 15th-century chancellors paved the way towards one of the greatest revolutions in the law; without formally enfranchising villeins and villenage they created a legal basis for it in the law of the realm: in the formula of copyhold—tenementi held at the will of the lord and by the consent of the manor—in the first part lost its significance and the second prevailed, in due right contrast with former times when, on the contrary, the second part had no legal value and the first expressed the view of the courts. One may almost be tempted to say that these obscure decisions rendered unnecessary in England the work achieved with such a flourish of trumpets in France by the emaniciping decree of the 4th of August 1789.

The personal condition of villenage did not, however, disappear at once with the rise of copyhold. It lingered through the 16th century and appears exceptionally even in the 17th. Portions of enfranchisements for personal enfranchisement are often noticed at that very time. But these are only survivals of an arrangement which has been destroyed in its essence by a complete change of economic and political conditions.

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command in November. On the 17th of January 1805 he left Toulon for the first time, but was driven back by a squall which dismantled some of his awkwardly handled ships. On the 3rd of March he was out again, and this time he headed Nelson by some weeks on a cruise to the West Indies. But Villeneuve's success so far had not removed his fears. Though on taking up his command he had issued an order of the day in which he spoke boldly enough of the purpose of his cruise, and his determination to adhere to it, he was racked by fears of what might happen to the force entrusted to his care. For the details of the campaign see Trafalgar. In so far as the personal biography of Villeneuve is concerned, his behaviour during these trying months cannot escape condemnation. He had undertaken to carry out a plan of which he did not approve. Since he had not declined the task altogether, it was clearly his duty to execute his orders at all hazards. If he was defeated, as he almost certainly would have been, he could have left the responsibility for the disaster to rest on the shoulders of Napoleon who assigned him the task. But Villeneuve could not free himself from the conviction that it was his business to save his fleet even if he had to fight his way through to the safety of British lines. When he returned to Europe and fought his confused action with Sir R. Calder off Ferrol on the 22nd of July 1805, he first hesitated, and then, in spic of vehement orders to come on, turned south to Cadiz. Napoleon's habit of suggesting alternative courses to his lieutenants gave him a vague appearance of excuse for making for that port. But it was one which only a very weak man would have availed himself of, for all his instructions ought to have been read subject to the standing injunction to come on to the Channel—and in turning south to Cadiz, he was going in the opposite direction. His decision to leave Cadiz and give battle in October 1805, which led directly to the battle of Trafalgar, cannot be justified even on his own principles. He foresaw defeat to be inevitable, and yet he went out solely because he learnt from the Minister of Marine that another officer had been sent to supersede him. In fact he ran to meet the very destruction he had tried to avoid. No worse fate would have befallen him in the Channel than came upon him at Trafalgar, but it might have been incurred in a manly attempt to obey his orders. It was provoked in a spasm of wounded vanity. At Trafalgar he showed personal courage, but the helpless incapacity of the allies to manœuvre gave him no opportunity to influence the course of the battle. He was taken as a prisoner to England, but was soon released. Shortly after landing in France he committed suicide in an inn at Rennes, on the 22nd of April 1806. Among the other improbable crimes attributed to Napoleon by the fear and hatred of Europe, was the murder of Villeneuve, but there is not the faintest reason to doubt that the admiral died by his own hand.

The correspondence of Napoleon contains many references to Villeneuve. Accounts of the naval operations in which he was concerned will be found in James's Naval History. Trouble, in his Batailles navales de la France, vol. iii., publishes several of his letters and orders of the day.

VILLENUEVE-LÈS-AVIGNON—VILLEROI

VILLENUEVE-LÈS-AVIGNON, a town of south-eastern France, in the department of Gard on the right bank of the Rhone opposite Avignon, with which it is connected by a suspension bridge. Pop. (1906) 23,522. Villeneuve preserves many remains of its medieval importance. The church of Notre Dame, dating from the 14th century, contains a rich marble altar and remarkable pictures. The hospice, once a Franciscan convent, part of which now forms the museum of pictures and antiquities, has a chapel in which is the fine tomb of Innocent VI. (d. 1632). The church and other remains of the Carthusian monastery of Val-de-Bénédicton, founded in 1356 by Innocent VI., are now used for habitation and other secular purposes. A gateway and a rotunda, built as shelter for a fountain, both dating from about 1670, are of architectural note. On the Mont Andao, a hill to the north-east of the town, stands the Fort of St André (14th century), which is entered by an imposing fortified gateway and contains a Romanesque chapel and remains of the abbey of St André. The other buildings of interest include several old mansions once belonging to cardinals and nobles, and a tower, the Tour de Philippe le Bel, built in the 14th century, which guarded the western extremity of the Pont St Bénézet (see AVIGNON).

In the 6th century the Benedictine abbey of St André was founded on Mount Andao, and the village which grew up round it took its name. In the 13th century the monks, acting in concert with the crown, established a bastide, or "new town," which came to be called Villeneuve. The town was the resort of French cardinals during the sojourn of the popes at Avignon. Though largely to its numerous religious establishments, it did not decline till the Revolution.

VILLENUEVE-SUR-LOT, a town of south-western France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Lot-et-Garonne, 22 m. N. by E. of Agen on a branch line of the Orleans railway. Pop. (1906) town, 6,978; commune, 13,540. Villeneuve is divided into two unequal portions by the river Lot, which here runs between high banks. The chief quarter stands on the right bank and is united to the quarter on the left bank by a bridge of the 13th century, the principal arch of which, commonly called the Pont du Diable, in English is the Devil's bridge. It has a span of 18 ft. and a height of 59 ft. On the left bank portions of the 13th century ramparts, altered and surmounted by machicolations in the 15th century, remain, and high square towers rise above the gates to the north-east and south-west, known respectively as the Porte de Paris and Porte de Pujois. On the right bank boulevards have for the most part taken the place of the ramparts. Arcades of the 13th century surround the Place La Fayette, and old houses of the 13th, 14th and 15th centuries are to be seen in various parts of the town. The church of St Etienne is in late Gothic style. In the left bank of the Lot, 2 m. S.S.W. of Villeneuve, are the 13th-century walls of Pujois. The buildings of the ancient abbey of Eysse, about a mile to the N.E., which are mainly of the 17th century, serve as a departmental prison and penitentiary settlement. The principal hospital, the hospice St Cyr, is a handsome building standing in beautiful gardens. Villeneuve has a sub-prefecture, tribunals of first instance and of commerce and communal colleges for both sexes. It is an important agricultural centre and has a very large trade in plums (prunes d'entres) and in the produce of the market gardens which surround it, as well as in cattle, horses and wine. The preparation of preserved plums and the tinning of peas and beans occupy many hands; there are also manufactures of boots and shoes and tin boxes. The important mill of Gajac stands on the bank of the Lot a little above the town.

Villeneuve was founded in 1254 by Alphonse, count of Poitiers, brother of Louis IX., on the site of the town of Gajac, which had been deserted during the Albigensian crusade.

VILEROI, FRANCOIS DE NEUVILLE, DUC DE (1644–1730), French soldier, came of a noble family which had risen into prominence in the reign of Charles IX. His father Nicolas de Neuville, Marquis de Villeroi, marshal of France (1598–1685), created a duke by Louis XIV., was the young king's governor, and the boy was thus brought up in close relations with Louis. An intimate of the king, a finished courtier and leader of society and a man of great personal gallantry, Villeroi was marked out for advancement in the army, which he loved, but which had always a juster appreciation of his incapacity than Louis. In 1693, without having exercised any really important and responsible command, he was made a marshal. In 1695, when Louis XIV. died, he obtained the command of the army in Flanders, and William III. found him a far more compliant opponent than the "little hunchback." In 1701 he was sent to Italy to supersede Catinat and was soon beaten by the inferior army of Eugene at Chiari (see Spanish Succession War). In the winter of 1701 he was made prisoner at the surprise of Cremona, and the wits of the army made at his expense the famous rhyme:

"Par la faveur de Bellone, et par un bonheur sans égal,
Nous avons conservé Crémone — et perdu notre général."

In the following years he was pitted against Marlborough in
the Low Countries. Marlborough's own difficulties with the Dutch and other allied commissioners, rather than Villeroi's own skill, put off the inevitable disaster for some years, but in 1766 the duke attacked him and thoroughly defeated him at Ramillies (q.v.). Louis consolde his old friend with the remark, "At our age, one is no longer lucky," but superseded him in the command, and henceforward Villeroi lived the life of a courtier, much busied with intrigues but retaining to the end the friendship of his master. He died on the 18th of July, 1774, at Charleroi.

**VILLERS LA VILLE.** A town of Belgium in the province of Brabant, 2 m. E. of Quatre Bras, with a station on the direct line from Louvain to Charleroi. Pop. (1904) 1166. It is chiefly interesting on account of the fine ruins of the Cistercian abbey of Villers founded in 1147 and destroyed by the French republicans in 1795. In the ruined church attached to the abbey are still to be seen the tombstones of several dukes of Brabant of the 13th and 14th centuries.

**VILLETTE, CHARLES, MARQUIS DE** (1736-1793). French writer and politician, was born in Paris on the 4th of December 1736, the son of a financier who left his son a large fortune and the title of marquis. After taking part in the Seven Years' War, young Villette returned in 1763 to Paris, where he made many enemies by his insufferable manners. But he succeeded in gaining the intimacy of Voltaire, who had known his mother and who wished to make a poet of him. The old philosopher even went so far as to call his prodigy the French Tibullus. In 1777, on Voltaire's advice, Villette married Madeamoiselle de Varicourt, but the marriage was unhappy, and his wife was subsequently adopted by Voltaire's niece, Madame Denis. During the Revolution Villette publicly burned his letters of nobility, wrote revolutionary articles in the *Chronique de Paris*, and was elected deputy to the Convention by the department of Seine-et-Oise. He had the courage to censure the September massacres and to vote for the imprisonment only, and not for the death, of Louis XVI. He died in Paris on the 7th of July 1793.

In 1784 he published his *Oeuvres*, which are of little value, and in 1792 his articles in the *Chronique de Paris* appeared in book form under the title *Lettres choisies sur les principaux événements de la Révolution*.

**VILLIERS, CHARLES PELHAM** (1802-1898), English statesman, son of George Villiers, grandson of the 1st earl of Clarendon of the second (Villiers) creation, and brother of the 4th earl (q.v.), was born in London on the 3rd of January 1802, and educated at St John's College, Cambridge. He read for the bar at Lincoln's Inn, and became an associate of the Benthamites and "philosophical radicals" of the day. He was an assistant commissioner to the Poor Law Commission (1834), and in 1835 was made by the master of the Rolls, whose secretary he had been, a chancery examiner of witnesses, holding this office till 1832. In 1835 he was elected M.P. for Wolverhampton, and retained his seat till his death. He was the pioneer of the free-trade movement, and became prominent with Cobden and Bright as one of its chief supporters, being indefatigable in pressing the need for free trade on the House of Commons, by resolution and by petition. After free trade triumphed in 1846 his importance in politics became rather historical than actual, especially as he advanced to a venerable old age; but he was president of the Poor Law Board, with a seat in the Cabinet, from 1859 to 1866, and he did other useful work in the Liberal reforms of the time. Like Bright, he parted from Mr Gladstone on Home Rule for Ireland. He attended parliament for the last time in 1895, and died on the 16th of January 1898.

**VILLIERS DE L'ISLE-ADAM, PHILIPPE AUGUSTE MATHIAS, COMTE DE** (1838-1889), French poet, was born at St Brieuc in Brittany and baptized on the 28th of November 1838. He may be said to have inaugurated the Symbolist movement in French literature, and *Astarte*, the play on which he was engaged during so much of his life, though it was only published after his death, is the typical Symbolist drama. He began with a volume of *Premières Poésies* (1856-58). This was followed by a wild romance of the supernatural, *Iris* (1862), and by two plays in prose, *Eléna* (1866) and *Morgane* (1866).

*La Rêvolte*, a play in which Ibsen's "Doll's House" seems to be anticipated, was represented at the Vaudeville in 1870; *Contes cruels*, his finest volume of short stories, in 1883, and a new series in 1880; *Le Nouveau Monde*, a drama in five acts, in 1880; *L'Éve future*, an amazing piece of buffoonery satirizing the pretensions of science, in 1886; *Tribunal Bouhombet* in 1887; *Le Secret de l'échauffaud* in 1888; *Astar* in 1890. He died in Paris, on the 25th of March 1895, while on a visit to St-Jean-de-Dieu, on the 19th of August 1890. Villiers has left behind him a legacy, perhaps not more fantastic than the truth. Sharing many of the opinions of Don Quixote, he shared also Don Quixote's life. He was the descendant of a Grand Master of the Knights of Malta, famous in history, and his pride as an aristocrat and as an idealist were equal. He hated mediocrity, science, progress, the present age, money and "serious" people. In one division of his work he attacked all the things which he hated with a savage irony; in another division of his work he discovered at least some glimpses of the ideal world. He remained a carpenter and a trade unionist, though he was a man of refinement.

He improvised out of an abundant genius, but the greater part of his work was no more than improvisation. He was accustomed to talk his stories before he wrote them. Sometimes he talked them instead of writing them. But he has left, at all events, the *Contes cruels*, in which may be found every classic quality of the French conte, together with many of the qualities of Edgar Allan Poe and Ernst Hoffmann; and the drama of *Astar*, in which the stage takes a new splendour and a new subtility of meaning.

Villiers's influence on the younger French writers was considerable. It was always an exaltation. No one in his time followed a literary ideal more romantically. (A. SY.)

See also R. du Pontavice de Hessey, Villiers de l'Isle-Adam (1893), a biography, English trans. (1904) by Lady Mary Loyd; S. Vanvick, *Les Mécènes de la France, 1720-1760*, 3 vols. (1904), and *O Score of Mademoiselle*, Un vivant et deux morts (1901), bibliography. A selection from his stories, *Histoires sourvainee*, was made by his friends (Brussels, 1899).

**VILLENGEN.** A town of Germany in the grand duchy of Baden, pleasantly situated amid well-wooded hills, 52 m. by rail N. of Schaffhausen. Pop. (1905) 9582. It is in part still surrounded by walls, with ancient gate towers. It is the chief seat of the watch-making industry of the Black Forest. It also produces musical-boxes, glass and silk, and has a Gothic church of the 13th century and another of the 11th, a 13th-century town hall, with a museum of antiquities, and music, technical and agricultural schools.

**VILLOISON, JEAN BAPTISTE GASPARD D'ANSSE (or D'ANSSE) DE** (1750-1853), French classical scholar, was born at Corbeil-sur-Seine on the 5th of March 1750 (or 1753; authorities differ). He belonged to a noble family (De Ansse) of Spanish origin, and took his surname from a village in the neighbourhood. In 1773 he published the Homeric Lexicon of Apollonius from a MS. in the abbey of Saint Germain des Prés. In 1778 appeared his edition of Longus's *Daphnis and Chloe*. In 1781 he went to Venice, where he spent three years in examining the library, his expenses being paid by the French government. His chief discovery was a 10th-century MS. of the *Iliad*, with ancient scholia and marginal notes, indicating suppositional, corrupt or transposed verses. After leaving Venice, he accepted the invitation of the duke of Saxe-Weimar to his court. Some of the fruits of his researches in the library of the palace were collected into a volume *Epitolaes Vinariensiues, 1783*, dedicated to his royal hosts. Hoping to find a treasure similar to the Venetian Homer in Greece, he returned to Paris to prepare for a journey to the East. He visited Constantinople, Smyrna, the Greek islands, and Mount Athos, but the results did not come up to his expectation. In 1786 he returned, and in 1788 brought out the Codex Venetus of Homer, which created a sensation in the learned world. When the revolution broke out, being banished from Paris, he lived in retirement at Orléans, occupying himself chiefly with the transcription of the notes
in the library of the brothers Valois (Valesius). On the restora-
tion of order, having returned to haveing, he accepted the pro-
fessorship of modern Greek acknowledged by the government,
and held it until it was transferred to the Collège de France
as the professorship of ancient and modern Greek languages.
He died soon after his appointment, on the 25th of April 1865.

Another work of some importance, Anecdola Graeca (1781),
from the Paris and Venice libraries, contains the (Tonia (violet
the garden) of the empress Eudocia, and several fragments of
Ambilichus, Porphyry, Procopius of Gaza, Choricius and the
Greek grammarians. Materials for an exhaustive work con-
templated by him on ancient and modern Greece are preserved
in the royal library of Paris.

See J. Ducier, Notice historique sur la vie et les ouvrages de
Villot (1500); Chardon de la Rochette, Milanges de critique et
de philologie, iii. (1872); and especially the article by his friend
and pupil E. Quatremère in Nouvelle biographie générale, xii., based
upon private information.

VILLON, FRANÇOIS (1431–c. 1463), French poet (whose real
surname is a matter of much dispute, so that he is also called
De Montcorbier and Des Loges and by other names, though
in literature Villon is the sole term used), was born in 1431, and,
as it seems, certainly at Paris. The singular poems called
25th of January in the Hie of Saint-Jacques, nothing
Taverniers, composed the usual, or not his only certain work,
are largely autobiographical, though of course not fully trust-
worthy. But his frequent collisions with the law have left
more certain records, which have of late been ransacked with
extraordinary care by students, especially by M. Longnon.
It appears that he was born of poor folk, that his father died
in his youth, but that his mother, for whom he wrote one of
his most famous ballades, was alive when her son was thirty
years old. The very name Villon was stated, and that by no
mean authority, the president Claude Fauchet, to be merely
an artificer, who had a priestly calling. His life was a rather
"rascal"; but this seems to be a mistake. It is, however,
certain that Villon was a person of loose life, and that he
continued, long after there was any excuse for it in his years,
the reckless way of living common among the wilder youth
of the university of Paris. He appears to have derived his
surname from a friend and benefactor named Guillaume de
Villon, chaplain in the collegiate church of Saint-Benoit-le-
Bestourné, and a professor of canon law, who took Villon into
his house. The poet became a student in arts, no doubt
early, perhaps at about twenty or more years of age, and took the
degree of bachelor in 1450 and that of master of arts in 1452. But this
year and 1453 nothing positive is known of him, except
that nothing was known against him. Attempts have been
made, in the usual fashion of conjectural biography, to fill up
the gap with what a young graduate of Bohemian tendencies
would, could, or might have done; but they are mainly futile.
On the 5th of June 1455 the first important incident of
his life that is known occurred. Being in the company of a
priest named Giles and a girl named Isabeau, he met, in the
rue Saint-Jacques, a certain Breton, Jean le Hardi, a master
of arts, who was with a priest, Philippe Chervoye or Sermaise
or Sermaise. A scuffle ensued; daggers were drawn; and
Sermaise, who is accused of having threatened and attacked
Villon and drawn the first blood, not only received a dagger-
thrust in return, but a blow from a stone which struck him
down. Sermaise died of his wounds. Villon fled, and was
sentenced to banishment—a sentence which was remitted in
January 1456, the formal pardon being extant, strangely
enough, in two different documents, in one of which the culprit
is described as "François des Loges, autrement dit Villon," in
the other as "Jean le Hardi." It is not said to have described himself to the barber-surgeon who
washed his wounds as Michel Mouton is less surprising, and
hardly needs an addition to the list of his aliases. It should,
however, be said that the documents relative to this affair
confirm the date of his birth, by representing him as twenty-
six years old or thereabouts. By the end of 1456 he was again
in trouble. In his first broil "la femme Isabeau" is only
generally named, and it is impossible to say whether she had
anything to do with the quarrel. In the second, Catherine
de Vaucelles, of whom we hear not a little in the poems, is the
declared cause of a scuffle in which Villon was so severely
beaten that, to escape ridicule, he fled to Angers, where he
had an uncle who was a monk. It was before leaving Paris
that he composed what is now known as the Petit testament,
of which we shall speak presently with the rest of his poems,
and which, it should be said, shows little or no such mark of
profound bitterness and regret for wasted life as does its in
every sense greater successor the Grand testament. Indeed,
Villon's serious troubles were only beginning, for neither
had hejsoned his banishment. At Christmas time of
the year the chapel of the college of Navarre was broken open, and
five hundred crowns stolen. The robbery was not dis-
covered till March 1457, and it was not till May that the police
came on the track of a gang of student-robbers owing to the
indiscretion of one of them, Guy Tabarie. A year more passed,
when Tabarie, being arrested, turned king's evidence and
accused Villon, who was then absent, of being the ring-leader,
and of having gone to Angers, partly at least, to arrange for
similar burglaries there. Villon, for this or some other crime,
was sentenced to banishment: and he did not attempt to return
to Paris. In fact for four years he was a wanderer; and he
may have been, as each of his friends Regnier de Montigny
and Colin des Cayeux certainly was, a member of a wandering
thieves' gang. It is certain that at one time (in 1457), and
probable that at more than one time, he was in correspondence
with Charles d'Orléans, and it is likely that he resided, at any
rate for some period, at that prince's court at Blois. He had
also something to do with another prince of the blood, Jean
of Bourbon, and traces are found of him in Poitou, in Dauphiné,
&c. But at his next certain appearance he is again in trouble.
The Carthusian who had spent the summer of 1456 in the bishop's
prison (bishops were still to Villon) of Meung. His crime is
not known, but is supposed to have been church-robbing;
and his enemy, or at least judge, was Thibault d'Aussigny,
who held the see of Orleans. Villon owed his release to a
general gaol-delivery at the accession of Louis XI., and became
a free man again on the 2nd of October.

It was now that he wrote the Grand testament, the work
which has immortalized him. Although he was only thirty
at the date (1461) of this composition (which is unmistakable,
because given in the book itself), there seems to be no kind
of aspiration towards a new nor even any hint of anything
in the old. Nothing appears to be left him but regret; his very
spirit has been worn out by excesses or sufferings or both.
Even his good intentions must have been feeble, for in the
autumn of 1462 we find him once more living in the cloisters
of Saint-Benoit, and in November he was in the Châtelet for
theft. In default of evidence the old charge of the college
of Navarre was revived, and even a royal pardon did not bar
the demand for restitution. Bail was, however, accepted,
but Villon fell promptly into a street quarrel, was arrested,
and brought before the council, and condemned to be hanged, but the sentence was
commuted to banishment by the parliament on the 5th of January
1463. The actual event is unknown: but from this time he
disappears from history. Rabelais indeed tells two stories
about him which have almost necessarily been dated later.
One is a countryside anecdote of a trick supposed to have
been played by the poet in his old age at Saint Maixent in
Poitou, whither he had retired. The other, a coarse but
pointed jest at the expense of England, is told as having been
addressed by Villon to King Edward V. during an exile in that
country. Now, even if King Edward V. were not evidently
out of the question, a passage of the story refers to the well-known
scholar and man of science, Thomas Linacre, as court physician
to the king, and makes Villon mention him, whereas Linacre
was only a young scholar, not merely at the time of Edward V.'s
supposed murder, but at the extreme date (1480) which can be
assigned to Villon's life. For in this year the first edition of
the poet's work appeared, obviously not published by himself,
VILNA, or Vilno, a Lithuanian government of West Russia, having the Polish government of Suwalki on the W., Kovno and Vitbsk on the N., and Minsk and Grodno on the E. and S. Area, 16,176 sq. m.; pop. (1906 estimate) 1,866,600. Vilno lies on the broad marshy swelling, dotted with lakes, which separates Poland from the province of East Prussia and stretches E-N. towards the Valdai Plateau.

Its highest parts are a little more than 1000 ft. above sea-level. Owing to this, the town, being on the banks of the valleys of the Niemen and the S. Divna, is chiefly built up of Lower tertiary deposits, but in the north Devonian sandstones appear on the surface. The tertiary deposits consist of Eocene clay, slates, sandstones, limestones and chalk, with gypsum, and are partly of marine and partly of terrane origin. The whole is overlain with thick layers of Glacial boulder clay and post-glacial deposits, containing remains of the mammath and other extinct mamals. Interesting discoveries of Neolithic implements, especially of polished stone, and of implements belonging to the Bronze Age and the early years of the Christian epoch, have been made in the excavations that have been carried on in Vilna, and are particularly remarkable because of the precision and clearness with which they have been preserved, as well as of the seclusion in which they were found. Much of the art and manners of the old inhabitants of this country is the subject of Vilna. The town descends in the case of the grecian literature and of the prehistoric and the best of the ancient, but the degradation of the ancient is still more noticeable in the decline of the Greco-Christian civilizations.

The city of the climate of the government is only slightly tempered by its proximity to the Baltic Sea (January, 21° 8'; July, 64° 3'); the average temperature at the town of Vilna is only 43° 5.3°. But in winter the thermometer descends very low, a minimum of 8° being not an unusual event. The flora and fauna are intermediate between those of Poland and middle Russia. The government is divided into seven districts, the chief towns of which are Vilna, Vilei, Disna, Lida, Oshmyany, Zvenzyants and Zviensky.

VILNA, or Vilno, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, 436 1/2 s.s.w. of St. Petersburg, at the intersection of the railways from St. Petersburg to Warsaw and from Libau to the mouth of the Don. Pop. (1883) 93,760; (1900) 162,633. With its suburbs Antokol, Lukishki, Pogulanka and Sarechye, it stands on and around a knot of hills (245 ft.) at the confluence of the Vileika with the Vilja. Its streets are in part narrow and not very clean; but Vilna is an old town, rich in historical associations. Its imperial palace, and the cathedral of St Stanislaus (1537, restored 1861), containing the silver sarcophagus of St Casimir and the tomb of Prince Witoff, are fine buildings. There is a second cathedral, that of St Nicholas, built in 1556-1604; also several churches dating

and with no sign in it of his having lived later than the date (1461) of the Grand testament. It would be easy to dismiss these Rabelaisian mentions of Vilnon as mere humorous inventions, if it were not that the author of Pantagruel was born almost soon enough to have actually seen Vilnon if he had lived to anything that could be called old age, that he almost certainly must have known men who had known Vilnon, and that the poet undoubtedly spent much time in Rabelais's own country on the banks of the lower Loire.
from the 14th to the 16th centuries. The Ostra Brama chapel contains an image of the Virgin greatly venerated by Orthodox Greeks and Roman Catholics alike. The museum of antiquities has valuable historical collections. The ancient castle of the Jagellonians is now a mass of ruins. The old university, founded in 1578, was restored (1803) by Alexander I., but has been closed since 1832 for political reasons; the only departments which remain in activity are the astronomical observatory and a medical academy. Vilna is an archiepiscopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church and an episcopal see of the Roman Catholic Church, and the headquarters of the Lithuanian provincial command of the III. Army corps. The city possesses a botanical garden and a public library, and is adorned with statues to Catherine II. (1803), the poet Pushkin and Count M. Muraviev (1898). It is an important centre for trade in timber and grain, which are exported; and has theological seminaries, both Orthodox Greek and Roman Catholic, a military school, a normal school for teachers and professional schools. It is the seat of many scientific societies (geographical, medical and archaeological), and has a good antiquarian museum and a public library.

Partly the monastery of Vilna has been occupied by the Lithuanians since the 12th century, and probably much earlier; their chief fortified town, Vilna, is first mentioned in 1218. A temple to the god Perkunas stood on one of its hills till 1387, when it was destroyed by Prince Jagiello, after his baptism. After 1323, when Gedymyn, prince of Lithuania, abandoned Troki, Vilna became the capital of Lithuania. The formerly independent principalities of Minsk and Lidy, as well as the territory of Disna, which belonged to the Polotsk principality, were annexed by the Lithuanian princes, and from that time Vilna, which was fortified by a stone wall, became the chief city of the Lithuanian state. It was united with Poland when its prince, Casimir IV., was elected (1447) to the Polish throne. The plague of 1588, a fire in 1610 and still more the wars between Russia and Poland, which began in the 17th century, checked its further growth. The Russians took Vilna in 1655, and in the following year it was ceded to Russia. The Swedes captured it in 1702 and in 1706. The Russians again took possession of it in 1778, and it was finally annexed to Russia in 1795, after the partition of Poland. Its Polish inhabitants took an active part in the risings of 1831 and 1863, for which they were severely punished by the Russian government.

VILVORDE, a town of Belgium in the province of Brabant, 9 m. N. of Brussels and on the Sene. Pop. (1904) 14,418. The old castle of Vilvorde, which often gave shelter to the dukes of Brabant in their days of trouble, is now used as a prison. The younger Teniers lived and died at a farm outside Vilvorde, and is buried in the parish church of Dry Toren.

VINCENNES, a town of northern France, in the department of Seine, on a wooded plateau 14 m. E. of the fortifications of Paris, with which it is connected by rail and tram. Pop. (1906) 20,707; commune, 34,185. Its celebrated castle is situated to the south of the town and on the northern border of the Bois de Vincennes, was formerly a royal residence, begun by Louis VII. in 1164, and more than once rebuilt. It was frequently visited by Louis IX., who held informal tribunals in the neighbouring wood, a pyramid marking the spot where the oak under which he administered justice is said to have stood. The chapel, an imitation of the Sainte Chapelle at Paris, was begun by Charles V. in 1379, continued by Charles VI. and Francis I., consecrated in 1552 and restored in modern times. In the sacristy is the magnificent carved screen incorpo- rated the duke of Enguin, who was shot in the castle most in 1804. Louis XI. made the castle a state prison in which Henry of Navarre, the great Condé, Mirabeau and other distinguished persons were afterwards confined. Under Napoleon I. the castle became a magazine of war-material. Louis XVIII. added an armoured, and under Louis Philippe numerous case-mates and a new fort to the east of the donjon were constructed. The place now serves as a fort, arsenal and barracks. It forms a rectangle 417 yds. long by 245 yds. wide. The enclosing wall was originally flanked by nine towers, which were cut down to its level between 1808 and 1811, and now serve as bastions. The donjon is a square tower, 170 ft. high, with turrets at the corners. The Bois de Vincennes, which covers about 2300 acres and stretches to the right bank of the Marne, contains a race-course, a military training-ground, a school of military explosives (pyrotechnic), several artificial lakes, an artillery polygon and other military establishments, an experimental farm, the redoubts of Gravelle and La Faisanderie and the normal school of military gymnastics. The wood, which now ranks among the most famous in Europe, has been enlarged by the same measures as the Bois de Boulogne. On its south border is the asylum of Vincennes, founded in 1855 for the benefit of convalescents from the hospitals. In the town there is a statue of General Daumesnil, celebrated for his defense of the castle against the allies in 1814 and 1815. Vincennes has a school of military administration and carries on horticulture and the manufacture of ironware of various kinds, rubber goods, chemicals, perfumery, mineral waters, etc.

VINCENNES, a city and the county-seat of Knox county, Ind., U.S.A., on the Wabash river, about 47 m. S.W. of Indianapolis; on the bank of the Wabash river, about 17 m. S.W. of Indianapolis; (1809) 8853; (1900) 16,249; of whom 736 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 14,805. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio South-Western, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis, the Evansville & Terre Haute, and the Vandalia railways. Extensive levees, 15 m. in length, prevent the overflow of the Wabash river, which for nine months in the year is navigable from this point to the Ohio. The city is level and well drained, and has a good water-supply system. In Vincennes are a Roman Catholic cathedral, erected in 1835, one of the oldest in the west, occupying the site of a church built early in the 18th century; Vincennes University (1856), the oldest educational institution in the state, which in 1910 had 14 instructors and 236 students; St Rose Female Academy, and a public library. Coal, natural gas and oil are found near Vincennes. The city is a manufacturing and railway centre, and ships grain, pork and beef cattle. The total value of the factory products in 1905 was $817,279. Vincennes was the first permanent settlement in Indiana. On its site Francois Margareta, Sieur de Vincennes, established a French military post about 1731, and a permanent settlement was made about the fort in 1735. After the fall of Quebec the place remained under French sovereignty until 1777, when it was occupied by a British garrison. In 1778 an agent of George Rogers Clark took possession of the fort on behalf of Virginia, but it was soon afterwards again occupied by the British, who called it Fort Sackville and held it until February 1779, when it was besieged and was captured (on the 25th of February) by George Rogers Clark, and passed finally under American jurisdiction. The site of the fort is marked by a granite shaft erected in 1905 by the Daughters of the Revolution. Vincennes was the capital of Indiana Territory from 1800 to 1813, and was the most populous in 1805 of the first General Assembly of Indiana Territory. In 1839 it was incorporated as a borough, and it became a city in 1856.

See J. Law, The Colonial History of Vincennes (Vincennes, 1858); W. H. Smith, "Vincennes, the Key to the North-West," in L. P. Powell's Historic Towns of the Western States (New York, 1900); also chap. ii. of J. P. Dunn's Indiana (Boston, 1892).

VINCENT (or VICENTIUS), ST, deacon and martyr, whose festival is celebrated on the 22nd of January. In several cursas St Vincent is named as being the first person canonized for this martyr, and refers to Acts which were read in the church. It is doubtful whether the Acts that have come down to us (Acta Sanctorum, January, ii. 394-397) are those referred to by St Augustine, since it is not certain that they are a contemporary document. According to this account, Vincent was born of noble parents in Spain, and was educated by Valerius, bishop of Saragossa, who ordained him to the diaconate. Under the persecution of Diocletian, Vincent was arrested and taken to Valencia. Having stood firm in his profession before Dacianus,
the governor, he was subjected to excruciating tortures and thrown into prison, where angels visited him, lighting his dungeon with celestial light and relieving his sufferings. His warders, having seen these wonders through the chinks of the wall, forthwith became Christians. He was afterwards brought out and laid upon a soft mattress in order that he might regain sufficient strength for new torments; but, while Dacianus was meditating punishment, the saint gently breathed his last.

The tyrant exposed his body to wild beasts, but a raven made away with the animals and people of the Domincan province went into the sea, but was cast up on the shore, recovered by a pious woman and buried outside Valencia. Prudentius devoted one of his hymns (Peristeph. v.) to St Vincent, and St Augustine attests that in his lifetime the festival of the saint was celebrated throughout the Christian world (Serm. 276, n. 4).


VINCENT OF BEAUVAS, or VINCIENUS BELLAVACENSIS (c. 1160–c. 1264), the encyclopaedist of the middle ages, was probably a native of Beausais.1 The exact dates of his birth and death are unknown. A tolerably old tradition, preserved by Louis a Valloceleti (c. 1413), gives the latter as 1264;2 but Tholomaeus de Luca, Vincent’s younger contemporary (d. 1321), seems to reckon him as living during the pontificate of Gregory X. (1271–76). If we assume 1264 as the year of his death, the immense volume of his works forbids us to think he could have been born much later than 1190. Very little is known of his career. A plausible conjecture makes him enter the house of the Dominicans at Paris between 1215 and 1220, from which a second conjecture carries him to the Dominican province of the Rhine in the latter year. He returned to Paris in 1224, and after two years at the Sorbonne, he is said to have taught in the Sorbonne. His name appears among those who also taught there, in a roll of those who composed the De Institutione Principe—writing under the name of Theobald V. of Champagne and Navarre, among men who are very well known, but of whose composition no actual proof has been made. The work itself is a treatise on the art of rhetoric and debate, and it has been clearly shown to be the production of a later hand, and is ascribed by Echard to the period between 1310 and 1325.3 In arrangement and style it is quite different from the other three parts, and indeed it is mainly a compilation from Thomas Aquinas, Stephen de Bourbon, and two or three other contemporary writers.

The Speculum Naturae fills a bulky volume of 848 closely printed double-columned pages. It is divided into thirty-two books and 3718 chapters. It is a vast summary of all the natural history known to western Europe towards the middle of the 13th century. It is, as earlier writers have shown, an encyclopaedia, whose floor and walls are laid with an enormous mosaic of skilfully arranged passages from Latin, Greek, Arabic, and even Hebrew authors. To each quotation, as he borrows it, Vincent prefixes the name of the book from which it is taken, together with the date and author, if any. We are often thrown back into pre-Christian antiquity, as, for example, when the terrors of the infernal regions in which both the wicked and the angels dwell are related. The book, however, his own remarks by the word “actor.” The Speculum Naturae is so constructed that the various subjects are dealt with in a logical order, and, in each, within the same order. The book, however, his own marks, perhaps with a few things as were with God “in the beginning."

Book ii. treats of our own world, of light, colour, the four elements, and the various metals. In the treatment of the metals, the author borrows a great deal from the Speculum Historiale, and adopts for the most part an alphabetical arrangement.

The Speculum Historiale, in seventeen books and 2374 chapters, is a summary of all the scholastic knowledge of the age and does not appear to have been compiled with a definite purpose. It is mainly a practical manual for the student and the official alike; and, to fulfill this end, it treats of the mechanic arts of life as well as the subtilties of the scholar, the duties of the prince and the tactics of the general. The book begins with a survey of astronomy and the stars, and ends with the various arts and sciences, including medicine. The book deals with the psychology, physiology and anatomy of man, the five senses and their organs, sleep, dreams, ecstasy, memory, reason, &c.

The remaining four books seem more or less supplementary; the last (xiii.) is a summary of geography and history down to the year 1250, when the book seems to have been given to the world, perhaps along with the Speculum Historiale and possibly an earlier form of the Speculum Doctrinale.

The Speculum Doctrinale, in seventeen books and 2374 chapters, is a summary of all the scholastic knowledge of the age and does not appear to have been compiled with a definite purpose. It is mainly a practical manual for the student and the official alike; and, to fulfill this end, it treats of the mechanic arts of life as well as the subtilties of the scholar, the duties of the prince and the tactics of the general. The book begins with a survey of astronomy and the stars, and ends with the various arts and sciences, including medicine. The book deals with the psychology, physiology and anatomy of man, the five senses and their organs, sleep, dreams, ecstasy, memory, reason, &c.

The remaining four books seem more or less supplementary; the last (xiii.) is a summary of geography and history down to the year 1250, when the book seems to have been given to the world, perhaps along with the Speculum Historiale and possibly an earlier form of the Speculum Doctrinale.

The Speculum Majus, the great compendium of all the knowledge of the middle ages, as it left the pen of Vincent, seems to have consisted of three parts only, viz. the Speculum Naturale, Doctrinale, and Historiale. Such, at least, is Echard’s conclusion, derived from an examination of the earliest extant MSS. All the printed editions, however, consist of four parts, the additional one being entitled Speculum Aethereale. This has been clearly shown to be the production of a later hand, and is ascribed by Echard to the period between 1310 and 1325. In arrangement and style it is quite different from

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1 He is sometimes styled Vincentius Burgundus; but, according to M. Dau, this appellation cannot be traced back further than the first half of the 13th century.

2 Apparently confirmed by the few enigmatical lines preserved by Echard from his epitaph—

"Pertult iste necem post annos mille ducentos, sanae vita sex habes, sex mihi retinetos."
VINCENT, G.—VINCENT DE PAUL, ST

The last book (xvii.), treats of theology or (as we shall now say) mythology, and is divided into four parts. The first chapter, dealing with the mysteries of God and the angels, and then passes on to the works of the six days and the creation of man. It includes dissertations on the various aspects of the creation and the history of the world, all of which is taken from the Hebrew scriptures.

As the fifteenth book of the Speculum Hierarchicale is a summary of the Speculum Naturale, so the Speculum Historiale may be regarded as the expansion of the last book of the same work. It consists of thirty-six chapters, and is divided into seven parts. The first chapter, dealing with the history of the Church, from its origins to the time of Constantine, is a brief survey of the early Church and its development. The book concludes with a summary of the life of St. Vincent de Paul, on which see below.

VINCENT, GEORGE (1776-1837), English landscape and marine painter, was born at Norwich in June 1776. He studied art under “Old” Crome, and at the age of fifteen began to contribute to the Norwich exhibition. From 1814 till 1823 he exhibited occasionally at the Royal Academy, and also in the Water-Cotour Exhibition and the British Institution. In 1819 he removed from Norwich to London, and he was a contributor to the Suffolk Street gallery from its foundation in 1824 till 1830. He was a great admirer of Crome; his landscapes, of which his works became slight and hastily executed. Finally he dropped out of sight, and he is believed to have died about 1831.

His most important work, a “View of Greenwich Hospital,” was shown in the International Exhibition of 1862. His “London from the Surrey Side of Waterloo Bridge” is also a fine work.

VINCENT, MARY ANN (1818-1887), American actress, was born in Portsmouth, England, on the 8th of September 1818, the daughter of an Irishman named Farlin. Left an orphan at an early age, she turned to the stage, making her first appearance in 1834 as Lucy in The Belle France, at Cowes, Isle of Wight. The next year she married J. R. Vincent (d. 1856), an actor with whom she toured England and Ireland for several years. In 1846 Mrs. J. R. Vincent went to America to join the stock company of the old National theatre in Boston. Here she became a great favourite. No actress in America, except Mrs Gilbert, has ever been such a “dear old lady” to so wide a circle of constant admirers. She died in Boston on the 4th of September 1857.

Her memory is honoured by the Vincent Memorial Hospital, founded in that city in 1859 by popular subscription, and formally opened on the 6th of April 1861, by Bishop Phillips Peckham, bishop of New York, and which was later known as the Vincent Hospital, and which was later known as the Vincent Hospital.

VINCENT DE PAUL ST (1576-1660), French divine, founder of the “Congregation of Priests of the Mission,” usually known as Lazarites (g.v.), was born on the 24th of April 1576 at Povy, near Dax, in Gascony, and was educated by the Franciscans at Dax and at Toulouse. He was ordained priest in 1600. Voyaging from Toulouse to Narbonne, he was taken by Barbary pirates, who took him to Tunis and sold him as a slave. He converted his third master, a renegade Italian, and escaped with him to Aigues-Mortes near Marseilles in June 1607. After short stays at Avignon and Rome, Vincent went to France, where he became a chaplain to Monsieur (afterwards Cardinal) de Bérulle, who was then founding the congregation of the French Oratory. At Bérulle’s instance he became curate of Clichy near Paris (1611); but this charge he soon exchanged for the post of tutor to the count of Joly in Folleville, in the diocese of Amiens, where his success in dealing with the spiritual needs of the peasantry led to the “missions” with which his name is associated. In 1617 he accepted the curacy of Châtillon-lès-Dombes (or sur-Chalonne) and here he received from the countess of Joly the patronage of which he was able to found his “confrérie de charité,” an association of women who ministered to the poor and the sick. In 1619 Louis XIII. made him royal almoner of the galleys. Among the works of benevolence with which his name is associated are the establishment of a hospital for galley slaves at Marseilles, the institution of two establishments for foundlings at Paris, and the organization of the “Filles de la Charité,” to supplement the work of the conférences, whose members were mainly married women with domestic duties. He died at Paris on the 27th of September 1660, and was buried in the church of St. Lazare. He was beatified by Benedict XIII. in 1720, and canonized by Clement XII. in 1737, his festival (duplex) being observed on the 10th of July. The Society of St Vincent de Paul was founded by Frederick Ozanam and others in 1833, in reply to a charge brought by some free-thinking contemporaries that the church no longer had the strength to inaugurate a practical enterprise. In a variety of ways it does a great deal of social service similar
to that of gilds of help. Its administration has always been in the hands of laymen, and it works through local "conferences" or branches, the general council having been suspended because it declined to accept a cardinal as its official head.


VINCENZO LEPEIS, ST. or VINCENZUS LERNENSIUS (d. c. A.D. 450), an ecclesiastical writer of the Western Church of whose personal history hardly anything is known, except that he was a native of Gaul, possibly brother of St Loup, bishop of Troyes, that he became a monk and priest at Lerinum, and that he died in or about 450. Lerinum (Lerins, off Cannes) had been made by Honoratus, afterwards bishop of Arles, the seat of a monastic community which produced a number of eminent churchmen, among them Hilary of Arles. The school did not produce an extensive literature, but it played an important part in resisting an exaggerated Augustinianism by reasserting the freedom of the will and the continued existence of the divine image in human nature after the fall. As regards Vincenzo he himself tells us that only after long and sad experience of worldly turmoil did he betake himself to the haven of a religious life. In 434, three years after the council of Ephesus, he wrote the Commonitorium adversus profanos omnium haeretorum nobiles, in which he ultimately aligns at Augustine's doctrine of grace and predestination. In it he distinguishes the "nobiles," which distinguish Catholic truth from heresy, and (cap. 2) lays down and applies the famous threefold test of orthodoxy—quod ubique, quod semper, quod ab omnibus credidit est. It is very striking that in his appeal to tradition Vincenzo assigns no part to the bishops as such—as apart from the council; he appeals to the ancient "teachers," not to any apostolic succession. His "semi-Pelagian" opposition to Augustine is dealt with by Prosper of Aquitania in his Pro Augustini doctrina responsiones ad capitula objectionum Vincentianarum. It explains why the Commonitorium has reached us only in a mutilated form.

The Commonitorium has been edited by Baluze (Paris, 1653, 1669 and 1684) and by Klipfel (Vienne, 1809). It also occurs in vol. i. of Migne's Patrol. Ser. Lat. (1846). A full summary is given in A. Harasch's History of Dogma, iii. 230 ff. See also F. H. Stanton, Place of Authority in Religion, pp. 167 ff.; A. Cooper-Marchin, The School of Lerins (Rochester, 1905).

VINCENT FERRER, ST (1355-1419), Spanish Dominican preacher, was born of respectable parentage at Valencia on the 23rd of January 1355. In February 1374 he took the Dominican habit, and after spending some years in teaching, and in completing his theological studies, he was licensed to preach. He graduated as doctor of theology at Lerida in 1374, and his sermons in the cathedral of Valencia from 1385 onwards soon became famous. Cardinal Peter de Luna took him with him to Paris in 1391; and on his own election to the pontificate as antipope Benedict XIII. made Ferrer his confessor and master of the sacred palace. Finding, however, the ecclesiastical atmosphere of Avignon an uncongenial one, he in 1397 resumed his work as a preacher, and Spain, France, Italy, Germany and Great Britain and Ireland were successively visited by him; and in every case numerous conversions were the result of his eloquence, which is described as having been singularly powerful and moving. In 1412 he was delegated by his native city to take part in the election of a successor to the vacant crown of Aragon; and in 1416 he received a special invitation to attend the council of Constance, where he supported the cause of Hus. He died at Vannes on the 5th of April 1419, and was canonized by Calixtus III. in 1455, his festival (duplex) being observed on the 5th of April.

See A Sorelli, Il trattato di S. Vincenzo Ferrer intorno al Grande Scisma d'Occidente (Bologna, 1906).

VINCI, LEONARDO (1660-1730), Italian musical composer, was born at Strorgoli in Calabria in 1660 and educated at Naples under Gaetano Greco in the Conservatorio dei Poveri di Gesù Cristo. He became known first by his comic operas in Neapolitan dialect in 1719; he also composed many serious operas. He was received into the Congregation of the Rosary at Formentillo in 1726 and died by poisoning in 1730, not 1732, as is generally stated. His comic operas, of which Le Zite in Galera (1722) is the best, are full of life and spirit; in his serious operas, of which Didone Abbandonata (Rome, 1728) and Aritaserse (Rome, 1730) are the most notable, have an incisive vigour and directness of dramatic expression deservedly praised by Burney. The well-known air "Vo solcando," from Aritaserse, is a good example of his style.

VINDELICIA, in ancient geography, a country bounded on the S. by Raetia, on the N. by the Danube and the Valum or Walense, on the W. by the Rhine, and on the E. by the territory of the Helvetii. It thus corresponded to the N.E. portion of Switzerland, the S.E. of Baden, and the S. of Württemberg and Bavaria. Together with the neighbouring tribes it was subjugated by Tiberius in 15 B.C., and towards the end of the 1st century A.D. was made part of Raetia (q.v.). Its chief town was Augusta Vindelicorum (Augsburg). Its inhabitants were probably of Celtic origin (cf. the recurrence of Vin- in other Celtic names—Vindobona, Vindonissa); some authorities, however, regard them as German. According to Dio Cassius (liv. 22) they were an agricultural people, and later writers (e.g. LIduferi, Origines, i. 4), describe the country as very fertile.

VINDHYA, a range of mountains in Central India. It forms a well-marked, though not quite continuous, chain across India, separating the Ganges basin from the Deccan. Starting on the west in Gujarat, the Vindhayas cross Malwa and the central portions of India, until their easternmost spurs abut on the valley of the Ganges at Rajmahal. They thus roughly form the northern side of the triangle, of which the other two sides are the Eastern and Western Ghats. They have an elevation of 1500 ft. and a breadth of 1000 ft. Geologically they give their name to the "Vindyan formation," one of the recognized rock systems of India. In legendary tradition they formed the demarcating line between the Madya-desha or middle land of the Sanskrit invaders and the non-Aryan Deccan, and they are still largely inhabited by aboriginal races such as the Bhils.

VINE. The grape-vine, botanically Vitis, is a genus of about thirty species, widespread in the north temperate zone, but richest in species in North America. The best known cultivated species is the old-world grape-vine, Vitis vinifera; a variety of this, silvestris, occurs wild in the Mediterranean region, spreading eastwards towards the Caucasus and northwards into southern Germany, and may be regarded as the parent of the cultivated vine. It is of interest to note that grape-stones have been found with mummies in Egyptian tombs of not later age than 3000 years. The seeds have the characteristics of those of V. vinifera, but show some very slight variations from the type of seed now prevalent. Among the Greeks in the time of Homer wine was in general use. The cultivation of the vine must also have been introduced into Italy at a very early period. In Virgil's time the varieties in cultivation seem to have been exceedingly numerous; and the varied methods of training and culture now in use in Italy are in many cases identical with those described by Columella and other Roman writers. Grape-stones have been found among the remains of Swiss and Italian lake dwellings of the Bronze period, and others in tufaceous volcanic deposits near Montpellier, not long before the historic era.

The old-world species is also extensively cultivated in California, but the grape industry in the old-world United States has been developed from native species, chiefly V. Labrusca and V. aestivalis and their hybrids with V. vinifera. Some of the American varieties have been introduced into France and other countries infested with Phylloxera, to serve as stocks on which to graft the better kinds of European vines, because their roots, though perhaps equally subject to the attacks of the insects, do not suffer so much injury from them as the European species.
The vine requires a high summer temperature and a prolonged period in which to ripen its fruit. Where these are forthcoming, it can be profitably cultivated, even though the winter temperature be very low. Tehrachines mentions that at Erivan in Russian Armenia the mean winter temperature is 7°-12° C. and the palleted vine 1 C., usually breaks its bud at a temperature of January is 4° C. and the minimum -25° C., and yet at both places the vine is grown with success. In the Alps it is profitably cultivated up to an altitude of 1870 ft., and in the north of Piedmont as high as 3180 ft. At the present time the limit of profitable cultivation in Europe passes from Brittany, lat. 47° 36', to beyond the Rhine by Liége and through Thuringia to Silesia in lat. 51° 55'. In former centuries vines were cultivated to the north of this region, as, for instance, in Holland, in Belgium largely, and in England, where they might have been grown. Indeed, experiments have been made in this direction near Cardiff in South Wales. The yield is satisfactory, and the wine made, the variety known as Gamay noir, is described as being like still champagne. In the middle ages, owing to various causes, the better wines of France and Germany could not be obtained in England except at prohibitive prices; but when this state of things ceased, and foreign wine could be imported, the English consumers would no longer tolerate the inferior productions of their own vineyards. It is also probable that the English mixed sugar or honey with the wine and thus supplied artificially the sweetness which the English sun denied. It is a curious fact that at the present day much or even most of the wine of finest quality is made at or near to the northern limits of possible cultivation with profit. This circumstance is probably explained by the greater care and attention bestowed both on the cultivation of the vine and on the manufacture of the wine in northern countries than in those where the climate is more propitiously. The relative inferiority of the wines made at the Cape of Good Hope and in Australia is partly due to variations of climate, the density of the population, the poor drainage of the land, the impeded air, and partly to the deficient skill of the manufacturers. That such inferiority may be expected to disappear is suggested by the success of vine-culture in Madeira and the Canary Islands.

The development of other species of Vitis, such as the curious succulent species of the Sudan and other parts of equatorial Africa, or the numerous kinds in India and Cochin China, is of course possible under suitable conditions; but it is obvious that an extremely long period must elapse before they can successfully compete with the product of many centuries. [See also generally the article Wine. For currants and raisins, both produced by varieties of the grape-vine, see the respective articles.]

Apart from their economic value, vines are often cultivated for purely ornamental purposes, owing to the elegance of their foliage, the rich coloration they assume, the shade they afford, and their hardiness.

Vines have woody climbing stems, with alternate, entire or palmately lobed leaves, provided at the base with small stipules. Opposite some of these leaves springs a tendril, by aid of which the plant is attached to some object. The tendril is either a simple tendril or a tendril consisting of several tendrillets, thus passing through the ordinary form of tendril and the inflorescence. The flowers are small, green and fragrant, and are arranged in dense clusters. Each has a small calyx in the form of a shallow rim, sometimes five-lobed or toothed; five petals, which cohere by their tips and form a cap or hood, which is pushed off when the stamens are ripe; and five free stamens, placed opposite the petals and springing from a central axis, one of which bears a two-celled anther. The anomalous position of the stamens in front of the petals is explained by the abortion or non-development of the inferior ovary, which is generally absent. Two ovules are seen on the hypogynous disk encircling the ovary. The ovary bears a sessile stigma and is more or less completely two-celled, with two erect ovaes in each cell. This ripens into the berry and seed. The cultivated vine has usually hermaphrodite flowers; but as it occurs in a wild state, or as an escape from cultivation, the flowers manifest a tendency towards unisexuality: that is, one plant bears flowers with stamens only, or only the rudiments of the pistil, while on another plant the flowers are bisexual. Exclusively female flowers without stamens do not appear to have been observed. Seedling plants from the cultivated vines often produce unisexual flowers, thus reverting to the feral type. Perhaps the explanation of the fact that some of the cultivated varieties are, as gardeners say, "bad setters,"—i.e. do not ripen their fruit owing to imperfect fertilization,—is to be sought in this natural tendency to dioecism.

The conformation of the vine stem has elicited a vast amount of explanatory comment. The most generally accepted explanation is the "symphal" one. According to this, the shoot of the vine is a "symphal," consisting of a number of "podia" placed one over the other in longitudinal series. Each podium consists of a portion of the stem bearing one or more leaves, each with an axillary bud or bud, and terminating in a tendril or an inflorescence. In V. Labrusca there is a tendril opposite each leaf, so that the podium bears only a single leaf. In other species there is a definite arrangement of the leaves, some with and others without tendrils opposite to them, the numerical order remaining constant or nearly so. These arrangements have doubtless some reference to climatic phenomena, continuity of growth being arrested by cold and promoted by warmth. In any case, it is obvious that these facts might be turned to practical ends in cultivation. A vine, for instance, that produces bunches of grapes at each joint is preferable to one in which there are several barren joints, as a larger quantity can be grown within a smaller area. The practice of pruning or "stopping" is consciously or unconsciously, regulated by the mode of growth.

The tendril or inflorescence, according to the views above explained, though in reality terminal, is bent to one side; hence it appears to be lateral and opposite to the leaf. While the tendril is thus diverted from its original direct course, the axillary bud of the leaf opposite the tendril begins a new podium, by lengthening into a shoot which assumes the direction the tendril had prior to its occurrence. This new podium, now in a direct line with its predecessor, produces leaves and ends in its turn in a tendril or inflorescence. A third podium succeeds the second, and so on. Other authorities explain the formation of the tendril and its anomalous position opposite to a leaf by supposing that the end of the stem bilatece during growth, one division forming the shoot, the other the tendril or inflorescence. It is not possible within the limits of our command to specify the facts and arguments by which these theories are respectively supported. Practically the tendrils assist the plant in its native state to scramble over rocks or trees. As in the case of similar formations generally, they are endowed with a sensitiveness to touch which enables them to grasp and coil themselves round any suitable object which comes in their way, and thus to support the plant. The seeds or grape-stones are somewhat club-shaped, with a narrow neck-like portion beneath, which expands into a rounded and thickened portion above. On the inner or central side of the seed is a ridge bounded on either side by a shallow groove. This ridge indicates the point of union of the "rape" or seed-stalk with the seed; it serves to distinguish the varieties of V. vinifera from those of other species. In endeavouring to trace the inflorescence and affinities of the vine, the characters afforded by the seed are specially valuable, because they have not been obliquely interfered with by human agency. Characters derived from the size, colour or flavour of the berry are of less value for
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historical or genealogical purposes than those which are the outcome of purely natural conditions.

The vine is hardy in Britain so far as regards its vegetation, but not in respect of its fruits. In very good standing, for all practical purposes the vine must be regarded as a tender fruit. Planted against a wall or a building having a south aspect, or trained over a sunny roof, such sorts as the Black Cluster, Black Prince, and Black Spider, may ripen in the warmest English summers as so to be very pleasant eating; but in cold summers the fruit is not capable in the raw state, and can only be converted into wine or vinegar. For outdoor culture in this country, the spur system is generally preferred.

When the plant is grown under glass, the vine border should occupy the interior of the house and also extend outwards in the frequent framing; by installing 8 ft. or 6 ft. plants, the previous portions become well filled with roots, which may readily be done by packing up a turf wall at the extremity of the portion to be newly made; an exterior width of 15 ft. will be sufficient. If close together the best results are obtained. Also to prevent from entering by building a wall at the extreme edge of the border. Inside borders require frequent and thorough waterings. In well-drained localities the border may be partially below the ground level, but in damp situations it should be made on the surface; in either case the firm solid bottom should slope outwards towards an efficient drain. A good bottom may be formed by a solid down and 3 in. of gravel to which is to be added at least a foot thick of coarse, hard, rubbly material, a layer of rough turf, grass side downwards, being spread over it to prevent the compost from working down. The soil itself, which should be 2 or 3 ft. deep, should consist of five parts of well-rotted manure, one part old lime or broken bricks, including a little wood ashes or burnt earth (ballast), one part broken charcoal, and about one part of half-inch bones, the whole being thoroughly mixed, and the parts mixed together. It is well to break the garden with a spade or fork to remove the top soil, in which no roots are to be found, every two or three years, and to replace it with a mixture of good loam, rotten manure, and half-inch bones; and this should be done at least once

A mulch of half-decayed stable litter is useful to prevent loss of moisture in summer.

Young vines raised from eyes, i.e. buds having about 1 in. wood above and 1 in. below, are generally preferred for planting. The eyes being selected from well-ripened shoots of the previous year are planted about the end of January, singly, in small pots of light loam and fine soil, to a depth of about 1 in. The place to be planted should be in a propagating bed, having an average humidity of 75%, which should be increased to 85% when they have produced several leaves, the atmosphere being kept at about the same temperature or higher by sun heat during the day, and at about 75% at night. As soon as roots are freely formed the plants must be shifted into 6-inch pots, and later on into 12-inch ones. The shoots are trained up near the glass, and, with plenty of heat (top and bottom) and of water, will grow and multiply very rapidly. A careful selection of the best shoots at the base should be allowed to grow on. The best time for planting in spring, when the young shoots have just started. The vines should be planted inside the house, from 1 to 2 ft. from the wall, and from 6 ft. to 8 ft. apart, the roots being placed an inch deeper in the soil than before, carefully disentangled and spread outwards from the stem, and covered carefully and firmly with friable loam, without manure. When the shoots are fairly developed, the two strongest are to be selected and trained in. In forcing is commenced, the vineyard is shut up for two or three weeks without fire heat, the mean temperature ranging about 50°. Fire heat must be at first applied very gently, and may range about 55°F at night, and from 65°F to 70°F by day, but a few degrees more may be given them as the buds break and the new shoots appear. They are in flower, and onwards during the swelling of the bunches, 85°F may be taken as a maximum, running up to 90°F with sun heat and the temperature may be lowered somewhat when the fruit is ripe. The temperature must, however, be regulated according to the safety. Motors giving a higher temperature at the time their bunches show than Hamburghs. As much ventilation as the state of the weather will permit should be given. A moist growing atmosphere is necessary both for the swelling fruit and for the health of the foliage. A due and careful control of moisture may be kept up by the use of evaporating troughs and by syringing the walks and pathways two or three times a day, but the leaves should not be syringed. When the vines are in flower, and onwards during the swelling of the bunches, the lower leaves should be kept dry, but the acidity must not be excessive, lest the red spider and other pests should attack the leaves. In the course of syringing (insidious and frosty), the leaves should be syringed with the bunches, or if syringing is not possible the vines should be syringed with a mixture of water and extremely weak solution of potash or lime sulphate. Outside borders require watering in very dry summer weather only.

There are three principal systems of pruning vines, termed the long-rod, the short-rod and the spur systems, and good crops have been obtained by each of them. It is admitted that larger bunches are generally obtained by the long-rod than by the spur system. The principal of this mode of pruning is to train in at considerable length, according to their strength, shoots of the last year's growth for producing shoots to bear fruit in the present; these rods are afterwards cut away and replaced by young shoots trained up during the preceding summer, and these are in their turn cut out in the following autumn after bearing, and replaced by shoots of that summer's growth. By the short-rod system, short instead of long rods are retained; they are dealt with in a similar manner. The spur system has, however, become the most general. In this case the vines are usually planted so that one can be trained up under each rafter, or up the middle of the sash, the latter method being preferable if there is plenty of room for the foliage to expand; the lateral shoots, which will push out after the topping, must be again toped above their first or second joints. If the bunches are too numerous they must be thinned before the flowers expand, and the berries also must be properly thinned out and regulated as soon as they are well set, care being then taken to avoid overcrowding, that the bunches be not made too thin and lose.

The cultivation of vines in pots is very commonly practised with good results, and pot-vines are very useful for the earliest crops during the preceding summer, and these are in their turn cut out in the following season, but to be successful in this, the young rod produced must be thoroughly matured after it has reached its limit of growth. The periodical thorough cleansing of the vine stems and every part of the houses is of the utmost importance. The number of varieties of grapes possessing some merit is considerable, but a very few of them will be found sufficient to supply all the wants of the cultivator. For general purposes nothing approaches the Black Hamburgh (including Frankenthal) in merit.

Fungoid Diseases.—The most destructive form of fungoid disease

1. Vine leaf attacked by mildew, Uncinula necator (Erysiphe Tuckeri), which forms white, powdery spots on the upper face, reduced.

2. Grapes similarly attacked.

3. Portion of the mycelium of the fungus bearing spores (conidia).

4. Peritheciun or "fruit" of the fungus with its curled appendages, X100.

5. Ascus from perithecium containing six spores, X300.

which attacks the vine is caused by a mildew, Uncinula necator (Erysiphe Tuckeri) (fig. 2). The disease was first noticed in England in
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1848; in 1848 it appeared at Versailles; by 1851 it had spread through all the wine-producing countries of Europe, being specially virulent in the lands bordering on the Mediterranean; and in the following year it made its appearance in Madeira. Like the Phylloxera (p. 471), the mildew was probably introduced from America. The disease is characterized by the appearance of a mycelium forming white or greyish-white patches on the young leaves; this spreads quickly and attacks the older leaves and shoots, and finally reaches the grapes. At first these are marked only by small brown spots; but the spots spread and fuse together, the skin of the grape is destroyed, and the flesh decays, the seed only remaining apparently untouched. The disease spreads by the mycelium growing on the epidermis of the plant. The hyphae composing the mycelium are provided with haustoria which project into the cells of the affected part (fig. 3). Some of these haustoria, the hyphae which project past the leaf bear spores (condia), which are constricted off one at a time, and by their means the fungus is distributed (fig. 2, 3). The perithecia are only produced exceptionally in Europe, but this stage of the life-history is common in the United States and causes a widespread spread of disease among the American vines. The mildew is in its turn attacked by a fungus of the same tribe, Cercospora Cesatii, which lives parasitically within the hyphae of its host, and at times even succeeds in destroying it. The mycelium has proved most efficacious, both in a remedy and a preventative of this disease, by scattering flowers of sulphur over the vines, before the morning dew has evaporated. Another method is the one part of lime with three parts of sulphur, and to sprinkle the mixture over the affected plants.

Another fungus which attacks vines, especially those of America, is Plasmopara viticola, which has also been introduced from America to Europe. The mycelium spreads through the green parts of the plant, attacking the leaves, twigs and unripe grapes. On the upper side of the leaf, where it is first visible, it forms pale green irregular spots, which become darker in colour. On the underside of the leaf and at these patches are white and are composed of the spore-bearing hyphae. The leaf ultimately becomes dried up and brittle. The grapes which are attacked cease to grow, turn brown or white, and ultimately dry up and fall off. This disease has been artificially treated with a spray of copper sulphate and lime, or sulphate of iron; solutions of these salts prevent the conidia from germinating.

Anthracnose is the name usually given to a disease, formerly known as "charbon," "pech," or "brenner." This disease is caused by the parasitism of Sphaeceloma ampelipulium, one of the Pyrenomycetes fungi (fig. 4). The fungus assails all the green parts of the vine, and injures the leaves and young shoots as much as it does the grape itself. The first sign of its presence is the appearance of a minute spot, which is greyish in the centre, with a brown border. This spot increases in size; in the stalks it assumes an oval shape, with a long axis parallel to the stalk, whilst in the leaves and grapes it is more or less circular in outline. The centre of the spots on the grapes becomes darker as the disease advances, and a red line appears dividing the dark brown border into an outer and an inner rim and giving a very characteristic appearance to the diseased plant. The surrounding tissue enlarges, so that the spots appear as if sunk in depressions, and bear a considerable resemblance to hollow wounds. Later the spots on the leaves often drop out. The berries do not shrivel up as those do that are affected by the black rot. The mycelium of Sphaeceloma grows just beneath the cuticle of the vine through which it enters, and has been observed to grow at a number of minute hyphae, which bear conidia. These are minute, oval, colourless spores, which serve to spread the disease over the vineyard and from place to place. The complete life-history of this form is as yet unknown; and what we know is that solution as to where the fungus passes the winter, and in what form, would probably afford some useful indications as to the method that should be adopted to combat the disease. Anthracnose has been known in Europe for many years, but has only been found in America since 1884, whether it was probably imported from the old world. As a preventive to its attacks the copper sulphate sprays and a solution (50%) of iron sulphate have been found very useful, as well as care in planting on well-drained soil that does not lie too low, the disease seldom appearing in dry, well-exposed vineyards. A great deal of confusion still exists with regard to this disease. A similar disease which of late has been frequently found in England, and which is ascribed to the fungus Glosostictis ampelophagum, is very similar to it. In their mode of attack, in the symptoms they produce, and in the result upon the grapes and the vine the two fungi are so much alike that for practical purposes they may be regarded as identical. Massee recommends that the shoots should be drenched with flowers of sulphur at intervals of ten days, while the disease continues to spread, a small quantity of quicklime in a finely powdered con-
whole grape. The latter for a time retains its plumpness, but on the appearance of little black pastules, which first occur on the part primarily affected, the grape begins to shrivel. This continues until the grape is reduced to a black hard mass, with the folds of skin pressed closely against the seeds, which disinte grades from grape to grape, so that as a rule many of the grapes in a bunch are destroyed. The hyphae of the mycelium of this fungus are septate, with numerous short branches. The pastules on the surface of the plant become black and are effused by the liquid. When this fungus passes the winter in the withered grapes which fall to the ground, and on these the mature form of the fungus (fig. 5, 2 and 3) is produced, hence every care should be taken to collect these and burn them. The use of the copper solutions mentioned above may also be recommended as a preventative.

Among the other fungi which infest the vine may be mentioned *Phytophthora cactorum* and *Ph. Laricis*, which, when the vine is young, cause the destruction of the leaves, the only part they assault. These, like the foregoing, are members of the Pyrenomycetes, while many other allied fungi have been described as causing spots on the leaves. *Cercospora Vitis* (Cladosporium viticulum), which has club-shaped, spores of a green-brown colour, also attacks the leaves; but, unless the season is extremely unfavourable, it does little harm.

A very disadvantageous disease of the vine is due to the ravages of another pyrenomycotic fungus, *Rosellinia (Dematophora) necatrix* (fig. 6), which forms subterranean strings of mycelium—so-called rhizomorphs. The diseased roots have been confounded with those belonging to *Phytophthora* and *Pythium*. The only mode of combating the malady seems to be to uproot the plants and burn them. Isolation of the diseased areas by means of trenches has also been practiced.

**VINEGAR**, a dilute solution of impure acetic acid, prepared by the acetous fermentation of alcohol or of substances which yield acetous acid. Acetous acid, which is employed in the preparation of vinegar, is obtained from the products resulting on the dry distillation of wood (vinegar). Ordinary or table vinegars, which contain, in addition to acetic acid, small quantities of alcohol, higher acids such as tartaric and succinic, various esters, aluminous substances, &c., are produced solely by acetous fermentation, wood vinegar being only employed in certain arts. Ordinary vinegar has been known from the earliest times, and its power of combining with or dissolving mineral substances caused the alchemists to investigate its preparation and properties. They failed, however, to obtain pure acetic acid, although by distillation they prepared more concentrated solutions (spiritus Veneris). In 1607 Stahl showed that vinegar could be concentrated by freezing out part of the water, and, better, in 1702, by neutralizing the acid with an alkali and distilling the salt with oil of vitriol. A notable improvement was made in 1789 by Löwit, who showed that the dilute acid could be concentrated by repeatedly passing it over charcoal powder, and by cooling he obtained a crystalline substance named in 1777 by Durande, "glacial acetic acid." The presence of an acid substance in the products of the dry distillation of wood was noted by Schultze in 1791. The first genuine vinegar was received in 1800 by the fermentation of pyroxyline acid. Its identity with acetic acid was demonstrated by Vauquelin in 1809.

The mechanism of acetous fermentation is described under Fermentation; here we only treat of the actual processes. There are two methods in use: the "quick" process, proposed in 1720 by Boerhaave and introduced by Schützenbach in 1823 (analogous processes were proposed at about the same time by Wagman in Germany and by Ham in England), and the older or "slow" process.

In the "quick" process advantage is taken of the fact that the fermentation proceeds more quickly when a large surface of the liquid is exposed to air. Any alcoholic liquid can be treated. The apparatus consists essentially of a vat divided into three portions: the lowest, which is separated from the one above by a grid or false bottom, serves for the collection of the vinegar; the central portion, which is by far the largest, is the chamber wherein the fermentation is carried on; and it is separated from the topmost section by a false bottom perforated with holes about two inches through which thin strings lead up into the upper part of the central section. The purpose of this disk is to divide the liquid placed upon it into drops so as to increase the surface of the liquid. The sides of the vat are enclosed by the lowest portion are provided with a ring of holes to admit air to the tub; and the vat is enclosed in a tightly fitting lid perforated by a hole through which the liquor to be fermented is admitted and the air escapes from the sides. The central chamber is filled with some material of large surface. The commonest are beech-wood shavings, which, before use, must be carefully freed from all extracts by washing and steaming, then dried, and finally soaked by immersion in hot vinegar for twenty-four hours. The fermented wort, prepared in various ways and of varying composition, or wine, is warmed to about 38° C. and then fed into the vat. It is agitated with the aid of a long cylinder and a slowly revolving paddle, and at the same time the air is increased, and the fermentation which ensues maintains the temperature at about 37°, and draws a current of air upwards through the shavings, which after a time become covered with the so-called "process" air. If the air is insufficient for the fermentation it is completely converted into acetic acid, but stronger liquors require to be passed through the vat three or four times. Some of the alcohol (and consequently some acetic acid) is carried away by the air in the process, and also by the escaping carbonic acid gas. The factories are led by baking the air or into water, whereby the alcohol and aldehyde are recovered. The same is effected in Singer's "fermentation under pressure.

For making wine-vinegar by the slow process, full-bodied wines about one year old and containing 10% of alcohol (this amount being obtained, when necessary, by blending) are preferred; and they are clarified by treatment with a small quantity of sulphurous acid deposit. The fermentation is carried out in casks holding from 50 to 100 gallons; these casks are repeatedly extracted with water in order to prevent any impurity finding its way into the vinegar; also it is found that the casks foul after about six years' use, when it is necessary to remove the deposits of argol, yeast sediments, &c., and re-extract with water, after which they are again fit for use. In all cases the wine should be boiled before distillation; the boiling strong vinegar and allowed to stand for eight days. Nine pints of the wine are now added every day until the cask is two-thirds full, and the mixture is allowed to stand for fourteen days. After this interval from the new cask, three to four heads are drawn off, and more wine added. The working temperature is about 25°. The progress of the operation is shown by the white (from the heads of the cask) which forms in the cask; if it be reddish, more wine must be added. In certain parts of France, Holland and of the Rhine district a different procedure is adopted. Two casks, fitted with false bottoms on which are placed nine cuttings, are taken; one cask is completely filled with wine, whilst the other is only half filled. The acetification proceeds more rapidly in the second cask, and after twenty-four hours hall the contents of the two casks are mixed together. When the process is complete the product is filtered through ripes in a paring tun. This is a cask fitted with a false bottom in which are placed spent tanner's wood, shavings, or, better, the pressed stalks and skins of grapes and raisins from wine manufacture. Household vinegar is made in upright casks; after the second-fourth heads, the vinegar is poured from one cask to another. Malt vinegar is sold in four strengths designated 18, 20, 22, 24, the last being "proof" vinegar, containing 6% of acetic acid and having a specific gravity of 1.060. It is made by heating vinegar to 60° C., converting yeasts to carbonic acid, which are neutralized by one fluid ounce of the vinegar.

Several other vinegars are made. Crystal vinegar is ordinary vinegar colorless by treatment with sinilic acid and also for use as an antiseptic and wood preservative. (See ACETIC ACID.)

**VINEELAND,** a borough of Cumberland county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the southern part of the state, about 34 m. S. of Philadelphia and about 115 m. S.W. of New York. Pop. (1860) 3822; (1900) 4370, including 590 foreign-born; (1900 state census) 4593; (1910) 2859. Area, 1 sq. m. It is served by the Central of New Jersey and the West Jersey & Seashore railways, and by electric railway to Millville and Bridgeton. Vineeland is situated at an altitude of 90-118 ft. above the sea, on a
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generally level or slightly undulating plain, and has unusually broad, straight and well-shaded streets. The borough maintains a public library, a public park of 40 acres, artesian waterworks, a sewerage system and an electric lighting plant. It is the seat of the New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded Girls and Boys (1888), the State Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-Minded Women (1888), and the State Home for Disabled Soldiers, Sailors, Marines and their Wives. The Vineland Historical and Antiquarian Society (organized in 1864) has a library (8000 volumes in 1900) housed in the Society’s building, and it maintains a free lecture course. Saloons for the sale of intoxicating liquors have never been allowed in Vineland. The surrounding country is largely devoted to the growing of small fruits, grapes, peaches, pears and apples, and the raising of sweet potatoes; and within the borough are manufactured ungramed grape juice wines, boots and shoes, clothing, carpets, rugs, chenille curtains, pearl buttons, flint-glass tubes and bottles, and iron castings.

Vineland was founded in 1861 by Charles K. Landis (1835–1900), who conceived the idea of creating a settlement in the almost uninhabited “Pines” of Southern New Jersey; and after purchasing a large tract he laid out a village with small farms adjoining. The settlers, largely from New England and the Middle States, received the land at moderate prices on agreeing to make certain stipulated improvements. The township of Landis (pop. in 1910, 6435), named in honour of the founder of the settlement, was incorporated in 1864, having formerly been a part of Millville; from it Vineland was separated and was incorporated as a borough in 1880.

See The Founder’s Own Story of the Founding of Vineland (Vineland, 1903), a pamphlet published by the Vineland Historical and Antiquarian Society.

VINER, SIR ROBERT (1651–1688), lord mayor of London, was born in Warwick, but migrated in early life to London, where he was apprenticed to his uncle, Sir Thomas Viner (1598–1665), a goldsmith, who was lord mayor of London in 1653–54, and who was created a baronet in 1661. Soon Robert became a partner in his kinsman’s business, and in 1666 an alderman of the city of London; in 1665 he was made a knight, and in the following year a baronet. He was sheriff during the year of the great fire in London, and was chosen lord mayor in 1674. Combining like his uncle the business of a banker with that of a goldsmith, Viner was brought much into contact with Charles II. and with the court. The king attended his mayoral banquet, and the lord mayor erected an equestrian statue in his honour on a spot now covered by the Mansion House. It had been appointed the king’s goldsmith in 1661, Sir Robert was one of those who lent large sums of money for the expenses of the state and the extravagances of the court; over £40,000 was owing to him when the national exchequer suspended payment in 1672, and he was reduced to the necessity of compounding with his creditors. He obtained from the state an annuity of £3500. Viner died at Windsor on the 2nd of September 1688.

See Viner: a Family History, published anonymously (1885).

VINET, ALEXANDRE RODOLPHE (1797–1847), French critic and theologian, of Swiss birth, was born near Lausanne on the 17th of June 1797. He was educated for the Protestant ministry, being ordained in 1819, when already teacher of the French language and literature in the gymnasiu at Basel; and during the whole of his life he was as much a critic as a theologian. His literary criticism brought him into contact with Sainte-Beuve, for whom he procured an invitation to lecture at Lausanne, which led to his famous work on Port-Royal. Vinet’s Chrestomathie française (1830), his Études sur la littérature française au XIXe siècle (1849–51), and his Histoire de la littérature française au XVIIIe siècle, together with his Essais sur Pierre Corneille, Vieux et XVIIe siècles, Histoire de la prédication parmi les Réformés de France and other kindred works, gave evidence of a wide knowledge of literature, a sober and acute literary judgment and a distinguished faculty of appreciation. He adjusted his theories to the work under review, and condemned nothing so long as it was good work according to the writer’s own standard. His criticism had the singular advantage of being in some sort foreign, without the disadvantage which attaches in French eyes to all criticism of things French written in a foreign language. As theologian he gave a fresh impulse to Protestant theology, especially in French-speaking lands, but also in England and elsewhere. Lord Acton classed him with Rotte. He built all on conscience, as that wherein man stands in direct personal relation with God as moral sovereign, and the seat of a moral individuality which nothing can rightly infringe. Hence he advocated complete freedom of religious belief, and to this end the formal separation of church and state (Mémoire en faveur de la liberté des cultes (1826), Essai sur la conscience (1830), Essai sur la manifestation des convictions religieuses (1842). Accordingly, when in 1845 the civil power in the canton of Vaud interfered with the church’s autonomy, he led a secession which took the name of L’Eglise libre. But already from 1831, when he published his Discours sur quelques sujets religieux (Nouveaux discours, 1841), he had begun to exert a liberalizing and deepening influence on religious thought far beyond his own canton, by bringing traditional doctrine to the test of a living personal experience (see also Frommel, Gaston). In this he resembled F. W. Robertson, as also in the change which he introduced into pulpil style and in the permanence of his influence. Vinet died on the 4th of May 1847 at Claren’s (Vincennes, pop. 4435), a considerable part of his works was not printed till after his death.

His life was written in 1875 by Eugène Rambert, who re-edited the Chrestomathie in 1876. See also L. M. Lane, Life and Writings of A. Vinet (1890); L. Molines, Étude sur Alexandre Vinet (Paris, 1890); V. Rossel, Histoire de la littérate française hors de France (Lausanne, 1895); V. Rivet, Études sur les origines de la pensée religieuse de Vinet (Paris, 1896); A. Schumann, Alex. Vinet (1897). A uniform edition of his works was begun in 1906, see Revue de théologie et philosophie (Lausanne, 1908–14, 54 vols.).

VINGT-ET-UN (colloquially, "Van John"), a round game of cards, which is played by any number of persons who play, though five or six are enough. The right to deal has always been decided, the dealer gives one card face downwards to each person, including himself. The others thereupon look at their cards and declare their stakes—one, two, three or more counters or chips—according to the value of their cards. When all have staked, the dealer looks at his own card and can double all stakes if he chooses. The amount of the original stake should be set by each player opposite his card. Another card is then dealt, face downwards, all round; each player looking at his own. The object of the game is to make 21, by the pips or counters, on each card, the ace counting as 11, and the ten as 10. If the dealer’s card is 21, he receives double the stake, or doubled stake; if a player holds 21, he receives double likewise, but ties still pay the dealer. If a player receives two
similar cards he may put his stake on each and draw on them separately, receiving or paying according as he stands successfully or overdraws, but the trick and draw must be similar, i.e. he cannot draw both a knave and a queen at once. Most players, though their values are equal for the purpose of counting. A natural drawn in this way, however, only counts as 21, and does not turn out the dealer. Similarly a player may draw on three cards, or even four, should they be dealt him. A player who overdraws on one of such cards must declare and pay immediately, even though he stands on another. After a hand is played, the "pone" (Latin for "behind")—the player on the dealer's right—collects and shuffles the cards played, the dealer dealing from the remainder of the pack, till it is exhausted, when he takes the cards the pone holds, after the pone has cut them. It is a great advantage to deal, as the dealer receives from all who have already withdrawn, even if he overdraws himself.

French Vingt-et-un, or Vingt-et-un with variations, is played by any number of persons. The first deal is played as in the ordinary game. In the second ("Imaginary Tens") each player is supposed to hold a ten-card and receives one card from the dealer, face downwards; he is then considered to hold a ten-card plus the one dealt, and stands and draws, receives or pays, as in the ordinary game. If he receives an ace he holds a natural. In the third deal ("Blind Vingt-et-un") each player receives two cards and draws or stands without looking at either. The fourth deal is "Sympathy and Antipathy," each player staking, and declaring which of the two he will not: if the player is then dealt to him, if they are of the same colour, it is "sympathy"; if of different colours, "antipathy." At the fourth deal (Rouge-et-noir), each player, having received three cards, bets that the majority will be either black or red, as he chooses. In "Self and Company" every stake but the dealer, who then sets out two cards, face upwards, one for himself and one for the player. If the two cards are pairs, the dealer wins; if not, he deals one of the cards exposed is paired, paying or receiving according as that card belongs to himself or the "company." The seventh deal is "Pay the difference." Each player receives two cards, face upwards. The dealer pays or receives a stake for the difference in value, if the cards are pairs or last played and pay off the player. The ace counts as one. The eighth deal is "Clock." The stakes are pooled. The dealer deals the cards out, face upwards, calling "one" for the first, "two" for the second, and so on, the knave being 11, queen 12, and king 13. If any of the cards dealt correspond to the number called, the dealer takes the pool; if none correspond, he forfeits that amount. At the end of this (the eighth) deal, the next player deals.

VINITA, a city and the county-seat of Craig county, Oklahoma, U.S.A., in the N.E. part of the state, about 135 m. E.N.E. of Guthrie. Pop. (1900) 2399; (1907) 3157, including 624 Indians. Situated on the W. branch of the Grand River, in the centres of Missouri, Kansas & Texas and the St Louis & San Francisco railways. In the city are the Sacred Heart Institute (Roman Catholic), and a hospital for masons. Vinita is situated in an agricultural and stock-raising region, and lead, zinc, oil and natural gas are found in the vicinity; the city's water supply is obtained from artesian wells. Bricks are manufactured. The first settlement was made here in 1870 and Vinita was chartered as a city in 1885.

VINLAND (Old Norse, Vinland, i.e. Vineland or Wineland), so-called from the eastern coast of North America, visited and named by the Norsemen in the beginning of the 11th century. The word first appeared in print in Adam of Bremen's "Descriptio Insularum Aquilonis," an appendix to his Gesta Hammaburgensis Ecclesiae Pontificum, published by Lindenburg in 1595. In pursuit of historical study, Adam visited the Danish court during the reign of the well-informed monarch Svend Estridsson (1047-1076), and writes that the king "spoke of an island (or country) in that ocean discovered by many, which is called Vinland, because of the wild grapes [vitus] that grow there." The inscription of the story is abusive, but that grain unsown grows there abundantly [fruges ibi non seminatas abundare] is not a fabulous fancy, but is based on trustworthy accounts of the Danes." This passage offers important corroboration of the Icelandic accounts of the Vinland voyages, and is, furthermore, interesting "as the only undoubted reference to Vinland in a medieval book written beyond the limits of the Scandinavian world" (Fiske). Adam's information concerning Vinland did not, however, impress his medieval readers, as he placed the new land somewhere in the Arctic regions. "As, those regions which are beyond are filled with unapproachable ices and boundless glooms." These words show the futility of ascribing to Adam's account Columbus's knowledge of lands in the West, as many overzealous advocates of the Norse discoveries have done. The importance of the information, meagre as it is, lies in the fact that Adam received from the lips of kinsmen of the explorers (as the Danes in a sense were) certain characteristic facts (the finding of grapes and unsown grain) that support the general reliability of the Icelandic sagas which tell of the Vinland voyages (in which these same facts are prominent), but which were not put into writing by the Norsemen until later—just how much later it is not possible to determine. The fact that the Icelandic sagas concerning Vinland are not contemporaneous written records has caused them to be viewed by many with suspicion; hence such a significant allusion as that by Adam of Bremen is not to be overlooked. To the student of the Norse sources, Adam's reference is not so important, as the internal evidence of the sagas is such as to give easy credence to them as records of exploration in regions previously unknown to civilization. The contact with savages would alone prove that.

During the middle ages and the 12th and 13th centuries, the monks and the clergy were the first to revive geographical science and to practise pelagic navigation. For six centuries previous to about 800, European interest in practical geographical expansion was at a standstill. During the 6th and 7th centuries, Irish anchorites, in their "passion for solitude," found their way to the Hebrides, Orkneys, Shetlands, Faroes and Iceland, but they were not interested in colonization or geographical knowledge. The discovery of new lands in the West by the Norsemen came in the course of the great Scandinavian exodus of the 9th, 10th and 11th centuries—the Viking Age—when Norsemen, Swedes and Danes swarmed over the whole coast of Norway and Iceland. The main stream of Norsemen took a westerly course, striking Great Britain, Ireland and the Western Isles, and ultimately reached Iceland (in 874), Greenland (in 985) and Vinland (in 1000). This western migration was due mainly to political dissatisfaction in Norway, doubtless augmented by a restless spirit of adventure. The clergy and their followers that settled Iceland were "picked men," the flower of the land, and sought a new home from other motives than want or gain. They sought political freedom. In Iceland they lived active, not to say turbulent lives. A large part of their literature, and even their old sagas, have been given to us by the monks and the clergy. The Icelanders were the first to record on paper in their own tongue the sagas, the stories of the old Norse kings and the exploits of heroes. The sagas, in which ingenious, curious and often romantic stories of Iceland's early history came to be preserved, are the most valuable historical records of the country. They are important also as a record of the state of the human mind and the development of the human spirit in the Middle Ages. The sagas were written in the 12th and 13th centuries, and for some time were the only source of information on the history of the early Norsemen. They are of vital importance in the study of the medieval Norse and Icelandic languages. In the 13th century, a sagas, called the "Speculum regale" (The King's Mirror), and some papal letters, give interesting glimpses of the life of this colony. It was from the young Greenland colony that an attempt was made to establish a new outpost in Vinland, but plans for permanent settlement were given up on account of the hostility of the natives, with whom the settlers felt powerless to grapple. Gunpowder had not yet been invented.

Icelandic literature consists mainly of the so-called "sagas," or poetic narratives, and is rich in historical lore. In the course of the Middle Ages some other tales were among them the two independent narratives of the same events, which clash in the record of details. Modern investigators have been interested in establishing the superiority of one over the other of the two narratives. One of them is the "Saga of Eric the Red" as found in the collection known as Hauk's Book, so called because the manuscript was made by Hauk Erlendssson, an Iceland, who spent much of his life in Norway. It was copied, in part by Hauk himself, between
the years 1305 and 1334, the date of his death, and probably during the period 1310–20. It is No. 544 of the Arne-Magnusen collection in Copenhagen. Another manuscript that tells the same story, with only verbal variations, is found in No. 557 of the same collection. This manuscript was made later than Hauk's, probably in the early part of the 15th century, but it is not a copy of Hauk's. Both were made independently from earlier manuscripts. The story as found in these two manuscripts has been pronounced by competent critics, especially Professor Gustav Storm of the university of Christiania, as the best and the most trustworthy record.

The other saga, which by chance came to be looked upon as the chief repository of facts concerning the Vinland voyages, was found in a large Icelandic work known as the Flatey Book, as it was once owned by a man who lived on Flat Island (Flatey), on the north-western coast of Iceland. This collection of sagas, completed in about 1380, is "the most extensive and most perfect of Icelandic manuscripts," and was sent to Denmark in 1662 as a gift to the king. It was evidently the general excellence of this collection that gave the version of the Vinland story that it contained precedence, in the works of early investigators, over the Vinland story of Hauk's Book. (Reeves's Finding of Wineland contains fine photographs of all thevellum pages of the Flatey Book, illustrating Vinland voyages and the saga of Hauk.)

According to Flatey Book saga, Bjarni Heriulfson, on a voyage from Iceland to Greenland in the early days of the Greenland colony, was driven out of his course and sighted new lands to the south-west. He did not go ashore (which seems strange), but sailed northward to Greenland. Fifteen years later, according to this account, Leif Ericsson set out from Greenland in search of the lands that Bjarni had seen, found them and named them—Helluland (Flat-stone-land), Markland (Forestland) and Vinland. After his return to Greenland, several successive expeditions visited the new lands, none of which (strangely enough) experienced difficulty in finding Leif's hut in the distant Vinland.

According to the Vinland saga in Hauk's Book, Leif Ericsson, whose father, Eric the Red, had discovered and colonized Greenland, set out on a voyage, in 993, to visit Norway, the native land of his father. He visited the famous King Olaf Tryggvason, who reigned from 995 to 1000, and was bending his energies toward Christianizing Norway and Iceland. He immediately saw in Leif a likely aid in the conversion of the Greenlanders. Leif was converted and consented to come to Norway and thence to Greenland, and the next year (1000) started on his return voyage.

The saga says that he was "tossed about" on this long voyage, and came upon an unknown country, where he found "self-sown wheatfields, and vines," and also some trees called "mósur," of which he took specimens. Upon his arrival in Greenland, Leif presented the message of King Olaf, and seems to have attempted no further expeditions. But his visits to the new lands aroused much interest, and his brother Thorstein made an unsuccessful attempt to find them. Later, in 1003, an Icelander, Thorfinn Karlsefni, who was visiting the Greenland colony, and who had married Gudrid, the widow of Leif's brother Thorstein, set out with four vessels and 160 followers to found a colony in the new lands. Here they remained three years, during which time a son, Snorri, was born to Thorfinn and Gudrid. This expedition, too, found "grapes and self-sown wheat," though seemingly not in any great abundance. Concerning the southernmost region of Vinland, the saga says: "They found self-sown wheatfields in the lowlands, but vines everywhere on higher places. . . . There were great numbers of wild animals in the woods." Then the saga relates that, one morning a large number of men gave the various ships some nautically toward them and landed, staring curiously at them: "They were swarthy men and ill-looking, and the hair of their heads was ugly; they had large eyes and broad cheeks." Later the saga says: "No snow came there, and all of their live stock lived by grazing, and thrived." The natives appeared again the next spring, and a clash occurred. Fearing continued trouble with them, Karlsefni resolved to return to Greenland. This he did a year later, and spent the winter of 1006–7 there, whereas he settled in Iceland. From him and Gudrid a number of prominent ecclesiastics claimed descent, and also Hauk Eriksen. The Vinland story was doubtless a cherished family possession, and was put into writing, when writing sagas, instead of telling them, came into fashion. And here it is important to remember that before the age of writing in Iceland there was a saga-telling age, a most remarkable period of intellectual activity, by the aid of which the deeds and events of the seething life of the heroic age was carried over into the age of writing. "Among the medieval literatures of Europe, that of Iceland is unrivaled in the profusion of detail with which the facts of ordinary life are woven into the story, and the chronicles of the expeditions of numberless real persons stand out from the historic background." (Origines Islandicae). Icelandic literary history says that Ari the Learned (born in 1067) was "the first man in this land who wrote in the Norse tongue history relating to times ancient and modern." Among his works is the Book of Settlements, "a work of thorough and painstaking research unexcelled in medieval literature" (Fiske). His work The Book of Icelanders is unfortunately lost, but an abridgment of it, Libellus Islandorum, made by Ari himself, contains a significant reference to Vinland. It tells that the colonists in Greenland who had found "beaches suitable for settlement and stone implements, whereby it may be seen that the same kind of folk had been there as they which inhabited Vinland, and whom the men of Greenland (i.e. the explorers) called the "skarlings" (i.e. inferior people)." From this allusion one cannot but think that so keen and alert a writer as Ari had given some attention to Vinland in the lost work. But of this there is no other proof. We are left to affirm, on account of definite references in various sagas and annals to Leif Ericsson and the discovery of Vinland, that the saga as preserved in Hauk's Book (and also in No. 557 of the Flatey Book) was early put into writing by a competent hand. Dr Finnur Jonsson of Copenhagen says: "The classic form of the saga and its vivid and excellent tradition surely carry it back to about 1200." This conservative opinion does not preclude the possibility, or even probability, that written accounts of the Vinland voyages existed before this date. Vigfusson, in speaking of the sagas in general, says: "We believe that when once the first saga was written down, the others were in quick succession committed to parchment, some still keeping their form through a succession of other changes. Information written down quickly, in due time, was lost and forgotten for ever.

The fact that there are discrepancies between the two versions as they appear in the Hauk's Book and in the Flatey Book does not justify the overthrow of both as historical evidence. The general truth of the tradition is strengthened by the fact that it has come down from two independent sources. One of them must be the better, however, and this it is the province of competent scholars to determine. The best modern scholarship gives the precedence to the Hauk's Book narrative, as it harmonizes better with well-established facts of Scandinavian history, and is less a more plausible account. In accordance with this decision, Bjarni Heriulfson's adventure should be eliminated, the priority of discovery given to Leif Ericsson, and the honour of being the first European colonists on the American continent awarded to Thorfinn Karlsefni and his followers. This was evidently the only real attempt at colonization, despite the numerous contentions to the contrary. Under date of 1121 the Icelandic annals say: "Bishop Eric of Greenland went in search of Vinland." Nothing further is recorded. The fact that his successor as bishop was appointed in 1123 would seem to indicate that the Greenlanders had information that the colony had perished.

The only important phase of the Vinland voyages that has not been definitely settled is the identifications of the regions visited by Leif and Thorfinn. The Danish antiquarian Rafn, in his monumental Antiquitates Americanae, published in 1857, and much discussed in America at that time, held for Rhode Island as Leif's landfall and the locality of Thorfinn's colony. Professor E. N. Horsford, in a number of monographs (unfortunately
of no historical or scientific value), fixed upon the vicinity of Boston, where now stand a Leif Ericson statue and Horsford's Norumbega Tower as testimonials to the Norse explorers. But in 1887 Professor Storm announced his conviction that the lands visited by the Norsemen in the early part of the 11th century were Labrador, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. And a careful reading of the Hauk's Book narrative seems to show that the numerous details of the saga fit Nova Scotia remarkably well, and much better than any other part of the continent. This view has in recent years been quite generally accepted by Anglorusovians who followed the 1910 Professor the Flatey Book saga, Maitland's a botanist of Harvard University, published a paper in Rhodora, vol. 12, No. 134, in which he contends that it is most probable that the "vinber" of the sagas were not "grapes," but "wine-

berries," also known as the mounat or rock cranberries. The "self-sown wheat " of the sagas he identifies as strand wheat, instead of Indian corn, or wild rice, and the mősor trees as the canoe birch. He thinks the natives were Eskimos, instead of American Indians, as stoutly maintained by John Fiske. Professor Fernald concludes his paper by saying that: "The mass of evidence which the writer has in hand and which will be ready for publication, makes it clear that, if we read the sagas in the light of what we know of the abundant occurrence north of the St Lawrence of the 'vinber' (Vaccinium Vitis-Idea or possibly Ribes triste, R. prostratum, or R. lacustre), 'hveiti' (Elymus arenarius), and 'mösur' (Batawa alba, i.e. B. popyfera of many botanists), the discrepancies in geography, ethnology and zoology, which have been so troublesome in the past, will disappear; other features, usually considered obscure, will become luminous; and the older and less distorted sagas, at least in their main incidents, will become vivid records of actual, geographic exploration."

It is possible that Professor Fernald may show conclusively that Leif's landfall was north of the St Lawrence. That the "vinber" were mountain cranberries would explain the fact, mentioned in the Flatey Book saga, that Leif filled his after-boat with "vinber" in the spring, which is possible with the cranberries, as they are most palatable after having lain under the snow for the winter. But Thorinn Karlsdæi found no abundance of "vinber," in fact one of his followers composed some verses to express his disappointment on this score. "Vines" were found only in the southernmost regions reported by Karlsdæi. It is to be noted that the word "vines" is more prominent in the Hauk's Book narrative than the word "vinber." At present it does not seem likely that Professor Fernald's argument will seriously affect Professor Storm's contention that Thorfin's colony was in Nova Scotia. At any rate, the incontrovertible facts of the Vinland voyages are that Leif and Thorfinn were historical characters, that they visited, in the early part of the 11th century, some part of the American continent south-west of Greenland, that they found natives whose hostility prevented the founding of a permanent settlement, and that the sagas telling of these things are, on the whole, trustworthy descriptions of actual experience.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The bibliography of this subject is large, but adequate documents, accounts and discussions may be found in the following modern works: Gustav Storm. Studies on the Vin-


VINogradoff, Paul (1854- ), Anglo-Russian jurist, was born at Kostroma in Russia. He became professor of history in the university of Moscow, but his zeal for the spread of education brought him into conflict with the authorities, and consequently he was obliged to leave Russia. Having settled in England, Vinogradoff brought a powerful and original mind to bear upon the social and economic conditions of early England, a subject which he had already begun to study in Moscow. His Villainage in England (1892) is perhaps the most important book written on the peasantry of the feudal age and the village community in England; it can only be compared for value with F. W. Maitland's Domestical Book and Beyond. In masterly fashion Vinogradoff here shows that the villain of Norman times was the direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon freeman, and that the typical Anglo-Saxon settlement was a free community, not a manor, the position of the freeman having steadily deteriorated in the centuries following the Norman Conquest. The status of the villain and the conditions of the manors in the 12th and 13th centuries are set forth with a legal precision and a wealth of detail which shows its author, not only as a very capable historian, but also as a brilliant and learned jurist. Almost equally valuable was Vinogradoff's essay on "Folkland" in vol. viii. of the English Historical Review (1893), which proved for the first time the real nature of this kind of land. Vinogradoff followed up his Villainage in England with The Growth of the Manor (1905) and English Society in the 12th Century (1906), works on the lines of his earlier book. In 1905 he was appointed Corpus professor of jurisprudence in the university of Cambridge and in 1911 became a fellow of the British Academy. He received honorary degrees from the principal universities, was made a member of several foreign academies and was appointed honorary professor of history at Moscow.

VINOV, Joseph (1863-1886), French soldier, was originally intended for the Church, but, after some years at a seminary, he decided upon a military career, and entered the army in 1883. When he was a sergeant in the 14th line infantry, he took part in the Algerian expedition of 1850. He won his com-

mission at the capture of Algiers, and during the subsequent campaigns he rose by good service to the rank of colonel. He returned to France in 1850, and in the Crimean War served under Canrobert as general of brigade. For his brilliant conduct at the Malakoff he was promoted general of division, and he led a division of Niel's corps in the campaign of Solferino. Retired on account of age in 1865, he was recalled to active service on the outbreak of the war of 1870, and after the early reverses was put at the head of the XIII. army corps, which, fortunately for France, did not arrive at the front in time to join in the catastrophe of Sedan. By a skilful retreat he brought his corps intact to Paris on September 7th. Vinoy during the siege commanded the III. army operating on the south side of the capital and took part in all the actions in that quarter. On Trochut's resignation he was appointed to the supreme command, in which capacity he had to negotiate the surrender. During the conference he held important commands in the army of Versailles, and occupied the burning Tuileries and the Louvre on May 23rd. He was in the same year made grand chancellor of the Legion of Honour.

Vinoy wrote several memoirs on the war of 1870-71; Opérations de l'armée pendant le siège de Paris (1872), L'Armistice et la com-

mune (1872), L'Armée française (1873).

VINT, a Russian card-game. It is generally considered as the immediate ancestor of Bridge (q.v.). Vint means in Russian "screw" and is given to the game because the four players, each in turn, propose, bid and overbid each other until one, having bid higher than the others care to follow, makes the trump, his vî-sâ-vîs becoming his partner. It has many points of resemblance to Bridge. The cards have the same rank; the score of tricks is entered under the line, and points for slam, penalties and honours above the line; while the value of the different suits is the same as in Bridge: spades, clubs, diamonds, hearts and "no trumps." In a "no trump" declaration aces only count as honours; in a suit declaration both the aces and the five next highest cards. During the progress of the bidding and declaring, opportunity is taken by the players to indicate by their calls their strength in the various suits and the high cards they hold, so that, when the playing begins, the position of the best cards and the strength of the different hands can often be fairly accurately estimated.
The leads are subject to much the same rules as those in Bridge.

See The Laws and Principles of Vint, edited by Frank W. Hadden (The viol was)

VINTON, FREDERICK PORTER (1846- ), American portrait painter, was born at Bangor, Maine, on the 29th of January 1846. He was a pupil of Duveneck, of William M. Hunt in Boston, of Léon Bonnat and Jean Paul Laurens in Paris, and of the Royal Academy of Munich. In 1891 he was elected a full member of the National Academy of Design, New York.

VIOLA, a generic term for the bowed precursors of the violin (q.v.), but in England more specially applied to those immediate predecessors of the violin which are distinguished in Italy and Germany as the Gamba family. The chief characteristics of the viols were a flat back, sloping shoulders, "c"-shaped sound-holes, and a short finger-board with frets. All these features were changed or modified in the violin, the back becoming delicately arched, the shoulders reverting to the rounded outline of the guitar or troubadour fiddle, the shape of the sound-holes changing from "c" to "f," and the finger-board being carried considerably nearer the bridge. The viols, of which the origin may be traced to the 15th and 14th centuries, German Minnesinger fiddle, characterized also by sloping shoulders, can hardly be said to have evolved itself into the violin. The latter was derived from the guitar-fiddle through the Italian lyre or viol-lyra family, distinguished as da braccio and da gamba, and having early in the 17th century the outline and "f" sound-holes of the violin. The viol family consisted of treble, alto, tenor and bass instruments, being further differentiated as da braccio or da gamba according to the proportion in which they were held against the arm or between the knees. The favourite viol da gamba, or division viol, frequently had a man or a woman's head instead of the scroll finish to the pegbox. Thomas, the importance of the five or more sympathetic strings tuned an octave higher than the strings in the instrument, which he calls bass viol or geige da braccio.

Michael Praetorius mentions no less than five sizes of the viol da gamba, the largest corresponding to the double bass, and in a table he notes the various accuracies in use for each. He carefully distinguishes these instruments as violen and the viole da braccio (our violin family) as geigen. Of the latter he gives six sizes, the highest being the pochette with vaulted back, a rebeck in fact, and the lowest corresponding to the violoncello, which he calls bass viol or geige da braccio.

The viols were very popular in England in the 16th and 17th centuries, holding their own for a long time after the introduction of the louder-toned violin; they are fully described and figured in the musical works of the period, and more especially in Christopher Simpson's Vinton Viol (1614), Thomas Maw's Musical Monument (1676) and John Playford's Introduction to the Skill of Music (K.S.)

VIOLA [Fr. viole, Ger. Bratsche, Ital. viola, alto], the tenor member of the violin family. The construction of the viola is the same, but on a larger scale, as that of the violin (q.v.). The instrument is pitched a perfect fifth below the violin.

VIOLET. The violas comprise a large botanical genus (Viola) of which more than 200 species have been described—found principally in temperate or mountain regions of the northern hemisphere; they also occur in mountainous districts of South America and South and Tropical Africa, while a few are found in Australasia. The species are mostly low-growing herbs with alternate leaves provided with large leafy stipules (fig. 1). The flowers, which are solitary, or rarely in pairs, at the end of slender axillary flower-stalks, are very irregular in form, with five sepalas prolonged at the base, and five petals, the lowest one larger than the others and with a spur, in which collects the honey secreted by the spurs of the two adjoining stamens. The five anthers are remarkable for the complicated processes which extend beyond the anther cells and form a sort of cone around the style (fig. 2). The ovary is superior and one-celled, with three parietal placenta and numerous ovules; it bears a single style, which ends in a dilated or hood-like stigma (fig. 3). The fruit is a capsule bursting loculi, i.e. through the centre of each of the three valves. By the contraction of the valves the small smooth seeds, which form a row down the centre, are shot out to some little distance from the parent plant. The irregular construction of the flower is connected with fertilization by insect agency. To reach the honey in the spur of the flower, the insect must thrust its proboscis into the flower close under the globular head of the stigma. This lies in the anterior part of a groove fringed with hairs on the inferior petal. The anthers shed their pollen into this groove, either of themselves or when the pistil is shaken by the insertion of the bee's proboscis. The proboscis, passing down this groove to the spur, becomes dusted with pollen; as it is drawn back, it presses up the lip-like valve of the stigma so that no pollen can enter the stigmatic chamber; but as it enters the next flower it leaves some pollen on the upper surface of the valve, and thus cross-fertilization is effected. In the sweet violet, V. odorata and other species, inconspicuous permanently closed or "cleistogamic" flowers (fig. 4) occur of a greenish colour, so that they offer no attractions to insect visitors and their form is correspondingly regular. The anthers are so situated that the pollen on escaping comes into contact with the stigma; in such flowers self-fertilization is compulsory and very effectual, as seeds in profusion are produced.

Several species of Viola are native to Great Britain. Viola canina (fig. 5) is the dog violet, many forms or subspecies of which are recognized; V. odorata, sweet violet, is highly prized for its fragrance, and in cultivation numerous varieties have originated. The Neapolitan or Parma violet (var. pallida Planch.) is a form with very sweet-scented, double, pale lavender flowers; var. sulphurea has shining deep green leaves and lemon-yellow flowers, deeper yellow in the centre, and with a pale-violet spur. Sweet violets like a rich, fairly heavy soil, with a north or north-west aspect if possible;
VIOLIN

they are readily increased by dividing the crowns after flowering. Other species known in gardens are: V. alata, flowers yellow or red.

2. Fruit, split open.

violet with yellow eye; V. bifora, a pretty little species 3–4 in. high with small yellow flowers, the large petal being streaked with black; V. calcarata, flowers light blue or white, or yellow in var. flavus; V. cornuta, flowers pale blue—there are a few good varieties of this, including one with white flowers; V. cucullata, a free-flowering American species with violet-blue or purple flowers; V. sanguinea, a native of Algeria, with large violet or yellow flowers; V. pedata, the bird's-foot violet, with pedately divided leaves and usually bright blue flowers; V. rothomagensis, a native of western Europe, with flowers bright blue striped with black, and sometimes called the Rouen violet; and V. swarni, a native of Asia Minor, the Russian violet, with pale-blue sweet-scented flowers. The garden pansies or heartseases are derivatives from V. tricolor, a cornfield weed, or V. alata, a native of the Altai mountains. (See Pansy.)

BEDDING VIOLAS, which differ from pansies in some slight technical details, have been raised from V. cornuta and V. lutecia by crossing with the show pansies. The application of an infusion of violet leaves was at one time believed to have the power of reducing the size of cancerous growths, but its use is now discredited.

VIOLIN, a musical instrument consisting essentially of a resonant box of peculiar form, over which four strings of different thicknesses are stretched across a bridge standing on the box, in such a way that the tension of the strings can be adjusted by means of revolving pegs to which they are severally attached at one end. The strings are tuned, by means of the pegs, in fifths, from the second or A string, which is tuned to a fundamental note of about 445 vibrations per second at the modern normal pitch: thus giving

\[ \text{as the four open notes. To produce other notes of the scale the length of the strings is varied by stopping them with the fingers on a finger-board, attached to a "neck" at the end of which is the "head" in which the pegs are inserted. The strings are set in vibration by drawing across them a bow of horse-hair, which is rosin to increase adhesion. The characteristic features which, in combination, distinguish the violin (including in that family its larger brethren the viola and the violoncello) from other stringed instruments are: the restriction of the strings to four, and their tuning in fifths; the peculiar form of the body, or resonating chamber, especially the fully moulded back as well as front, or belly; the shallow sides or "ribs" bent into characteristic curves; the acute angles of the corners where the curves of the ends and middle "bouts" or waist ribs meet, and the position and shape of the sound-holes, cut in the belly. By a gradual process of development in all these particulars the modern violin was evolved from earlier bowed instruments, and it attained its highest perfection at the hands of the great Italian makers in the 16th, 17th and early 18th centuries, since which time, although many experiments have been made, no material improvement has been effected upon the form and mode of construction then adopted.

The body, or sounding-box, of the violin is built up of two arched plates of thin wood, the belly and the back, united by side pieces or ribs to form a shallow box. The belly is cut from soft elastic woods, generally lignum vitae, which is used universally for this purpose, though it is now made of a close-grained wood, generally sycamore or maple. Both back and belly are carved to their model from the solid, but for utilitarian reasons are generally luted or glued to longitudinal sections; while the sides or ribs, of very thin sycamore or maple, usually in six sections, are bent on a mould, by the aid of heat, to the required form. Into the corners are glued corner-blocks of soft wood, which help to retain the ribs in their sharply mortised form, and materially strengthen the whole structure. Into the joints of the sides and the back and belly are glued thin lining strips, bent to the mould, giving a bearing surface for the transverse line dividing the surface into two approximately equal areas, that is, about 3 in. below the middle, the lower end of the body being wider than the upper part or shoulders; whereby a greater length is rendered available for the vibrating portion of the strings.

A short distance behind the right foot of the bridge, the sounding-post, a rod of soft pine about \( \frac{3}{4} \) in. thick, is fixed inside the body in contact with the belly, and serves directly to support the bridge against the pressure of the bridge under the tension of the strings, but to convey vibrations to the back. It also exercises a very important influence on the nodal arrangement of these vibrating plates. The pressure of the other foot of the bridge, where the tension of the fourth string is far less than that of the first string, is partly sustained by the bass-bar—a strip of wood tapering from the middle to both ends, which is glued underneath the belly and extends to within rather less than 2 in. of the ends of the instrument. This fitting not only serves to strengthen the belly mechanically, but exerts a profound effect upon the vibrations of that plate.

The fixed structure is completed by the head, which surmounts the neck and consists primarily of a narrow box into the sides of which are inserted the pegs round which the free ends of the strings are wound. The head is usually provided by an ornamentation which in the hands of the Italian makers followed the traditional pattern of a scroll, or volute, offering the skilled craftsmen infinite scope for boldness and freedom in its execution; but sometimes, especially in the English instruments, it was carved in the form of an animal's head, usually a lion's.

The strings, fastened at one end to an ebony tail-piece or tongue, which is fitted to the back of the instrument, pass over the bridge, along the finger board and over the nut (a dwarf bridge forming the termination of the finger-board) to the pegs. The effective vibrating portion of the strings is accordingly the bow between the nut and the first joint of the bridge.

1. Up to about the year 1800 the old Italian makers, including Stradivari (in his earlier instruments), usually strengthened the neck of the violin by driving nails, frequently three and sometimes four, through the top block into the base of the neck, which was not mortised into the block.
in an ordinary full-sized violin about 1 3 in. The portion of the strings to which the bow is applied lies over the space measuring about 23 in., between the bridge and the free end of the fingerboard. The strings are manufactured from so-called catgut, made from the masticated intestines of the thinnest, third or D string from .026 to .046 in. more or less. The necessary weight is given to the string of lowest pitch, G, without unduly sacrificing its elasticity, by winding a thin gut string with fine copper wire. The result is a string that not only constitutes a quick damping, but also softening the ultimate quality of the note.

An ornamental feature characteristic of nearly all violins is the purfling, a very thin slip of wood with margins of ebony or (rarely) whalebone, inlaid in thin strips close to the edge of both plates, and following the entire outline of the instrument. In some instruments, especially of the Brescian school, a double line of purfling was inserted.

The number of pieces of wood of which the violin is composed amounts to about 70, varying, as the plates are made in one piece or built together, and with the number of sections in which the ribs are put together. Of this number 57 pieces are built into the permanent structure, while 13 may be described as fittings.

The whole of the permanent structure is cemented together with glue alone, and it is a striking testimony to the mechanical conditions satisfied by the design, that the instrument built of such slender material with its weight of over 4 lb., withstood the considerable stresses applied to it. It is worthy of remark that after the lapse of so many years, since it attained perfect musical efficiency, no essential adjustment of any part of the bow, or of the instrument itself, has been necessary.

No play of fancy has drafting anything beyond quite minor ornamentation on a work of art distinguished by its simplicity of pure outline and proportion. The following are the principal dimensions of a very fine specimen of Stradivari's work, which has been preserved in perfect condition since the latter end of the 17th century:

- **Length of body:** 14 in. full.
- **Width at the center (top):** .61 in. 4/8 in. ordinary.
- **Width across bottom:** .83 in.
- **Height of sides (top):** .13 in.
- **Height of sides (bottom):** .129 in.

The back is in one piece, supplemented a little in width at the lower part, allowing for the existence of the great makers, and is cut from very handsome wood; the ribs are of the same wood, while the belly is formed of two pieces of soft pine of rather fine and beautifully even grain. The ribs, cut with perfect precision, exhibit much grace and freedom of design. The scroll, which is very characteristic of the maker's style and beautifully moulded, harmonizes admirably with the general modelling of the instrument. The model is flatter than in violins of the earlier period, and the design bold, while displaying all Stradivari's microscopic perfection of workmanship. The whole is coated with a very fine orange-red varnish, which, though touched since it left the maker's hands, and the only respects in which the instrument has been altered since that date are in the fitting of the longer neck and stronger bass-bar necessitated by the increased compass and raised pitch of modern violin making.

The measurements given above are the same as those of a well-known Stradivari of later date (1714).

The acoustics of the violin are extremely complex, and notwithstanding many investigations by men of science, and the enunciation of some plausible hypotheses with regard to details of its operation as a musical instrument, remain as a whole obscure. So far as the elementary principles which govern its action are concerned, the violin follows familiar laws (see Sound). The different notes of the scale are produced by vibrating strings differing in weight and tension, and varying in length under the hand of the player. The vibrations of the strings are conveyed through the bridge to the body of the instrument, which fulfils the common function of a resonator in reinforcing the notes initiated by the strings. So far first principles carry us at once. But when we endeavour to detail in detail the causes of the peculiar characteristics of tone of the violin family, the great range and variety in that character obtained in different instruments, the extent to which those qualities can be controlled by the bow of the player, and the mode in which they are influenced by minute variations in almost every component part of the instrument, we find ourselves faced by a series of problems which have so far defied any but very partial solution.

The distinctive quality of the musical tones of the violin is produced by what is known as partials or overtones, or in the upper harmonic or partial tones superimposed on the fundamental notes produced by the simple vibrations of the strings.

The characteristic tone and its control by the player are undoubtedly conditioned in the first place by the peculiar path of the vibrating string under the action of the rosin bow. This takes the form not of a symmetrical oscillation, but of a succession of alternating bound and free movements, as the string adheres to the bow according to the pressure applied and, releasing itself by its own vibrations.

The lightness of the material of which the strings are made conduces to the production of very high partial tones which give brilliance of sound, while the low elasticity of the gut causes those partial tones which constitute the sound to be quickly damped, thus softening the ultimate quality of the note.

In order that the resonating body of the instrument may fulfill its highest purpose in reinforcing the complex vibrations set up by the bow, it is necessary to determine the number of partials of which the whole, but in the number of related partials whose oscillations determine the upper partial tones, it is essential that the plates, ribs, and other parts maintain the notes so as to respond sensitively to the selective impulses communicated to them. It is the attainment of this perfect selective responsiveness which marks the construction of the best instruments. Many factors contribute to this result. The thickness of the plates in different parts of their areas, the size and form of the interior of the body, the size and shape of the sound-holes through which the vibrations of the contained air are communicated to the external air, and which also influence the nodal points in the belly, according to the number of fibres of the wood cut across, varying with the angle at which the sound-holes cross the grain of the wood. Their position is that in the middle of the central vibrating portion of the belly under the bridge.

All these important factors are influenced by the quality and elasticity of the wood employed.

The choice has been wide, but many speculations have been advanced with regard to the superiority in tone of the old Italian instruments over those of modern construction. This superiority has sometimes been disputed, and, judging from the many examples of fine-rate instruments which have survived from the 17th and 18th centuries, it is certain that antiquity alone does not confer upon violins the merits which have been frequently claimed for them. However, we have the inner outline of the specimens of the Italian school which have survived in good condition, with the best examples of modern construction in which the proportions of the older masterpieces have been faithfully followed, and which are most carefully and skilfully made. If it be true, as it seems to be, it cannot be denied that the former possess a superiority in the quality of their tone which the musical ear immediately recognizes. After taking into account the practical identity in dimensions and construction between the classical and modern, the best modern models, the conclusion suggests itself that the difference must be attributed to the nature of the materials used, or to the method of their employment, as influenced by local conditions and practice. The argument, not infrequently advanced, that the great makers of Italy had special local sources of supply, jealously guarded, for wood with exceptional acoustical properties, can hardly be accepted.

Undoubtedly the excellence of the Italian violins has been ascribed in a good measure to the condition of sound and handsome wood; but there is evidence that some of the finest wood they used was imported from across the Adriatic, and there is every reason to believe that in all probability, largely one of expense. There is good reason to suppose that a far larger choice of equally good material is accessible to modern makers.

The varnish with which the completed instrument is coated. This was an item in the manufacture which received most careful attention at the hands of the great masters, and much importance has been attached to the superiority of their varnish over that used in more recent times—so much so that its composition has been attributed to secret processes known only to themselves. The probability is that they were able to exercise more personal skill in the manipulation of the materials used than has been generally practiced by makers dependent upon commercial products under modern conditions, and the general result has been analogous to that seen in the pigments employed by modern painters as compared with those of the old masters. In this connection the perfection of the varnish is indispensable. But that the Italian makers individually or collectively attempted, or were able, to preserve as a secret the composition of the varnish they used is unlikely. Probably they have exhibited to their pupils and to each other a list of materials, so as to keep the industry so flourishing as that of violin-making in the 17th and early 18th centuries. The excellence of an instrument in respect of its varnish depended on the quality of the constituent materials, on the methods in which they were prepared, and finally on the method of its application. The most enduring and perfect varnish used for violins is an oil varnish, and the best results therefore generally the result of the use of linseed oil under vigorous application for the drying process. In this respect there can be no doubt that the southern climate placed the makers whose work lies in higher latitudes at a disadvantage. In a letter to Galilei in 1658 concerning a violin he had ordered from Cremona, the writer states that
"it cannot be brought to perfection without the strong heat of the sun"; and all recorded experience indicates the great importance of slow drying of the varnish under suitable conditions. Stradivari himself wrote to account for delay in the delivery of an instrument because the varnish was not yet dry. He also stated that the belly is close to the foot of the bridge, under the fourth string while that of least vibration is exactly over the top of the sound-post. The back, which is strongly agitated, also has its least vibration where the sound-post rests upon it. With the sound-post removed, the back is observed to vibrate more vigorously, while the vibration of the back was very feeble, and the tone became very poor; supporting the view that in the complete instrument the sound-post is as essential to the tone as the bridge is to the sound-post. Pressure on that point in the belly normally in contact with the top of the sound-post partially restored the proper character though not the power of the tone; indicating the influence of the place of the pressure, and the consequent oscillation, in determining largely the normal vibration of the belly. Modifications of the material of which the sound-post was made produced a profound effect upon the quality, but comparatively small effect upon the intensity of the sound; and it is the latter that is shown to be the most important part of the sound-post, from the point of view of transmitting vibrations from belly to back, the most important source is borne by the middle bouts, or incised sides at the waist of the instrument.

Experiments made lately afford some interesting evidence as to the nature of the vibrations set up in a sounding-box in response to those of a string at various pitches and under various conditions. These observations were made on a monochord and restricted to one portion of a sounding-board of regular shape. Experiments on similar lines made with an actual violin body might throw further light upon the behaviour of that instrument as a resonating body, if only sufficiently elaborated.

Two phenomena, familiar to violin players, are suggestive of further lines of research that may help to elucidate the problems of their origin. They are the peculiar feel of an old violin, and of the action of the wood under vibration. Many violins, especially old and inferior ones, fail to resonate clearly and fully to particular notes, the sounds produced being commonly known as "dead" or "stiff." The quality is due, it is said, to the way the wood is chosen and possibly always, associated with particular spots in the body of the instrument; for, if pressure be applied at these spots, the resonance of the respective string is greatly improved. This observation suggests that the region concerned has been, or has become disproportionately thin in relation to the normal thickness of the plate; and, when stimulated by the appropriate note, it cannot vibrate freely, as it would in a fresh violin, but is allowed to share, the proper vibrations of the plate as a whole; this interfering vibration being damped by local pressure. These defects are said to develop with age and constant use, and to be minimized by the use of thin strings but possibly by other means.

Detailed investigation of these phenomena on the lines of the experiments already referred to may have valuable results. Another well-known characteristic of the violin is that a new instrument, or one that has been played a great deal, has a double "sleeping" or "vibrato" note, which can be produced by a sharp blow on the body. This is due to the normal degree of rigidity after a period of rest. No conclusive interpretation of these experiments has yet been offered; but they indicate the probability of modifications of the internal viscosity and elasticity conditions which may affect the sound of the instrument.

The function of the bridge, as above mentioned, is to communicate the vibrations of the strings to the resonating body of the violin. The bridge is not free, but is fixed round the whole edge of a very irregular outline; and these conditions, together with those due to the arched plate and the unequal thickness of the plate, produce a system of stresses which are complicated by the deflection of the bridge under pressure in bending. This is the case in all modern bridges, whether of the straight or of the arched type; the bridge has been shown to be of great relative importance in determining the final result; it is, in fact, a device for distributing the normal stresses in bending above. In most modern bridges, the upper bouts are slightly smaller than the lower; so that the upper edges of the plates do not rest on the bridge, but the two plates converge in the direction of the head. Probably the most successful attempts at analysing the vibrations of the violin have been those made by Sir William Huggins, by means of photographic and x-ray methods; his experiments have been confirmed by Sir William Huggins, namely, that the strings, when at the bow, vibrate in a plane oblique to the vertical axis of the bridge; the vibrations may be accordingly resolved into vibrations parallel to and at right angles to this line. One of the strings to which the other is perpendicular—that is, in a direction favourable for setting the belly into vibration across its lines of support.
the transverse vibrations before they reach the belly. This is accomplished by a certain lateral elasticity of the bridge itself, attained by under-cutting the sides so as to allow the upper half of the bridge to oscillate or rock from side to side upon its central support, having done in setting up this oscillation absorbing the transverse vibrations above mentioned.

The function of the sound-post is on the one hand mechanical, and on the other acoustical. It serves the purpose of sustaining the greater share of the pressure of the strings, not so much to save the belly from yielding under that pressure, as to enable it to vibrate more freely in its several parts than it could do, if unsupported, under the stresses in which would be set up in its substance, already shown, its principal function. The post also by its contact with both vibrating plates is, as already shown, a governing factor in determining the nodal division of their surfaces, and its position therefore influences fundamentally the related states of vibration of the two plates of the instrument, and the compound oscillations set up in the contained body of air. This is an important element in determining the tone character of the instrument.

The immediate ancestors of the violins were the viols, which were the principal bowed instruments in use from the end of the 15th century. History: 15th to the end of the 17th century, during the latter part of which period they were gradually supplanted by the violin. The viols were of a similar nature to the violins, until towards the later part of the 18th century, when the general adoption of the larger pattern of violoncello drove the violin from the field it had occupied so long. The sole survivor of the viol type of instrument, although not itself an original member of the family, is the double bass of the modern orchestra, which retains many of the characteristic features of the viol, notably the flat back, with an oblique slope at the shoulders, the high bridge and deep ribs. Exciting the marble trumpet or bowed monochord, we find in Europe no trace of any large bowed instruments before the appearance of the violin. When the violin began to be used, the middle ages being all small enough to be rested on or against the shoulder during performance. The viols probably owe their origin directly to the minnesinger fiddles, which possessed several of the typical features of the violin, as distinct from the guitar family, and were sounded by a bow. These in their turn may be traced to the "guitar fiddle" (q.v.), a bowed instrument of the 13th century, with five strings, the lowest of which was longer than the rest, and was attached to a peg outside the head so as to clear the nut and finger-board, thus providing a fixed bass, or bourdon. This instrument, like all other specimens, had been published by the English Musical Antiquarian Society. Later, the viols, especially the bass, were employed as solo instruments, the methods of composition and execution being based on those of the lute. Most lute music is in fact equally adapted for the bass viol, and vice versa. In the 17th century, when the violin was coming into general use, constructive innovations began which resulted in the abandonment of the trio of pure six-stringed violins. Instruments which show these innovations are the quinton and the viola d'amore. The first-mentioned is of a type intermediate between the viol and the violin. In the case of the quinton and tenor viol the lowest string, which was probably found to be of little use, was abandoned, and the pressure on the bass side of the belly thus considerably lightened. The five strings were then spread out, as it were, to the compass of the six, so as to retain the fundamental principle of the outer strings being two octaves apart. This was effected by tuning the lower half of the instrument in fifths, as in the violin, and the upper half in fourths. This innovation altered the tuning of the treble and tenor viols, and in the case of the instrument was therefore tuned like a violin, the other half as in a violin, the middle string forming the division. The tenor viol thus improved was called in France the quinte, and the treble corresponding to it the quinton. From the numerous specimens which survive it must have been a popular instrument, as it is undoubtedly a substantially excellent one. The
relief in the bass, and the additional pressure caused by the higher tuning in the treble, gave it greater brilliancy, without destroying the pure, ready and sympathetic tone which characterizes the viol. While the tendency in the case of the discant and tenor was to lighten and brighten them, the reverse process took place in that of the bass. The richer and more sonorous tones of the viola da gamba were extended downwards by the addition of a string tuned to double bass A. A Marcel, a French virtuoso, is usually credited with this improvement; and this extended compass is recognized in the classical viola da gamba writings of Sebastien Bach and De Caix d'Hercule.

The result, however, was not universally satisfactory, for Abel used the six-stringed instrument; and the seven strings never came into general use in England, where the viol da gamba was more generally employed and survived longer than elsewhere.

The chief defect of the viol was its weakness of tone; this the makers sought to remedy in two ways: first by additional strings in unisons, thirds and octaves; and secondly by sympathetic strings of fine steel wire, laid under the fingerboard as close as possible to the belly, and sounding in sympathy with the notched string to which they were attached. These sympathetic strings were attached to ivory pegs driven into the bottom block, and, passing through the lower part of the bridge, or over a very low bridge of their own, were stretched to pitch either by means of additional pegs or by wrist pins driven into the sides of the head, and tuned with a key. Originally six, seven or eight wire strings were used, tuned to the diatonic scale of the piece to be performed. Later on a chromatic set of twelve was employed, and occasionally viols were made with twenty-four wire strings, two for each semitone in the scale. This system of reinforcement was applied to all the various sizes of viol in use during that period.

The improvements which resulted in the production of the violin proceeded on different lines. They consisted in increasing the resonance of the body of the instrument, by making it lighter and more symmetrical, and by stringing it more lightly. These changes transformed the body of the violin into that of the violin, and the transformation was completed by rejecting the lute tuning with its many strings, and tuning the instrument by fifths, as the fiddle had been tuned. The tenor violin appears to have been the first instrument in which the change was made, and thus the viola or treble viol, as it is now generally known, claimed as the father of the modern violin family. Violas were used in church music before the modern violin period, and violins as we know them were at first called "Piccoli Violini" to distinguish them from the earlier and larger instruments. A tenor viol of date 1500 is still extant, bearing in general outline the typical features of the violin, as distinct from the viol family. This instrument was exhibited in 1872 in the Loan Exhibition of Musical Instruments at South Kensington with the label "Pietro Zanure, Brescia, 1500." From existing specimens we know that a bass violin, precursor of the violoncello, with a tuning an octave below the tenor, appeared shortly after that instrument. A double bass violin, tuned a fourth below the violoncello and usually known as the "basso da camera," completed the set of instruments in violin shape; but from the difficulty attending its manipulation it never came into general use. The celebrated double bass viol, occasionally used: the "basso da camera," and an English player named Hancock, who dispensed with the highest or E string, is still remembered for his performances on this unusual instrument.

The tenor and violoncello are made on the same general model and principles as the violin, but with modifications. Both are, relatively to their pitch, made in smaller proportions than the violin, because, if they were constructed to dimensions having the same relation to pitch and tension of strings as the violin, they would not only have an overpowering tone but would be unmanageable from their size. These relatively diminished dimensions, both in the size of the instrument and in the thickness of the wood and strings, give to the tenor and violoncello a graver and more sympathetic tone. To some extent the reduced size is compensated for by giving them a greater proportional height in the ribs and bridge; an increase hardly perceptible in the tenor, but very noticeable in the violoncello. To lighten the tension and thus allow greater freedom of vibration to the belly on the bass side, as with the lowest string of the violin, the two lowest of the tenor and violoncello are made of thin gut, covered with fine metal wire; thus providing the necessary weight without inconvenient thickness. If the tension of the lowest string, or the two lowest strings, be increased, not only will they be elevated in pitch, but the violin will produce a more powerful tone; if the bass string be lowered, the contrary will take place. By adapting the music to this altered tuning (scordatura) some novel effects are produced. The following are the principal scordature which have been occasionally employed by various players:

The violoncello is less amenable to the scordatura than the violin; the only classical instance is the tuning employed by Bach in his fifth sonata, which consists in lowering the first string by a tone.

The early Italian school is chiefly represented by the Brescian makers, Gaspar da Salò, Giovanni Paolo Maggini, Givolta Rodiani and Zanetto Peregrino. It is, however, somewhat misleading to denominate it the Brescian school, for its characteristics are shared by the earliest makers of Cremona, and Venice. To eyes familiar with the geometrical curves of the later Cremona school, most of the violins of these makers have a rude and uncoeh apparent. The height of the model varies; the pattern is attenuated; the f-holes share the general rudeness of design, and are set high in the pattern. Andreas Amati of Cremona, the eldest maker of that name, effected some improvements on this primitive model; but the violin owes most to his sons, Antonio and Geronimo, who were partners. They introduced the substantial improvements which developed the Brescian violin into the modern instrument. These improvements were in their inception probably of an artistic rather than a scientific nature. Painting and inlaying had long been employed in the decoration of strings instruments; but the brothers Amati were the first who applied to the violin the fundamental law of decorative art, that the decorative and constructive elements should be blended in their conception: in other words, the construction should be itself decorative and the decoration itself constructive. Nicholas Amati (1596–1654), son of Geronimo, made some slight improvements in the model, and his pupil Antonio Stradivari (1644–1737) finally settled the typical Cremona pattern, which has been generally followed; for the majority of violins since made, whether by good or bad makers, are copies of Stradivari. Besides the last-named, the following makers worked generally on the Amati model—Cappa, Gobetti, the Grancino family, Andreas Guarnieri and his son Giuseppe, the Ruggeri family and Serafin of Venice. The Bergonzi family, Alessandro Gagliano, the earlier members of the Guarnerini family, and Panormo were either pupils or followers of Stradivari. But excepting Carlo Bergonzi and Stradivari’s two sons, Omobono and Francesco, there is no evidence of
any having actually worked with or for him. Landolfi, Storioni, and Carlo Giuseppe Testore, a pupil of Giovanni Grancino, leaned to the model of Giuseppe Guarneri del Gesù. Some resemblances, especially in the matter of the varnish, are traceable between the works of makers who lived contemporaneously in the same town, e.g. in Naples, Milan and Venice.

A high model was adopted by Jacob Stainer of Absam, near Hall in Tirol, whose well-known pattern was chiefly followed by the makers of England, Tirol and Germany, down to the middle of the 18th century. It therefore formed the immediate prototype of the Cremona violin. The school of Stainer is represented by Albani, Horstein, the Klotz family (who made large numbers of instruments excellent in their kind), Schorn of Salzburg and Witham of Nuremberg, and others. The English makers may be divided into three successive groups: (1) an antique English school, having a character of its own (Rayman, Urquhart, Pamphilon, Barak Norman, Duke, of Oxford, &c.); (2) imitators of Stainer, at the head of whom stands Peter Wamsley (Smith, Barrett, Cross, Hill, Airton, Nichols, Luxford), whose school of imitations (e.g., the Bocquay, pattern &c.) stands as the model, ultimate or adopted by Stradivari, has survived as the most efficient pattern for all modern instruments. The distinction of degree, of the effects of material differences of an actual kind, and cases approximately little more than a quarter of an inch in the convexity of the belly above the top line of the ribs; but the difference in character of tone of the two types is, in the main, well marked. Speaking generally, the tone of the high-built instrument is less powerful and sweeter, and it speaks more readily, but responds less completely to gradations of tone under the action of the bow than the higher type, which yields a tone of greater carry and also of greater intensity, susceptible to more subtle modification by the player, and with a peculiar penetrating quality lacking in the highly archd model. These differences in tone probably depend less on the position of the sound-holes or sound-post, than on the incidental effects of cutting the wood to the higher or lower arch; for it would seem that the best results in tone have been attained in instruments with a fairly constant volume of chamber, and with the sides neither highly increased in proportion to the height of arch in the best examples of the different models. In the high-cut arch the fibres of the wood on the upper surface are necessarily cut shorter, with the result that the plate as a whole does not vibrate so perfectly as in the flatter model, and this has a weakening effect on the tone. Again, the higher arch, with steeper curves towards the sides, necessitates the inclination of the sound-holes at a considerable angle to the main horizontal plane of the instrument; and it is conceivable that, under such conditions, the vibrations of the upper layer of air within the body are dissipated too readily, before the composite vibrations of the whole mass can be brought to bear in their concentrated effect upon the chord of the bow. Apart from these acoustical considerations, the question is probably one of material, the flatter construction demanding the use of a very strong and elastic wood in relation to the most suitable thickness, in order to withstand the pressure of the bridge, a resistance which the higher arch renders possible with a stiffer and more brittle material; and the effect of these qualities upon tone must be taken into account in estimating the tone characters of the two types of instrument.

Broadly speaking, the higher-arched type found favour with the earlier makers up to the end of the Amati period. Stainer in Tirol inclined a little to the Italian, and in England, under the direction of this head, which left little doubt in this regard, directions of this kind, whether in England, in Italy or in France, to have developed on independent lines, the tradition that he learnt his craft from the Amati being no longer tenable. The fakers of the late 18th century and earlier in his age to some extent maintained the immediate influence of the Amati and developed on his own incomparable lines a somewhat larger and more powerful instrument, adapted to the requirements of the increasing class of solo players.

The violins as a distinctive family of instruments cannot be fully discussed without reference to the bow (q.v.) as an essential adjunct, on account of the very important part taken by the bow in determining, as already mentioned, the peculiar form of the vibrations of the string, and in controlling, in the hands of a skilled player, the subtle gradations of tone produced from the instrument. The evolution of the modern bow has taken place almost entirely since the violin attained its final form, and has followed, more completely perhaps than the instrument itself, the development of violin music and the requirements of the player. It attained its highest perfection at the hands of the celebrated François Tourte of Paris. The bow, produced and copyrighted as a model for all succeeding makers, even more exclusively than the violins of Stradivari controlled the pattern of later instruments; and at the present time Tourte bows are valued beyond any others.

For more than 250 years the violin and its larger brethren have held the leading position among musical instruments. For them have been written some of the most inspired works of the great musicians. Famous composers, such as Tartini, Corelli, Spohr and Viotti have been great violinists, and by their composition have largely developed the capacity of the violin as a vehicle of profound musical expression. To the listener the violin speaks with an intensity, a sympathy, and evokes a thrill in the senses that no other instrument can produce. For the player it seems to respond to every pulse of his emotions.


VIOLLET, PAUL MARIE (1805— ), French historian, was born at Tours on the 24th of October 1840. After serving his native city as secretary and archivist, he became archivist to the national archives in Paris in 1856, and later librarian to the faculty of law. In 1856 he was appointed professor of civil and canon law at the École des Chartes. His work mainly concerns the history of law and institutions, and on this subject he published two valuable and scholarly books—Droit public: Histoire des institutions politiques et administratives de la France (1890—8), and Précis de l'histoire du droit français (1886).

VIOLLET-LE-DUC, EUGÈNE EMMANUEL (1814—1879), French architect and writer on archaeology, was born in Paris on the 21st of January 1814. He was a pupil of Achille Leclère, and in 1836—37 spent a year studying Greek and Roman architecture in Sicily and Rome. His chief interest was, however, in the art of the Gothic period, and, like Sir Gilbert Scott in England, was employed to "restore" some of the chief medieval buildings of France, his earliest works being the abbey church of Vézelay, various churches at Poissy, St Michel at Carcassonne, the church of Semur in Côte-d’Or, and the fine Gothic town halls of Saint-Antoin and Narbonne, all carried out between 1840 and 1850. From 1845 to 1856 he was occupied on the restoration of Notre Dame in Paris in conjunction with Lassus,1 and also with that of the abbey of St Denis. In 1849 he began the restoration of the fortifications of Carcassonne and of Amiens cathedral, and in later years he restored Lourdes cathedral, the château of Pierrefonds and many other important buildings. He was an intimate friend of Napoleon III., and during the siege of Paris (1871) gave valuable help as an engineer to the beleaguered army. He held many important offices, both artistic and political, and was for many years inspector-general of the ancient buildings throughout a large part of France. His last work was the general scheme

1He published in 1867—69 a fine work showing his not very successful coloured decoration applied to the chapels of Notre Dame.
for the Paris exhibition buildings in 1878. He died on the 17th of September 1879 at Lausanne.

As a designer Viollet-le-Duc occupied only a secondary place; but as a writer on medieval architecture and the kindred arts he takes the highest rank. His two great dictionaries are the standard works in their class, and are most beautifully illustrated with very skilful drawings by his own hand. Viollet-le-Duc was a man of the most varied and brilliant abilities, endowed with a power of work which has seldom been equalled. He was at once an artist, a man of science, a learned archaeologist and a scholar. The map in his Le Massif du Mont Blanc, showing the rock contours and the glaciers of Mont Blanc, is a model of its kind, which combines great artistic beauty with the accuracy of the most skilful engineer. His strong poetical fancy enabled him to reconstruct and buildings of the middle ages in the most vivid way.

His principal literary works were the Dictionnaire de l'architecture française du XI. au XVI. siècle (1854-68); Dictionnaire du mobilier français (1858-75); L'Architecture militaire au moyen âge (1854); Entretiens sur l'architecture (1865-72); Cités et ruines américaines (1869); Mémoire sur la défense de Paris (1871); Habitations modernes (1874-77); Histoire d'une maison (1875); Histoire d'une cité (1876); Le Massif du Mont Blanc (1876); L'Art russe (1877); Histoire d'un hôtel-de-ville et d'une cathédrale (1878); La Décoration appliquée aux édifices (1879); as well as many minor works dealing with separate buildings.

VIOLONCELLO (Fr. violoncelle, Ger. Violoncell, Ital. violoncello), the bass member of the violin family. Although the word violoncello is a diminutive, signifying "small violone," or double bass, the instrument is really a bass violin, formed on a different model from the violoncello, which has the sloping shoulders and flat back of the viol family, whereas those of the violoncello are rounded as in the violin. The construction of the violoncello is therefore the same as that of the violin (q.v.), but on a much larger scale. It is either held, on account of its size, between the performer's knees, or rests on the floor supported on a foot or spike.

VIONVILLE, a village of Lorraine, between Metz and the French frontier, celebrated as the scene of the battle of Vionville (Rezonville or Mars-la-Tour), fought on the 16th of August 1870 between the French and the Germans (see METZ and FRANCE, German War).

VIOTTI, GIOVANNI BATTISTA (1755-1824), Italian violinst and musical composer, was born at Fontanetto in the province of Turin on the 23rd of May 1755. He learned the rudiments of music from his father, a blacksmith who played the horn; and in 1764 Giovannini taught him the violin for a year. Two years later he was placed at the cost of the prince de la Cisterne under the violinist G. Pugnani at Turin, where he became violinist in the court chapel. In 1780 Viotti, having already made himself a name, travelled through Germany and Poland to Russia, where the empress Catherine honoured him with marks of extraordinary favour. He next appeared in London, in company with Pugnani, and at once achieved a brilliant and lasting reputation. In 1782 he was equally successful in Paris. Two years later he was appointed leader of the prince de Soubise's private orchestra; and in 1785 he undertook the direction of the opera, raising the performances, with Cherubini's assistance, to a very high level. He had also started an Italian opera in co-operation with the barber Léonard, which was opened in 1789 in the Tuileries, being subsequently amalgamated with the Théâtre de la Foire St. Germain in 1790 and finally merged in the new Théâtre Feydeau in 1791. In 1791 the Revolution compelled Viotti to fly to London, where he took part in the Hanover Square concerts; but being suspected to be an agent of the Revolutionary Committee in Paris he was compelled to retire for a time to the neighbourhood of Hamburg, which he subsequently quitted, although the date of his departure, often given as 1795, does not seem probable. It is possible that he was already in 1794 in London, where he took shares in a wine business, and he resided almost uninterrupted there until 1819, when he once more settled in Paris, resumed the direction of the opera, and retired in 1822 with a pension. He died in London on the 10th (or 3rd) of March 1824.

Viotti's playing was distinguished by an extreme purity of style, a magnificent tone, and an inexhaustible variety of poetical and imaginative expression. Among his works are 29 violin concertos, a series of symphonies concertantes for two violins, 45 duos, 18 trios and 21 quartets, and a great number of sonatas, nocturnos and other instrumental works. His school was worthily perpetuated by his pupil Rode.

VIPER. The vipers constitute a family of Old-World poisonous snakes, with a pair of poisonous fangs in the maxillary bones, which are short and movable. The main anatomical features are described in the article SNAKES. In the present article only the Viperinae, namely those without an external pit between the eye and the nose, are described. Pit vipers, or Crotalinae, are treated under SNAKES, and those which are possessed of a rattle under RATTLESNAKE. The true vipers comprise about nine genera with some forty species, which can be distinguished as follows:

Causus in Africa, and Asempodium feae in Burma, are the only vipers which have the head covered with large symmetrical shields, while in the other genera the head shields are broken up into small shields, or into still more numerous scales. C. rhombobothus, common from the Gambia to the Cape.

Atheris, small burrowing snakes in Africa, without post-frontal bones.

Echis and Atheris have only one row of subcaudal shields. E. carinata, scarcely exceeding 20 in. in length, is very poisonous and easily overlooked on account of its light brown coloration, with pale spots and delicate markings on the keels of the scales of the back. It is a desert type, having the lateral scales strongly keeled and directed downwards, by means of which it shuffles itself into the sand; by folding itself and rubbing itself together

![Pearson Jr.](image)

Fig. 1.—Echis carinata. The "Krait" of India.

it produces a rustling sound. It ranges from India, where it is known as the "Krait," called "Kuppur" in Sind, through North Africa. This desert type is replaced farther south in Africa, where vegetation flourishes, by the closely allied genus, Atheris, which, however, possesses a prehensile tail and vivid coloration and has assumed truly arboreal habits.

Cerastes is another desert form, but is restricted to Africa; the arrangement of the scales of the sides of the body is similar to that of
**VIRBIUS**, an old Italian divinity, associated with the worship of Diana at Aricia (see DIANA). Under Greek influence, he was identified with Hippolytus (q.v.), who after he had been trampled to death by the horses of Poseidon was restored to life by Asclepius and removed by Artemis to the grove at Aricia, which horses were not allowed to enter. Virbius was the oldest priest of Diana, the first “king of the grove” (Rex Nemorensis). He is said to have established the rule that any candidate for the office should meet and slay in single combat its holder at the time, who always went about armed with a drawn sword in anticipation of the struggle. Candidates had further to be fugitives (probably slaves), and as a preliminary had to break off a bough from a specified tree. By the eponymous nymph Aricia, Virbius had a son of the same name, who fought on the side of the Rutulian Turnus against Aeneas. J. G. Frazer formerly held Virbius to be a wood and tree spirit, to whom horses, in which form tree spirits were often represented, were offered in sacrifice. His identification with Hippolytus and the manner of the latter’s death would explain the exclusion of horses from his grove. This spirit might easily be confounded with the sun, whose power was supposed to be stored up in the warm-thriving tree. Sauer (in Roscher’s Lexikon) also identifies which are hunted after sunset. They cannot climb and they avoid going into water. The pairing takes place from March to May.

**FIG. 3.—Bitis nasicornis.**

**FIG. 2.—Atheris burtoni.** (Length, 12 in.) in his back. He, however, appeared not to suffer the slightest inconvenience, and was never the worse for it (see Proc. Zool. Soc. 1871, p. 635).

**Vipera.**—The head is covered with small scales and a few larger shields. The eye is separated from the labials by small scales; the nasals are in contact with the rostral and are separated by one naso-rostral. The scales of the body are strongly keeled; two rows of subcaudals on the short tail. This genus of about ten species with numerous local varieties ranges over Europe, Asia and the greater part of Africa.

**V. borus,** the common European viper, ranging from Wales to Sikkim and from Caithness to the north of Spain, from the northern boundary of Persia to beyond the Arctic circle in Scandinavia. It inhabits all sorts of situations, but prefers heaths, moors and mixed woods with sunny slopes. It ascends the Alps up to 6000 or 7000 ft. The coloration is very variable, grey, brown, reddish or entirely black. Some occurring in the same country. The much-spoken-of black zigzag line along the back is so often indistinct, that it cannot be relied upon as a safe character. The fully grown males are smaller than the females, and have usually darker markings and a lighter ground colour. A specimen which is 2 ft. long is rare, and is invariably a female. The chief food is mice, and the young are born about four months later. During the pairing, and for hibernation, they often collect in considerable numbers. Whilst most snakes readily take proper food in captivity, these vipers prefer starving themselves to death, a feat which they accomplish within six to nine months according to conditions. As a rule their bite is not fatal to man, but the consequences are often serious and protracted. For treatment see SNAKES.

**V. aspis** is the more southern and western continental European viper; it is slightly snout-nosed, and this feature is still more pronounced in **V. latastei** of Spain and Portugal. In **V. ammodytes** of south-eastern Europe the raised portion is produced into a soft, scaly appendage. **V. russelli,** the “Daboiya,” is one of the most poisonous snakes of India, Ceylon, Java, Burma and Siam. It is pale brown with three longitudinal series of black, light-edged rings which encircle reddish spots. It grows to a length of about 5 ft.

(H. F. G.)

_Echis_, but it has two rows of subcaudals. _C. cornutus_, the “horned viper” of North Africa, is from Algeria to Palestine, has a large horned spike above each eye. This, the “Elfa” of the Arabs, buries itself in the sand, with only the eyes, nostrils and the horns appearing above the surface. It attains a length of 2 ft. _C. vipea_ is hornless. _Bitis s. Echidna s. Clotho_ has two rows of shields on the underside of the very short tail; the thick head is much depressed, like the body. The nasal shields are separated from the rostral by small scales, otherwise much resembling the genus _Vipera_. _B. arietans_, the “puff-adder” of nearly the whole of Africa, an ugly, very dangerous brute growing to a length of 4 or 5 ft. _B. nasicornis_, the West African nose-horned viper, has a pair of erectile scales on the nose. Scarcely smaller and less bulky than the puff-adder and just as poisonous, it is yet very handsomely marked with a reddish or purplish ground. Especially handsome are the young, which at birth are as much as 1 ft. in length. On one occasion one of these snakes, after giving birth to twenty-one young (which hit and killed mice within five minutes of being born), became very ill-tempered, and when two adult males were placed in her cage she bit one with such violence as to break off one of her fangs, which she left, about three-quarters of an inch in length, sticking
Hippolytus with the "health-giving sun," and Virchow with a healing god akin to Asclepius. Frazer's latest view is that he is the old cult associate of Diana of Aricia (to whom he is related as Attis to Cybele or Adonis to Venus), the mythical predecessor or archetype of the kings of the grove. This grove was probably an oak grove, and the oak being sacred to Jupiter, the king of the grove (and consequently Virchow) was a local form of Jupiter. A. B. Cook suggests that he may be the god of the stream of Nemi.


**VIRCHOW, RUDOLF** (1821-1902), German pathologist and politician, was born on the 13th of October 1821 at Schivelbein, in Pomernia, where his father was a small farmer and shopkeeper. As a boy he attended the *Volkschule* of his native village, and at the age of seventeen, having passed through the gymnasium of Köslin, went to Berlin to study medicine. He took his doctor's degree in 1843, and almost immediately received an appointment as assistant-surgeon at the Charité Hospital, becoming pro-rector three years later. In 1847 he began to act as Privatdozent in the university, and founded with Reinhardt, the *Archiv für pathologische Anatomie und Physiologie, which, after his collaborator's death in 1852, he carried on alone, and in 1858 he founded and edited a series of which the first volume was published in 1852. He began to investigate an outbreak of typhus in upper Silesia. About the same time, having shown too open sympathy with the revolutionary or reforming tendencies of 1848, he was for political reasons obliged to leave Berlin and retire to the seclusion of Würzburg, the medical school of which profited enormously by his labours as professor of pathological anatomy, and secured a wide extension of its reputation. In 1856 he was recalled to Berlin as ordinary professor of pathological anatomy in the university, and as director of the Pathological Institute formed a centre for research whence has flowed a constant stream of original work on the nature and processes of disease. On the 14th of October 1901 his eightieth birthday was celebrated in Berlin amid a brilliant gathering of men of science, part of the ceremonies taking place in the new Pathological Museum, near the Charité, which owes its existence mainly to his energy and powers of organization. On that occasion all Europe united to do him honour, many learned societies sent delegates to express their congratulations, the king of Italy gave him his own portrait on a gold medallion, and among the numerous addresses he received was a sum of vital unities, each of which manifested the characteristics of life, has almost uniformly dominated the theory of disease since the middle of the 19th century, when it was enunciated. The beginnings of his doctrine of cellular pathology date from the earliest period in his career. When, towards the end of his student-days in Berlin, he was acting as clinical assistant in the eye department of the Berlin Hospital, he noticed that in keratitis and corneal wounds healing took place without the appearance of plastic exudation. This observation led him to further work, and he succeeded in showing that in vascular organs the presence of cells in inflammatory exudates is not the result of exudation but of multiplication of pre-existing cells. Eventually he was able to prove that the biological doctrine of *omnis cellula cellula* applies to pathological processes as well as to those of normal growth, and in his famous book on cellular-pathologic, published at Berlin in 1858, he established what Lord Lister described as the "true and fertile doctrine that every morbid structure consists of cells which have been derived from pre-existing cells as a progeny." But in addition to bringing forward a fundamental and philosophical view of morbid processes, which probably contributed more than any other single cause to vindicate for pathology the place which he claimed for it among the biological sciences, Virchow made many contributions to histology and morbid anatomy and to the study of particular diseases. The classification into epithelial organs, connective tissues, and the more specialized muscle and nerve, was largely due to him; and he proved the presence of neuroglia in the brain and spinal cord, discovered crystalline haematoxyl, and made out the structure of the umbilical cord. Medical science further owes to him the classification of new growths on a natural histological basis, the elucidation of leucæma, glioma and lardaceous tumours, and detailed investigations into many diseases—tuberculosis, pyaemia, diptheria, leprosy, typhus, &c. Among the books he published on pathological and medical subjects may be mentioned *Vorlesungen über Pathologie,* the first volume of which was the Cellular-pathologie (1858), and the remaining three *Die Krankheiten der Geschwülste* (1863-67); *Handbuch der speziellen Pathologie und Therapie* (3 vols., 1854-62), in collaboration with other German surgeons; *Gesammelte Abhandlungen zur wissenschaftlichen Medizin* (1856); *Vier Reden über Leben und Kranksein* (1862); *Untersuchungen über die Entwicklung des Schadelgründers* (1857); *Lehre von den Trichinen* (1865); *Die Hungersnöte** (1847, 1848) and *Gesammelte Abhandlungen aus dem Gebiete der öffentlichen Medizin und der Seuchenlehre* (1879). In England his pathological work won general recognition. The Royal Society awarded him the Copley medal in 1802, and selected him as Cronian lecturer in the following year, his subject being the position of pathology among the biological sciences; and in 1808 he delivered the second Hussey memorial lecture at Charing Cross Hospital.

Another science which Virchow cultivated with conspicuous success was anthropology, which he did much to put on a sound critical basis. At the meeting of the Naturforschervereinigung at Innsbruck in 1869, he was one of the founders of the German Anthropological Society, of which he became president in the following year; and from 1869 onwards he presided over the Berlin Anthropological Society, also acting as editor of its proceedings in the *Zeitschrift für Ethnologie.* In ethnology he published a volume of essays on the physical anthropology of the Germans, with special reference to the Frisians; and at his instance a census, which yielded remarkable results, was carried out among school children throughout Germany, to determine the relative distribution of blondes and brunettes. His anthropological work included the investigation of lake dwellings and other prehistoric structures; he went with Schliemann to Troy in 1870, fruits of the expedition being two books, *Zur Landeskunde der Troas* (1880) and *Alt-trojanische Griber und Schädel* (1882); in 1881 he visited the Caucasus, and on his return published *Das Gräberfeld von Koban im Lande der Ostoten*; and in 1888 he accompanied Schliemann to Egypt, Nubia, and the Peloponnesse.

As a politician Virchow had an active career. In 1862 he was elected a member of the Prussian Lower House. Professing a democratic sympathy with the working classes, he became leader of the Fortschrittspartei, and the expression *Kulturkampf* had, it is believed, its origin in one of his electoral manifestoes. For many years he was chairman of the finance committee, and in that capacity may be looked upon as a chief founder of the constitutional Prussian Budget system. In 1880 he entered the Reichstag as representative of a Berlin constituency, but was ousted in 1883 by a Social Democrat. In the Reichstag he became the leader of the Opposition, and a vigorous antagonist to Bismarck. In the local and municipal politics of Berlin again he took a leading part, and as a member of the municipal council was largely responsible for the transformation which came over the city in the last thirty years of the 19th century. That it has become one of the healthiest cities in the world from being one of the unhealthiest is...
attributable in great measure to his insistence on the necessity of sanitary reform, and it was his unceasing efforts that secured for its inhabitants the drainage system, the sewage farms and the good water-supply, the benefits of which are reflected in the decreased death-rate they now enjoy. In respect of hospitals and the treatment of the sick his energy and knowledge were of enormous advantage. Unfortunately, both of peace and of war, and the unparalleled accommodation for medical treatment possessed by Berlin is a standing tribute to his name, which will be perpetuated in one of the largest hospitals of the city.

Of his writings on social and political questions may be mentioned Die Erziehung des Weibes (1865); Über die nationale Entwicklung und Bedeutung der Naturwissenschaften (1865); Die Aufgaben der Naturwissenschaften neuesten Lebens Deutschlands (1871); Die Freiheit der Wissenschaft im modernen Staat (1877), in which he opposed the idea of Haeckel—that the principles of evolution should be taught in elementary schools—on the ground that they were not as yet proved, and that it was mischievous to teach a hypothesis which still remained in the speculative stage.

See Lives by Becher (Berlin, 1894) and Pagel (Leipzig, 1906); Rudolf Virchow ALS Patholog by Marchand (Munich, 1902); Rudolf Virchow ALS Arzt by Esteban (Stuttgart, 1903); Gedächtnisrede auf R. Virchow (Berlin, 1903); and Briefe Virchows an seine Eltern 1830-1864, by Marie Ranib (Leipzig, 1907). A bibliography of his works was published at Berlin in 1901.

VIRE, a town of north-western France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Calvados, 47 m. S.W. of Caen by rail. Pop. (1906) 6228. Vire stands on an eminence surrounded on three sides by the Vire and crowned by the remains of a 12th-century chateau. The church of Notre Dame (13th to 15th century), and the picturesque Tour de l'Horloge (13th century), beneath which runs the chief street, are the principal buildings. A library and a small museum with good collections of porcelain, pictures and curiosities, are installed in the town hall (17th and 18th centuries). In the public garden there is a statue of Marshal Jacques Goyon, comte de Matignon (1752-1597); and the native poets C. J. L. Chénodolé and P. L. R. Castel are represented, the former by a marble bust, the latter by a bronze statue. Vire grew up around a castle built in the 12th century by Henry I. of England, and in the middle ages was one of the important strongholds of Normandy. South-west of the town is the gorge called Vaux-de-Vire, in which was situated the mill of Olivier Basselin (15th century), the fuller and reputed author of the satiric songs, hence known as “vaudevilles” (see BASSELIN, OLIVIER).

VIRELAY, the title applied to more than one fixed form of verse, from the French verger, to turn or veer. The history and exact character of the virelay are more obscure than those of any other of the old French forms. It is possible that it is connected with the Provençal ley. Historians of poetry have agreed in stating that it is a modification of the medieval lai, but it is curious that no example of the lai is forthcoming, except the following, which was first printed by the Père Mourgues in his Tradit de la Poesie:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Lines</th>
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| “Sur l'appui du Monde                                              | Que faut-il qu'on fonde
| D'espér.                                                            | Cette mer profonde
| Et débris féconde                                                   | Fait voir
| Calme au matin l'onde                                               | Et l'orage ye gronde
| Le Soir.                                                            |                                                                    |

But this appears to be, not a complete poem, but a fragment of a virelay, which proceeds by shifting or “veering” the two rhymes to an extent limited only by the poet’s ingenuity. This is the Old Virelay (virelai ancien), of which examples have been rare in recent literature. There is, however, a New Virelay (virelai nouveau), the newness of which is merely relative, since it was used by Alain Chartier in the 15th century. In French the old and popular verses beginning—

<table>
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<th>Title</th>
<th>Lines</th>
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<tr>
<td>“Adieu vous dy triste Lyre,</td>
<td>C'est trop appétier à rire,</td>
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form a perfect example of the New Virelay, and in English we have at least one admirable specimen in Mr Austin Dobson’s “July” —

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Title</th>
<th>Lines</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Good-bye to the Town! good-bye!</td>
<td>Hurrah! for the sea and the sky”</td>
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The New Virelay is entirely written on two rhymes, and begins with two lines which are destined to form recurrent refrains throughout the whole course of the poem, and, reversed in order, to close it with a couplet. The virelay is a vaguer and less vertebre form of verse than the sonnet, the ballad or the villanelle, and is of less importance than these in the history of prosody.

VIRGIL (Publius Vergilius Maro), the great Roman poet, was born on the 15th of October in the year 70 B.C., on a farm on the banks of the Minio, in the district of Andes, not far from the town of Mantua. In the region north of the Po the race of more imaginative susceptibility than the people of Latium formed part of the Latin-speaking population. It was favourable to his development as a national poet that he was born and educated during the interval of comparative calm between the first and second civil wars, and that he belonged to a generation which, as the result of the social war, first enjoyed the sense of an Italian nationality. Yet it was only after Virgil had grown to manhood that the province to which he belonged obtained the full rights of Roman citizenship. It is remarkable that the two poets whose imagination could have been most powerfully possessed by the spell of Rome—Ennius and Virgil—were born outside the circle of Roman citizenship.

The scenery familiar to his childhood, which he recalls with affection both in the Eclogues and the Georgics, was that of the green banks and slow windings of the Minio and the rich pastures in its neighbourhood. Like his friend and contemporary Horace, he sprang from the class of yeomen, whose state he pronounces the happiest allotted to man and most conducive to virtue and piety. Virgil, as well as Horace, was fortunate in having a father who, though probably uneducated himself, perceived his genius and spared no pains in giving it the best culture then obtainable in the world. At the age of twelve he was taken for his education to Cremona, and from an expression in one of the minor poems attributed to him, about the authenticity of which there cannot be any reasonable doubt, it may be inferred that his father accompanied him. Afterwards he removed to Milan, where he continued engaged in study till he went to Rome two years later. The time of his removal to Rome must have nearly coincided with the publication of the poem of Lucretius and of the collected poems of Catullus.

After studying rhetoric he began the study of philosophy under Siron the Epicurean. One of the minor poems written about this time in the seazon metre tells of his delight at the immediate prospect of entering on the study of philosophy, and of the first stirring of that enthusiasm for philosophical investigation which haunted him through the whole of his life. At the end of the poem, the real master-passion of his life, the charm of the Muses, reasserts itself (Calileption v.). An essential knowledge of him is derived from allusions in the Eclogues, and belongs to a period nine or ten years later. Of what happened to him in the interval, during which the first civil war took place and Julius Caesar was assassinated, we have no indication from ancient testimony or from his own writings. In 42 B.C., the year of the battle of Philippi, we find him “cultivating his woodland Muse” under the protection of Asinius Pollio, governor of the district north of the Po. In the following year the famous confiscations of land for the benefit of the soldiers of the triumvirs took place. Of the impression produced on Virgil by these confiscations, and of their effect on his fortunes, we have a vivid record in the first and ninth eclogues. Mantua, in consequence of its vicinity to Cremona, which had been faithful to the cause of the republic, was involved in this calamity; and Virgil’s father was
driven from his farm. By the influence of his powerful friends, and by personal application to the young Octavian, Virgil obtained the restitution of his land. In the meantime he had taken the undertaking of his family with him to the small country house of his old teacher Siron (Catalpiion x.).

Soon afterwards we hear of him living in Rome, enjoying, in addition to the patronage of Pollio, the favour of Maecenas, intimate with Varus, who was at first regarded as the rising poet of the new era, and later on with Horace. His friendship with Gallus, for whom he indicates a warmer affection and more enthusiastic admiration than for any one else, was formed before his second residence in Rome, in the Cispalpine province, with which Gallus also was connected both by birth and office. The works which are called "Eclogues," commenced in his native district, were finished and published in Rome, probably in 37 B.C. Soon afterwards he withdrew from habitual residence in Rome, and lived chiefly in Campania, either at Naples or in the neighbourhood of Nola. He was one of the companions of Horace in the famous journey to Brundisium; and it seems not unlikely that, some time before 23 B.C., he made the voyage to Athens which forms the subject of the third ode of the first book of the Odes of Horace.

The seven years from 37 to 30 B.C. were devoted to the composition of the Georgics. In the following year he read the poem to Augustus, on his return from Asia. The remaining years of his life were spent on the composition of the Aeneid. In 19 B.C., after the Aeneid was finished but not finally corrected, he set out for Athens, intending to pass three years in Greece and Asia and to devote that time to perfecting the poem. At Athens he met Augustus, and was persuaded by him to return with him to Italy. While visiting Megara under a burning sun, he was seized with illness, and, as he continued his voyage without interruption, he grew rapidly worse, and died on the 21st of September, in his fifty-first year, a few days after landing at Brundisium. In his last illness he called for the cases containing his manuscripts, with the intention of burning the Aeneid. He had previously left directions in his will that his literary executors, Varus and Tucca, should publish nothing of his which had not already been given to the world by himself. This pathetic desire that the work to which he had given so much care, and of which such great expectations were formed, should not survive him has been used as an argument to prove his own dissatisfaction with the poem. A passage from a letter of his to Augustus is quoted, in which he says if he felt that the attaining of the work had been a mistake. This dissatisfaction with his work may be ascribed to his passion for perfection of workmanship, which death prevented him from attaining. The command of Augustus overrode the poet's wish and rescued the poem.

Virgil was buried at Naples, where his tomb was long regarded with religious veneration. Horace is our most direct witness of the affection which he inspired among his contemporaries. The qualities by which he gained their love were, according to his testimony, candor—sincerity of nature and goodness of heart—and pietas—the union of deep affection for kindred, friends, and country with a spirit of reverence. The statement of his biographer, that he was known in Naples by the name "Parthenias," is a testimony to the exceptional purity of his life in an age of licence. The seclusion of his life and his devotion to his art touched the imagination of his countrymen as the finer qualities of his nature touched the hearts of his friends. It had been, from the time of Cicero, 1 the ambition of the men of finest culture and most original genius in Rome to produce a national literature which might rival that of Greece; and the feeling that at last a poem was about to appear which would equal or surpass the greatest among all the works of Greek genius found a voice in the lines of Propertius—

"Cedite Romani scriptores, cedite Grai; Nescio quis majus mascula laudem.

1 Cf. Tusc. Disp. ii. 2: "Quamobrem hortor aemus qui fucem id possunt, ut hujus quoque generis laudem jam launguent Graeciae eripiant," &c. These words apply specially to philosophical literature, but other passages in the same and in other works imply that Cicero thought that the Romans had equal aptitudes for other departments of literature; and the practice of the Augustan poets in each appropriating to himself a special province of Greek literary art seems to indicate the same ambition.
was a religious consecration of all his powers of heart, mind and spirit to his high office.

Virgil's fame as a poet rests on the three acknowledged works of his early and mature manhood—the pastoral poems or Eclogues, the Georgics, and the Aeneid—all written in that hexameter verse which Terence called “the nearest measure to the music of man.”

“The most stately measure ever moulded by the lips of man.”

The pastoral poems or Eclogues—a word denoting short selected pieces—were composed between the years 42 and 37 B.C., when Virgil was twenty and eighteen, respectively, the revision of the first five being made in 34 B.C. By his invitation to the “Sicelides Musae” and “Arethusa,” and by many other indications, he avows the purpose of an allegory, which has led to the germinal criticism of the放进 to a sentiment, the peace.”

aeonk*. dirge supposed, The parallel Mayor, the his his life character of poetic influence. fills of creation celebrates the pieces of Georgia his mature office. is old time. Theocritus was The earliest days of Virgil from the sixth consulship (1907). The first Vergil's date and measure of the Aeneid is probably B.C., and his seventh, with many others, gives the poem "the measure of the things beautiful, if the charm of Virgil's office. The third great work of Virgil is the Georgics, of which he is regarded as the first model, as Virgil's poetic life is the Aeneid, and its treatment of the life of rural habits, the true identities of nature, by the genius and attitude of the philosophical poet. He is possessed by his imaginative conception of nature, as a living, all-pervading power; he shares his Italian love of the beauty of the world, and his sympathy with animal as well as human life. He recognizes with enthusiasm his contemplative elevation above the petty interests and passions of life. But he is remodelled by his apparent separation from the ordinary beliefs, hopes and fears of his fellow-men. Virgil is in thorough sympathy with the best restorative tendencies—religious, social and national—of his time; Lucretius was driven into isolation by the anarcho-syndicalist forces of the day.

So far as any speculative idea underlying the details of the Georgics can be detected, it is one of which the source can be traced in the idea of the new era of peace and plenty, which an allegorist, with a sense of responsibility inspired by the charm of human relationships. Virgil's susceptibility to the beauty of nature appears in the truth with which his work suggests the charm of Italy—the fresh life of an Italian spring; the love of the quiet pastures and orchards of his native district. The representative character of the poem is enhanced by the fidelity and grace with which he has expressed the Italian peasant's love of his home and of all things associated with it. The supreme charm of the description and rhythm is universally recognized. The power of varied harmony is as conspicuous in Virgil's earliest poems as in the mature and more elaborate works. Odes and Eclogues. The language, without sacrifice of the fulness, strength and majesty of its tones, acquired a more tender grace and more liquid flow from the gift—the "molle atque faciem"—of which the Muses of country life adores.

But these Muses had a more serious and dignified function to fulfill than that of glorifying the picturesque pastime, the "otia dia," of the ancient Roman. The Italian imagination formed an ideal of the happiness of a country life far richer than the mere susceptibility to the sights and sounds of the outward world. It is stated that Maecenas, acting on the principle of employing the poets of the first rank in the service of the country, hired a number of them to write poems on the new policy of the new government, directed the genius of Virgil to the subject of the Georgics. No object could be of more consequence in the eyes of a statesman whose master inherited the policy of the ancient Republic. Virgil was emboldened by the predictions of Maecenas, associated with happier memories of Rome, which had fallen into abeyance owing to the long unsettled condition of the revolutionary era as well as the multitude of the "aeonk" destructive invasions. It was natural for him to identify himself with this object, while his genius fitted him to enliven the imagination of his countrymen in its favour. It would be a most inadequate view of his purpose to suppose that, as a patriotic and conservative writer, he desired merely to make useful information more attractive by the aid of verse. His aim was rather to describe with realistic fidelity, and to surround with an atmosphere of poetry, the annual round of labour in which the Italian yeoman's life was passed; to bring out the intimate relation with nature into which man was brought in the course of that life, and to suggest the delight to heart and imagination which he drew from it; to contrast the simplicity, security and sanctity of such a life with the luxury and lawless passions of the great world; and to associate the ideal of a life of rustic labour with the beauties of Italy and the glories of Rome. This larger conception underlay the plan of Virgil in his Georgics, and helped the succession of Virgil from all other didactic, as distinct from philosophic, poems. Virgil has produced in the Georgics a new type of didactic, as in the Aeneid he has produced a new type of epic, poetry.

Virgil accepts also the guidance of the Alexandrian poets who lived in Italy, but the science of the Alexandrians—poetry and geography—in the metre and dictation of epic poetry. But, in avoiding himself of the work of the Alexandrians, Virgil is like a great master making use of mechanical assistants. A more powerful inspiration could be brought to bear on the Georgics than the spirit of Lucretius, yet Virgil considered him as his prototype is shown by the fact that it concludes one of the cardinal episodes of the poem—"Ascreanque cano Romana per oppida carnem."
links and formulas, such as "principio," "nunc age," &c., but uses them more sparingly, so as to make the logical mechanism of his style as manifest as possible. He is as much or more an artist in the use of his materials as a personal address. All his topics admit of being vitalized by attributing to natural processes the vivacity of human relationships and sensibility, and to the imagination the poetry, art, science, and mythology. There is uniformity of chastened excellence in the diction and versification of the Georgics, contrasting with the imaginative force of isolated expressions and the majesty of isolated lines of the Aeneid, and the spirit of the Aeneid is more apparent in the older poet; the artistic perfection of Virgil is even more conspicuous in the Georgics than in the Eclogues or the Bucolics.

The principal episodes of the poem, in which the true dignity and human interest of the subject are brought out, occur in the first and second books. Other shorter episodes add variety to the different pages. These episodes are not detached or isolated ornaments, but give a higher unity to the poem, and are the main ground of its permanent hold upon the world. There is indeed one marked exception to this rule. The long episode with which the whole poem ends—the tale of the shepherd Aristaeus, with which is connected the more poetical fable of Orpheus and Eurydice—has only the slightest connexion with the general ideas and sentiments of the poem, and is altogether without the true realist and the Italian feeling which pervade it. But we are distinctly told that the original conclusion had contained the praises of Gallus, the friend of Virgil’s youth; who, about the time to which this portion of the poem is fixed, was kindled by the war against Cleopatra, and had in consequence been made the first governor of the new province of Egypt. Such a conclusion might well have been kept in the main purpose of the poem. But the fall of Gallus, the Egyptian administration, and his death in 26 B.C., the poet, according to the story, in obedience to the command of the emperor, substituted for this one which the beautiful and irrelevant tale of Orpheus and Eurydice, in which he first displayed the narrative skill, the pathos and the magical power of making the mystery of the unseen world present to the imagination which characterize the Aeneid.

The cardinal episodes of the poem, as it now stands, are the passages in bk. i. from line 464 to the end, and in bk. ii. from 136 to 176 and from 321 to the end. The introduction of the idea with the signs of the weather, recounts the events which accompanied the death of Julius Caesar, and shows how the misery of Italy and the neglected state of the fields are the punishment for the great sin of the previous generation. In the second of these passages the true keynote of the poem is struck in the invocation to Italy—

"Salve, magna parent frugum, Saturnia tellus, / Aeterna umbra!"

The thought of the beauty of the land, the abundance and variety of its products; of its ancient cities and mighty works of man, its brave and hardy races, the great men who had fought for her in old times, and of him, the greatest among her sons, who will never be forgotten against the background of the fable and whose name inspires the poet, and gives dignity to the trivial details of farm life. But a still higher and more catholic interest is given to the subject in the great power that is the most profound passion of all Latin poetry—that from line 458, "O fortunissimum nium," to the end. The subject is there glorified by its connexion not only with the national well-being but with the highest life and purest beauty of man. The old delight in the labors of the arts, the new delight in the beauty of nature, is, and associated with that purity and happiness of life which was an Italian ideal, and with the poetry of those religious beliefs and observances which were the basis of the nation’s life, the security and the environment of the poet’s life, and with the bonds of sympathy to the old rustic life.

The Georgics is not only the most perfect, but the most native of Virgil’s works. With the period of the Revolution, which he describes and celebrates in the Aeneid, there is no such natural connexion. If the Georgics are presented to us as she is revealed in the soft luxuriance of Italian landscape, not in the clearly defined forms of Greek scenery. The poem shows the Italian susceptibility to the beauty of the earth, and the dignity and reserve of the Italian imagination, the firm and enduring structure of all Roman manliness, while it is essentially Italian in its religious and ethical feeling.

A work which yet remained for Virgil to accomplish was the addition of a great Roman epic to literature. This had been the earliest effort of the national imagination, when it first deserted from the mere imitative reproduction of Greek originals. As the genius of Rome before the time of Virgil had been the Annalen of Ennius. This had been supplemented by various historical poems but had never been superseded. It satisfied the national passion for an epic which had been judged worthy of a prime, but it could not satisfy the newly developed sense of art; and the expansion of the national life since the days of Ennius, and the presence of ulterior interests, demanded a newer and more ample expression. It had been Virgil’s earliest ambition to write an epic poem on the traditions of Alla Longa; and he had been repeatedly urged by Augustus to attempt the subject. But the epic verse, which the latter and the existing romantic epic poetry, art, and the science of art, which had been cultivated on a large scale, which should represent a great action of the heroic age, and should at the same time embody the most vital ideas and sentiment of the hour—which in substance should follow closely the great models of epic poetry and reproduce all their sources of interest. It was his ambition to be the Homer, as he had been the Tennyson, of the Augustan age.

Various objects had thus to be combined in a work of art on the model of the Greek epic; the revival of interest in the heroic foretime; the satisfaction of national sentiment; the expression of the deeper currents of emotion of the age; the personal celebration of Augustus. A new type of epic poetry had to be created. It was desirable to select a single heroic action which should belong to the cycle of legendary events celebrated in the Homeric poems, and which could be associated with Rome. The one subject which in any way satisfied these conditions was that of the wanderings of Aeneas and of his final settlement in Latium. The story, though probably of very remote origin, was by this time sufficiently familiar to the Romans, and had been recognized by official acts of senate and people. The subject enabled Virgil to tell again of the fall of Troy, and to weave a tale of sea-adventure similar to that of the Odyssey. For the ideas of it, at least as far as they are concerned in the Aeneid, it is the claim which the Jiuli, a patriarchal family of Alban origin, made to descent from Iulus, the supposed son of Aeneas and founder of Alla Longa.

The Aeneid is thus at once the epic of the national life under its new conditions and an epic of human character. The true keynote of the poem is struck in the line with which the proem closes—

"Tantae mollis erat Romanam condere gentem.

The idea which underlies the whole action of the poem is that of the great part played by Rome in the history of the world, that part being from of old determined by divine decree, and carried out through the virtue of her sons. The idea of universal empire is characteristic of the Augustan age, and the boast of being the first and the most illustrious of Roman emperors, is that of the unbroken continuity of the national life is intimately associated. The reverence for old customs and for the traditions of the past was a large element in the national sentiment, and has a prominent place in the Aeneid. So too has the feeling of local attachment and of the power of local association over the imagination. The poem is also characteristicly Roman in its religious belief and observation, in which the Romans. Behind all the conventional machineries of the old Olympic gods there is the Roman apprehension of a great insinuant power, manifesting itself by arbitrary signs, exacting jealousy certain observances, working out its own secret purposes through the intermediary of unknown personages. The poem is thus a religious as well as a national epic, and this explains the large part played in the development of the action by special revelation, omens, prophecies, ceremonial usages and observances. Through the Aeneid, to the Christian of that age, is that of a divine purpose carried out regardless of human feeling, in other parts of the poem, and especially in that passage of the death of Lucius, in which the idea of the Roman empire on individual destiny, the agency of fate seems to yield to that of a spiritual dispensation, awarding to men their portions according to their actions.

The idealization of Augustus is an expression of servile adulation. It is through the prominence assigned to him that the poem is truly representative of the critical epoch in human affairs at which it was written. The cardinal fact of that epoch was the complete and total revolution in the life of the world, bringing the entire world under the sway of the Roman empire. Virgil shows the imaginative significance of that fact by revealing the emperor as chosen from of old in the counsels of the gods, and as the avenger of the sins of the Romans, and the descendant of gods and of heroes of old poetic renown; as one, moreover, who, in the actual work done by him, as victor in a great decisive battle between the forces of the Western and the Eastern empires, and as the ruler of the empire, of which the ancient religion, had rendered better service to mankind than any one of the heroes who in an older time had been raised for their great deeds to the company of the gods.

The Aeneid is thus a new interpretation of the imperial idea of Rome is the basis of the greatness of the Aeneid as a representative poem. It is on this representative character and on the idea that its admirers have put the date of the Aeneid to rank as one of the great poems of the world mainly rests. The inferiority of the poem to the Iliad and the Odyssey as a direct representation of human life is so unquestionable that we are in
and character. In the first place it should be remarked that the action is chosen not only as suited to embody the idea of Rome, but, as having a peculiar nobleness and dignity of its own. It brings before us the spectacle of the destruction of the city of greatest name, and, proceeding along the island of Italy, including the western seas, in which Rome had encountered its most powerful antagonist in her long struggle for supremacy, and that of the first rule of which the sphere of action is the whole of Italy; the people with which the action is carried familiar, yet full of great memories and associations—Troy and its neighbourhood, the seas and islands of Greece, the coasts of Epirus, familiar to all travellers between Italy and Greece, and, in addition, the most characteristic regions of Latium, the Tiber, and all the country within sight of Rome. The personages of the action are prominent in poetry and legend, or, by their very nature, impart whatever enthusiasm—Aeneas and Anchises, Dido, Acestes, Evander, Turnus. The action in which they are engaged are war and sea-adventure. The passion of love is a powerful addition to the older sources of interest. The Aeneid revives, by a conventional compounding between the present and the remote past, some image of the old romance of Greece; it creates the romance of "that Italy for which Camilla the virgin, Euryalus, and Turnus and Nisus died of wounds." It might be said of the manner of life represented in the Aeneid, that it is no more true to any actual condition of human society than that represented in the Eclogues. But may not the same be said of the life of the ancient human race? and an age of prehistoric civilization? The life represented in the Oedipus Tyrannus of King Lear is not the life of the Periclean nor of the Elizabethan age, nor is it conceivable as the real life of a prehistoric age. The truth lies somewhere in the middle. And if the action is carried to any actual state of things ever realized in the world, but by its relation to an ideal of the imagination—the ideal conception of human endowments, with the gifts and graces of a civilized time, but with none of the forms of that country and age, is it not possible for it to play its part under circumstances which would afford scope for the passions and activities of a vigorous personality, and for the reflection of that age of high civilized life, of moral and mental culture? The verdict of most readers of the Aeneid will be that Virgil does not satisfy this condition as it is satisfied by Sophocles and Shakespeare. Yet there is a courtesy, dignity and respect for the feelings of others in the wild and in the civilized world. If the chief personages, such as might be exhibited by the noblest in an age of chivalry and in an age of culture. The charm of primitive simplicity, the persistence of some passages of the Aeneid, the spell of luxurious pomp in others. The delight of voyaging past the islands is enhanced by the suggestion of the adventurous spirit which sent the first explorers abroad. Where Virgil is least real, and most purely imaginative, is in the battle-scenes of the later books. They afford scope, however, to his patriotic desire to do justice to the martial energy of the Italian races; and some of them have a peculiar beauty from the pathos with which the deaths of some of the Italian chieftains are related.

But the adverse criticisms of the Aeneid are chiefly based on Virgil's supposed failure in the crucial test of the creation of character. The name of Aeneas is pronounced to be the "pious Aeneas." Is Aeneas a worthy and interesting hero of a great poem of action? Not, certainly, according to the ideals realized in Achilles and Odysseus, nor according to the modern ideal of heroism. Virgil with his gift of primitive simplicity, does not attempt to create an ideal hero, but adheres to an obstinate purpose—a religious ideal belonging to the ages of faith combined with the humane and self-sacrificing qualities belonging to an era of moral enlightenment. His own sympathy is with his religious ideal rather than with that of chivalrous romance. Yet that there was in his own imagination a chord responsive to the chivalrous emotion of a later time is seen in the love and pathos which he has thrown into his delineations of Pallas, Lausus and Camilla. But he felt that the deepest need of his time was not military glory, but peace, reconciliation, the restoration of law, order and piety.

In the Latin drama human poetry has added to the gallery of men and women, created by the imaginative art of different times and peoples, the ideal of a true queen and a true woman. On the episode of which she is the heroine the most passionate human interest is concentrated. It is not that she sympathizes with his own creation, that he gives his approval to the cold desertion of her by Aeneas. But if he does not condemn his hero, he sees in the desertion and death of Dido a great tragic issue in which a noble and generous nature is sacrificed to the purpose of the gods. But that Virgil really sympathized with the creation of his imagination appears, not only in the sympathy which shares with Aeneas in the part which he assigns to her in that shadowy realm—

"Conjux ubi pristinus illi
Respeditur curis, aequatur Sycahes amorem."

Even those who have been inaccessible to the representative and to the heroic, will generally recognize the artistic excellence of the poem. This is conspicuous both in the conception of the action and the arrangement of its successive stages and in the workmanship of details. Each of the first eight books has a large and distinct sphere of interest, and they each contribute to the impression of the work as a whole. In the first book we have the storm, the prophecy of Jove and the building of Carthage; in the second the destruction of Troy; in the third the departure of Aeneas; in the fourth the tragedy of Dido; in the fifth the rest in the Sicilian bay, at the foot of Mount Eryx; in the sixth the revelation of the spiritual Aeneid, the imagination, and of the souls of those who built up the greatness of Rome. In the latter, the adventures that precede the arrival of the Trojans at the mouth of the Tiber and the gathering of the Italian clans; in the eighth the first sight of the hills of Rome, the tale of Romulus and Remus, and the story of the poetic and religious history, leading up to the greatest of them all, the crowning victory of Aeneas. Among these books we may infer that Virgil assigned the palm to the second, the fourth, and the sixth, as he selected some of them to add to Augustus' collection of the Virgilian texts, but he is generally thought to fail in the last four books; nor is it possible to feel that the culminating sympathy with the final combat between the Aeneid that he feel with the combat between Hector and Achilles. Yet a personal interest is awakened in the adventures and fate of Pallas, Lausus and Camilla. Virgil may himself have become weary of the succession of battle-scenes—"eadem horrida bella"—which the requirements of epic poetry call upon him to portray. There is not only a less varied interest, there is greater inequality of workmanship in the later books, owing to the fact that they had not received their author's final revision. There are passages that are marked by the pathos and beauty. Virgil brought the two great instruments of varied and continuous harmony and of a rich, chastened and subtle style, the Latin prose of the Georgics and the Latin rhymed verse of the Aeneid, and the medium of meaning which touches the deepest and most secret springs of emotion. He touches especially the emotions of reverence and of yearning for a higher spiritual life, and the sense of nobleness in human affairs, in great institutions, and great natures, the sense of the sanctity of human affections, of the imaginative spell exercised by the past, of the mystery of the unseen world. This is the power with whose words they have over some of the deepest and greatest natures in extent.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appendix Vergiliana.—Under this collective name there are current several poems of some little length and some groups of shorter pieces, all attributed to Virgil in antiquity. Virgil wrote a large proportion of them, but not the Culex, but not the Culex now extant, though it passed for half a century after his death. The Aetna, the Ciri and the Copa are clearly not Virgils. The Hortorum has been said to have been translated from Virgil's poem by his teacher Parmenius; it is an exquisite piece of work, familiar perhaps to English readers in Cowper's translation. The case of the Catapæta (cata caro) is peculiar. Two of these little poems (The hinc indites and Villulae) are generally ascribed to Virgil, and, in the case of the last, with very little to go upon, but generally rejecting them. The whole are printed in the larger editions of Virgil. For English readers the most obvious is that of Robinion Ellis (1897), who has also edited the Aetna section of them.

Manuscripts.—Gellius (Noctes Atticæ, ix. 14, 7) tells us of people who had inspected the catalogue libræ Vergilii, but this has of course been destroyed. There is a list of MSS. of Virgil, seven very ancient MSS. of Virgil. (1) The Mediciæ at Florence, with a note purporting to be by a man, who was consul in 494, to say he had read it. (2) The Palatini MSS. of the 4th or 5th century. (3) The Vaticana of the same period. (4) The "Schedæ Vaticanae." (5) The "Schedæ Berolinenses," perhaps of the 4th century. (6) The "Schedæ Sangallenses." (7) The "Schedæ rescriptæ Veronenses"—the last three of insignificant value. Virgil full account of the MSS., see Henry, Aeneida, i., and Ribbeck, Progressus Virgilii. Ancient Commentators.—Commentaries on Virgil began to be written at a very early date. Suetonius, V. Verg. 44. mentions an edition of Carthage, which is not always called Virgil's "thefts" and "faults," besides eight "volumina" of Q. Octavius Avitus, setting out in parallel passages the "likenesses" (hauderes) was the name of the work) between Virgil and more ancient authors. Among these are the anonymous poet of Provus (lost) of the 4th century, and Claudius Donates and of Servius, the former writing as a teacher of rhetoric, the latter as a poet and grammarian. The work of Servius was afterwards expanded by another scholar, whose additions greatly added to its worth, as they are from older MSS. and later MSS. and treatises, and information on the old Roman religion and constitution, Greek and Latin legends, old Latin and linguistic usages. In this enlarged commentary of Servius and the latin antiquitates of Macrobius (also of the end of the 4th century) are both of great interest to the student of Virgil. There are, further, sets of Scholia in MSS. at Verona and Bern, which draw their material from ancient
commentaries. See H. Nettleship, Essays in Latin Literature, xi., and Comparetti, Virgil in the Middle Ages, ch. 5.

Editions.—The editions of Virgil are innumerable; Heyne (1786-92), and Jacoby (1792-93) in Germany; Benoist (1876) in France, and Conington (completed by Nettleship, and edited by Haverfield) in England; they are perhaps the most important. A Latin edition in English has been produced by J. J. Page, Sidgwick and Papillon. Conington's work, however, is without question the best in English.

Translations.—Famous English translations have been made by Dryden (1691) and others. Since the middle of the 19th century the most important are Conington (Aeneid in verse, whole works in prose); J. W. Mackall (Aeneid and Georgics in prose); William Morris (in verse), and William Morris (in verse), both published by the Bowles Typographers and printed in 1898; and Canon Thornhill (verse); C. J. Bilson (verse, 1906); J. Rhoades (verse, new ed., 1907). For essays on translating Virgil, see Conington, Miscellanea, Works, vol. 1; R. A. Stirling (1888) in the T.Q.R.

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The Virgil Legend.

Virgil's great popularity in the middle ages is to be partly explained by the fact that he was to a certain extent recognized by the Church. He was supposed to have prophesied the coming of Christ in the fourth Elegy, and by some divines the Aeneid was held to be an allegory of salvation. His life was very curiously connected with the life of Dante when he chose him from among all the sages of antiquity to be his guide in the Divina Commedia. Ancient poets and philosophers were commonly transformed by medieval writers into necromancers; and Virgil and Aristotle became popularly famous, not for poetry and science, but for their supposed knowledge of the black art. Naples appears to have been the home of the popular legend of Virgil, which represented him as the special protector of the city, and was probably never quite independent of learned tradition.

One of the earliest references to the magical skill of Virgil occurs in a letter of the imperial chancellor Conrad of Querfurt (1947).

"The Irish bishop to Carinthia, St Virgilius, bishop of Salzburg (d. 784), who held original views on the subject of antipoises, may have been the real eponym of the legend."
It was at Henry VII's instance that he commenced his *Historia Anglica*—a work which, though seemingly begun as early as 1505, was not completed till August 1533, the date of its dedication to Henry VIII., nor published till 1534. In May 1514 he and his patron the cardinal are found supporting Wolsey's claims to the cardinalship, but he had lost the great minister's favour before the year was out. A rash letter, reflecting 'severely on Henry VIII. and Wolsey,' was intercepted early in 1515. Wolsey, Polydore says, not only returned to London in March (and April). He was not without some powerful supporters, as both Catherine de' Medici and Leo X. wrote to the king on his behalf. From his prison he sent an abject and almost blasphemous letter to the offended minister, begging that the fast approaching Christmas—a time which witnessed the restitution of a world—might see his pardon also. He was set at liberty before Christmas 1515, though he never regained his collectorship. In 1525 he published the first edition of *Gildas*, dedicating the work to the Emperor of London. Next year appeared his *Libre de Prodigiis*, dedicated (July) to the marriage of Maria, duke of Urbino. Somewhere about 1538 he left England, and remained in Italy for some time. Ill-health, he tells us, forbade him on his return to continue his custom of making daily notes on contemporary events. About the end of 1551 he went home to Urbino, where he appears to have died in 1555. He had been naturalized an Englishman in October 1510, and had held several clerical appointments in England. In 1558 he was appointed archdeacon of Wells, and in 1573 prebendary of Oyston in St. Paul's cathedral, both of which offices would add to his comfort.

The first edition of the *Historia Anglica* (twenty-six books) was printed at Basel in 1534; the twenty-seventh book, dealing with the reign of Henry VIII. down to the birth of Edward VI. (October 1536), was added to the third edition of 1555. Polydore claims to have been very careful in collecting materials for this work, and takes credit for using foreign historians as well as English; for which reason, he remarks, the English, Scotch and French will find several things reported in his pages far differently from the way in which they are as a matter of course for the story of his search for information he applied to James IV. of Scotland for a list of the Scottish kings and their annals; but not even his friendship for Galloway made him capable of the notions of this accomplished bishop, who traced the pedigree of the Scots down from the banished son of an Athenian king and Scotta the daughter of the Egyptian tyrant of the Israelites. A similar search for the story of the Virgin Mary of Urbino, and thus called forth Landal's *Defensive Galliardis et Assertio Incomparabili Astari*. This doubting instinct led to his being accused of many offences against learning, such as that of burning cargoes of MSS. lest his errors should be discovered, of purloining books from libraries and shipping them off by the vesselful to Rome. As a matter of fact, it is of course mainly from the time of Henry VI., where our contemporary records begin to fall so sadly, that Polydore's work is useful. He must have been personally acquainted with many men whose memories could carry them back to the beginning of the Wars of the Roses. Dr. Brewer speaks somewhat harshly of the book as a work of Henry VII., and indeed his spite against Wolsey is evident; but it is impossible to read his social and geographical accounts of England and Scotland without interest, and his general description of Polydore's *Adagia* (Venice, 1498) was the first collection of Latin proverbs ever printed; it preceded Erasmus's by two years, and the slight misunderstanding that arose for the moment out of rial claims gave place to a sincere friendship. A second series of Biblical proverbs (553 in number) was dedicated to Wolsey's follower, Richard Pace, and is preceded by an interesting letter of 1510, which gives the names of many of Polydore's English friends and acquaintances, notably Richard Sandys and Tunstall. The *De Inventoribus*, treating of the origin of all things whether ecclesiastical or lay (Paris, 1499), originally consisted of only seven books, but was increased to twelve before it was exceedingly popular, and was early translated into French (1521), German (1537), English (1546) and Spanish (1551). All editions, however, except those following the text sanctioned by Gregory XIII. in 1576, are on the Index Expurgatorius. The *De Prodigis* also achieved a great popularity, and was soon translated into Italian (1543), English (1546) and Spanish (1550). This treatise takes the form of a Latin dialogue between Polydore and his Cambridge friend Robert Ridley. It takes place in the garden at Polydore's country house near London. Polydore's duty is to state the problems and supply the historical illustrations; his friend's to explain, rationalize and depreciate as best he can. Here, as in the *Historia Anglica*, it is plain that the writer places himself specially on the excellence of his Latin, which in Sir Henry Ellis's opinion is purer than that of any of his contemporaries.

**VIRGINAL—VIRGINIA**

The mechanism is described under Pianoforte and Spinet.
tributary previous to the depression which transformed them into bays. The land between the drowned valleys is relatively flat, and varies in height from sea-level on the E. to 150-300 ft. on the W. The most extensive and best-known drowned valley is the Chesapeake Bay, a part of the extensive Piedmont Belt reaching from Pennsylvania to Alabama. This is the most extensive of the subdivisions of Virginia, comprising 18,000 sq. m. of land. It is a coastal lowland on folded flanks of sandstone, lime and shale comprising an area of about 10,400 sq. m. in Virginia. The belts of non-resistant rock have been worn away, leaving longitudinal valleys, cut by old rock streams, which are in part filled with sediments in which weak rocks predominate give an unusually broad valley region, known as the Valley of Virginia, drained by the Shenandoah river, and the headwaters of the James, Roanoke, New, and Holston rivers. Along the upper reaches of these streams are a number of low and broad valleys which are separated by hills. At the N., near the mouth of the Shenandoah, the valley is about 250 ft. above sea-level, but rises south-westward to an elevation of more than 1600 ft. at the S. boundary of the state. Along the N.W. to S.E., across the Blue Ridge, the Piedmont and the Coastal Plain, following courses which were established before erosion had produced much of the present topography. But in the New Appalachians the streams more often follow the trend of the structure until they empty into one of the larger, transverse streams. Thus the Shenandoah flows N.E. to the Potomac, the Holston S.W. toward the Tennessee. The situation is different in this same area to the east of the state, is drained by the New river, which flows N.W. across the ridges to the Kanawha and Ohio rivers in the Appalachian Plateau. In the limestone regions caverns and natural bridges occur, among which Luray Cavern and the Natural Bridge are well known. The drowned lower courses of the S.E. flowing streams are navigable, and afford many excellent harbours. Chesapeake Bay covers much land that might otherwise be agriculturally valuable, but repays this loss, in part at least, by its excellent fisheries, including those for oysters. In the S.E., where the low, flat Coastal Plain is poorly drained, is the Great Dismal Swamp, a fresh-water marsh covering 70,000 acres, an area of which is about 50 ft. below sea level. The higher parts stand more than 3 ft. above sea level, the lower parts are covered by a dense growth of rank vegetation. The region is of much value, as a valuable agricultural area which is still available for settlement.

The Atlantic right-whale was killed in some numbers off the coast. Many species of water and shore birds migrate along the coast, wintering in the region, as well as the great cormorant, the white pelican and black skimmer; practically all the ducks are migrant species, though the wood-duck breeds. Swan, goose and brant winter on the coast. The yellow-footed gull is common, and the little blue heron nests rarely. The turkey-buzzard and the barn-owl, the red-shouldered hawk and the short-eared owl are common, and the snowy owl has been seen in the interior. The red-headed and red-bellied woodpeckers, orchard orioles, yellow-winged sparrows, the cardinal, the blue grosbeak, the Carolina wren, and the black-billed cuckoo are far more common in the Piedmont region. The ruffed grouse and wild turkey are found in the wooded mountain districts, while the quail (here called "partridge") is a game bird of the open stable fields. Of the game, the raccoon and copperhead are the only poisonous species, but numerous harmless varieties are common. In the salt marshes of the coast occurs the diamond-backed terrapin. Three of the most attractive of the Virginia snakes are the black racer, the hog-nosed snake, and the enhydris of the interior. The cat-fish grows to a large size in the sluggish rivers. On the coast, the striped bass, sea-bass, drum, sheepshead, weakfish, bluefish and Spanish mackerel are important food fishes. There are valuable oyster fisheries in Chesapeake Bay.

Flora.—The Coastal Plain of Virginia is covered with pine forests which merge westward with the hard woods of the Piedmont Belt, where oaks formerly prevailed, but where a second growth of pine now constitutes part of the forest. Even on the Coastal Plain the southern and tropical species are represented by species which are characteristic of the original growth. The Blue Ridge and Newer Appalachian regions are covered with pine, hemlock, white oak, cherry and yellow poplar; while that portion of these provinces lying in the S.W. and the Tidewater consists of pine on the coast, oak, hickory, walnut, besides oak and cherry. On the Coastal Plain the cypress grows in the Dismal Swamp, river birch along the streams, and sweet gum and black gum in swampy woods. Other characteristic plants of the Coastal Plain are the cranberry, wild rice, wild yam, wax myrtle, wistaria, trumpet flower, passion flower, holly and white alder. Many of these species spread into the Piedmont Belt, and such and the Blue Ridge. In the mountains, the blackberry, blueberry, wild ginger and gingko are widely distributed.

The winter temperatures are generally far from extremes of heat and cold. In the Coastal Plain the mean temperature is quite stable from day to day, as a result of the equalizing effect of the numerous bays which indent this province. The mean winter temperature is 45°, with a mean annual of 58.6°. Killing frosts do not occur before the middle of October, nor later than the last part of April. In the Piedmont Province temperature conditions are naturally less stable, and the influence of the mountains is less marked. The local inequality of surface topography. In autumn and winter sudden temperature changes are experienced, though not frequently. The mean winter temperature for the state is 35°, with a mean annual of 57°. Mean temperatures in the northern coastal counties are about 2° higher, in the southern counties about 2° lower.

In the mountain districts the winters are very severe. The mean winter temperature for the state is 33.8°, with a mean annual of 57.3°. Mean temperatures in the northern coastal counties are about 2° higher, in the southern counties about 2° lower.

The forest area of Virginia was estimated in 1900 at 23,400 sq. m., or 55% of the area of the state. The timber area originally comprised three divisions: the mountain regions growing pine and hard woods and hemlock; the Piedmont region producing chiefly oaks with some pine; and the sands below the "Fall Line", where the forest was forested with yellow pine. Most of the pine of the Piedmont region was cut in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and the high and rugged Blue Ridge, which is fertile except in the intervening valleys of its S.W. expansion, we reach the Newer Appalachians, where fertile limestone soils cover the valley floors. The Virginia of 1900 is the most productive part of the state.

Fishes.—There are numerous fish species in the rivers and streams, and many in the Chesapeake Bay. The most valuable of these is the striped bass, which is abundant in the bay and along the coast.

The production of production of tobacco in 1899 was 34,561,000 pounds, valued at $34,561,000; of wheat, 8,848,000 bushels, valued at $10,185,000; of oats, 3,800,000 bushels, valued at $2,082,000; of corn, 3,500,000 bushels, valued at $1,005,000; of potatoes, 3,000,000 bushels, valued at $187,000; hay crop was valued at $187,000; the hay crop was valued at $8,660,000 (600,000 tons). The amount of the wheat crop in 1900 was 13,179,000 bushels.

The value of horses in 1900 was $5,165,000 (333,000 head); of mules, $7,026,000 (54,000 head); of cattle, $20,034,000 (757,000 head); of swine, $5,034,000 (774,000 head); of sheep, $2,705,000 (13,000,000 head).

Minerals.—The value of all mineral products in 1908 was $13,179,339. By far the most valuable single product was bituminous coal ($1,868,824; 4,259,424 tons). The existence of this mine at the mouth of the James River was known as early as 1770, and the mining of it there began in 1775, but it was practically
discontinued about the middle of the 19th century. The most important coalfields of the state lie in the Appalachian regions in the S.W. part of the state, though there are also rich deposits in the counties of Henrico, Chesterfield, and Richmond, and in parts of Prince George, Fauquier, and Rappahannock counties. The average output of coal has increased since the opening of the Potomac and Rappahannock navigation (1815). The area of the mines in 1890 was about 3,552,000 acres, and the average depth was 450 feet. The average output of coal in 1890 was 23,031,200 tons.

Iron mines. — Virginia has a number of iron mines, of which the most important is that of the James River, in the county of Rockingham. The iron is of the hematitic kind, and is worked by the James River Iron and Steel Company, which is one of the largest in the state. The output of iron in 1890 was 3,000,000 tons.

Copper mining. — Copper is mined in the counties of Giles, Alleghany, and Botetourt. The output in 1890 was 1,200,000 pounds.

Platinum. — Platinum is mined in the county of Rockingham.

Gold mining. — Gold is mined in the counties of Montgomery, Augusta, and Botetourt. The output in 1890 was 1,000,000 pounds.

Silver mining. — Silver is mined in the counties of Montgomery, Augusta, and Botetourt. The output in 1890 was 500,000 pounds.

Sulfur mining. — Sulfur is mined in the counties of Augusta and Botetourt. The output in 1890 was 500,000 pounds.

Bituminous coal. — Bituminous coal is mined in the counties of Giles, Alleghany, and Botetourt. The output in 1890 was 1,000,000 tons.

Number of wage-earners. — The number of wage-earners in 1890 was 4,000,000.

Value of products. — The value of products in 1890 was $148,856,525.

Transportation and Commerce. — Four large railway systems practically originate in the state and radiate to the S. and W.: the Southern railway, with its main line traversing the state from the central to the western counties; the Virginian, which passes through Alexandria, Charlottesville, Lynchburg and Danville to the North Carolina line, with connections to Richmond and a line to Norfolk; the Atlanta Coast line, with its main line running S. from Richmond and Norfolk; the Seaboard Air Line, having its main lines also running to the S. from Richmond and Norfolk; the Norfolk & Western crossing the state from east to west in the southern part of the state and Norfolk its eastern terminus, passing through Lynchburg and leaving the state at the southwestern corner at Bristol, and the Chesapeake & Ohio crossing the state from east to west north of the Norfolk & Western.

The total number of miles of railway in the state in 1890 was 2,000,000. The total number of miles of railways in the United States in 1890 was 3,600,000.

Value of products. — The value of products in 1890 was $148,856,525.

Number of wage-earners. — The number of wage-earners in 1890 was 4,000,000.

Value of products. — The value of products in 1890 was $148,856,525.
VIRGINIA

Germans, 3,534 were natives of Ireland and 3,425 of England. Of the total population 32,264 were of foreign parentage (i.e. other than both parents). The native parents were 9,283 of Irish and 4,792 of English parentage, both on the father's and on the mother's side. Out of the total of 793,566 members of religious denominations in 1906, more than half, 415,987, were Baptists, 117,040 Methodists, 65,340 of both branches, 30,000 Presbyterians, 28,700 Roman Catholics, and 28,872 Protestant Episcopalians, 26,248 Disciples of Christ, and 12,010 Lutherans.

Voter registration was increased in 1904 and 46,000 in 1906. The principal cities of the state are: Richmond (the capital), Norfolk, Petersburg, Roanoke, Newport News, Lynchburg, Portsmouth and Danville.

Government.—Virginia has had six state constitutions: the first was adopted in 1776, the second in 1820, the third in 1851, the fourth in 1864, the fifth in 1860, and the sixth, the present, in 1902. Amendments to the present constitution may be proposed in either house of the General Assembly, and if they pass both houses of that and the succeeding General Assembly by a majority of the members elected to each house and are subsequently approved by a majority of the people who vote on the question at the next general election they become a part of the constitution. A majority of the members in each house of the General Assembly may at any time propose a convention to revise the constitution, and if at the next succeeding election a majority of the people voting on the question approve, the General Assembly must provide for the election of delegates. To be entitled to vote one must be a male citizen of the United States and twenty-one years of age; have resided at least fifteen years from the time of his election, city, or town, for one year, and of the election precinct from thirty days next preceding the election; have paid, at least six months before the election, all state poll taxes assessed against him for three years next preceding the election, unless he is a veteran of the Civil War; and have registered after the adoption of the constitution (1902). For registration prior to 1904 one of four additional qualifications was required: service in the army or navy of the United States, of the Confederate States, or of some state of the United States or of the Confederate States; direct descent from one who so served; ownership of property upon which state taxes amounting to at least one dollar were paid in the preceding year; or ability to read the constitution or to show an understanding of it. And to qualify for registration after 1904 one must have paid all state poll taxes assessed against him for the three years immediately preceding his application, unless he is a veteran of the Civil War; and unless physically unable he must "make application in his own handwriting, without aid, suggestion or memorandum, in the presence of the registrar of voters, stating therein his name, age, date and place of birth, residence and the time of his election from thirty days next preceding, whether he has previously voted, and, if so, the state, county and precinct in which he voted last."

Executive.—The governor, lieutenant-governor, attorney-general, secretary of the commonwealth, treasurer, superintendent of public instruction and commissioner of agriculture are elected for a term of four years, every fourth year from 1902, and each new administration may require a reorganization of the general government. The governor must be at least thirty years of age, a resident of the state for five years next preceding his election; and, if of foreign birth, a citizen of the United States for at least ten years. He appoints all officers of the state except the lieutenant-governor; he must, however, report to the General Assembly at its next session the cause of any suspension and the assembly determines whether the suspended officer shall be restored or removed.

Legislature.—The General Assembly consists of a Senate and a House of Delegates. The Constitution provides that the number of senators shall be not more than forty nor less than thirty, and that the number of delegates shall not be more than one hundred nor less than ninety. Senators and delegates are elected by single districts. Each county in the state is apportioned once every ten years, according to population, the senators for a term of four years, the delegates for a term of two years. The only qualifications for senators and delegates are those required of an elector and residence in their districts; there are, however, a few disqualifications, such as being a voter of a commission, or having committed the state to certain obligations.

The General Assembly meets regularly at Richmond on the second Wednesday in January of each even-numbered year, and the governor must call an extra session on the application of two-thirds of the senators or a like number of the representatives. The General Assembly may at any time provide for the appointment of a fiscal committee, and in cases of impeachment, to try the governor if the Senate shall discharge him for the duration of the remainder of his term. The number of regular sessions is limited to sixty days unless three-fifths of the members of each house are present. In the first sixty days, the General Assembly may appropriate bills, and to overcome his veto, whether of a whole bill or an item of an appropriation bill, a two-thirds vote in each house of the members present is required, and such two-thirds must include in each house a majority of the members elected before 1892. Whenever the governor approves of the general purpose of a bill, but disapproves of some provision or portions, he may return the bill with his recommendations for amendment, and when it comes back he may, whether his recommendations have been adopted or not, treat it as if it were before him for the first time.

Judiciary.—The administration of justice is vested principally in a supreme court of appeals, circuit courts, city courts and courts of record. The supreme court consists of five judges, but any three of them may hold a court. They are chosen for a term of twelve years by a joint vote of the Senate and the House of Delegates. The court sits at Richmond, Staunton, Alexandria, and Louisville. The court is necessary to the decision of a case involving the constitutionality of a law. Whenever the docket of this court is crowded, or there is a case upon which the state is seriously interested, an important statute, or an act of General Assembly may provide for a special court of appeals, to be composed of not more than five nor less than three judges of the circuit courts and city courts, in cities having a population of 16,000 or more. The judge is elected into a third judicial circuit and, in each of these, a circuit judge is chosen for a term of eight years by a joint vote of the Senate and the House of Delegates. The jurisdiction of the circuit court was extended by the present Constitution to include the election of county sheriffs and coroners, and in cases of complexity the circuit judge is elected by a joint vote of the Senate and the House of Delegates for a term of four years.

Local Government.—Each county is divided into magisterial districts, varying in number and extent according to the size of the county. Each district elects a supervisor for a term of four years, and the district supervisors constitute a county board of supervisors, which represents the county as a corporation, manages the county property and county business, levies the county taxes, audits the accounts of the county, and recommends for appointment by the circuit court a county surveyor and a county superintendent of the poor. Each county also elects a treasurer, a sheriff, an attorney and one or more commissioners. The sheriff, who is clerk of the circuit court, for a term of eight years. The coroner is appointed by the circuit court for a term of two years. Each magisterial district elects, besides a supervisor and justices of the peace, a constable and an overseer of the poor, each for a term of four years. The Constitution provides that all "communities" with a population less than 5,000, incorporated after its adoption, or having been recently incorporated, in the city, which the city may incorporate after its adoption, the Constitution requires the election in each of a mayor, a treasurer and a sergeant-at-arms, and the election of a commissioner of the revenue for an equal term; that in cities having a population of 10,000 or more the council shall be composed of two branches; that the mayor shall be elected by the council for a term of four years, and that the council may prescribe by ordinance or resolutions, which can be overridden only by an affirmative vote of the members elected to each branch, and that no city shall incur a bonded indebtedness exceeding the assessed value of its real estate.

Miscellaneous Laws.—A married woman may manage her separate
property as if she were single, except that she cannot by her sole will deprive her husband of his courtesy in her real estate. A widow is entitled to a dower in one-third of the real estate of which her husband was seized at any time during coverture. If the husband dies intestate, the surviving spouse, if married to him at least five years, is entitled to an inheritance of one-fourth of all the property during his lifetime if she is entitled to so much of his personal estate as was acquired by him by virtue of his marriage with her prior to the 4th of April 1877; if he leaves no surviving spouse, the widow is entitled to an inheritance of one-half of all the property during his lifetime. A widow is entitled by courtesy to a life interest in all her late husband's real estate; if she dies intestate, she is entitled to all her late husband's personal estate. The causes for an absolute divorce are adultery; impotency; desertion for three years; a sentence to confinement in the penitentiary; a conviction of an infamous crime. The law is unknown to the other; or, if one of the parties is charged with an offence punishable with death or confinement in the penitentiary, and has been a fugitive from justice for two years; pregnancy of the wife before marriage unknown to the husband, or the wife's being a prostitute before marriage unknown to the husband. One party must be a resident of the state for one year preceding the commencement of a suit for a divorce. When a divorce is obtained before the death of the husband, and applicable to a minor child who is in the discretion of the court. Marriages between whites and negroes and bigamous marriages are void. The homestead of a husband is exempt as a circuit court sale, but is not exempt as a property of a public officer. If the owner is a married man his homestead cannot be sold except by the joint deed of himself and his wife; neither can it be mortgaged without his wife's consent except for purchase money or for the erection or repair of buildings upon it.

The exemption continues after his death so long as there is an unmarried widow or an unmarried minor child. The family library, family pictures, school books, a seat or pew in a house of public worship, a lot in a burial ground, necessary wearing apparel, a limited amount of furniture and household utensils, some of a farmer's domestic animals and agricultural implements, and the wages of a labouring man in the hands of his master, the proceeds of a professional man's earnings in the hands of his employer, any property not exceeding $1000 as recorded in 1808 forbids the employment of children under fourteen years of age in any factory, workshop, mercantile establishment, or mine within the state, except that orphans or children dependent upon their own labour for support or upon whom invalid parents are dependent may be so employed after they are twelve years of age, and that a parent may work his or her own children in his or her family farm or workshop.

Charitable and Penal Institutions.—Virginia has four hospitals for the insane: the Eastern State Hospital (1773), at Williamsburg; the South-Western State Hospital (1857), at Marion; the Western State Hospital (1856), at Broadnax, and the Central State Hospital (1851), at Petersburg. For the care of the deaf and blind there is the Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind (1842) at Richmond. The Virginia School for Coloured Deaf and Blind Children (1908), at Newport News. The State Penitentiary is at Richmond. The Prison Association of Virginia with an Industrial School (1890) at Laurel Station, the Negro Reformatory Association of Virginia with a Manual Labour School (1897) at Broadnax, Hanover, and the Virginia Home and Industrial School for white girls (1910) at Bon Air take care of juvenile offenders; these are all owned and controlled by self-perpetuating boards of trustees, but are supported by the state, receiving an allowance per capita. For each state hospital for the insane there is a special board of directors consisting of five prominent citizens, appointed by the governor of the state; the superintendent of the state, one every two years, and over them all is the commissioner of state hospitals for the insane, who is appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the Senate for a term of four years. The board and the superintendent of the insane hospital are directly elected by the people for a term of four years, and are renewable. The commissioner is ex-officio superintendent of the insane and the commissioner also has the power to make the Executive Secretary of the state; and the superintendent of every hospital is appointed by the general assembly, and he is also the executive secretary of the state; and the board of visitors appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the Senate. About five-sixths of the convicts are negroes. Some of them are employed on a state farm at Lassiter, Goochland county, one of the largest Negro farms in the state. The Asylum for the Blind is at Richmond, and the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Williamsburg. Public and private roads; in 1909 there were 350 men at the state farm, 14 road camps with about 630 men, and 1273 men and 96 women in the penitentiary at Richmond. When a prisoner has served one-half of his sentence or the board of visitors, if he has been confined for that period the board of directors may parole him for the remainder of his term, provided there is satisfactory assurance that he will not be dependent on public charity. The Prison Association of Virginia, the Negro Reformatory Association of Virginia and the Virginia Home and Industrial School for girls are each under a board of trustees appointed by the General Assembly, and each is authorized to establish houses of correction, reformatory and industrial schools. A general supervision of all the juvenile and private charitable institutions is exercised by a board of visitors appointed by the general assembly; the major portion of its proceedings are annual; the remaining portion of its proceedings are biennial; the superintendents of public instruction, who is ex officio, its president; three experienced educators chosen quadrennially by the Senate from members of the faculties of the University of Virginia, Hampden-Sidney College, Washington and Lee University, Randolph-Macon College, the Institute, the Female Normal School at Farmville, the School for the Deaf and Blind, and the College of William and Mary; and a division superintendent, appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the Senate, for each county. Each county is chosen biennially by the other members of the board. This board prescribes the duties of the superintendent of public instruction and decides appeals from his decisions; keeps the state divided into school divisions, consisting not less than one half of one county or city each; appoints quadrennially, with the concurrence of the Senate, one superintendent for each school division and prescribes his powers and duties; selects textbooks; provides for examination and certification of teachers, and assigns teachers to the schools, and the board, consisting of the attorney for the Commonwealth, the division superintendent and one member appointed by the governor, is authorized to make rules and regulations for the schools for each district, one each year. The division superintendent and the school trustees of the several districts constitute a county school board.

The elementary schools are maintained from the state endowment fund, the state tax fund, the city and county tax fund, the county commissioners' fund, and the state educational fund, besides the federal educational fund, a portion of the state poll tax, a property tax not less than one mill nor more than five mills on the dollar, and special appropriations; county funds, consisting principally of a property tax; and certain taxes, consisting principally of a property tax and a dog tax. A law enacted in 1908 encourages the establishment of schools of agriculture, economic science and business, and elementary normal schools, and older schools of agriculture and economic science are divided. A law enacted in 1910 provides a fund for special aid from the state to rural graded schools with at least two rooms. With state aid normal training departments are maintained in several of the state normal schools. The state normal school at Farmville, which is divided into several sections, one of which is the women's department. The state normal school at Salem, founded in 1877 and opened in 1889, is the College of William and Mary, which was established in 1693. The University of Virginia at Charlottesville, opened in 1819, is the first state supported university in the nation, and the Commonwealth of Virginia, the Constitution of 1829, and the act of 1862, provides for the support of the University of Virginia. The University of Virginia, at Charlottesville, opened in 1819, is the first state supported university in the nation, and the Commonwealth of Virginia, the Constitution of 1829, and the act of 1862, provides for the support of the University of Virginia.
deeds, seals, lawsuits, banks, trust and security companies, insurance companies, express companies, railway and canal corporations, sleeping-car, parlour-car and dining-car companies, telegraph and telephone companies. In the 18th and 19th centuries, the income and receipts from such businesses were large and the revenue is collected by county and city treasurers, clerks of courts, and the state corporation commission, consisting of three members appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the General Assembly. The total amount collected in 1989-1990 amounted to $5,536,510 and the total disbursements to $5,796,980. By the 1st of January 1861 Virginia had incurred a debt amounting to nearly $50,000,000. The General Assembly passed an act at that time for redeeming two-thirds of it, claiming that the other third should be paid by West Virginia. But the advocates of a 'forcible readjustment' of the debt carried the election in 1879 with the aid of the negro vote, and after prolonged negotiations in 1892 a settlement was effected under which a debt amounting to about $28,000,000 was again refunded. In 1908 this had been reduced to about $24,000,000. The sinking fund consists of interest recovery against defaulting revenue collectors, railway stock and appropriations from time to time by the legislature.

History.—Virginia was the first permanent English settlement in North America. From 1583 to 1588 attempts had been made by Sir Walter Raleigh and others to establish colonies on the coast of what is now North Carolina. The only result was the naming of the country Virginia in honour of Queen Elizabeth. But glowing accounts were brought back by the early adventurers, and in 1606 an expedition was sent out by the London Company, which was chartered with rights of trade and settlement in Virginia. It was not until 1619 that a settlement was made, at a place which was called Jamestown, on the 13th of May, and resulting in the establishment of many plantations along the James river. The purpose of the company was to build up a profitable commercial and agricultural community; but the hostility of the natives, unfavourable climatic conditions and the character of the colonists delayed the growth of the new community. John Smith became the head of the government in September 1608, compelled the colonists to submit to law and order, built a church and prepared for more extensive agricultural and fishing operations. In 1609 the London Company was reorganized, other colonists were sent out, and the boundaries of the new country were fixed, according to which Virginia was to extend from a point 200 m. south of Old Point Comfort, at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, to another point 200 m. north, "west and northwest to the South Sea."

The government of the country was in the hands of the London Company, which in turn committed administrative and local affairs to a governor and council who were to reside in the colony. Before the arrival of the "government" and their shiploads of settlers the original colony was reduced to the direst straits. Captain Christopher Newport (d. 1618), Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers, the new authorities, reached Jamestown at last in 1565, but finding things in such a deplorable state all agreed (June 10, 1610) to give up the effort to found a colony on the James and set sail for Newfound-land. At the mouth of the river they met Lord Delaware, however, who brought other colonists and plentiful supplies; and they returned, set up a trading post at what is now Hampton and undertook to bring the hostile natives to subjection. In 1611, 650 additional colonists landed, the James and Appomattox rivers were explored and plantations" were established at Henrico and New Kent counties. In 1617 Virginia fell into the hands of a rigid Puritan, Captain Samuel Argall. The colonists were compelled on pain of death to accept the doctrine of the trinity, respect the authority of the Bible and attend church. This rigid regime was superseded in 1619 by a milder system under Sir George Yeardley (d. 1627). Twelve hundred new colonists arrived in 1619. At the same time negro slaves and many "indentured" servants were imported as labourers. At the beginning Virginia colonists had held their land and improvements in common. But in 1616 the land was parcelled out and the settlers were scattered along the shores of the James and Appomattox rivers many miles inland. Twenty thousand pounds of tobacco were exported in 1619. The community had now become self-supporting, and the year that witnessed these changes witnessed also the first representative assembly in North America, the Virginia House of Burgesses, a meeting of planters sent from the plantations to assist the governor in reforming and making the laws of the colony. In 1621 a constitution was granted whereby the London Company and the colonists were to share in the government. The planters were to elect two members for every 10,000 and occupying counties, whereas the burgesses and plantations delegates to the House of Burgesses. The popular assembly, like the English House of Commons, granted supplies and originated laws, and the governor and Council enjoyed the right of revision and veto as did the king and the House of Lords at home. The Council sat also as a supreme court to review the county courts. This system remained unchanged until the revolution of 1776. But in 1624 the king took the place and exercised the authority of the London Company.

Before 1622 there was a population of more than 4000 in Virginia, and the many tribes of Indians who were still the proprietors of the soil over a greater portion of the country naturally became jealous, and on the 22nd of March of that year fell upon the whites and slew 350 persons. Sickness and famine once again visited the colony, and the population was reduced by nearly one-half. These losses were repaired, however; the tobacco industry grew in importance, and the settlers built their cabins far in the interior of lowland Virginia. This rapid growth was scarcely retarded by a second Indian attack, in April 1621, which resulted in the death of about 350 settlers. Between the years 1619 and 1641 the population of Virginia was more than doubled.

Virginia was neither a cavalier nor roundhead, but both. Sir William Berkeley had been the governor since 1641, and though he was loyal enough to the crown, it was without difficulty that his authority was overthrown in March 1652 and that of Cromwell proclaimed in its stead. Richard Bennett, a Puritan from Maryland, now ruled the province. Bennett and his Puritan successors, Edward Digges and Samuel Mathews, made no serious change in the administration of the colony except to extend greatly the elective franchise. But this policy was reversed in 1660, when Berkeley was restored to power. The return of Berkeley was the beginning of a reaction which concentrated authority, both in the House of Burgesses and in the Council, in the hands of the older families, and thus created a privileged class. The governor, supported by the great families, retained the same House of Burgesses for sixteen years lest a new one might not be submissive. The increasing mass of the population dwelt along the western border or on the less fertile ridges which make up the major part of the land even in tide-water Virginia. These poorer people—who were not, however, "poor whites"—developed an abiding hostility towards the oligarchy. They desired a freer land-grant system, protection against the inroads of the Indians along the border, and frequent sessions of an assembly to be chosen by all the freeholders. But a new code of laws outlawed many of these people as dissenters, and in 1676 a burdensome tax was laid by the representative assembly. The Indians had again attacked the border farmers, and the governor had refused assistance, being willing, it was generally believed, that the border population should suffer while he and his adherents enjoyed a lucrative fur trade with the Indians. Under these circumstances, Nathaniel Bacon (1641-1676), whose grandfather was a cousin of Francis Bacon, too up the cause of the poor whites and severely punished the Indians at the battle of Bloody Run. But Berkeley meanwhile had outlawed Bacon, whose forces now marched on the capital demanding recognition as the authorized army of defence. This was refused, and civil war began, in which the governor was defeated and Jamestown was burned. But Bacon fell a victim to malaria and died in October in Gloucester county. Berkeley closed the conflict with wholesale executions and confiscations. Censured by the king, he sailed to England to make his defence, but died in London in 1677 without having seen Charles. Virginia
remained in the hands of the reactionary party and was governed by men whose primary purpose was to "make their fortunes" at the expense of the colonials. Even the accession of William and Mary scarcely affected the fortunes of the "fifth kingdom," though Middle Plantation, a hamlet not far from Jamestown, became Williamsburg and the capital of the province in 1691, and the clergy received a head, though not a bishop, in the person of James Blair (1663-1743), an able Scottish churchman, who as commissary of the bishop of London became a counterpoise to the arbitrary governors, and who as founder and head of the College of William and Mary (established at Williamsburg in 1693) did valiant service for Virginia. Under the stimulus of the Virginia Act of 1716, the whole body of the clergy, consisting of all the non-presbyterians, was enrolled in the Virginia Corporation, in which they had "an equal voice and part," and the ministers and tobacco-growers settled along the upper Rappahannock, and, uniting with the borderers in general, they offered strong resistance to the older planters on the James and the York.

Tobacco-growing was the one vocation of Virginia, and many of the planters were able to spend their winters in London or Glasgow and to send their sons and daughters to the finishing schools of the mother country. Negro slavery grew so rapidly during the first half of the eighteenth century that the blacks outnumbered the whites in 1740. The master of slaves set the fashion. Handsome houses were built along the banks of the Virginia rivers, and numerous slaves were employed. There was as great a social distance between the planters and their families on the one side and the masses of people in Virginia on the other as that which separated the nobles from the yeomen in Europe; and there was still another chasm between the small farmers and the negroes.

In 1716 an expedition of Governor Alexander Spotswood over the mountains advertised to the world the rich backcountry, now known as the Valley of Virginia; a migration thither from Pennsylvania and from Europe followed which resulted in the formation of the Western counties of Virginia. The colonization of the Commonwealth for the most part was completed by 1740, when the new counties were organized. The counties were sufficiently independent of the old counties, and the western counties did not work in concert with the old counties, but the old counties would not cooperate with them. The old counties were in a position to refuse to do what the new counties would do, and the new counties would not do what the old counties would do; and yet both sought to carry on the war against the Cherokee and the Chickasaw. The counties were independent of one another, and the Old State and the New State were independent of each other.

In 1716 the legislature of Virginia passed an act for the support of a university. The act provided for a governing body to be elected by the House of Burgesses. The body was to consist of the governor, the Lieut. Governor, and four county lieutenants; but it was soon changed to consist of the governor, the Lieut. Governor, and the four county lieutenants, and the names of the other two members were to be ordered by the House of Burgesses. The act was an act of self-interest, and the act of self-interest of the House of Burgesses was to be the official act of the government. The act was a step forward, and the act of self-interest of the House of Burgesses was to be the official act of the government. The act was an act of self-interest, and the act of self-interest of the House of Burgesses was to be the official act of the government.
VIRGINIA

formation of a national government with adequate powers to supersede the lame confederacy. In 1787, under the presidency of Washington, the National Convention sat in Philadelphia, with the result that the present Federal Constitution was submitted to the states for ratification during 1787-1789. In Virginia the tide-water leaders urged adoption, while the up-country men, following Henry, opposed; but after a long and bitter struggle, in the summer of 1788 the new instrument was accepted, the low-country winning by a majority of ten votes, partly through the influence of James Madison. Thus the eastern men, who had reluctantly supported the War of Independence, now became the sponsors for the national government, and Washington was compelled to rely on the party of slavery, not only in Virginia but in the whole South, in order to administer the affairs of the nation.

In 1784, Virginia, after some hesitation, ceded to the Federal government the north-west territory, which it held under the charter of 1609; in 1792 another large strip of the territory of Virginia became an independent state under the name of Kentucky. But the people of these sessions, especially of Kentucky, were closely allied to the great up-country party of Virginia, and altogether they formed the basis of the Jeffersonian democracy, which from 1794 opposed the chief measures of the Washington administration, and which on the passage of the Alien and Sedition laws in 1798 precipitated the first great constitutional crisis in Federal politics by the adoption in the Kentucky and Virginia legislatures of the resolutions, known by the names of those states, strongly asserting the right and duty of Congress to arrest the course of the national government whenever in their opinions that course had become unconstitutional. Jefferson was the author of the Kentucky resolutions, and his friend Madison prepared those passed by the Virginia Assembly. But these leaders restrained their followers sharply whenever the suggestion of secession was made, and the question of what was meant by arresting the course of Federal legislation was left in doubt. The election of 1800 rendered unnecessary all further agitation by putting Jefferson in the President's chair. The up-country party in Virginia, with their allies along the frontiers of the other states, was in power, and the radical of 1776 shaped the policy of the nation during the next twenty-five years. Virginia held the position of leadership in Congress, controlled the cabinet and supplied many justices of the Supreme Court.

Virginia played a leading rôle in the War of 1812, and up to 1835 her influence in the new Western and North-Western states was overwhelming. But the steady growth of slavery in the East and of a virile democracy in the West neutralized this influence and compelled the assembling of the constitutional convention of 1839, whose purpose it was to redress the fundamental law in such a way as to give the more populous counties of the West their legitimate weight in the legislature. The result was failure, for the democracy of small farmers which would have taxed slavery out of existence was denied proportionate representation. The slave insurrection under Nat Turner (q.v.) in 1831 led to a second abortive effort, this time by the legislature, to do away with the fateful institution. The failure of these popular movements led to a sharp reaction in Virginia, as in the whole South, in favour of slavery. From 1835 to 1860 many leading Virginians defended slavery as a blessing and as part of a divinely established order.

In 1850 a third Convention undertook to amend the Constitution, and now that the West yielded its bitter hostility to slavery, representation was so arranged that the more populous section was enabled to control the House while the East still held the Senate; the election of judges was confided to the people; and the suffrage was broadened. Although the West was not pleased, the leaders of the slave-holding counties threatened secession.

In the national elections of 1860 Virginia returned a majority of unionist electors as against the secession candidates, Breckinridge and Lane, many of the large planters voting for the continuance of the Union, and many of the smaller slave-owners supporting the secessionists. The governor called an extra session of the legislature soon after the Federal election, and this in turn called a Convention to meet on the 13th of February 1861. The majority of this body consisted of Unionists, but the Convention passed the ordinance of secession when the Federal government (April 17) called upon the state to supply its quota of armed men to suppress "insurrection" in the lower Southern states. An alliance was made with the provisional government of the Confeder ate States, on April 25, without waiting for the vote of the people on the ordinance. The Convention called out 10,000 troops and appointed Colonel Robert E. Lee of the United States army as commander-in-chief. On the 23rd of March the people of the eastern counties almost unanimously voted approval of the acts of the Convention, and the western counties took steps to form the state of West Virginia (q.v.). Richmond soon became the capital of the Confederacy.

The Civil War was already begun, and Virginia was necessarily the battle-ground. Of the six great impacts made upon the Confederacy, four were upon Virginian soil: the first Manassas campaign (1861), the Peninsula battles (1862), second Manassas (1862), Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville (1862-63) and the great Wilderness-Petersburg series of attacks (1864-65). About 90,000 men were killed in Virginia, and probably 100,000 died of wounds and disease. The principal battles were: the first Manassas, or Bull Run (July 21, 1861); those around Richmond (June 26-July 2, 1862); second Manassas (August 29-30); Fredericksburg (December 12, 1862); Mechanicsville (May 2 and 3, 1863); the Wilderness (May 5 and 6); Spotsylvania (May 8); North Anna and Bethesda (May 30-June 1); Cold Harbor (June 3); Petersburg (June 15, July 30 and November 1, 1864); and Five Forks (April 1) and Appomattox (April 9-12, 1865).

With the surrender of the Confederate army under General Lee to Grant at Appomattox the task of reconstruction began. President Lincoln offered a very liberal plan of re-establishing the civil authority over the counties east of the Allegheny mountains, and Governor Francis H. Pierpont set up in Richmond a government, based upon the Lincoln plan and supported by President Johnson, which continued till the 2nd of March 1867, when the famous reconstruction order converting the state into Military District No. 1 was issued. General John M. Schofield was put in charge, and under his authority a constitutional Convention was summoned which bestowed the suffrage upon the former slaves, who, led by a small group of whites, who had come into the state with the invading armies, ratified the 14th and 15th amendments to the Federal Constitution and governed the community until 1869. Then the secessionists and Union men of 1861 united and regained control. Virginia was readmitted to the Union on the 26th of January 1870. The Constitution of the reconstruction era was unchanged until 1902, when the present fundamental law was adopted.

In national elections the state has supported the Democratic party, except in 1860, when its vote was cast for John Bell, the candidate of the Constitutional Union party.

GOVERNORS OF VIRGINIA

Under the Company

Edward Maria Wingfield, President of the Council
John Ratcliffe, President of the Council
John Smith, ... ... ...
George Percy, ... ... ...
Thomas West, Lord Delaware, Governor and Captain General
George Percy, Deputy Governor
Sir Thomas Dale, "High Marshall" and Deputy Governor
Sir Thomas Gates, Acting Governor
Sir Thomas Dale, ... ... ...
George Yardeley, Lieutenant or Deputy Governor
Sir George Yardeley, ... ... ...
Samuel Argall, Lieutenant or Deputy Governor
Nathaniel Powell, Acting Governor
George Yardeley, Governor
Sir Francis Wyatt, ... ... ...

I24
VIRGINIA, UNIVERSITY OF

1624-1626
W. Loudon, Governor
1629-1635
John Harvey, Governor
1635-1639
John Harvey, Governor
1639-1641
Sir William Berkeley, Governor
1641-1644
Richard Kemp (elected by Council)
1644-1645
Sir William Berkeley, Governor
1645-1652

Under the Crown

Richard Bennett (elected by General Assembly) 1652-1655
Edward Diggs (elected by House of Burgesses) 1655-1657
Samuel Mathews (elected by House of Burgesses) 1657-1660

Under the Crown

Sir William Berkeley, Governor 1660-1667
Francis Morrison (or Morison), Deputy Governor
1661-1662
Herbert Jeffreys, Lieutenant Governor
1667-1678
Sir Henry Chicheley, Deputy Governor
1678-1680
Thomas, Lord Culpeper, Governor
1680-1683
Nicholas Spencer, President of the Council
1683-1684
Francis, Lord Howard of Effingham, Lieutenant Governor
1684-1687
Nathaniel Bacon, President of the Council
1687-1690
Francis Nicholson, Lieutenant Governor
1690-1692
Sir EdmundAndros, Governor
1692-1694
Francis Nicholson, Lieutenant Governor
1694-1704
George Hamilton Douglas, Earl of Ornkey, Governor-in-Chief
1704-1737
Edward Nott, Lieutenant Governor
1705-1706
Edmund Jenings, President of the Council
1707
Robert Hunter, Lieutenant Governor
1710
Alexander Spotswood, Lieutenant Governor
1719-1722
Hugh Drysdale
1722-1726
Robert Carter, President of the Council
1726-1727
William Gooch, Lieutenant Governor
1727-1740
William Anne Kemp, Earl of Albemarle, Governor-in-Chief
1737-1754
James Blair, President of the Council
1740-1741
Sir William Gooch, Governor
1741-1749
John Robinson, President of the Council
1749 (June to Sept.)
Thomas Lee
1749-1750
Lewis Burwell
1750-1751
Robert Dinwiddie, Lieutenant Governor
1751-1758
John Campbell, Earl of Loudon, Governor General of the American Colonies
1756-1763
John Blair, President of the Council
1758 (Jan. to June)
Francis Fauquier, Governor
1758-1759
Sir Jeffrey Amherst, Governor-in-Chief
1756-1758
James Blair, President of the Council
1758 (March to Oct.)
Norborne Berkeley, Baron de Botetourt, Governor
1758-1769
William Nelson, President of the Council
1770-1771
John Murray, Earl of Dunmore, Governor-in-Chief
1771-1775

State

Patrick Henry
1764-1770
Thomas Jefferson
1770-1775
Thomas Nelson, jun.
1779-1781
Benjamin Harrison
1781-1784
Patrick Henry
1784-1787
Edmund Randolph
1786-1788
Beverley Randolph
1780-1791
Henry Lee
1791-1794
Robert Brooke
1794-1796
James Wood, Democratic-Republican
1796-1799
James Monroe
1799-1802
John Patey
1802-1804
William H. Cabell
1804-1808
John Tyler, sen.
1808-1811
James Monroe
1811
George Wm. Smith (acting), Democratic Republican
1811
Peyton Randolph (acting)
1811-1812
James Barbour, Anti-Democratic
1812-1814
Wilson Cary Nicholas, Republican
1814-1816
James Patton Preston
1816-1819
Thomas Mann Randolph
1819-1822
James Pleasants
1822-1825
John Tyler, State Rights Democrat
1825-1827
William Branch Giles, Democrat
1827-1830

1 Never in Virginia.

John Floyd, Democrat 1830-1834
Littleton Waller Tazewell, Democrat 1834-1836
Wythe Robertson (acting), Democrat 1836-1837
David Campbell, Whig 1837-1841
Thomas W. Gilmer, Whig 1841-1844
John M. Patton, Whig 1845-1847
John Rutherford (acting), Whig 1847-1848
John Munford Gregory (acting), Whig 1848-1849
James McDowell
1849-1850
William Smith, Democrat 1850-1851
John Buchanan Floyd, Democrat 1851-1852
Joseph Johnson
1852-1853
Henry Alexander Wise
1853-1856
John Letcher
1856-1864
William Smith
1864-1868
Francis H. Pierpont (provisional), Republican
1868-1869
Henry Horatio Wells
1869-1870
Gilbert Carlton Walker
1870-1874
James Lawton Kemper, Conservative
1874-1875
Frederick Wm. Mackey Holladay, "Debt-Paying" 1876-1878
William Ewan Cameron, Readjuster 1882-1886
Fitzhugh Lee, Democrat 1886-1890
Philip W. McKinney, Democrat 1890-1894
Charles Triplett O'Farrall, Democrat 1894-1898
James Hoge Tyler
1898-1900
Andrew Jackson Montague
1900-1902
Claude Augustus Swanson
1906-1910
William Hodges Mann
1910


VIRGINIA, UNIVERSITY OF, a state institution for higher education, situated at Charlottesville among the foot-hills of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Its buildings, arranged around
a large rectangular lawn and erected from a plan prepared by Thomas Jefferson, are noted for their architectural effect. At the head of the lawn is the Rotunda, modelled after the Roman Pantheon and now containing the university library; and at the foot of the lawn are three modern recitation and laboratory buildings. On the sides are grouped buildings for each individual professor and dormitories for students. There are also a chapel, a gymnasium, a hospital, and on the summit of Mount Jefferson Hill, a mile south-west of the campus, is the M’Cormick Observatory. The university comprises twenty-six independent schools, but the courses of instruction given in these are so co-ordinated as to form six departments: two academic—the college and the department of graduate studies; and four professional—law, medicine, engineering, and agriculture. The institution owns 532 acres of land, has productive endowment funds amounting to $1,975,000, and receives from the state an annual appropriation of $86,000. It is governed by a rector, chosen by and from nine visitors, and a board of philosophy, moral philosophy, chemistry and mediæ in corpore, the state superintendent of public instruction and the president of the university; and the corporate name of the university is "The Rector and Visitors of the University of Virginia.” In 1804 Edwin Anderson Alderman (b. 1861) was elected president. In 1910 the faculty and officers numbered 110, the students (men only) 893, and the number of volumes in the libraries 88,000.

The university traces its beginning to an act of the legislature in January 1823 for incorporating the “Trustees of Albemarle Academy.” On May 24, 1814, before the site of this proposed institution had been chosen, Thomas Jefferson was elected a trustee, and under his influence the legislature, in February 1816, authorized the establishment of Central College in lieu of Albemarle Academy. The cornerstone of Central College was laid in October 1817, and Jefferson, who was rector of its board of trustees, early planned a park for its development into the university of Virginia. The legislature, thanks to the efforts of Joseph Carrington Cabell, a close personal friend of Jefferson, adopted the plan in 1818 and 1819, and seven independent schools—ancient languages, modern languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry and mediæ in corpore, opened to students in March 1825; a school of law was opened in 1826. In 1825 the School of Medicine became a department of three individual schools; and in 1830 the School of Law became a department of two schools. After the gift of $300,000 by Andrew Carnegie there were established in 1909 the Andrew Carnegie School of Engineering, the James Madison School of Law, the James Monroe School of International Law, the James Wilson School of Political Economy, the Edgar Allan Poe School of English and the Walter Reed School of Pathology.

Under Jefferson’s plan only two degrees were granted: “Graduate,” to any student who had completed the course of any one school; and “Doctor” to a graduate in more than one school who had shown powers of research. But in 1831 for the Doctor’s degree the faculty substituted, following British custom, the degree of Master of Arts. The college now grants the degrees of "Bachelor of Arts," "Cultural Bachelor of Science" and "Vocational Bachelor of Science"; the Department of Graduate Studies, the degrees of "Graduate in a School," "Master of Arts," "Master of Science" and "Doctor of Philosophy"; the Department of Law, the degree of "Bachelor of Laws"; the Department of Medicine, the degree of "Doctor of Medicine"; the Department of Engineering, the degrees of "Civil Engineer," "Mechanical Engineer," "Electrical Engineer," "Mining Engineer" and "Chemical Engineer"; and the Department of Agriculture, the degree of "Bachelor of Science in Agriculture." See J. S. Patton, Jefferson, Cabell and the University of Virginia (New York, 1906).

VIRGIN ISLANDS, a group of small islands in the West Indies, about 100 in number, for the most part uninhabited. They extend E. from Puerto Rico, lying between 17° and 19° N. and 65° and 68° W., their total area being about 465 sq. m. The islands are mostly rocky, or sandy and barren, but such portions as are under cultivation yield sugar, maize, coffee, cotton and indigo. Guinea grass grows abundantly on the hillsides, affording excellent pastureage; the forests, though few, include the mahogany and other useful trees. The coasts abound with fish. The climate is more healthy than that of the other West Indian islands, and the heat is not so great. Some of the islands belong to the United States, some to Denmark and some to Great Britain. The United States’ possessions (once dependencies of Puerto Rico, but ceded by Spain in 1898) have an area of about 150 sq. m, and include Culebra or Snake Island, and Vieques or Crab Island. The chief Danish islands are St Thomas (q.v.), St Croix (q.v.) and St John (q.v.), the total area being about 240 sq. m. Of the British portion of the group the principal are Tortola, Anegada, Virgin Gorda, Jost van Dyke, Peter’s Island and Salt Island, in all numbering 32, with an area of 25 sq. m. With the exception of the island of Sombrero they form one of the five presidencies in the colony of the Leeward Islands. The inhabitants are peasant proprietors, mainly engaged in raising cattle and in burning charcoal, but some are fishermen and boatmen. The chief town is Roadtown (pop. 400) at the head of a splendid harbour on the S. of Tortola, and what trade there is is mostly with St Thomas. Sombrero is maintained as a lighthouse by the British government. Population of the presidency, mostly negroes (1891) 4639; (1901) 4908.

The Virgin Islands were discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, in 1494, and named Las Virgenes, in honour of St Ursula and her companions. In 1666 the British established themselves on Tortola, which has ever since remained in their possession. In the 17th century the Virgin Islands were favourite resorts of the buccaneers. The Danish islands of St Thomas and St John were taken by the British in 1672 but restored in the following year. In 1807 they surrendered to the British, and continued in their hands till 1815, when they were again restored.

VIRGNIUS RUFUS, LUCIUS (A.D. 15-97), Roman patriot and soldier, three times consul (A.D. 63, 69, 97), was born near Comum, the birthplace of the two Plinys. When governor of upper Germany under Nero (68), after he had put down the revolt of Julius Vindex in Gaul, he was more than once urged by his troops to assume the supreme power; but he firmly refused, and further declared that he would recognize no one as emperor who had not been chosen by the senate. Galba, on his accession, aware of the feelings of the German troops and uncertain as to the intentions of Virginius, induced him to accompany him to Rome. But Virginius, as always, remained loyal to the head of the state. After the death of Otho, the soldiers again offered the throne to Virginius, but he again refused it. Considering themselves slighted, they drew their swords upon him, and he only saved himself from their hands by making his escape through the back of the tent. But the soldiers never forgave him his failure in rising. Being a military disturbance at Ticinum, one of Virginius’s slaves was arrested and charged with the design of murdering the emperor. Virginius was accused of being implicated in the conspiracy, and his death was loudly demanded by the soldiers. To his credit Vitellius refused to sacrifice so valuable a servant, on whose loyalty he could depend, to the vengeance of a capricious army. Virginius subsequently lived in retirement, chiefly in his villa at Alsum, on the coast of Etruria, till his death in 97, in which year he held the consulship, together with the emperor Nerva. At the public burial with which he was honoured, the historian Tacitus (then consul) delivered the funeral oration. The younger Pliny, his neighbour and ward, has recorded the lines which Virginius had ordered to be engraved upon his tomb: "Hic situs est Rufus, pulso qui Vindici quondam Imperium asserit vestrum non sibi sed patriae." See Tacitus, Hist. i. ii.; Dio Cassius lxii. 24-27, lxiv. 4. lxviii. 2; Pliny, Ep. ii. 1, vi. 10; Juvenal viii. 221, with his master’s note; L. Paul in Rheinisches Museum (1899), liv. pp. 602-30.

VIRGO ("the Virgin"), in astronomy, the sixth sign of the zodiac (q.v.), denoted by the symbol Υ. It is also a constellation mentioned by Eudoxus (4th century b.c.) and Aratus (3rd century b.c.); Ptolemy catalogued 32 stars, Tycho Brahe 33.
VIRUÉS–VISCHER (FAMILY)

Hevedius 5°. The Greeks represented this constellation as a virgin, but different fables are current as to the identity of the maid. She is variously considered to be: Justitia, daughter of Asterius and Ancora, who lived before man sinned, and taught him his duty, and when the golden age ended she returned to heaven; according to Hesiod the virgin is the daughter of Jupiter and Themis; others make her to be Erigone, daughter of Icarius, or Parthenia, daughter of Apollo. The most interesting stars of this constellation are: α Viriν is, or Spica, a star of the first magnitude with a very faint companion; and γ Viriνis, a binary star, having components of the third magnitude.

VIRUÉS, CHRISTOPH (1520–1579). S. by I. of Stockholm by the dyane and returned to the ancient monastic house of San Valentín about the middle of the 16th century, joined the army, fought at Lepanto, and retired to his native place with the rank of captain shortly before 1586. The first-fruit of his leisure was El Monserrate (1587), a dull poem on a repulsive subject which had the honour of being praised by Cervantes, and of being reprinted in 1601. Shortly afterwards Virués returned to Italy and issued a recast of his poem entitled El Monserrate segundo (1602). His Obras trágicas y líricas (1600) include five tragedies: La Gran Semiramis, La Cruz Casandra, Atila furioso, La Insufle Marcela and Elisa. Dido. The date of his death is not known, but he is considered to have been alive as early as 1614. Virués belongs to the school of dramatists displaced by Lope de Vega, and his methods were out of fashion before his plays were printed; yet he is an interesting figure, chiefly because of the very extravagances which degrade the effect of his best scenes.

VISBY, or Vissuy, the capital of the Swedish island and administrative district (län) of Gotland, in the Baltic Sea. Pop. (1900) 8376. It is the seat of a bishop, the port of the island, and a favourite watering-place. It is picturesquely situated on the west coast, the south side of a bay, with a gable-like shore; the church is on an eminence. The church is beneath a cliff (klint) 100 ft. high, and the town is thoroughly medieval in appearance. The remains from its period of extraordinary prosperity from the 11th to the 14th century are of the highest interest. Its walls date from the end of the 13th century, replacing earlier fortifications, and enclose a space much larger than that now covered by the town. Massive towers rise at close intervals along them, and nearly forty are in good preservation. Between them are traces of barizans. The cathedral church of St Mary dates from 1198–1225, but has now been altered and carried up. It has a square tower at the west end and two graceful octagonal towers at the east, and contains numerous memorials of the 17th century. There are ten other churches, in part ruined, none of which is used for service. Among those of chief interest St Nicholas, of the early part of the 13th century, formerly belonged to a Dominican monastery. It retains two beautiful rose-windows in the west front. The church of the Holy Ghost (Helgeands-Kyrka) in a late Romanesque style (c. 1250) is a remarkable structure with a nave of two storeys. The Romanesque St Clement's has an ornate south portal, and the churches of St Doro and St Lars, of the 13th century, are notable for their huge towers. St Catherine's, of the middle of the 13th century, is Gothic, with a pentagonal apse. It belonged to a Franciscan convent, of the buildings of which there are slight ruins. Among ancient remains in the vicinity may be mentioned Galghberget, the place of execution, with tall stone pillars still standing; and the remarkable stone labyrinth of Tröjeborg. Modern buildings include the Gotland museum of antiquities, and the high school, with a museum and library. The artificial harbour, somewhat exposed, lies south of the town; it has a great lighthouse, not far from the old sanatorium, the great lighthouse, not far from the island.

The name Visby is derived from the old Norse ve (sanctuary) and by (town). This was no doubt a place of religious sacrifice in heathen times. At any rate it was a notable trading-place and emporium as early as the Stone Age, and continued to enjoy its importance as such through the Bronze and Iron Ages, as is proved, inter alia, by the large number of Arabic, Anglo-Saxon and other coins which have been found on the island. See Gotland and Sea Laws.

VISCACHA, or Biscacha, a large South American burrowing rodent mammal belonging to the family Chinchillidae and commonly known as Lagostomus trichodactylus, although some writers prefer the name Viscacia. With the cheek-teeth formed of a number of parallel plates in the manner characteristic of the family, the viscacha is distinguished from the other members of that group by having only three hind toes; while it is also the heaviest-built and largest member of the group, with small ears and a very short tail. The general colour of the latter being dark grey, with conspicuous black and white markings on the face. Viscachas inhabit the South American pampas between the Uruguay river and the Rio Negro in Patagonia, where they dwell in Warrens covering from 100 to 200 sq. ft. and forming mounds penetrated by numerous burrows. The ground around the "viscachers" is cleared from vegetation, the refuse of which is heaped upon the mound. Anything the rodents may meet with on their journeys, such as thistle-stalks or bones, are gathered up and deposited in the burrow. Deep down in the burrows dwell the viscachas, from which in frequented districts they seldom emerge till evening, unless to drink after a shower. Their chief food is grass and seeds, but they also consume roots. When alarmed, they rush to their burrows, and if these are disturbed utter a growling sound. A pair of prairie burrowing owls (Spectofo) are almost invariably inhabitants of a viscachera (see Rodentia). (R. L.)

VISCHER, the name of a family of Nuremberg sculptors, who contributed largely to the masterpieces of German art in the 15th and 16th centuries. 1. Hans (1430–1507) came to Nuremberg as a worker in brass in 1453 and there became a "master" of his guild. There is only one work that can be ascribed to him with certainty, the baptismal font in the parish church of Wittenberg (1457). This is decorated with figures of the Apostles.

2. His son, Peter, the elder, was born about 1455 in Nuremberg, where he died on the 7th of January 1526. He became "master" in 1489, and in 1494 was summoned by the Electoral Prince Philipp of the Palatinate to Heidelberg. He soon returned, however, to Nuremberg, where he worked with the Fugger family. His chief works are: the tomb of Bishop Johannes IV., in the Breslau cathedral (1496); the tomb of Archbishop Ernest, in Magdeburg cathedral (1497); the shrine of Saint Sebal in the Sebaluskirche at Nuremberg, between 1508 and 1510; a large gilded ordered by the Fugger brothers in Augsburg (lost); a relief of the "Crowning of the Blessed Virgin" in the Erfurt cathedral (a second example in the Wittenberg Schlosskirche, 1521); the tombstones for Margareta Tucher in the Regensburg cathedral (1521), and for the Eiben family in the Agilenkirche at Nuremberg (1522); the epitaph for the cardinal Albrecht of Brandenburg in the collegiate church at Aschaffenburg (1526); the tomb of the electoral prince Frederick the Wise in the Schlosskirche at Wittenberg (1521); the epitaph of the duchess Helene of Mecklenburg in the cathedral at Schwerin. Besides these works there are a number of others ascribed to Peter the elder with less certainty. In technique few bronze sculptors have ever equalled him, but his designs are marred by an excess of mannered realism and a too exuberant fancy. His chief early work, the tomb of Archbishop Ernest in Magdeburg cathedral (1495), is still filled up and covered with the Apostles under semi-Gothic canopies; it is purer in style than the magnificent shrine of St Sebal, a tall canopied bronze structure, crowded with reliefs and statues of the most lavish way. The general form of the shrine is Gothic, but the details are those of the 16th-century Italian Renaissance treated

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1 This great work is really a canopied pedestal to support and enclose the shrine, not the shrine itself, which is a work of the 14th century, having the gabled form commonly used in the middle ages for metal reliquaries.
VISCHER, F. T.—VISCONTI (FAMILY)

with much freedom and originality. Some of the statuettes of saints attached to the slender columns of the canopy are modelled with much grace and even dignity of form. A small portrait figure of Peter himself, introduced at one end of the base, is a marvel of clever realism: he has represented himself as a stout, bearded man, wearing a large heathen apron and holding under his left arm a tool of his trade. This is a remarkable example of the uncommercial spirit which animated the artists of that time, and of the evident delight which they took in their work. Dragons, grotesques and little figures of boys, mixed with graceful scroll foliage, crowd every possible part of the canopy and its shafts, designed in the most free and unconventional way and executed with an utter disregard of the time and labour which were lavished on them.

See R. Bauer, Peter Vischer und das alte Nürnberg (1886); C. Headlam, Peter Vischer (1901).

VISCHER, FRIEDRICH THEODOR (1807–1887), German writer on the philosophy of art, was born at Ludwigsburg on the 30th of June 1807, and was the son of a clergyman. He was educated at Tübingen, and began life in his father's profession. In 1835 he became Privatdozent in aesthetics and German literature at his old university, was advanced in 1837 to extraordinary professor, and in 1844 to full professor. In consequence, however, of his outspoken inaugural address, he was suspended for two years by the Württemberg government, and in his enforced leisure wrote the first two volumes of his Aesthetik, oder Wissenschaft des Schönen (1846), the fourth and last volume of which did not appear till 1857. Vischer threw himself heartily into the great German political movement of 1848–49, and shared the disappointment of patriotic democrats at its failure. In 1855 he became professor at Zürich. In 1866, his fame being now established, he was invited back to Germany with a professorship at Tübingen combined with a post at the Polytechnium of Stuttgart. He died at Gmunden on the 14th of September 1887. His writings include literary essays, collected under the titles Kritische Gänge and Altes und Neues, poems, an excellent critical study of Goethe's Faust (1875), and a successful novel, Auch Einer (1878; 25th ed., 1904). Vischer was not an original thinker, and his monumental Aesthetik, in spite of industry and learning, has not the higher qualities of success. He attempts the hopeless task of explaining art by the Hegelian dialectic. Starting with the definition of beauty as "the idea in the form of limited appearance," he goes on to develop the various elements of art (the beautiful, sublime and comic), and the various forms of art (plastic art, music and poetry) by means of the Hegelian antitheses—form and content, objective and subjective, inner conflict and reconciliation. The shape of the work also is repellently Hegelian, consisting of short highly technical paragraphs containing the main argument, followed by detailed explanations printed in different type. Still, Vischer had a thorough knowledge of every branch of art except music, and much valuable material is buried in his volumes. In later life Vischer moved considerably away from Hegelianism, and adopted the conceptions of sensual completeness and cosmic harmony as criteria of beauty; but he never found time to rewrite his great book. His own work as a literary artist is of high quality; vigorous, imaginative and thoughtful without academic technicality.

See O. Keindl, F. T. Vischer, Erinnerungsbilder (1888); J. E. von Günther, F. T. Vischer, ein Charakterbild (1888); I. Frapain, Vischer-Erinnerungen (1886); T. Ziegler, F. T. Vischer (Vortrag) (1895); J. G. Oswald, F. T. Vischer als Dichter (1896). (H. St.)

VISCONTI, the name of a celebrated Italian family which long ruled Milan; they claimed descent from King Desiderius, and in the 11th century possessed estates on Lake Como and Maggiora. A certain Ottone, who distinguished himself in the First Crusade, is mentioned in 1278 as viscount of Milan. The real basis for the family's dominion was laid, however, by another Ottone, a canon of Desio, appointed archbishop of Milan by Pope Urban IV. In 1262 through the influence of Cardinal Ubaldini. The Della Torre family, who then con-

trolled the city, opposed the appointment, and not until his victory at Desio in 1277 was Ottone able to take possession of his see. He imprisoned Napoleonole Della Torre and five of his relatives in iron cages, and directed his later efforts toward the advancement of his nephew Matteo. He died on the 16th of August 1278, and was succeeded by his son, Matteo, born in Invorio on the 15th of August 1255, succeeded his uncle as political leader of Milan, and although an uprising of the Della Torre in 1302 compelled him to take refuge at Verona, his steadfast loyalty to the imperial cause in Italy earned him the gratitude of Henry VII, who restored him to Milan in 1310 and made him imperial vicar of Lombardy. He brought under his rule Fiacenza, Tortona, Pavia, Bergamo, Vercelli, Cremona and Alessandria. An able general, he yet relied for his conquests more on diplomacy and bribery, and was esteemed as a model of the prudent Italo-Mauro, in his Gibelline policy, and quarrelling with Pope John XXII, over an appointment to the archbishopric of Milan, he was excommunicated by the papal legate Bertrand du Puy in 1322. He at one abdicated in favour of his son Galeazzo, and died at Cremona on the 24th of June of the same year. He left besides Galeazzo several sons: Marco, Lucchino, Giovanni and Stefano. Galeazzo I. (1277–1328), who ruled at Milan from 1322 to 1328, met the Holy Army which the pope had sent against the Visconti in Vaprio on the Adda (1327); his son John, who then ruled, was captured by the Bavarian. In 1327 he was imprisoned by the emperor at Monza because he was thought guilty of making peace with the church, and was released only on the intervention of his friend Castruccio Castracane. By his wife Beatrice d'Este he had the son Azzo who succeeded him. His brother Marco commanded a band of Germans, conquered Pisa and Lucca and died in 1329. Azzo (1302–1330), who succeeded his father in 1328, bought the title of imperial vicar for 25,000 florins from the same Louis who had imprisoned Galeazzo I. He continued his father's work of restoring the power of his house, in a revolt led by his cousin Lodrisio, reorganized the administration of his estates, built the octagonal tower of S. Gottardo, and was succeeded in turn by his uncles Lucchino and Giovanni. LUCCHINO made peace with the church in 1341, bought Parma from Obizzo d'Este and made Pisa dependent on Milan. Although he showed ability as general and governor, he was jealous and cruel, and was poisoned in 1349 by his wife Isabella Fieschi. GIOVANNI, brother of the preceding, archbishop of Milan and lord of the city from 1349 to 1354, was one of the most notable characters of his time. He befriended Petrarch, extended the Visconti sway over Bologna (1350), defeated Pope Clement VI, annexed Genoa (1355), and died on the 4th of October 1354 after having established the rule of his family over the whole of northern Italy except Fiemont, Verona, Mantua, Ferrara and Venice. The Visconti from the time of Archbishop Giovanni were no longer mere rivals of the Della Torre or dependants on imperial caprice, but real sovereigns with a recognized power over Milan and the surrounding territory. The state was partitioned on the death of Giovanni among his brothers Stefano's three sons, Matteo II., Galeazzo II. and Bernabo. MATTEO II., who succeeded to Bologna, Lodri, Fiacenza and Parma, abandoned himself to the most revolting immorality, and was assassinated in 1355 by direction of his brothers, who thenceforth governed the state jointly and with considerable ability. GALEAZZO II., who held his court at Pavia, was handsome and distinguished, the patron of Petrarch, the founder of the university of Pavia and a gifted diplomat. He married his daughter Violante to the duke of Clarence, son of Edward III. of England, giving a dowry of 200,000 florins; and his son Gian Galeazzo to Isabella, daughter of King John of France. He died in 1378. BERNABO, who held his court at Milan, was involved in constant warfare, to defy the expenses of which he instituted very oppressive taxes. He fought Popes Innocent VI. and Urban V., who proclaimed a crusade against him. He fought the emperor Charles IV., who declared the forfeiture of his fief. He
endowed his son with the state after the death of his brother, but his brave nephew Gian Galeazzo plotted against him and put him to death (1383). Gian Galeazzo, the most powerful of the Visconti, became joint ruler of the Milanese territories when his brother, Gaino, died in 1378 and sole ruler on the death of his uncle seven years later. He founded the cathedral of Milan, built the Certosa and the bridge across the Ticino at Pavia, improved the university of Pavia and established the library there, and restored the university at Piacenza. His bureaucratic government was excellent; he was an able and economical administrator, and was reputed to be one of the wealthiest princes of his time. He was ambitious to reduce all Italy under the sway of the Visconti. He conquered Verona in 1387, and in the following year, with the aid of the Venetians, took Padua. He plotted successfully against the rulers of Mantua and Ferrara, and now that the whole of Lombardy lay prostrate before him he turned his attention to Tuscany. In 1390 he bought Pisa and seized Siena. The emperor Wenceslaus had already conferred on him the title of duke of Milan for 100,000 florins, reserving only Pisa, and refused to take arms against him. Gian Galeazzo took Perugia, Lucca and Bologna (1400-1), and was besieging Florence when he died of the plague (3rd of September 1402) at the age of fifty-five years. His sons, Giovanni Maria and Filippo Maria, were mere boys at the time of his death, and were laid in the tomb with him in the celebrated condottiere Facino Cane de Cesale; but most of Gian Galeazzo's conquests were lost to his self-seeking generals. Giovanni Maria was proclaimed duke of Milan in 1402, displayed an insane cruelty, and was killed in 1412 by Ghibelline partisans. Filippo Maria, who became nominal ruler of Pavia in 1402, succeeded his brother as duke of Milan. Cruel and extremely sensitive about his personal ugliness, he nevertheless was a great politician, and by employing such powerful condottieri as Carmagnola, Puccinio and Francesco Sforza he managed to recover the Lombard portion of his father's duchy. From his marriage with the unhappy widow of the above-mentioned Facino Cane he received a dowry of nearly half a million florins. He died in 1447, the last of the Visconti in direct male line, and was succeeded in the duchy, after the shortlived Ambrosian republic, by Francesco Sforza, who had married his daughter Bianca in 1441 (see Sforza). Valentina (1366-1408), a daughter of Gian Galeazzo and a sister of the preceding, married Louis of Orleans in 1387, and it was from her that Louis XII. of France derived his claim to the duchy of Milan. Gian Galeazzo left no other legitimate male issue, except a bastard who was born in prison, and other towns but was despised and beheaded (1407) by Charles VI.'s governor of Genoa, under whose protection he had placed himself. Among collateral branches of the Visconti family were the counts of Saliceto, counts of Zagnano, lords of Brignano, marquis of San Giorgio di Borgoratto, marquis of Inverno and Marquisella Motta. Other branches attained to some prominence in the localities of Bari and of Tarento. Tekabalo Visconti of Piacenza became Pope Gregory X. in 1271. Among the Visconti lords of Fontaneto was Gasparo, who died in 1295. The archbishop of Milan, An Ignatius Visconti was minister general of the Jesuits (1755-52).

There is a contemporary history of the principal members of the family by Paolo Giovio, bishop of Nocera, which may be had in several editions. See J. Burchardt, The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy, trans. by S. G. C. Middlemore (London, 1869); J. A. Symonds, Age of the Despot (New York, 1888); C. Magenta, I Visconti e gli Sforza nel Castello di Pavia (1885); A. Medin, I Visconti nella poesia contemporanea (Milan, 1891); F. Mugnier, "Les lettres des Visconti en Italie" in Mémoires et documents de la société savoisienne d'histoire et d'archéologie, vol. x. of the second series (1896). (C. H. A.)

VISCONTI-VENOSTA, EMILIO, MARQUIS (1820—98), Italian statesman, was born at Milan on the 22nd of January 1820. A disciple of Mazzini, he took part in all the anti-Austrian conspiracies until the ineffectual rising at Milan on the 6th of February 1853, of which he had foretold the failure, induced him to renounce his Mazzinian allegiance. Continuing, nevertheless, his anti-Austrian propaganda, he rendered good service to the national cause, but being molested by the Austrian police, was obliged in 1859 to escape to Turin, and during the war with Austria of that year was appointed by Cavour royal commissioner with the Garibaldian forces. Elected deputy in 1866, he accompanied Farini on diplomatic missions to Modena and Naples, and was subsequently despatched to London and Paris to acquaint the British and French governments with the course of events in Italy. As a recompense for the tact displayed on this occasion, he was given by Cavour a permanent appointment in the Italian foreign office, and was subsequently appointed under-secretary of state by Count Pasolini. Upon the latter's death he became minister of foreign affairs (24th March 1869) in the Minghetti cabinet, in which capacity he negotiated the September Convention for the evacuation of Rome by the French troops. Resigning office with Minghetti in the autumn of 1864, he was in March 1866 sent by La Marmora as minister to Constantinople, but was almost immediately recalled and reappointed foreign minister by Riccosi. Assuming office on the morrow of the second battle of Custozza, he succeeded in preventing Austria from burdening Italy with a proportion of the Austrian imperial debt, in addition to the Venetian debt proper. The fall of Riccosi in February 1867 deprived him for a time of his office, but in December 1869 he entered the Lanza-Sella cabinet as foreign minister, and retained his portfolio in the succeeding Minghetti cabinet until the fall of the Right in 1876. During this long period he was called upon to conduct the delicate negotiations connected with the Franco-German War, the occupation of Rome by the Italians, and the consequent destruction of the temporal power of the pope, the Law of Guarantees and the visits of Victor Emmanuel II. to Vienna and Berlin. Upon the occasion of his marriage with the daughter of the marquis Aliferi di Sostegno, grand-niece of Cavour, he was created marquis by the king. For a time he remained a member of the parliamentary opposition, and in 1874 was nominated senator. In 1875, after eighteen years' absence from active political life, he was chosen to be Italian arbitrator in the Bering Sea question, and in 1896 once more accepted the portfolio of foreign affairs in the Di Rudini cabinet at a juncture when the disasters in Abyssinia and the indiscreet publication of an Abyssinian Green Book had rendered the international position of Italy exceedingly difficult. His first care was to improve Franco-Italian relations by negotiating with France a treaty with regard to Tunis. During the negotiations relating to the Cretan question and the Greco-Turkish War, he secured for Italy a worthy part in the European Concert and placed Lord Salisbury in the hands of Kriegsminister Thessaly. Resigning office in May 1898, on a question of internal policy, he once more retired to private life, but in May 1899 again assumed the management of foreign affairs in the second Pelloux cabinet, and continued to hold office in the succeeding Saracco cabinet until its fall in February 1901. During this period his attention was devoted chiefly to the Chinese problem and to the maintenance of the equilibrium in the Mediterranean and the Adriatic. In regard to the Mediterranean he established an Italo-French agreement by which France tacitly recognized Italian claims to Tripoli, and Italy not to interfere with French policy in the interior of Morocco; and, in regard to the Adriatic, he came to an understanding with Austria guaranteeing the status quo in Albania. Prudence and sagacity, coupled with unequalled experience of foreign policy, enabled him to assure to Italy her full portion of influence in international affairs, and secured for himself the unanimous esteem of European cabinets. In recognition of his services he was created Knight of the Annunziata by Victor Emmanuel III. on the occasion of the birth of Victor Emmanuel's only daughter and heir, Grand Duchess Yolanda Margherita di Savoy (1st of June 1901). In February 1906 he was Italian delegate to the Monroe conference at Algeciras. An account of Visconti-Venosta's early life (down to 1850) is given in an interesting volume by his brother Giovanni Visconti-Venosta, Ricordi di Giovanna (Milan, 1894).
VISCOUNT

through O. Fr. viscomte, mod. vicomte, from Low Lat. vice-comites, cf. Portg. visconde, Ital. visconte), the title of the fourth rank of the European nobility. In the British peerage it intervenes between the dignities of earl and baron. The title is now purely one of honour, having long been dissociated from any special office or functions.

In the Carolingian epoch the vice-comites, or missi comitibus, were the deputies or vicars of the counts, whose official powers they exercised by delegation, and from these the viscounts of the time of Charlemagne and his successors understood the vicomtes became hereditary the same happened in the case of their lieutenants; e.g. in Narbonne, Nimes and Alby the viscounts had, according to A. Molinier, acquired hereditary rights as early as the beginning of the 10th century. Viscounts thus developed into actual fiefs, with their own jurisdiction, domain and seigniorial rights, and could be divided or even transmitted to females. Viscounts, however, continued, for some time to have no more than the status of lieutenants, calling themselves either simply vice-comites, or adding to this title the name of the counts from which they derived their powers. It was not till the 12th century that the universal tendency to territorialize the feudal dominions affected the viscountcies with the rest, and that the viscounts began to take the name of the most important of their patrimonial domains. Thus the viscounts of Poitiers called themselves viscounts of Thouars, and those of Toulouse viscounts of Bruniquel and Montelar. From this time the significance of the title was extremely various. Some viscounts, notably in the duchy of Aquitaine and the county of Toulouse, of which the size made an effective centralized government impossible, were great barons, whose authority extended over whole provinces, and who disputed for power on equal terms with counts and dukes. Elsewhere, on the other hand, e.g. in the Île de France, Champagne, and a great part of Burgundy, the vicomtes continued to be half feudatories, half officials of the counts, with the same functions and rank in the feudal hierarchy as the châtelains; their powers were jealously limited and, with the organization of the system of prévôts and bailifs in the 12th century, practically disappeared. In the royal domains especially, these petty feudatories could not maintain themselves against the growing power of the crown, and they were early assimilated to the prévôts; thus there is no record of a vicomte at Paris after 1027.

In Normandy, where from the first the central power had been strong, vicomtes appeared at a very early date as deputies of the counts (afterwards dukes) of the Normans: "They are both personal companions and hereditary nobles." When local Norman counts began in the 11th century, some of them had vicomtes under them, but the normal vicomte was still a deputy of the duke, and Henry I. largely replaced the hereditary holders of the vicomtes by officials. "By the time of the Conqueror the judicial functions of the viscount were fully recognized, and extended over the greater part of Normandy." Eventually almost the whole of Normandy was divided into administrative viscounties or bailiwicks by the end of the 12th century. When the Normans conquered England, they applied the term viscomte or viccomites to the shireifs of the English system (see SHERIFF), whose office, however, was quite distinct and was hardly affected by the Conquest.

Nearly four centuries later "viscount" was introduced as a peerage style into England, when its king was once more lord of Normandy. John, Lord Beaumont, K.G., who had been created count of Boulogne in 1346, was made Viscount Beaumont, February 12, 1440, and granted precedence over all barons, which was doubtless the reason for his creation. Within a year the feudal viscount of Beaumont in Normandy was granted to him and the heirs male of his body on the ground that he traced his descent from that district. In 1446 Lord Bourchier, who held the Norman countship of Eu, was similarly made a viscount. The oldest viscountcy now on the roll is that of Hereford, created in 1550; but the Irish viscountcy of Gormanston is as old as 1478. The dignity was sparingly conferred in the peerage of England till recent times, when the number of viscounts was increased by bestowing the dignity on retiring speakers (e.g. Viscounts Canterbury, Hampden, Peel, Selby) and ministers who accepted peerages (e.g. Viscounts Melville, Halifax, Knutsford, Landaff, Cross, Ridley, Goschen, St. Aldwyn, Morley of Blackburn, Wolverhampton).

A viscount is "Right Honourable," and is styled "My Lord." His wife, also, "Right Honourable," is a "viscountess," and their eldest "Honourable." They are styled "Lord" and daughters are "Honourable." The coronet first granted by James I. has on the golden circlet a row of fourteen small pearls set in contact, of which number in representations nine are shown. The scarlet parliamentary robe of a viscount has two and a half doublings of ermine.


VISHNU

(Sanskrit, "the worker," from root vish, "to work"), a solar deity, in later Hindu mythology a god of the first importance, one of the supreme trinity with Brahma and Siva, but in the Rig Veda only a minor deity. In the Vedic scriptures his only anthropomorphic characteristics are the frequently mentioned strides that he takes, and his being a youth vast in body. His essential feature is the three strides (vi-kram) with which he traverses the universe. Two of these steps are visible to men, but the third or highest is beyond mortal sight. These steps are symbolic of the rising, culminating and setting of the sun, the days of the year, and the movement of the sun through the three divisions of the universe. To-day Vishnu is adored by the Vishnavite sects as the equal or even the superior of Brahma, and is styled the Preserver. He is represented with four arms, and black in colour; in one hand he holds a club and in the others a shell, a discus and a lotus respectively. He rides on the Garuda, half man and half bird, having the head, wings, beak and talons of an eagle, and human body and limbs, its face being white, its wings red and its body golden. In his character as preserver of men Vishnu has from time to time become incarnate to rid the world of some great evil (see also BRAHMANISM and HINDUISM).

See A. A. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology (Strassburg, 1897); Sir W. Muir, Original Sanskrit Texts, iv. 63-298; Sir M. Monier-Williams, Brahmanism and Hinduism, iii. v. vi.

VISION

(from Lat. videre, to see), or SIGHT, the function, in physiology, of the organ known as the eye (q.e.). The sense of vision is excited by the influence of light on the retina, the special terminal organ connected with the optic nerve. By excitation of the retina, a change is induced in the optic nerve fibres, and is conveyed by these to the brain, the result being a luminous perception, or what we call a sensation of light or colour. If light were to act uniformly over the retina, there would be no image of the source of the light formed on that structure, and consequently there would be only a general consciousness of light, without reference to any particular object. One of the first conditions, therefore, of vision for useful purposes is the formation of an image on the retina. To effect this, just as in a photographic camera, refractive structures must be placed in front of the retina which will so bend luminous rays as to bring them to a focus on the retina, and thus produce an image. Through the animal kingdom various arrangements are found for this purpose; but they may be all referred to three types, namely—(1) eye-specks or eye-dots, met with in Medusae, Annelidæ, &c.; (2) the compound eye, as found in insects and crustaceans; and (3) the simple eye, common to all vertebrates. The eye-specks may be regarded simply as expansions of optic nerve filaments, covered by a transparent membrane, but having no refractive media, so that the creature would have the consciousness of light only, or a simple luminous impression, by which it might distinguish light from darkness. The compound eye consists essentially of a series of transparent...
cone-like bodies, arranged in a radiate manner against the inner surface of the cornea, with which their bases are united, while their apices are connected with the ends of the optic filaments. As each cone is separated from its neighbours, it admits only a ray of light parallel with its axis, and its apex represents only a portion of the image, which must be made up, like a mosaic-work, of as many parts as there are cones in the eye. When the cones are of considerable length, it is evident, from their form and direction, their apices being directed inwards, that the oblique rays emanating from a luminous surface will be cut off, and that only those rays proceeding along the axis of the cone will produce an effect. Thus distinctness or sharpness of definition will be secured. The size of the visual field will depend on the form and size of the eye, the outermost cones marking its limits. Consequently the size of the visual field will depend on the size of the segment of the sphere forming its surface. The eyes of many insects have a field of about half a sphere, so that the creature will see objects before and behind it as well as those at the side. On the other hand, in many the eyes have scarcely any convexity, so that they must have a narrow field of vision. For anatomical details, and diseases of the eye, see Eye; the pathological aspects of vision itself are treated at the end of this article.

1. PHYSICAL CAUSES OF VISION

A luminous sensation may be excited by various modes of irritation of the retina or of the optic nerve. Pressure, cutting or electrical shocks may act as stimuli, but the normal excitation is the influence of light on the retina. From a physical point of view, light is a mode of movement occurring in a medium, termed the aether, which pervades all space; but the physiologist studies the operation of these movements on the sentient organism as resulting in consciousness of the particular kind which we term a luminous impression. The outside of the retina is convex, and is marked off by a boundary of great accuracy; but the physiological effects depend upon such complex conditions as to make it impossible to state them in the same precise way. Thus, when we look at the spectrum, we are conscious of the sensations of red and violet, referable to its two extremities: the physicist states that red is produced by 302 billions of impulses on the retina per second, and that violet corresponds to 757 billions per second; but he has arrived at this information by inductive reasoning from facts which have not at present any physiological explanation. We cannot at present trace any connexion between these estimations and the 392 billions of impulses on the retina per second and a sensation of red. Below the red and above the violet end of the spectrum there are vibrations which do not excite luminous sensations. In the first case, below the red, the effect as a sensation is heat; and above the violet the result is that of chemical activity. Thus the method of dispersion of light, as is followed in passing a ray through a prism, enables us to recognize these general facts: (1) rays below the red excite thermal impressions; (2) from the lower red up to the middle of the violet, the thermal rays become gradually weaker until they have no effect; (3) from the lower red to the extreme violet, they cause luminous impressions, which reach their greatest intensity in the yellow; and (4) from about the end of the yellow to far beyond the extreme violet, the rays have gradually a less and less luminous effect, but they have the power of exciting such chemical changes as are produced in photography. In general terms, therefore, the lower end of the spectrum may be called thermal, the middle luminous, and the upper actinic or chemical; but the three merge into and overlap one another. It may be observed that the number of vibrations in the extreme violet is not double that of the low red, so that the sensibility of the eye to vibrations of light does not range through an octave. The ultra-violet rays may act on the retina in certain conditions, as when they are reflected by a solution of sulphate of quinine, constituting the phenomenon of fluorescence. Far above the violet are the Röntgen radiations and probably others.
The optical constants of the human eye may be still further simplified by assuming that the two principal points and the two nodal points respectively are identical. Thus we may construct a reduced eye, in which the principal point is 2-3448 mm. behind the cornea and the single nodal point is 1-4764 mm. in front of the posterior surface of the lens. The refracting surface, or lens, has a radius of 5 mm. and is 3 mm. behind the cornea; and the index of refraction is that of the aqueous humour, or \( \nu \), or 1.3379.

2. The Formation of an Image on the Retina.—This may be well illustrated with the aid of a photographic camera. If properly focused, an inverted image will be seen on the glass plate at the back of the camera. It may also be observed by bringing the eyeball of a rabbit near a candle flame. The action of a lens in forming an inverted image is illustrated by fig. 3, where the pencil of rays proceeding from \( A \) is brought to a focus at \( A' \) and those from \( B \) at \( B' \); consequently the image of \( AB \) is inverted as at \( A'B' \). The three characteristic features of the retinal image are: (1) it is reversed; (2) it is sharp and well defined if it be accurately focused on the retina; and (3) its size depends on the visual angle. If we look at a distant object, say a star, the rays reaching the eye are parallel, and in passing through the refractive media they are focused at the posterior focal point—that is, on the retina. A line from the luminous point on the retina passing through the nodal point is called the line of direction. If the luminous object be not nearer than, say, 60 yds. the image is still brought to a focus on the retina without any effort on the part of the eye. Within this distance, supposing the condition of the eye to be the same as in looking at a star, the image would be formed somewhat behind the posterior focal point, and the effect would be an indistinct impression on the retina. To obviate this, for near distances, accommodation, so as to adapt the eye, is effected by a mechanism to be afterwards described.

When rays, reflected from an object or coming from a luminous point, are not brought to an accurate focus on the retina, the image is not distinct in consequence of the formation of circles of diffusion, the production of which will be rendered evident by fig. 4. From the point \( A \) luminous rays enter the eye in the form of a cone, the kind of which will depend on the pupil. Thus it may be circular, or oval, or even triangular. If the pencil is focused in front of the retina, as at \( d \), or behind it as at \( f \), or, in other words, if the retina, in place of being at \( F \), be in the positions \( G \) or \( H \), there will be a luminous circle or a luminous triangular space, and many elements of the retina will be affected. The size of these diffusion circles depends on the distance from the retina of the point where the rays are focused: the greater the distance, the more extended will be the diffusion circle. Its size will also be affected by the greater or less diameter of the pupil. Circles of diffusion may be studied by the following experiment, called the experiment of Scheiner:

Let \( C \) be a lens, and \( DEF \) be screens placed behind it. Hold in front of the lens a card perforated by two holes \( A \) and \( B \), and allow rays from a luminous point \( a \) to pass through these holes. The point \( a \) on the screen \( E \) will be the focus of the rays emanating from \( a \); if \( a \) were removed farther from the lens, the focus would be on \( F \), and if it were brought near to \( C \), the focus would then be on \( D \). The screens \( F \) and \( D \) show two images on the point \( a \). If, then, we close the upper opening in \( AB \), the upper image \( m \) on \( F \) and the lower image \( n \) on \( D \) disappear. Suppose now that the retina is substituted for the screens \( D \) and \( F \); the contrary will take place, in consequence of the reversal of the retinal image. If the eye be placed at \( o \), only one image will be seen; but if it be placed either in the plane of \( F \) or \( D \), then two images will be seen, as at \( mm \), or \( nn \); consequently in either of these planes there will be circles of diffusion and indistinctness, and only in the plane \( E \) will there be sharp definition of the image.

To understand the formation of an image on the retina, suppose a line drawn from each of its two extremities to the nodal point and continued onwards to the retina, as in fig. 6, where the visual angle is \( \alpha \). It is evident that its size will depend on the size of the object and the distance of the object from the eye. Thus, also, objects of different sizes, \( c, d, e \) in fig. 6, may be included in the same visual angle, as they are at different distances from the eye. The size of the retinal image may be calculated if we know the size of the object, its distance from the nodal point \( o \), and the distance of the nodal point from the posterior focus.

Let \( A \) be the size of the object, \( B \) its distance from the nodal point, and \( C \) the distance of \( o \) from the retina, or 15 mm.; then the size of the retinal image \( \alpha = \frac{(A + 15)}{B} \). The smallest visual angle in which two distinct points may be observed is 60 seconds; below this, the two sensations fuse into one; and the size of the retinal image

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**Fig. 2.**—Transverse Section of an Ideal or Schematic Eye.

**Fig. 3.**—Inversion by Action of a Lens.

**Fig. 4.**—Formation of Circles of Diffusion.

**Fig. 5.**—Diagram illustrating the Experiment of Scheiner.

**Fig. 6.**—The Visual Angle.
corresponding to this angle is 0.04 mm, nearly the diameter of a single retinal rod or cone. Two objects, therefore, included in a visual angle of less than 60 seconds, appear as one point. A small visual angle is in most eyes a condition of sharpness of definition. With a large angle, objects appear less sharply marked. Acuteness is determined by a few retinal elements, or even only one, being affected. A very minute image, if thrown on a single retinal element, is apparently sufficient to excite it. Thus it is possible to see a brilliant point in an angle even so small as $\frac{1}{2}$ of a second, and a sharp eye can see a body the $\frac{1}{24}$th of a line in diameter—that is, about the $\frac{1}{24}$th part of an inch.

3. The Optical Defects of the Eye.—As an optical instrument, the eye is defective; but from habit, and want of attention, its defects are not appreciated, and consequently they have little or no influence on our sensations. These defects are chiefly of two kinds—(1) those due to the curvature of the refractive surfaces, and (2) those due to the dispersion of light by the refractive media.

(a) Aberration of Sphericity.—Suppose, as in fig. 7, M A K to be a refractive surface on which parallel rays from L to S impinge, it will be seen that those rays passing near the circumferences are brought to a focus at F; and those passing near the centre at F)—intermediate rays being focused at N. Thus on the portion of the axis between F and F there will be a series of focal points, and the effect will be a blurred and bent image. In the eye this defect is to a large extent corrected by the following arrangements: (1) the iris cuts off the outer and more strongly refracted rays; (2) the curvature of the cornea is more ellipsoidal than spherical, and consequently those farthest from the axis are least deviated; (3) the anterior and posterior curvatures of the lens are such that the one corrects, to a certain extent, the action of the other; and (4) the structure of the lens is such that its power of refraction diminishes from the centre to the circumference, and consequently the rays farthest from the axis are less refracted.

(b) Astigmatism.—Another defect of the eye is due to different meridians having different degrees of curvature. This defect is known as astigmatism. It may be thus detected: Draw on a sheet of white paper a vertical and a horizontal line, with ink, crossing at a right angle; at the point of distinct vision it will be found impossible to see the lines with equal distinctness at the same time; to see the horizontal line distinctly the paper must be brought near the eye, and removed from it to see the vertical. In the cornea the vertical meridian has generally a shorter radius of curvature, and is consequently more refractive than the horizontal. The meridians of the lens may also vary; but, as a rule, the asymmetry of the cornea is greater than that of the lens. The optical explanation of the defect will be understood with the aid of fig. 7.

Thus, suppose the vertical meridian C A D to be more strongly curved than the horizontal F A E, the rays which fall on C A D will be brought to a focus G, and those falling on F A E at B. If we divide the pencil of rays at successive points, G, H, I, K, B, by a section perpendicular to A B, the various forms it would present at these points are seen in the figures underneath, so that if the eye were placed at G, it would see a horizontal line a d; if at H, an ellipse with the long axis a d' parallel to A B; if at I, a circle; if at K, an ellipse, with the long axis b c, at right angles to A B; and if at B, a vertical line b c. The degree of astigmatism is ascertained by measuring the difference of refraction in the two chief meridians; and the defect is corrected by the use of cylindrical glasses, the curvature of which, added to that of the minimum meridian, makes its focal length equal to that of the maximum meridian.

(c) Aberration of Refrangibility.—When a ray of white light traverses on a lens, the different rays composing it, being unequally refrangible, are dispersed: the violet rays (see fig. 9), the most refrangible, are brought to a focus at e, and the red rays, least refrangible at d. If a screen were placed at e, a series of concentric coloured circles would be formed, the central being of a violet, and the circumference of a red colour. The reverse effect would be produced if the screen were placed at d. Imagine the retina in place of the screen in the two positions, the sensational effects would be those just mentioned. Under ordinary circumstances, the error of refrangibility due to the optical construction of the eye is not observed, as for vision at near distances the interval between the focal point of the red and violet rays is very small. If, however, we look at a candle flame through a bit of cobalt blue glass, which transmits only the red and blue rays, the flame may appear violet surrounded by blue, or blue surrounded by violet, according as we have accommodated the eye for different distances. Red surfaces always appear nearer than violet surfaces situated in the same plane, because the eye has to be accommodated more for the red than for the violet, and consequently we imagine them to be nearer. Again, if we contemplate red letters or designs on a violet ground the eye soon becomes fatigued, and the designs may appear to move.

(d) Defects due to Opacities, etc., in the Transparent Media.—When small opaque particles exist in the transparent media, they may cast their shadow on the retina so as to give rise to images which are projected outwards by the mind into space, and thus appear to exist outside of the body. Such phenomena are termed entoptic. They may be of two kinds: (1) extra-retinal, that is, due to opaque or semi-transparent bodies in any of the refractive structures anterior to the retina, and presenting the appearance of drops, striae, lines, twisted bodies, forms of grotesque shape, or minute black dots dancing before the eye; and (2) intra-retinal, due to opacities, etc., in the layers of the retina, in front of Jacob's membrane. The intra-retinal may be produced in a normal eye in various ways. (1) Throw a strong beam of light on the edge of the sclerotic, and a curious branched figure will be seen, which is an image of the retinal vessels. The construction of these images, usually called Purkinje's figures, will be understood from fig. 10. Thus, in the figure to the left, the rays passing through the sclerotic at b', in the direction b'' c, will throw a shadow of a vessel at c on the retina at b', and this will appear as a dark line at B. If the light move from b' to a', the retinal shadow will move from b' to a', and the line in the field of vision will pass from B to A.
It may be shown that the distance \( c' \) corresponds to the distance of the retinal vessels from the layer of rods and cones. If the light enter the cornea, as in the figure to the right, and if the light be moved, the image will be displaced in the same direction as the light, if the movement does not exceed the middle of the cornea, but in the opposite direction to the light when the latter is moved up and down. Thus, if \( a \) be moved to \( a' \), \( d \) will be moved to \( d' \), the shadow on the retina from \( c \) to \( c' \), and the image \( b \) to \( b' \). If, on the other hand, \( a \) be moved above the plane of the paper, \( d \) will move below, consequently \( c \) will move above, and \( b' \) will appear to sink. (2) The retinal vessels may also be seen by looking at a strong light through a minute aperture, in front of which a rapid to-and-fro movement is made. Such experiments prove that the sensitive part of the retina is its deepest and most external layer (Jacob's membrane).

4. Accommodation, or the Mechanism of Adjustment for Different Distances.—When a camera is placed in front of an object, it is necessary to focus accurately in order to obtain a clear and distinct image on the sensitive plate. This may be done by moving either the lens or the sensitive plate backwards or forwards so as to have the posterior focal point of the lens corresponding with the sensitive plate. For similar reasons, a mechanism of adjustment, or accommodation for different distances, is necessary in the human eye. In the normal eye, any number of parallel rays, coming from a great distance, are focused on the retina. Such an eye is termed emmetropic (fig. 11, A). Another form of eye (fig. 11, B) may be such that parallel rays are brought to a focus in front of the retina. This form of eye is myopic or short-sighted, inasmuch as, for distinct vision, the object must be brought near the eye, so as to catch the divergent rays, which are then focused on the retina. A third form is seen in C, where the focal point, for ordinary distances, is behind the retina, and consequently the object must be held far off, so as to allow only the less divergent or parallel rays to reach the eye. This kind of eye is called hypermetropic, or far-sighted. For ordinary distances, at which objects must be seen distinctly in everyday life, the fault of the myopic eye may be corrected by the use of concave and of the hypermetropic by convex glasses. In the first case, the posterior focal point a little farther back, and in the second the convex glass will bring it farther forwards; in both cases, however, the glasses may be so adjusted, both as regards refractive index and radius of curvature, as to bring the rays to a focus on the retina, and consequently secure distinct vision.

From any point 65 metres distant, rays may be regarded as almost parallel, and the point will be seen without any effort of accommodation. This point, either at this distance or in infinity, is called the punctum remotum, or the most distant point seen without accommodation. In the myopic eye it is much nearer, and for the hypermetropic there is really no such point, and accommodation is always necessary. If an object were brought too close to the eye for the refractive media to focus it on the retina, circles of diffusion would be formed, with the result of causing indistinctness of vision, unless the eye possessed some power of adapting itself to different distances. That the eye has such power of accommodation is proved by the fact that, if we attempt to look through the meshes of a net at a distant object, we cannot see both the meshes and the object with equal distinctness at the same time. Again, if we look continuously at very near objects, the eye speedily becomes fatigued. Beyond a distance of 65 metres, no accommodation is necessary; but within it, the condition of the eye must be adapted to the diminished distance until we reach a point near the eye which may be regarded as the limit of visibility for near objects. This point, called the punctum proximum, is usually 12 centimetres (or 4-8 inches) from the eye. The range of accommodation is thus from the punctum remotum to the punctum proximum.

The mechanism of accommodation has been much disputed, but there can be no doubt it is chiefly effected by a change in the curvature of the anterior surface of the crystalline lens. If we hold a lighted candle in front and a little to the side of an eye to be examined, three reflections may be seen in the eye, as represented in fig. 12. The first, \( a \), is erect, large and bright, from the anterior surface of the cornea; the second, \( b \), also erect, but dim, from the anterior surface of the crystalline lens; and the third, \( c \), inverted, and very dim, from the posterior surface of the lens. Thus it appears that the concave surface of the vitreous humour to which the convex surface of the lens is adapted. Suppose the three images to be in the position shown in the figure for distant vision, it will be found that the middle image \( b \) moves towards \( a \), on looking at a near object. The change is due to an alteration of the curvature of the lens, as shown in fig. 13. The changes occurring during accommodation are:

1. The curvature of the anterior surface of the crystalline lens increases, and may pass from 10 to 6 mm.; (2) the pupil contracts; and (3) the intraocular pressure increases in the posterior part of the eye. An explanation of the increased curvature of the anterior surface of the lens during accommodation has been thus given by H. von Helmholtz. In the normal condition, that is, for the emmetropic eye, the crystalline lens is flattened anteriorly by the pressure of the anterior layer of the capsule; during accommodation, the radiating fibres of the ciliary muscles pull the ciliary processes forward, thus relieving the tension of the anterior layer of the capsule, and the lens at once bulges forward by its elasticity.

By this mechanism the radius of curvature of the anterior
OPTICAL ARRANGEMENTS

surface of the lens, as the eye accommodates from the far to the near point, may shorten from 10 mm. to 6 mm. The ciliary muscle, however, contains two sets of fibres, the longitudinal or meridional, which run from before backwards, and the circular or equatorial (Müller's muscle), which run, as their name indicates, around the band of longitudinal fibres forming the muscle. Direct observation on the eye of an animal immediately after death shows that the fibres of the latter are not distinctly visible. It is not difficult, however, if we know the size of the object reflecting the light, and its distance from the eye, to calculate the radius of the curved surface (Appendix to M'Kendrick's Outlines of Physiology, 1878). The general result is that, in accommodation for near objects, the middle reflected image becomes smaller, and the radius of curvature of the anterior surface of the lens becomes shorter.

5. Absorption and Reflection of Luminous Rays from the Eye.

When light enters the eye, it is partly absorbed by the black pigment of the choroid and partly reflected. The reflected rays are returned through the pupil, and, if the eye be focused on an object in the same direction as the rays entering the eye, but uniting to form an image at the same point in space as the luminous object. The pupil of an eye appears black to an observer, because the eye of the observer does not receive any of those reflected rays.

If, however, we strongly illuminate the retina, and hold a lens in front of the eye, so as to bring the reflected rays to a focus nearer the eye, then, a virtual and erect, or a real and reversed, image of the retina will be seen. Such is the principle of the ophthalmoscope, invented by Helmholtz in 1857. Eyes deficient in pigment, as in albinos, appear luminous, reflecting light of a red or pink colour; but if we place in front of such an eye a card perforated by a round hole of the same diameter as the pupil, the face will appear quite dark, like the pupil of an ordinary eye. In many animals a portion of the fundus of the eyeball has no pigment, and presents an iridescent appearance. This is called a tapetum. It probably renders the eye more sensitive to light of feeble intensity.

6. Functions of the Iris.—The iris constitutes a diaphragm which regulates the amount of light entering the eyeball. The aperture in the centre, the pupil, may be dilated by contraction of a system of radiating fibres of involuntary muscle, or contracted by the action of another system of fibres, forming a ring around the margin of the pupil. The radiating fibres are controlled by the sympathetic, while those of the circular set are excited by the third cranial nerve. The variations in diameter of the pupil are determined by the greater or less intensity of the light acting on the retina. A strong light causes contraction of the pupil; with light of less intensity, the pupil will dilate. In the human being, a strong light acting on one eye will often cause contraction of the pupil, not only in the eye affected, but in the other eye. These facts indicate that the phenomenon is of the nature of a reflex action, in which the fibres of the optic nerve act as sensory. The diaphragm is a circular muscle attached to a centre in the encephalon, whence influences emanate which affect the pupil. It has been ascertained that if the fibres of the optic nerve be affected in any way, contraction of the pupil follows. The centre is in the anterior pair of the corpora quadrigemina, as destruction of these bodies causes immobility of the pupil. On the other hand, the dilating fibres are derived from the sympathetic; and it has been shown that they come from the lower part of the cervical, and upper part of the dorsal, region of the cord. But the iris seems to be directly susceptible to the action of light. Thus the pupil of the eye of a dead fish is not dilated for several hours, whereas, if the eye on the opposite side be covered, its pupil will remain widely dilated, as at the moment of death.

The pupil contracts under the influence—(1) of an increased intensity of light; (2) of the effort of accommodation for near objects; (3) of a strong convergence of the two eyes; and (4) of such active substances as nicotine, morphia and physostigmine; and it dilates under the influence—(1) of a diminished intensity of light; (2) of vision of distant objects; (3) of a strong excitation of any sensory nerve; (4) of dyspnoea; and (5) of such substances as atropine and hyoscyamine. The chief function of the iris is to so moderate the amount of light entering
the eye as to secure sharpness of definition of the retinal image. This it accomplishes by (1) diminishing the amount of light reflected from near objects, by cutting off the more divergent rays and admitting only those approaching a parallel direction, which, in a normal eye, are focused on the retina; and (2) preventing the error of spherical aberration by cutting off divergent rays which would otherwise impinge near the margins of the lens, and would thus be brought to a focus in front of the retina.

3. **Specific Influence of Light on the Retina**

The retina is the terminal organ of vision, and all the parts in front of it are optical arrangements for securing that an image will be accurately focused upon it. The natural stimulus of the retina is light. It is often said that it may be excited by mechanical and electrical stimuli; but such an observation really applies to the stimulation of the fibres of the optic nerve. It is well known that such stimuli applied to the optic nerve behind the eye produce always a luminous impression; but there is no proof that the retina, strictly speaking, is similarly affected. Pressure or electrical currents may act on the eyeball, but in doing so they not only affect the retina, consisting of its various layers and of Jacob’s membrane, but also the fibres of the optic nerve. It is possible that the retina, by which is meant all the layers except those on its surface formed by the fibres of the optic nerve, is affected only by its specific kind of stimulus, light. This stimulus affects the terminal apparatus as to set up actions which in turn stimulate the optic fibres. The next question naturally is—What is the specific action of light on the retina? A. F. Holmgren, and also J. Dewar and J. G. M’Kendrick, have shown that when light falls on the retina it excites a variation of the electrical current obtained from the eye by placing it on the cushions of a sensitive galvanometer. One electrode touches the vertex of the cornea and the other the back of the eyeball. The corneal vertex is positive to the back of the eye, or to the transverse section of the optic nerve. Consequently a current passes through the galvanometer from the cornea to the back. Then the *impact* of light causes an increase in the natural electrical current—during the *continuance* of light the current diminishes slowly and falls in amount even below what it was before the impact—and the *withdrawal* of light is followed by a rebound, or second increase, after which the current falls in strength, as if the eye suffered from fatigue.

It was also observed in this research that the amount of electrical variation produced by light of various intensities corresponded pretty closely to the results expressed by G. T. Fechner’s law, which regulates the relation between the stimulus and the sensational effect in sensory impressions. This law is, that the sensational effect does not increase proportionally to the stimulus, but as the logarithm of the stimulus. Thus, supposing the stimulus to be 10, 100 or 1000 times increased, the sensational effect will not be 10, 100 or 1000 times, but only 1, 2 and 3 times greater.

Such electrical phenomena probably result either from thermal or chemical changes in the retina. Light produces chemical changes in the retina. If a frog be killed in the dark, and if its retina be exposed only to yellow rays, the retina has peculiar purple colour, which is at once destroyed by exposure to ordinary light. The purple matter apparently is decomposed by light. An image may actually be *fixed* on the retina by plunging the eye into a solution of alum immediately after death. Thus it would appear that light affects the purple-matter of the retina, and the result of this chemical change is to stimulate the optic filaments; if the action be arrested, we may have a picture on the retina; but if it be not arrested, the picture is evanescent; the purple-matter is used up, and new matter of a similar kind is formed to take its place. The retina might, therefore, be compared to a sensitive photographic plate having the sensitive matter quickly removed and replaced; and it is probable that the electrical expression of the chemical changes is what has been above described.

**Influence of Light**

(c) *Phosgenes.*—Luminous impressions may also be produced by pressure on the eyeball. Such impressions, termed *phosgenes,* usually appear as a luminous centre surrounded by coloured or dark rings. Sometimes they seem to be small bright scintillations of various forms. Similar appearances may be observed at the moments of opening or of closing a strong electrical current transmitted through the eyeball.

(b) *The Retina’s Proper Light.*—The visual field, even when the eyelids are closed in a dark room, is not absolutely dark. There is a sensation of faint luminosity which may at one moment be brighter than at another. This is often termed the *proper light of the retina,* and it indicates a molecular change, even in darkness.

(d) *The Excitability of the Retina.*—The retina is not equally excitable in all its parts. At the entrance of the optic nerve, as was shown by E. Mariotte in 1668, there is no sensibility to light. Hence, this part of the retina is called the *blind spot.* If we shut the left eye, fix the right eye on the cross seen in fig. 15, and move the book towards and away from the eye, a position will be found when the round spot disappears, that is when its image falls on the entrance of the optic nerve. There is also complete insensibility to colours at that spot. The diameter of the optic papilla is about 8 mm., giving an angle of $6^\circ$; this angle determines the apparent size of the blind spot in the visual field, and it is sufficiently large to cause a human figure to disappear at a distance of two metres.

The yellow spot in the centre of the retina is the most sensitive to light, and it is chiefly employed in direct vision. Thus, if we fix the eye on a word in the centre of this line, it is distinctly and sharply seen, but the words towards each end of the line are vague. If we wish to see each word distinctly, we “run the eye” along the line—that is, we bring each successive word on the yellow spot. This spot has a horizontal diameter of 2 mm., and a vertical diameter of 8 mm., and it corresponds in the visual field to an angle of from 2 to 4°. The fossa in the spot, where there are no retinal elements except Jacob’s membrane, consisting here entirely of cones (2000 in number), is the area of most acute sensibility. This fossa has a diameter of only 2 mm., which makes the angle ten times smaller. Thus the field of distinct vision is extremely limited, and at the same moment we see only a very small portion of the visual field.

Images of external objects are brought successively on this minute sensitive area, and the different sensations seem to be fused together, so that we are conscious of the object as a whole.

Towards the anterior margin of the retina sensibility to light becomes diminished; but the diminution is not uniform, and it varies in different persons.

(d) *Duration and Persistence of Retinal Impressions.*—To excite the retina, a feeble stimulus must act for a certain time; when the retina is excited, the impression lasts after the cessation of the stimulus; but if the stimulus be strong, it may be of very short duration. Thus the duration of an electrical spark is extremely short, but the impression on the retina is so powerful, and remains so long, as to make the spark visible. If we rotate a disk having white and black sectors we see continuous dark bands. Even if we paint on the face of the disk a single large round red spot, and rotate rapidly, a continuous red band may be observed. Here the impressions of red on the same area of retina succeed each other so rapidly that before one disappears another is superadded, the result being a fusion of the successive impressions into a continuous sensation. This phenomenon is called the *persistence of retinal impressions.* An impression lasts on the retina from $3\pi$ to $5\pi$ of a second. The cinematograph owes its effects to persistence of retinal impressions.

(e) *The Phenomena of Irradiation.*—If we look at fig. 16, the white square in the black field appears to be larger than the black square in the white field, although both are of precisely
the same size. This is due to irradiation. The borders of clear surfaces advance in the visual field and encroach on obscure surfaces. Probably, even with the most exact accommodation, diffusion images form round the image of a white surface on a black ground, forming a kind of penumbra, thus causing it to appear larger than it really is.

(f) Intensity of Light required to Excite the Retina.—Light of intensity sufficient to excite the retina must have a certain intensity to produce a luminous impression. It is impossible to fix the minimum intensity necessary, as the effect will depend, not only on the intensity of the stimulus, but on the degree of retinal excitability at the time. Thus, after the retina has remained for some time in the dark, its excitability is increased; on the other hand, it is much diminished by fatigue. Aubert has stated that the minimum intensity is about 300 times less than that of the full moon. The sensibility of the eye to light is measured by the photometer.

(g) Consecutive Retinal Images.—Images which persist on the retina are either positive or negative. They are termed positive when the bright and obscure parts of the image are the same as the bright and obscure parts of the object; and negative when the bright parts of the object are dark in the image, and vice versa. Positive images are strong and sharply marked when an intense light has acted for not less than $\frac{1}{3}$ of a second. If the excitation be continued much longer, a negative and not a positive image will be seen. If, when the positive image is still visible, we look on a very brilliantly illuminated surface, a negative image appears. Negative images are seen with greatest intensity after a strong light has acted for a considerable time. These phenomena may be best studied when the retina is very excitable, as in the morning after a sound sleep. On awakening, if we look steadily for an instant at the window and then close the eyes, a positive image of the window will appear; if we then gaze fixedly at the window for one or two minutes, close the eyes two or three times, and then look at a dark part of the room, a negative image will be seen floating before us. The positive image is due to excitation of the retina, and the negative to fatigue. If we fatigue a small yellow area of the retina with white light, and then allow a less intense light to fall on it, the yellowish fatigued area responds feebly, and consequently the object, such as the window pane, appears to be dark.

4. SENSATIONS OF COLOUR

1. General Statement.—Colour (q.v.) is a special sensation excited by the action on the retina of rays of light of a definite wave-length. On the most likely hypothesis as to the physical nature of light, colour depends on the rate of vibration of the luminiferous aether, and white light is a compound of all the colours in definite proportion. When a surface reflects solar light into the eye without affecting this proportion, it is white, but if it absorbs all the light so as to reflect nothing, it appears to be black. If a body held between the eye and the sun transmits light unchanged, and is transparent, it is colourless, but if translucent it is white. If the medium transmits or reflects some rays and absorbs others, it is coloured. Thus, if a body absorbs all the rays of the spectrum but those which cause the sensation of green, we say the body is green in colour; but this green can only be perceived if the rays of light falling on the body contain rays having the special rate of vibration required for this special colour. For if the surface be illuminated by any other pure ray of the spectrum, say red, these red rays will be absorbed and the body will appear to be black. As a white surface reflects all the rays, in red light it will be seen to be red, and in a green light, green. Colour depends on the nature of the body and on the nature of the light falling on it, and a sensation of colour arises when the body reflects or transmits the special rays to the eye. If two rays of different rates of vibration, that is to say, of different colours, affect a surface of the retina at the same moment, the effects are fused together and we have the sensation of a third colour different from its cause. Thus, if red be removed from the solar spectrum, all the other colours combined cause a sensation of greenish yellow. Again red and violet give purple, and yellow and blue, white. Yellow and blue, however, only give white when pure spectral colours are mixed. It is well known that a mixture of yellow and blue pigments do not produce white, but green; but, as was explained by Helmholtz, this is because the blue pigment absorbs all the rays at the red end of the spectrum up to the green, while the yellow pigment absorbs all the rays at the violet end down to the green, and as the only rays reflected into the eye are the green rays, the substance appears green. Finally, if colours are painted on a disk in due proportions and in a proper order, the disk will, when quickly rotated, appear white, from the rapid fusion of colour effects.

When we examine a spectrum, we see a series of colours merging by insensible gradations the one into the other, thus—red, orange, yellow, green, blue and violet. These are termed simple colours. If two or more coloured rays of the spectrum act simultaneously on the same spot of the retina, they may give rise to sensations of mixed colours. These mixed colours are of two kinds: (1) those which do not correspond to any colour in the spectrum, such as purple and white, and (2) those which do exist in the spectrum. White may be produced by a mixture of two simple colours, which are then said to be complementary. Thus, red and greenish blue, orange and cyanic blue, yellow and indigo blue, and greenish yellow and violet all produce white. Purple is produced by a mixture of red and violet, or red and bluish violet. The following table by Helmholtz shows the compound colours produced by mixing other colours:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violet</th>
<th>Indigo blue</th>
<th>Cyanic blue</th>
<th>Greenish blue</th>
<th>Green</th>
<th>Yellowish green</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purple</td>
<td>Deep rose</td>
<td>White rose</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Whithish green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep</td>
<td>White rose</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Whitish green</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Whitish</td>
<td>Whitish green</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Greenish blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>blue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that if we mix two simple colours not so far separated in the spectrum as the complementary colours, the mixed colour contains more white as the interval between the colours employed is greater, and that if we mix two colours farther distant in the spectrum than the complementary colours, the mixture is whiter as the interval is smaller. By mixing more than two simple colours, no new colours are produced, but only different shades of colour.

2. Modes of Mixing Colour Sensations.—Various methods have been adopted for studying the effect of mixing colours.

(a) By Superposing Two Spectra.—This may be done in a simple way by having a slit in the form of the letter V (see fig. 17), of which the two portions $ab$ and $be$ form a right angle; behind this slit is placed a vertical prism, and two spectra are obtained.
as seen in fig. 18, in which \( b c d a \) is the spectrum of the slit \( ab \), and \( c e f d \) that of the slit \( cd \); the coloured spectra are contained in the triangle \( g f h \), and, by rotation, the effects of mixture of any two simple colours may be observed.

(b) By Method of Reflection.-Place a red wafer on \( b \), in fig. 19, and a blue wafer on \( d \), and the arrangement, will be that of purple; and by using wafers of different colours, many experiments may thus be performed.

(c) By Rotating Disks which quickly superpose on the same Area of Retina the Impressions of Different Wave-lengths.

Such disks may be constituted of cardboards on which coloured sectors are painted, as shown in fig. 20, the arrangement of Sir Isaac Newton. The angles of the sectors were thus given by him:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Red} & : 60^\circ 45'5' \\
\text{Orange} & : 34^\circ 10'5' \\
\text{Yellow} & : 34^\circ 41'3' \\
\text{Green} & : 60^\circ 45'5' \\
\text{Blue} & : 54^\circ 41'3' \\
\text{Indigo} & : 34^\circ 10'5' \\
\text{Violet} & : 60^\circ 45'5'
\end{align*}
\]

With sectors of such a size, white will be produced on rotating the disk rapidly. This method has been carried out with great efficiency by the colour-top of J. Clerk-Maxwell. It is a flat top, on the surface of which various colours may be placed. Dancer has added to it a method by which, even while the top is rotating rapidly and the sensation of a mixed colour is strongly perceived, the eye may be able to see the simple colours of which it is composed.

This is done by placing on the handle of the top, a short distance above the coloured surface, a thin black disk, perforated by holes of various size and pattern, and weighted a little on one side. This disk vibrates to and fro rapidly, and breaks the continuity of the colour impression; and thus the constituent colours are readily seen.

3. The Geometric Representation of Colours.—Colours may be arranged in a linear series, as in the solar spectrum. Each point of the line corresponds to a determinate impression of colour; the line is not a straight line, as regards luminous effect, but is better represented by a curve, passing from the red to the violet.

This curve might be represented as a circle in the circumference of which the various colours might be placed, in which case the complementary colours would be at the extremities of the same diameter. Sir Isaac Newton arranged the colours in the form of a triangle, as shown in fig. 21. If we place three of the spectral colours at three angles, thus—green, violet and red—the sides of the triangle include the intermediate colours of the spectrum, except purple.

The point \( S \) corresponds to white, consequently, from the intersection of the lines which join the complementary colours, the straight lines from green to \( S \), \( RS \) and \( VS \) represent the amount of green, red and violet necessary to form white; the same holds good for the complementary colours; for example, for blue and red, the line \( SR \) the amount of blue, and the line \( SR \) the amount of red required to form white.

Again, any point, say \( M \), on the surface of the triangle, will represent a mixed colour, the composition of which may be obtained by mixing the three fundamental colours in the proportions represented by the length of the lines \( M \) to \( G \), \( V \) and \( R \). But the line \( MG \) passes on to the yellow \( Y \); we may then replace the red and green by the yellow, in the proportion of the length of the line \( MY \), and mix it with violet in the proportion of \( SV \). The same colour would also be formed by mixing the amount \( MY \) of yellow with MS of white, or by the amount RM of red with the amount MD of greenish blue.

The following list shows characteristic complementary colours, with their wave-lengths (\( \lambda \)) in millionths of a millimetre:

- Red, \( \lambda \) 656.
- Orange, \( \lambda \) 665.
- Gold-yellow, \( \lambda \) 574.
- Yellow, \( \lambda \) 567.
- Greenish yellow, \( \lambda \) 594.
- Indigo-blue, \( \lambda \) 464.
- Violet, \( \lambda \) 457.

By combining colours at opposite ends of the spectrum, the effect of the intermediate colours may be produced; but the lowest and the highest, red and violet, cannot thus be formed. These are therefore fundamental or primary colours, colours that cannot be produced by the fusion of other colours. If now to red and violet we add green, which has a rate of vibration about midway between red and violet, we obtain a sensation of white. Red, green and violet are therefore the three fundamental colours.

4. Physiological Characters of Colours.—Colour physiologically is a sensation, and it therefore does not depend only on the physical stimulus of light, but also on the part of the retina affected. The power of distinguishing colours is greatest when they fall on, or immediately around, the yellow spot, where the number of cones is greatest. In these regions more than two hundred different tints of colour may be distinguished. Outside of this area lies a middle zone, where fewer tints are perceived, mostly confined to shades of yellow and blue. If intense coloured stimuli are employed, colours may be perceived even to the margin of the periphery of the retina, but with weak stimuli coloured objects may seem to be black, or dark like shadows. In passing a colour from the periphery to the centre of the yellow spot, remarkable changes in hue may be observed. Orange is first grey, then yellow, and it only appears as orange when it enters the zone sensitive to red. Purple and bluish green are blue at the periphery, and only show the true tint in the central region. Four tints have been found which do not thus change: a red obtained by adding to the red of the spectrum a little blue (a purple), a yellow of \( 574.5 \lambda \), a green of \( 495 \lambda \), and a blue of \( 477 \lambda \).

The question now arises, How can we perceive differences in colour? We might suppose a molecular vibration to be set up in the nerve-endings synchronous with the undulations of the luminiferous aether, without any change in the chemical constitution of the sensory surface, and we might suppose that where various series of waves in the aether corresponding to different colours act together, these may be fused together, or to interfere so as to give rise to a vibration of modified form or rate that corresponded in some way to the sensation. Or, to adopt another line of thought, we might suppose that the effect of different rays (rays differing in frequency of vibration and in physiological effect) is to promote or retard chemical changes in the sensory surface, "which again so affect the sensory nerves as to give rise to differing states in the nerves and the nerve centres, with differing concomitant sensations." The former of these thoughts is the foundation of the Young-Helmholtz theory, while the latter is applicable to the theory of E. Hering.
COLOUR SENSATION

5. Theories of Colour-Perception.—A theory widely accepted by physicists was first proposed by Thomas Young and afterwards by Helmholtz. It is based on the assumption that three kinds of nervous elements exist in the retina, the excitation of which gives respectively sensations of red, green, and violet. These may be regarded as fundamental sensations. Homogeneous light excites all three, but with different intensities according to the length of the wave. Thus long waves will excite most strongly fibres sensitive to red, medium waves those sensitive to green, and short waves those sensitive to violet. But this theory shows graphically the irrationality of the three sets of fibres. Helmholtz thus applies the theory:

1. Red excites strongly the fibres sensitive to red and feebly the other two—sensation: Red.
2. Yellow excites moderately the fibres sensitive to red and green, feebly the violet—sensation: Yellow.
3. Green excites strongly, feebly the other two—sensation: Green.
4. Blue excites moderately the fibres sensitive to green and violet, and feebly the red—sensation: Blue.
5. Violet excites strongly the fibres sensitive to violet, and feebly the other two—sensation: Violet.
6. When the excitation is nearly equal for the three kinds of fibres, then the sensation is White.

The Young-Helmholtz theory explains the appearance of the consecutive coloured images. Suppose, for example, that we look at a red object for a considerable time: the retinal elements sensitive to red become fatigued. Then (1) if the eye be kept in darkness, the fibres affected by red being fatigued do not act so as to give a sensation of red; (2) if the eye is exposed to green and of violet have been less excited, and this excitation is sufficient to give the sensation of pale greenish blue; (2) if the eye be fixed on a white surface, the red fibres, being fatigued, are not excited by the red rays contained in the white light; (3) if we look at a bluish green surface, the complementary red, the effect will be to excite still more strongly the green and violet fibres, and consequently to have a still more intense complementary image; (4) if we regard a red surface, the primitive colour, the red fibres are little affected in consequence of being fatigued, the green and violet fibres will be only feebly excited, and therefore only a very feeble complementary image will be seen; and (5) if we look at a surface of a different colour altogether, this colour may combine with that of the consecutive image, and produce a mixed colour; finally, on a yellow surface, we will see an image of an orange colour.

Every colour has three qualities: (1) hue, or tint, such as red, green, violet; (2) degree of saturation, or purity, according to the amount of white mixed with the tint, as we recognize a red or green as pale or deep; and (3) intensity, or luminosity, or brightness as when we designate the tint of a red rose as dark or bright. Two colours are identical when they agree as to these three qualities. Observation shows, however, that out of one hundred men ninety-six agree in identifying or in discriminating colours, while the remaining four show defective appreciation. This defect is about ten times less frequent in women. Colour-blindness, being innate and incurable, and it is due to an unknown condition of the retina or nerve centres, or both, and must be distinguished from transient colour-blindness, sometimes caused by the excessive use of tobacco and by disease. When caused by tobacco, the sensation of blue is the last to disappear. Absolute inability to distinguish colour is rare, if it really exists; in some rare cases there is only one colour sensation; and in a few cases the colour-blind fails to distinguish blue from green, or there is insensibility to violet. Daltonism, or red-green blindness, is, of red-gold and the green-blind, is the more common defect. Red appears to the red-blind person as a dark green or greenish yellow, yellow and orange as dirty green, and green is green and brighter than the green of the yellow and orange. To a green-blind person red appears as dark yellow, yellow is yellow, except a little lighter in shade than the red he calls dark yellow, and green is pale yellow.

According to the Young-Helmholtz theory, there are three fundamental sensations of red, green, and violet, and the combination of which all other colours may be formed, and it is assumed that there exist in the retina three kinds of nerve elements, each of which is specially responsive to the stimulus of waves of a certain length. These elements are corresponding to red are absent; and green-blindness, to the absence of the elements sensitive to green. A red-blind person the green and violet are equal, and to a green-blind person the red and violet are equal; they thus give sensations which to them constitute white, while to the normal eye the sensation is not white, but bluish green in the one case and yellow in the other. In other cases, the sensation of red has been added to the sensations of red and blue. It will be evident, also, that whiteness to the colour-blind eye cannot be the same as whiteness to the normal eye. No doubt this theory offers certain phenomena of colour-blindness can explain, but not the primary mixture images, and of contrast of colour, but it is open to various objections. It has no anatomical basis, as it has been found to be impossible to determine the existence or non-existence of kinds of nerve elements, or retinal elements, corresponding to the three fundamental sensations. Why should red to a colour-blind person give rise to a sensation of something like green, or why should it give rise to a sensation of red at all? Again, as already stated, in cases of colour-blindness due to tobacco or to disease, only blue may be seen, while it is said that the rest of the spectrum seems to be white. It is difficult to understand how white can be the sensation if the sensory cells are excited by long waves of green and violet having been excited, and this excitation is sufficient to give the sensation of pale greenish blue; (2) if the eye be fixed on a white surface, the red fibres being fatigued, are not excited by the red rays contained in the white light; (3) if we look at a bluish green surface, the complementary red, the effect will be to excite still more strongly the green and violet fibres, and consequently to have a still more intense complementary image; (4) if we regard a red surface, the primitive colour, the red fibres are little affected in consequence of being fatigued, the green and violet fibres will be only feebly excited, and therefore only a very feeble complementary image will be seen; and (5) if we look at a surface of a different colour altogether, this colour may combine with that of the consecutive image, and produce a mixed colour; finally, on a yellow surface, we will see an image of an orange colour.

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5. The Movements of the Eye

1. General Statement. The globe of the eye has a centre of rotation, which is not exactly in the centre of the optic axis, but a little anterior. The point of rotation may vary, but it is termed the fixed point of rotation, of which there are three—an antero-posterior, a vertical and a transverse. In normal vision, the two eyes are always placed in such a manner as to be fixed on one point, called the fixed point or the point of regard. A line passing from the centre of rotation to the point of regard is called the line of regard. The two lines of regard form an angle at the point of regard, and the base is formed by a line passing from the one centre of rotation to the other. A plane passing through both lines of regard is called the plane of regard. With these definitions, we can now describe the movements of the eyeball, which are of three kinds: (1) First position. The head is erect, and the line of regard is directed towards the distant horizon. (2) Second position. This indicates all the movements round the transverse and horizontal axes. When the eye rotates round the first, the line of regard is displaced above or below, and makes with a line indicating its former position an angle termed by Helmholtz the angle of vertical displacement, or the ascensional angle; and when it rotates round the vertical axis, the line of regard is displaced from side to side, forming with the median plane of the eye an angle called the angle of lateral displacement. (3) Third order of positions. This includes all those which the good eye assumes in performing a rotary movement along with lateral or vertical displacements. This movement of rotation is measured by the angle which the plane of regard makes with the transverse plane, an angle termed the angle of rotation or of torsion.

The two eyes move together as a system, so that we direct the two lines of regard to the same point in space.

The eyeball is moved by six muscles, which are described in the article Eye (Anatomy). The relative attachments and the axes of rotation are shown in fig. 23.

The term visual field is given to the area intercepted by the extreme visual lines which pass through the centre of the pupil, the amount of dilatation of which determines its size. It follows the movements of the eye, and is displaced with it. Each point in the visual field has a corresponding point on the retina, but the portion, as already explained, which secures our attention is that falling on the yellow spot.

2. Simple Vision with Two Eyes. When we look at an object with both eyes, having the optic axes parallel, its image falls upon the two yellow spots, and it is seen as one object. If, however, we displace one eyeball by pressing it with the finger, then the image in the displaced eye does not fall on the yellow spot, and we see two objects, one of them being less distinct than the other. It is not necessary, however, in order to see a single object with two eyes that the two images fall on the two yellow spots; an object is always single if its image fall on corresponding points in the two eyes.

The eye may rotate round three possible axes, a vertical, horizontal and antero-posterior. These movements are effected by four straight muscles and two oblique. The four straight muscles arise from an inside of the orbit, and pass forward to be inserted into the front part of the eyeball, or its equator, if we regard the anterior and posterior ends of the globe as the poles. The two obliques (one originating at the back of the orbit) come, as it were, from the nasal side—the one goes above the eyeball, the other below, while both are inserted into the eyeball on the temporal side, the superior oblique above and the inferior oblique below. The six muscles work in pairs. The internal and external recti turn the eye round the vertical axis,
VISION

so that the line of vision is directed to the right or left. The superior and inferior recti rotate the eye round the horizontal axis, and thus the line of vision is raised or lowered. The oblique muscles turn the eye round an axis passing through the centre of the eye to the back of the head, so that the superior oblique muscle lowers, while the inferior oblique raises, the visual line. It was also shown by Helmholtz that the oblique muscles sometimes cause a slight rotation of the eyeball round the visual line. The position of the eyeball is maintained by the control of the will up to a certain point, but there are slighter movements that are altogether involuntary. Helmholtz studied these slighter movements by a method first suggested by F. C. Donders. By this method the apparent position of after-images produced by exhausting the retina, say with a red or green object, was compared with that of a line or fixed point gazed at with a new position of the eyeball. The ocular spectra soon vanish, but a quick observer can determine the coincidence of lines with the spectra. After producing an after-image with the head in the erect position, the head may be placed into any inclined position, and if the attention is then fixed on a diagram having vertical lines ruled upon it, it can easily be seen whether the after-image coincides with these lines. As the after-image must remain in the same position on the retina, it will be evident that if it coincides with the vertical lines there must have been a slight rotation of the eyeball. Such a coincidence always takes place, and thus it is proved that there is an involuntary rotation. This minute rotation enables us to judge more accurately of the position of external objects.

3. The horopter is the locus of those points of space which are simultaneously seen by the two eyes. It may be conceived as simple, as a matter of fact it is generally a line of double curvature produced by the intersection of two hyperboloids, or, in other words, it is a twisted cubic curve formed by the intersection of two hyperboloids which have a common generator. The curves pass through the nodal point of both eyes. An infinite number of lines may be drawn from any point of the horopter, so that the point may be seen as a single point, and these lines lie on a cone of the second order, whose vertex is the point. When we gaze at the horizon, the horopter is really a horizon plane passing through our feet. The horopter in this instance, if the ground on which we stand is plane, is the nodal line of the two eyes. Experiments show “that the forms and the distances of these objects which are situated in, or very nearly in, the horopter, are perceived with a greater degree of accuracy than the same forms and distances would be when not situated in the horopter” (M'Kendrick, Life of Helmholtz, 1890, p. 172 et seq.).

An object which is not found in the horopter, or, in other words, does not form an image on corresponding points of the retinae, is seen double. When the eyeballs are so acted upon by their muscles as to secure images on non-corresponding points, and consequently double vision, the condition is termed strabismus, or squinting, of which there are several varieties treated of in works on ophthalmic surgery. It is important to observe that in the fusion of double images we must assume, not only the correctness of the theory of corresponding points of the retina, but also that there are corresponding points in the brain, at the central ends of the optic fibres. Such fusion of images may occur without consciousness—at all events, it is possible to imagine that the cerebral effect (except as regards consciousness) would be the same when a single object was placed before the two eyes, in the parallel position, whether the individual were conscious or not. On the other hand, as we are habitually conscious of a single image, there is a psychical tendency to fuse double images when they are not too dissimilar.

4. Binocular Perception of Colour.—This may be studied as follows. Take two No. 3 eye-pieces of a Hartnick's microscope, or two eye-pieces of the same optical value from any microscope, place one in front of each eye, direct them to a clear window in daylight, keep them parallel, and two luminous fields will be seen, one corresponding to each eye. Then converge the two eye-pieces, until the two luminous circles cross, and the central part, like a bi-convex lens, will appear clear and bright, while the outer segments will be much less intense, and may appear even of a dim grey colour. Here, evidently, the sensation is due to a fusion of impressions in the brain. With a similar arrangement, blue light may be admitted by the one eye-piece and red by the other; and on the convergence of the two, a resultant colour, purple, will be observed. This may be termed the binocular vision of colours. It is remarkable that by a mental effort this sensation of a compound colour may be decomposed into its constituents, so that one eye will again see blue and the other red.


1. General Characters of Visual Perceptions.—All visual perceptions, if they last for a sufficient length of time, appear to be external to ourselves, erect, localized in a position in space and more or less continuous.

(a) Visual Sensations are referred to the Exterior.—This appears to be due, to a large extent, to habit. Those who have been born blind, on obtaining eyesight by an operation, have with the objects to be in close proximity to the eye, and have not had the distinct sense of exteriority which most individuals possess. Slowly, and by a process of education, in which the sense of touch played an important part, they gained the knowledge of the external relations of objects. Again, phosgenes, when first produced, appear to be in the eye, but when conscious of them, by an effort of imagination, we may transport them into space, although they never appear very far off.

(b) Visual Sensations are referred to Eject Objects.—Although the images of objects are inverted on the retina we see them erect. The explanation of the effect is that we are conscious of the image on the retina, but of the luminous object from which the rays proceed, and we refer the sensation in the direction of these rays. Again, in running the eye over the object, say a tall pole, from base to apex, we are not conscious of the different images on the retina, but of the muscular movements necessary to bring the parts successively on the yellow spot.

(c) Visual Sensations are referred to a Position in Space.—The localization of a luminous point in space can only be determined by observing its relations to other luminous points with a given position of the head and of the eye. For example, in a perfectly dark space, we cannot fix its exact position in space, but we may get some information of a vague character by moving the head or the eye. If, however, a second luminous point appears in the darkness, we can tell whether it is nearer or farther distant, above or below the first. So with regard to other luminous points we observe their reciprocal relations, and thus we localize a number of visual impressions. There are three principal directions in space: the transverse (breadth), the vertical (height) and the sagittal (depth). Luminous points may be localized either in the transverse or vertical directions. Here we have to do simply with localization on a surface. A number of points may be observed simultaneously (as when the eye is fixed) or successively (as when the eye moves). If the movement of the eye be made rapidly, the series of impressions from different points may be fused together, and we are conscious of a line, the direction of which is indicated chiefly by the muscular sensations felt. In following it, the case is different; as regards points in the sagittal direction.

We see only a single point of this line at a time; it may be a transverse series of retinal elements, A B, and each of these formed by a number of smaller elements, 1, 2, 3, 4, situated in the axis of each principal element; it may, on the other hand, the transverse line a b situated in space and formed by a series of points in juxtaposition.
Each of these points will impress a retinal element, and the result will be the perception of a transverse line; but this will not be the same for the points c, d, e, f, g, situated in space in a linear series, in the sagittal direction; only one of those points, e, will impress the corresponding retinal element, and we can see only one point at a time in the line eg. By accommodating successively, however, for the various points at different and considerable distances along the line eg, we may excite retinal elements in rapid succession. Thus, partly by the fusion of the successive impressions on the retina, and partly from the muscular sensations caused by repeated accommodations and possibly of ocular movements, we obtain a notion of depth in space, even with the use of only one eye. It is, however, one of the chief effects of binocular vision to give precision to the notion of space in the sagittal direction.

(d) Visual Sensations are Continuous.—Suppose the image of a luminous line falls on the retina, it will appear as a line although it is placed on perhaps 200 cones or rods, each of which may be separately excited, so as to cause a distinct sensation. Again, on the same principle, the impression of a superficial surface may be regarded as a kind of mosaic, made up of individual portions corresponding to the rods or cones on which the image of the surface falls. But in both cases the sensation is continuous, so that we see a line or a surface. The individual images are fused together.

2. Notions derived from Visual Perceptions.—When we look at any object, we judge of its size, the direction of its surfaces (unless it be a point), its distance from the eye, its apparent movement or fixity and its appearance of solidity.

(a) Apparent Size.—This, so far as regards a comparatively small object, depends on the size of the retinal image, as determined by the visual angle.

With a very large object, there is an appreciation of size from the muscular sensations derived from the movements of the eyeball as we "range" the eye over it. It is difficult to appreciate the distance separating two points between which there are other points, as contrasted with an apparently similar distance without intermediate points. For example, the distance A to B appears to be greater than from B to C, in fig. 26.

(b) Direction.—As the retina is a curved surface, a long straight line, especially when seen from a distance, appears curved. In fig. 27 a curious illusion of effort, when the lines will be seen as they really are.

(c) Apparent Distance.—We judge of distance, as regards large objects at a great distance from the eye—(1) from their apparent size, which depends on the dimensions of the visual angle, and (2) from the interposition of other objects between the eye and the distant object. Thus, at sea, we cannot form, without great experience, an accurate estimate of how many miles we are off the coast, and all know how difficult it is to estimate accurately the width of a river. But if objects be interposed between the eye and the distant object, say a few vessels at different distances at sea, or a boat in the river, then we have certain materials on which to form a judgment, the accuracy of which, however, even with these aids, will depend on experience. When we look at a near object, we judge of its distance chiefly by the sense of effort put forth in bringing the two lines of regard to converge upon it.

(d) The Movement of a Body.—If the eye be fixed, we judge of movement by successive portions of the retina being affected, and possibly also by a feeling of an absence of muscular contractions necessary to move the eyeballs.

When the eye moves, so as to "follow" the object, there is a sense of muscular effort, which is increased when, in addition, we require to move the head.

(e) The Apparent Solidity of an Object.—If we look at an object, say a cube, first with the right eye and then with the left, it will be found that the two images of the object are somewhat different, as in fig. 28. If, then, by means of a stereoscope, or by holding a card between the two eyes, and causing a slight convergence of the eyes, the two images are brought upon corresponding points of the two retinas, the image will at once be seen in relief.


(J. G. M.)

7. Errors of Refraction and Accommodation and their Curative Treatment

The following is a classification of the diseases of vision, from a medical point of view (see also Eye: diseases):

a. Errors of refraction: hyperopia, myopia, astigmatism, anisometropia, aphakia.

b. Errors of accommodation:

(1) Loss of accommodation

(a) From advancing years (presbyopia), or from debility.

(b) From paralysis (cycloplegia) due to—

1. Drugs such as atropine.

2. Systemic poisons: diptheria, influenza, syphilis, &c.

3. Diseases of the nervous system, concussion of the brain.

(2) Spasm of accommodation.

(3) Meridional asymmetrical accommodation by means of which low errors of astigmatism are corrected, producing eye-strain.

Hyperopia or Hypermetropia (H.) (Far-sight; German = Uebersicht).—This is a condition of the refraction of the eye in which, with the eye at rest, parallel rays of light focus beyond the retina, which means that the image of a distant object is not in focus when it meets the retina, because the eye is too short antero-posteriorly. Most eyes at birth are hyperopic, but as the child grows the eye also grows; when, however, this does not take place, or does not take place sufficiently, normal development is thus arrested. There are other conditions that cause hyperopia, but this shortening of the antero-posterior axis is by far the commonest.

Hyperopia is corrected by convex glasses (fig. 29), and the measurement of the hyperopia is that convex glass which enables the hyperopic eye, at rest, to see distinctly objects at a distance. When the hyperopia is not too high it can also be corrected by the eye itself by means of the ciliary muscle (muscle of accommodation) which causes the crystalline lens to become more convex, and thus brings about the same result as placing a convex glass before the eye.

In young people when the error is not too high this work is done unconsciously, vision appears to be perfect, and it is only by placing the eye under the influence of atropine that...
the defect is revealed. In the normal eye distant objects are focused on the retina without the use of the ciliary muscle, which is only employed when looking at near objects; but the hyperope has to use this muscle all his waking hours for both near and distant vision, so that his eyes are never at rest. Fortunately he has some compensation for this extra work, for in most hyperopes the ciliary muscle becomes more or less hypertrophied; but even so, if near work is at all excessive, or if the defect is associated with astigmatism or anisometropia, symptoms of eye-strain will sooner or later show themselves (see Eye-strain, below).

In older people a very common symptom is blurring of the type while reading; the book has to be put down and the eyes rested for some minutes before reading can be resumed. This is due to the fatigued ciliary muscle giving way and becoming unable to focus.

As we advance in years we lose accommodation power (see Presbyopia, below), so that the time comes to every hyperope, if he live long enough, when he not only has to use glasses for reading (at an earlier period than the normal person), but he also finds that he is gradually losing his distant vision. This is very alarming to many, until it is explained that all that has happened is the loss of power to correct the defect, which defect, of course, has always existed, and which in future will have to be corrected by suitable glasses. The higher the hyperopia the sooner will these symptoms manifest themselves.

In quite young children, sometimes the earliest sign of the presence of hyperopia is a convergent strabismus (internal squint). As a rule, this squint is nothing more than an over-accommodation brought about by over-accommodation in those who cannot dissociate their convergence and accommodation; if we remove the necessity for over-accommodation by correcting the defect with suitable glasses, the over-convergence disappears and the squint is cured.

The total hyperopia of the eye is divided into manifest hyperopia and latent hyperopia. Manifest hyperopia is expressed in amount by the strongest convex glass that allows clear distant vision when the eye is not under atropine. Latent hyperopia is the additional hyperopia which is revealed under atropine. With advancing years the latent hyperopia becomes more and more manifest, and between the ages of 45 and 50 the total hyperopia is entirely manifest.

In addition to the symptoms already described, a very common one among young hyperopes is spasm of the ciliary muscle. This cramp of the muscle causes distant objects to be very indistinct, improvement only taking place with a concave glass, and near work has to be approached very close to the eyes, thus giving a wrong idea that the child is suffering from myopia; by paralysing the ciliary muscle with atropine the spasm disappears and the true nature of the defect is revealed.

The treatment essentially consists in ascertaining the total hyperopia of the eye, and this can only be done satisfactorily, when latent hyperopia is present, by paralysing the accommodation, using atropine for those under 25, and homatropine for those between the ages of 25 and 35 or 40. Over 40 (and when the hyperopia is high, even at an earlier age) no cycloplegic is necessary—in fact it is in many cases dangerous, as an attack of glaucoma may be induced. (See Eye: Diseases.)

Having found the total hyperopia, we learn the amount of the latent hyperopia, and, roughly speaking, the convex glass required is equal to the whole of the manifest hyperopia added to, from one-third to a half, of the latent; but the treatment varies with the age of the individual and the amount of the hyperopia, and is too complicated to be detailed here.

Myopia (M.) (Short-sight).—Typical myopia is due to an elongation of the antero-posterior diameter of the eye, so that the retina is situated behind the principal focus, and only diver-

gent rays of light from a near point (fig. 30), or parallel rays made divergent by a concave glass (fig. 31), can come to a focus on the retina. In other words, the far point of a myope is at a short distance in front of the eye, the distance being the measure of the myopia.

A myope can see distinctly at a distance when the eye is at rest (i.e. when accommodation is not being used), with that concave glass whose focal length is equal to the distance of the far point from the eye, and the converse is true; the measurement of myopia is that concave glass with which the myopic eye sees distinctly objects at a distance, and its focal length is equal to the distance of the myope's far point from the eye.

The Causes of Myopia.—Although myopia is hereditary, it is, with few exceptions, not congenital. We have seen that almost all eyes are hyperopic at birth. The savage is rarely myopic; it is civilization that is responsible for it; the necessity for constantly adapting the eye for near objects means undue convergence. We find that myopia generally first shows itself at the age of 8 to ro, when school work begins in earnest—that is, when convergence is first used in excess—and there is no doubt that it is excessive convergence that is mostly responsible for the development of myopia. The over-used internal recti constantly pulling at the sclerotic tend to lengthen the antero-posterior diameter of the eye, and as this lengthening of the antero-posterior axis necessitates greater convergence still, a vicious circle is produced, and the myopia gradually increases. The hereditary character of myopia is explained by the existence in such eyes of an "anatomical predisposition" to myopia. The sclera is unusually thin, and consequently less able to resist the pull of the internal recti, and the relative position of the recti and the position of the optic nerve, both of which may be hereditary, may be factors in the production of this defect. Anything which causes young subjects to approach their work too near the eyes may be the starting-point. Bad illumination, or the light coming from the wrong direction (for instance, in front), or defective vision produced by corneal nebulae, or lamellar cataract, &c., all necessitate over-convergence in order to obtain clearer images, and myopia may be produced.
It is interesting to note that when the work is approached very near the eye, but convergence is not used, as in the case of watchmakers, who habitually use a strong convex glass in one eye, there is no special tendency to myopia.

Some of the more common symptoms of myopia are:

1. Vision all errors is found distinctly (2) Near objects are seen distinctly, and the near point is much nearer than in the normal eye. (3) Acuteness of vision is often lowered, and especially this is the case in high myopia. (4) Eye-strain is often present, due to overuse of the muscles of convergence, and this may lead to (5) an external or divergent squint. (6) Floating black specks are often complained of, these are generally muscular volitantes, but often, especially in high myopia, may be actual opacities floating in the vitreous. (7) Myopes often stope and become "round shouldered" from the increased postural flexion inaugurated to correct the defect.

A small amount of myopia, if it is stationary, is in no sense a serious defect of the eye, the possessors of it are often quite unconscious of any deficiency in vision, and in fact brag that they have better vision than their fellows. The reason of this is that they learn in early life to recognize indistinct distant objects by the aid of other senses in a way that the ordinary individual can hardly understand, and in later life they can postpone the wearing of glasses for near work for many years, and sometimes until extreme old age. Unfortunately myopia is, as a rule, not stationary; it almost always tends to increase, and the inability to see objects close to the eyes, with serious changes may occur in the eyes as to lower the visual acuity enormously and sometimes lead to total loss of vision.

The treatment of myopia is general and local.

General Treatment.—The most important part of this is the preventive treatment (prophylaxis), especially in its application to children. All children who have one or both parents myopic are specially "marked down" for this defect, for they have probably inherited an anatomical predisposition. Bearing in mind that excessive convergence is the most potent cause of myopia, the most rigid precautions are paid to in the schoolroom. This room should be large, lofty and well ventilated, and have good-sized high windows on one wall, preferably on the north side. Each scholar should have an adjustable seat and desk so arranged that his head is upright and the work not too near his eyes. These desks should be arranged in rows so placed that the pupils sit with the light on their left. Schoolbooks must be clearly printed and the type should not be too small. The schloal work that needs close application of the eyes should be continued only for a short period at a time, the period alternating with other work which does not require the use of the eyes, such as mental arithmetic, blackboard exercises, paintings, reciting, etc. In play, the schoolmaster should teach more—that is, they should explain and impart knowledge by demonstrations and simple lectures, and reduce as much as possible the time spent in "home preparations," which is usually wasted for such work. The school is a place where all the problems of life are mentally tired. Even in the nursery the greatest care should be taken. The little ones should be supplied with large toys, a large box of colored cards to be used for writing, a picture book, and pictures should be discouraged, and close work that entails undue convergence, such as sewing, threading beads, &c., ought to be forbidden. The nursery governess can teach the alphabet, small words and even simple arithmetic with the bricks. No child with a tendency to myopia, or with a myopic family history should be allowed to learn to write or draw until at least seven years old. The child's bed should not be allowed to face the window, preferably it should be back to the light. Of course, in the schoolroom, which contains much work which entails close application for many hours a day, should be advised to regulate their work, if they are free to do so, by working for shorter periods and taking longer intervals of rest, they should be specially careful not to approach their work too near to the eyes and they should always work in a good light.

Local Treatment.—This consists in correcting the error with a lens. The testing must be done when the eye is under atropine in all those under 25, and under homatropine between the ages of 25 and 35 or 40. Over 40 no cycloplegic is required. Desert 0.1% atropine before playing rough games that glass, and the myopia is worn always. The wearing of glasses for near work produces at first considerable rebellion in children, because they can see near work so much better without a glass. The object of enforcing this treatment is to get rid of the muscle of accommodation, to do its work, and not only do we do this, but we also do away with the excess of convergence over accommodation, and lastly, make excessive convergence impossible, because, with the glasses on, the near work has to be held at a greater distance from the eyes.

In other words, we have practically made the eyes normal, and it is only by doing this that we can prevent the increase of myopia. Children who have never worn, their inspection (if the myopia is high) must have a weaker glass for near work. Each case must be treated on its own merits. So-called malignant myopia, which is high myopia with serious changes in the eye, must be treated in a special manner and with the greatest care.

Astigmatism.—The principal seat of astigmatism is the cornea, the curvature of one meridian being greater than that of the other. In regular astigmatism, which is the only form that can as a rule be treated by glasses, the meridians of greatest and least curvature are at right angles to each other, and the intermediate meridians pass by regular gradations from one to the other. Rays of light passing through such an astigmatic surface do not focus at one point, but form many points, with the result that the image is more or less indistinct according to the amount of the error. In uncorrected astigmatism a book placed at a distance certain, or held in the usual position to correct, will appear to have certain figures distinct, and others (at right angles) indistinct; for instance, figures XI and V may appear quite black, while figures II and VIII are grey and indistinct. If one of the principal meridians be emmetropic the astigmatism is simple; if both be hyperopic, or if both be myopic, it is compound; and if one meridian be hyperopic and the other myopic, it is styled mixed astigmatism. Generally the vertical meridian or one near it is the most convex, and this is called direct astigmatism (astigmatism "according to the rule"). If the horizontal is the most convex, the term oblique astigmatism is used (astigmatism "against the rule"). When the meridians are oblique, that is, about 45°, it is called oblique astigmatism. Low degrees of astigmatism of the (cornea) are corrected by the ciliary muscle, producing an astigmatism of the crystalline lens, the opposite of that of the cornea, and so neutralizing the defect. This work is done unconsciously, vision is generally quite good and no suspicion is entertained of anything wrong until some symptom of eye-strain shows itself (see Eye-strain, below), and the detection of it is one of the most important duties of the oculist. The only certain method of detecting and consequently correcting a low error of astigmatism, in all below the age of 50, is by paralyzing the ciliary muscle with atropine or homatropine and thus preventing it from correcting the defect, and revealing the true refraction of the eye. Astigmatism is corrected by cylindrical glasses combined with spherical convex or concave glasses if hyperopia or myopia co-exist, and the correction must be worn always in the form of rigid pince-nez or spectacles.

Presbyopia (Old Sight).—A normal-sighted child at the age of seven has his near point of accommodation 7 cms. from the eye, and as age advances this near point recedes gradually. At the age of 40 it has receded to 22 cms., in other words at this age fine print cannot be read nearer to the eye than 22 cms. Between the ages of 45 and 50 the person who has apparently enjoyed good sight up till then, both for distance and near, finds that by artificial light he cannot read the newspaper unless he holds it some distance from the eyes, and he has to give up consulting "Bradhaw" because he cannot distinguish between 3's and 8's. Another symptom often complained of is the blurring together of letters, so that the letters appear hazy, and the words rested beyond can be resumed. This loss of accommodation power is due to the gradual hardening of the crystalline lens from age, and convex glasses have to take its place, in order to make reading possible and comfortable. In hyperopia the presbyopic period is earlier, and in myopia it is later than normal (see above).

It is unwise for the presbyope to select the glasses for himself, as astigmatism or anisometropia may be present and must, of course, be corrected; the eyes should be properly tested, and this testing should be repeated every two or three years, as not only does the old sight increase, but changes in the static refraction of the eyes are probably taking place. When an error of refraction exists with the presbyope, glasses for distance, as well as reading, have to be worn, and to avoid the trouble.
of constantly changing, the two should be combined as bi-focal glasses. The upper portion of the bi-focal corrects the distant, and the lower the near vision, and in the best form the division between the two is invisible. When properly fitted these bi-focals prove the greatest boon to the presbyope.

Anisometropia (Odd Sight) is a condition in which the refraction of the two eyes is different. There are three varieties. (1) Binocular vision exists. As a rule a very small difference is present, and the difference is generally in the astigmatism; consequently eye-strain is very commonly manifested, and the correction by suitable glasses is imperative. (2) The eyes are used alternately. For instance, one eye may be hyperopic or emmetropic, and the other myopic; in such a case the former will be used for distant and the latter for near vision, and although binocular or stereoscopic vision is lost, glasses may never be required and any attempt at a correction may be useless. However, if eye-strain is present, the attempt should be made. (3) One of the eyes is permanently excluded. When the difference between the eyes is great the most defective eye is little used and tends to become amblyopic (partially blind), if it is not so already. This condition is very common in squint, and the treatment in such cases consists in providing the defective eye with its corrective glass, completely covering up the good eye and practising for certain periods every day, and thus forcing the defective eye to work. This eye may never take its share in binocular vision, but it may become very useful and especially if it does be or damage should affect the good eye; to the inception of the vision of the eye materially assists the treatment of the squint. When one eye is irre- mediably lost, the other should be very carefully tested, and if any error exists it ought to be corrected and the glass worn always.

Aphakia is the absence of the crystalline lens through dislocation, or removal by operation, or injury. A strong convex glass has to be worn in front of such an eye in order to obtain clear vision even for distance, and a still stronger one for near vision; after cataract operation astigmatism is generally pronounced at once. A convex glass must be combined with a cylinder: these glasses are best worn in the form of bi-focals (see Pref- byopia, above).

Eye-Strain.—Eye-strain is a symptom, or group of symptoms, produced by the correction, or attempt at correction, by the ciliary muscle of an error of refraction, or a want of balance between the external muscles of the eye (heterophoria). Where gross errors exist either in the refraction or in the muscular equili- brium, the correction cannot be made, and consequently no attempt is made to correct the defect, and eye-strain is not produced. The smaller the error the more likely is the eye-strain to be present, and also the more difficult is it to be overlooked. It is important to recognize what may be the different manifestations of eye-strain. They may be grouped under three headings: (1) manifestations on the eye and lids, such as conjunctivitis, blepharitis, iritis, cyclitis, glaucoma and cataract. (2) Peripheral irritation: (a) with pain: headaches and m引起; (b) without pain: epileptic attacks and choreiform movements of the facial muscles: vertigo, nausea, vomiting. (3) Nerve waste: nerve exhaustion, neurasthenia, brain-fat. This last form of eye-strain is as common as it is subtle, and is subtle because the sufferer never suspects the eyes to be at fault; all his waking hours he is unconsciously correcting a low degree of astigmatism, or anisometropia, or heterophoria, which means a constant nerve waste, and when he begins near work he starts with a big deficit, and further strain results.

Insomnia is a prominent symptom of eye-strain; this leads to depression, which in its turn may lead to the alcoholic or morphia habit. There is no form of functional nerve disorder that may not be caused by, or aggravated by, eye-strain.

The treatment of eye-strain consists in correcting all errors of refraction (and in the case of dioptric astigmatism, the more highly is even the smallest) and in wearing the correction always. A small amount of heterophoria will generally, in a short time, disappear when the error is corrected; if not, it must be corrected by prisms or decentring.

(E. C.)

VISITATION (Lat. from visitare, frequentative form of visere, to look at, to go to see, visit, videre, to see), an act of visiting, or going to see, a formal visit. The use of the word for an act of divine retributive justice, or generally of an occurrence of grave import, such as a plague or famine, is due mainly to Biblical phraseology, as in “the day of visitation” (Isa. x. 3). For the duty of bishops of the Roman Church to visit periodically the tombs of the apostles Peter and Paul at Rome, the Visitation Liminium Apostolorum, see Bishop. The specific application of the term is to a formal periodical visit paid by a superior authority to an institution or to a district for the purpose of investigation, examination or the like. There are three classes of such visitations: ecclesiastical, charitable and heraldic. Ecclesiastical visitations, originally the periodical journeys of personal inspection to ascertain the temporal and spiritual condition of each parish, form part of the functions of an archbishop, a bishop and an archdeacon. All charitable corporations are at law subject to visitation; the functions of the “visitors” have been largely taken over by the Board of Charity Commissioners. Colleges at a university are regarded in law as charitable institutions, and each college has a “visitor” whose duty it is to represent the founder and see that his wishes are carried out. Heraldic visitations were perambulations made by a king-at-arms or other high heraldic officer with a commission under the Great Seal to examine into pedigrees and claims to bear arms. The results of these visitations are entered in “Visitation Books,” which are in the nature of official records; their admissibility as evidence, though claimed, is judicially questioned as containing merely experts’ statements from the families to whom they refer (D’Arcy de Knayth Peerage Case, 1901). These heraldic visitations ceased about 1686.

In addition to these specific meanings may be mentioned the festival of the “Visitations of Mary,” in commemoration of the visit of the Virgin to Elizabeth, mother of St. John the Baptist, celebrated in the Roman, Greek and other churches on the 2nd of July, and the office of the English Church, the “Visitations of the Sick,” ordered for the spiritual comfort and benefit of sick persons.

For the international law relating to the right of belligerent vessels to “visit and search” neutral vessels in time of war, see Search, Right of.

VISITING CARDS. The use of cards of personal identification for social purposes is generally supposed to have had its origin at the court of Louis XIV. of France, that centre of the etiquette of the 17th century. But there appears to be little doubt that, in a rougher and ruder form, this mark of intercourse dates from much earlier times, and that the Chinese, and possibly other Oriental nations also, had in bygone ages employed some means of communication on calling at the houses of absent friends. When and where visiting cards first came into vogue in Europe is a matter of some uncertainty. It is probable, however, that they were first used in Germany—and as early as the 16th century. A German visiting card recently discovered in Venice bears this inscription: Johannes Westerholt Westphalus scribbat, Paavati, 4 Martii 15 x 60. Concerning this, Professor Dr Kirmis (Doehm, September 30th, 1905) remarks that the German students in Padua were wont, on quitting the university, to pay farewell calls at the houses of friends, and, in the event of not finding them within, to leave their names on paper billets; and he adds that the custom must, until that time, have been unknown in Italy, for this card of the student Westerholt was sent by Professor Giacomo Contarini on the 15th of January 1572 to Venice as a curiosity. Under the reign of Louis XIV., however, the fashion appears to have become firmly established in France. Small strips of paper were at first employed for the purpose of the communication; but gradually they attained a more elaborate finish and execution. Ladies especially seem to have been the pioneers in this direction, and charmingly embellished their visiting cards, some taking the form of "hearts" and other amorous tokens of affection. Under Louis XV., the reign of exquisitely extravagant
and refined taste, visiting cards were furnished with delicate engravings, frequently masterpieces of that art, showing some fanciful landscape, or a view of the town or place where the person resided. A further stage in the development of this custom was the autograph signature at the foot of the card beneath the engraved viuer. Europeans were followed in this fashion by the English, and the practice became universal in Europe towards the close of the 18th century. But though in almost every European country there are variations in the size and shape of the card and the way of describing the quality of the person whom it represents, the modern tendency is everywhere in favour of simplicity and the avoidance of ostentation.

A valuable collection of visiting cards is that of the Gabinetto della Stampe in Rome and the Museo Civico in Venice.

**VISOKO—VITEBSK**

Between the 13th and 16th centuries Visoko was only second to Jajce as a stronghold of the Bosnian rulers. There were fortified palaces at Stjateka, and Bobovac, which with most previous assaults, was betrayed to the Turks in 1463; at Stjateka there is a Franciscan monastery, founded in 1391, often razed by the Turks, and finally rebuilt in 1821. Just below Visoko lay the town of Podvisoko, called *Sotto Visochi* by the Ragusans, which was the chief mart of the country from 1348 to 1430.

**VISOR** (also spelled viser, vizor, vizard or visard), a term now used generally of the various forms of movable face-guards in the helmet of medieval and later times. It meant properly a mask for the face, and is an adaptation of the O.Fr. visitre, mod. visiere, as is seen by the M.E. forms visir, visere. It is thus to be referred to the Fr. vis, face, Lat. visum, from videre, to see. In this sense the word "visor" is modern, the movable guard for the upper part of the face being known as an "aventail" or "ventail," and that for the lower part a "beaver" (see HELMET).

**VISTULA** (Ger. Weichsel, Polish Wisła), one of the chief rivers of Europe, rising in Austria and flowing first through Russian and then through Prussian territory. Its source is in Austrian Silesia on the northern slopes of the West Beskiden range of the Carpathian mountains.

The stream runs through a mountain valley, in a N.W. direction to Schwarzwasser, where it leaves the mountains, turns E. and forms part of the Austro-German frontier (Galicia), it passes Cracow, and thereafter forms a long stretch of the frontier with Russia (Poland), bending gradually towards the north, until at Zawichost it runs due N. and enters Poland. The river winds between the two arms of the Pripyat, the left, and the right, which is formed by the Pripyat, and runs parallel with it, leaving this river in the north, and following the Pripyat as far as Mozyr, and thence to the Dvina. From Zawichost to the mouth, the Vistula is navigable by vessels of 500 tons, and as far as Warsaw by vessels of 2000 tons. The Vistula is navigable as far as Warsaw, and at the junction of the Bug and W. S. to pass Plock and Wloclawek (see further POLAND for its course within the territory). It enters Prussia 10 m. above Thorn, turns N.E. on receiving the Brate, passes Glandenz and turns towards the north. From this point it throws off numerous branches and sweeps from side to side of a broad valley, having steep banks on the side upon which it impinges, and on the other being bordered by extensive flat lands. Nearing the Bug, in which it forms a delta, dividing into two main arms, the left or western of which bears the name of Vistula, and flows directly to Danzig Bay, while the right is called the Nogat, and flows into the Frische Haff. The enclosed deltaic tract is very fertile. Parts of it are known as *Weder* (cf. the English "islands" or "holms" in the Fens and other low-lying tracts of the east). In the lower part of the delta the Haff Canal leads from the main river to the Frische Haff; there are also ample natural channels in that direction, but the main river passes towards the N.W., having a tendency to run parallel to the coast, and reaching Danzig Bay with a depth of 20 fathoms. Near Mozyr it forms an alluvial delta, called the Tserik, and there is a branch, the Framitz, which empties into the Brate.

The river broke a new channel into the bay, at a point between this cut and the old mouth at Neufahrwasser, on the night of the 1st-2nd of February 1830. The important seaport of Danzig, however, is on the old channel, and this channel is used by shipping which enters it by a canal at Neufahrwasser. The Nogat, formerly inaccessible, had become so much deepened and broadened by natural means in the early part of the 19th century that it could carry water than the Vistula itself (i.e. the other main deltaic branch). In 1845-57 the outflow of the Nogat was stopped and an artificial channel was formed for it, so as to restore the proper level of water to the Vistula.

The Nogat river and the lenses between it and the Vistula form a very important highway of commerce in Poland (p. 34) and Prussia. For small craft it is navigable above Cracow up to the Austro-German frontier, where the Schneidmilen enters it. This river and the Pilica, Bzura, Brah, Schwarzwasser and Ferr is the chief left-bank tributaries; on the right the Vistula receives the Skawa, Raba, Dunajec, Wisloda and Sun before reaching Poland, the Wieprz and Bug in Poland, and the Drenzw in Prussia. The Brzehe and the Bromberg Canal give access from the Vistula to the Netze and so to the Oder. The river is rich in fish. Its width is about 450 m., and its drainage area approaches 74,000 sq. m.


**VITALIANUS**, bishop of Rome from 657 to 672, succeeded Eugenius I. and was followed by Adeodatus. In the monothelite controversy then raging he acted with cautious reserve, refraining at least from express condemnation of the *Typus* of Constans II. The chief episode in his uneventful pontificate was the visit of Constans to Rome; the pope received him "almost with religious honour," a deference which he required by "an emperor," and all the nobility of the city to the 10th of March. The visit of the Vistula is considerable up to Cracow, and the river forms a very important highway of commerce in Poland (p. 34) and Prussia. For small craft it is navigable above Cracow up to the Austro-German frontier, where the Neufahrwasser enters it. This river and the Pilica, Bzura, Brah, Schwarzwasser and Ferr is the chief left-bank tributaries; on the right the Vistula receives the Skawa, Raba, Dunajec, Wisloda and Sun before reaching Poland, the Wieprz and Bug in Poland, and the Drenzw in Prussia. The Brzehe and the Bromberg Canal give access from the Vistula to the Netze and so to the Oder. The river is rich in fish. Its width is about 450 m., and its drainage area approaches 74,000 sq. m.

**VITELLUS** (Th. H. 52: 478-480), a soldier, sent to Britain by Augustus to put down the war of the Britons. He brought over one thousand soldiers, but was defeated by Ambrosius Aurelianus. He then crossed to Gaul, defeated Vercingetorix at Aquincum, and returned to Gaul in the next summer to subdue the tribes of the Lower Rhine. He was later sent to the Danubian frontier, where he died of a wound in the war against the Taurisci. He was a man of distinguished military ability and a lover of learning. He was the son of Publius Vitellius, who was governor of the province of Africa under Tiberius.

**VITEBSK**, a town of Russia, cap. of the government of the same name, on both banks of the W. Dvina, and on the railway from Smolensk to Riga, 85 m. N.W. from the former. Pop. (1888) 54,676; (1870) 65,871. It is an old town, with decaying mansions of the nobility, and dirty Jewish quarters, half of its habitants being Jews. There are two cathedrals, founded in 1664 and 1777 respectively. The church of St. Elias, a fine example of the Old Russian style of architecture, founded in 1643, was burned down in 1900. The manufactures are insignificant, and the poorer classes support themselves by gardening, boat-building and the flax trade, while the merchants carry on an active business with Riga in corn, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar and timber.

Vitebsk (Dvbsk, Vitbeisk and Vitepsk) is mentioned for the first time in 1021, when it belonged to the Polotsk principality. Eighty years later it became the chief town of a separate...
principality, and so continued until 1230, when it fell under the
dominion of the Lithuanians. In the 16th century it fell to
Poland. Under the privileges granted to the city by the
Polish sovereigns it flourished, but it soon began to suffer from the
wars between Russia and Poland, during which it was
thrice taken by the Russians and burned. Russia annexed it
finally in 1772.

**VITELLI**—**VITERBO**

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**VITELLOZZO (7-1502), Italian condottiere.**
Together with his father, Niccolò, tyrant of Città di Castello,
and his brothers, who were all soldiers of fortune, he instituted
a new type of infantry armed with arquebuses. Vitellozzo
served under Florence against Pisa, and later with the French in Apulia (1490) and
with the Orsini faction against Pope Alexander VI. In 1500
Vitellozzo and the Orsini made peace with the pope, and
the latter's son Cesare Borgia, being determined to crush the petty
 tyrants of Romagna and consolidate papal power in that
province, took the condottieri into his service. Vitellozzo
distinguished himself in many engagements, and in 1501 he
advanced against Florence, moved as much by a desire to avenge
his brother Paolo, who had been murdered on the road,
in the manner in which the republic had been
suspected of treachery and put to death (1499), as by
Cesare's orders. In fact, while the latter was actually negoti-
ating with the republic, Vitelli seized Arezzo. Forced by
Borgia and the French, much against his will, to give up the
city, he began from that moment to nurture hostile feelings
against his master and to aspire to independent rule. He took
part with the Orsini, Oliverotto da Fermo and other captains
in the conspiracy of La Magione against the Borgia; but
mutual distrust and the incapacity of the leaders before Cesare's
energy and the promise of French help, brought the plot to
naught, and neither Cesare nor Vitellozzo, hoping to ingratiate
themselves with Cesare once more, seized Senigallia in his name.
There they were decoyed by him and arrested while their
troops were out of reach, and Vitelli and Oliverotto were
strangled that same night (31st of December 1501).

See vol. iii. of E. Ricotti's _Storia della compagnie di ventura_ (Turin, 1843), in which Domenichi's MS. _Vita di Vitellozzo Vitelli_ is quoted; C. Yrarte, _Cesar Borgia_ (Paris, 1886); P. Villari, _Life and Times of N. Machiavelli_ (English ed., London, 1892); see also under _ALEXANDER VI._ and CESARE BORGIA.

**VITELLILUS, AULUS,** Roman emperor from the 2nd of
January to the 22nd of December A.D. 69, was born on the
24th of September A.D. 15. He was the son of Lucius Vitel-
lius, who had been consul and governor of Syria under Tiberius.
Aulus was consul in 48, and (perhaps in 60-61) proconsul of
Africa, in which capacity he is said to have acquainted himself
with credit. Under Galba, to the general astonishment, at the
end of 68 he was chosen to command the army of Lower
Germany, and here he made himself popular with his subaltens
and with the soldiers by outrageous prodigality and excessive
good nature, which soon proved fatal to order and discipline.
Far from being ambitious or scheming, he was lazy and self-
indulgent, fond of eating and drinking, and owed his elevation
to the throne to Caecina and Valens, commanders of two legions
on the Rhine. Through these two men a military revolution
was speedily accomplished, and early in 69 Vitellius was pro-
claimed emperor at Colonia Agrrippinensis (Cologne), or, more
accurately, emperor of the armies of Upper and Lower Ger-
many. In fact, he was never acknowledged as emperor by the
entire Roman world, though at Rome the senate accepted
him and decreed to him the usual imperial honours. He
advanced into Italy at the head of a licentious and ruffianly
soldiery, and Rome became the scene of riot and massacre,
gladiatorial shows and extravagant feasting. As soon as it
was known that the armies of the East, Dalmatia and Illyricum
had declared for Vespasian, Vitellius, deserted by many of his
adherents, would have resigned the title of emperor. It was
said that the terms of resignation had actually been agreed
upon with Primus, one of Vespasian's chief supporters, but
the praetorians refused to allow him to carry out the agreement,
and forced him to return to the palace, where he was on his way
to deposit the insignia of empire in the temple of Concord.
On the entrance of Vespasian's troops into Rome he was dragged
out of some miserable hiding-place, driven to the fatal Gemonian
stairs, and there struck down. "Yet I was once your emperor,"
were the last and, as far as we know, the noblest words of
Vitellius. During his brief administration Vitellius showed
indications of a desire to govern wisely, but he was completely
under the control of Valens and Caecina, who for their own
ends encouraged him in a course of vicious excesses which threw
him into the arms of the opposition.

See Tacitus, _Histories_; Suetonius, _Vitellius_; Dio Cassius ixv.; Merivale, _Hist. of the Romans under the Empire_, chs. 56, 57; H. Schiller, _Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit_, i., p. 1; W. A. Spooner's ed. of the _Histories of Tacitus_ (introduction); B. W. Henderson, _Civil War and Rebellion in the Roman Empire_, A.D. 69-70 (1908).

**VITERBO,** a city and episcopal see of the province of Rome,
Italy, 54 m. by rail N.N.W. of Rome, 1673 ft. above sea-level.
Pop. (1901) 17,544 (town), 21,258 (commune). It lies on the
old high road between Florence and Rome, and besides the
railway to Rome it has a branch line (25 m.) going N.E. to
Atina (see Dante, _La Divina Commedia_, Canto xvi.) and
picturesquely surrounded by luxuriant gardens, and enclosed
by walls and towers, which date partly from the Lombard
period. The streets are paved with large lava blocks, of which
the town is also built. It has many picturesque medieval
towers and other edifices (the Palazzo degli Alessandri is perhaps
the most interesting), for which indeed it is one of the best
towns in central Italy, and some elegant fountains; among
the latter may be mentioned the Fontana Fontana Grande (1279,
restored in 1424) and Fontana della Rocca by Vignola (1566).
The citadel (Roccia) itself, erected by Cardinal Albornoz in
1355, is now a barracks. The Palazzo Patrizi, a building of the
early Renaissance in the Florentine style. The cathedral,
a fine basilica, of the 13th (? century), with columns and fantastic
capitals of the period, originally flat-roofed and later vaulted,
with 16th-century restorations, contains the tomb of Pope
John XXI., and has a Gothic campanile in black and white
stone. It is more probable that it was S. Silvestro (now Chiesa
del Gesù) and not the cathedral that, in 1271, was the scene of
the murder, on the steps of the high altar, during public
worship, of Henry, son of Richard of Cornwall, by Guy de
Montfort (see Dante, _La Divina Commedia_, Canto xxxii.). In front of the cathedral, Pope Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear) compelled the emperor
Frederick I. to hold his stirrup as his vassal. The old
episcopal palace with a double loggia built on to it (recently
restored to its original form) is a Gothic building of the 14th
century, in which numerous conclaves have been held.
The church of S. Rosa exhibits the embalmed body of that saint,
a native of Viterbo, who died in her eighteenth year, after
working various miracles and having distinguished herself by
her invectives against Frederick II. (1251), some ruins of whose
palace, destroyed after his death, exist. S. Francesco, a Gothic
church (before 1456), contains the fine Gothic tombs of Popes
Clement IV. and Adrian V., and has an external pulpit of the
15th century. The town also contains a few small Roman-
esque churches (S. Maria Nuova, S. Andrea, S. Giovanni in
Zoccoli, S. Sisto, &c.) and several other Gothic churches.
S. Maria della Cella is noteworthy among the former as having
one of the earliest campanili of any size in Italy (9th century).
The town hall, with a medieval tower and a 15th-century
portico, contains some Etruscan sarcophagi from sites in the
neighbourhood, and a few good paintings. At one corner of the
picturesque square in front of it is a Roman sarcophagus.
In the façade is a representation of the hunt of Meleager, with an inscrip-
tion in honour of the fair Galiana, to whom it is said, a
Roman noble laid siege to Viterbo in 1335. Close by is the
elegant Gothic façade of S. Maria della Salute, in white and
red marble with sculptures. The Gothic cloisters of S. Maria
della Verità just outside the town are strikingly beautiful.
The church contains frescoes by Lorenzo da Viterbo (1460) and
a fine majolica pavement. A mile and a half to the north-east
VITET—VITORIA

is the handsome early Renaissance pilgrimage church of the Madonna della Quercia; the façade is adorned with three lunettes by Andrea della Robbia. The fine wooden roof of the interior is by Antonio da Sangallo the younger (1510–23). The adjoining monastery has a pleasing cloistered court. A mile and a quarter farther is the town of Bagnaia, with the Villa Lante, still belonging to the family of that name, with fine fountains and beautiful trees, ascribed to Vignola. The inhabitants of Viterbo are chiefly dependent on agriculture, hemp is specially the district, and tobacco and various grains are largely grown, as well as the olive and the vine. There are in the vicinity numerous mineral springs; the warm sulphur spring of Bollicame, about 2 m. off, is alluded to by Dante (Inf. iv. 70).

Viterbo is by some identified with Surrina nova, which is only mentioned in inscriptions, while some place it at the sulphur springs, called the Bollicame, to the west of Viterbo on the line of the Via Cassia, where Roman remains exist. This might well be the site of the Roman town. Here the Via Cassia was joined by the Via Ciminia, passing east of the Locus Ciminus, while a road branched off to Ferentum. See E. Bormann in Corp. Inscr. Lat. xi. (Berlin, 1888), p. 454; H. Nissen, Italicische Landeskunde (Berlin, 1902), ii. 343. The fortresses of the Dominican Annio da Viterbo (d. 1502) were directed to prove that Viterbo was the site of the Fanum Voltumnae (see, however, Montefiascone). There are no archaeological remains in Viterbo itself, except a few courses of masonry under the bridge which connects the cathedral with the city, near the cathedral, possibly the pier of an older bridge. But the site is not unexpectedly considered to be ancient, and the name to be derived from Vetus urbs; tombs, too, have been found in the neighbourhood, and it is not an unlikely assumption that here, as elsewhere, the medieval town occupies the Etruscan site. It was fortified by the Lombard king Desiderius (the decree ascribed to him, now in the municipal palace, has long been recognized as a forgery of Annio). It is the centre of the territory of the "patrimony of Peter," which the countess Matilda of Tuscany gave to the papal see in the 12th century; in the 13th century it became a favourite papal residence. Popes Urban IV. (1261), Gregory X. (1271), John XXII. (1276), Nicholas III. (1277) and Martin IV. (1281) were elected here, and it was at Viterbo that Alexander IV. (1261), Clement IV. (1268), Adrian V. (1276) and John XXII. (1277) died. (T. As.)

VITET, LUDOVIC (1802–1873), French dramatist and politician, was born in Paris on the 18th of October 1802. He was educated at the École Normale. His politics were liberal, and he was a member of the society "Aide-loi, le ciel t'aidera." On the triumph of liberal principles in 1830 Guizot created an office especially for Vitet, who became inspector-general of historical monuments. In 1834 he entered the Chamber of Deputies, and two years later was made a member of the Council of State. He was consistent in his monarchist principles, and abstained from taking any part in politics during the second empire. The disasters of 1870–71 reawakened Vitet's interest in public affairs, and he published in the Revue des deux mondes his optimistic "Lettres sur le siège de Paris." He died in 1873.

Vitet was the author of some valuable works on the history of art, and his Monographie de l'Eglise Notre Dame de Noyon (1845) especially did much to awaken popular interest in architecture. In the early days of the Romantic movement he wrote some vivid dramatic sketches of the time of the League. They are: Les Barbares de Ligue (1844), La beste et les Esais (1827), and La Mort de Henri III. (1829), all three being published together in 1844 with the title of Le Ligue. The best of these is Les Esais de BilBo, in which the murder of the duke of Guise is described in the most convincing manner.

VITORIA, an episcopal city of northern Spain, and capital of the province of Álava; on the Miranda de Ebro-Álava section of the Northern railways, among the southern outliers of the Cantabrian mountains, and on the left bank of the river Zadorra, a left-hand tributary of the Ebro. Pop. (1900) 30,701. The city is built on a hill 1750 ft. high, and overlooks the plain of Álava. Its oldest part, the Campillo or Villa-Suso, occupies the top of the hill; some of the walls and towers by which it was formerly defended still remain. Below it is Vitoria Antigua, with narrow tortuous lanes; on the still lower level ground is the modern town, with wide streets, an arcade market-place and shady promenades. The cathedral of Santa María in the Campillo dates from 1581, but has been considerably spoiled by late additions; the church of San Miguel also dates from the 16th century; it has an exceptionally beautiful 16th century wood by J. Velázquez and G. Hernandez, in the 16th century. The town hall and the palace of the provincial assembly contain some fine paintings and interesting relics connected with the history of Álava. Vitoria, from its favourable position on the main lines from Madrid to France and to the port of San Sebastián, is an important centre of trade in wine, wool, horses, mules and hardware; other industries are paper-making, carriage-building, cabinet-making, tanning and the manufacture of earthenware. There is a branch railway from Vitoria to Villarreal. The city is lighted by electricity; its trade and population have largely increased since 1875.

Vitoria was founded in 581 by Leovigild, king of the Visigoths; but its importance dates from the 10th century. In 1181 Sancho the Wise of Navarre granted it a charter and fortified it.

Battle of Vitoria.—For the operations which preceded the battle of Vitoria see PENINSULAR WAR. On June 21st, 1833, the French army in Spain (about 65,000 men with 150 guns), under King Joseph Bonaparte, held an extended position in the basin of Vitoria, south (with the exception of the extreme right) of the river Zadorra. The left rested on the heights of Puebla, north of the Puebla Pass, and Puebla de Argazkon, through which ran the Miranda-Vitoria-Bayonne road, Joseph's line of communication with France. Thence the line stretched to the ridge of Margarita, the troops so far being under General Gazan, with a second supporting line under D'Erlon between Ariné and Hermandad and a reserve behind Ariné. The right under Reille guarded the Bilbao-Vitoria road, occupying heights on the north bank of the Zadorra, and also the villages and bridges of Abechuco and Gamarra Mayor, as well as a ridge near Ariga on the south bank. There were no troops between Hermandad and Ariaiga, except a mass of cavalry near Ali. The Zadorra, fordable in certain spots only, was spanned by bridges at Puebla de Argazkon, Nanclares, Villodas, Tres Puentes, Mendoza, Abechuco and Gamarra Mayor, which French guns commanded; but, for some reason, none of these had been destroyed. The faults of the French position and their occupation of it were its extension; that it was in prolongation of and (on the right especially) very close to their line of retreat, so that if the right were driven back this line could be at once seized; that the centre was not strongly held; and that all bridges were left intact.

The Allies (nearly 80,000, with 90 guns), under Wellington, had moved from the river Bayas at daylight to attack Joseph, in four columns, the right being under Hill (20,000, including Morillos's Spaniards), the right centre and left centre under Wellington (30,000) and the left under Graham (20,000, including Longa's Spaniards). As the columns marched across the intersected country between the Bayas and Zadorra, extending from near Puebla de Argazkon to the Bilbao-Vitoria road, they kept touch with each other; and as they neared the Zadorra the battle opened all along the line soon after 10 a.m. Wellington's instructions to Graham were to undertake no manoeuvre which would separate his column from those on the right; but, with this proviso, to seize the Vitoria-Bayonne road if the enemy appeared decided in retreat. Hill after a sharp contest gained the Puebla heights, too weakly held; and pushing through the pass carried the village of Subijana de Álava. The right centre column having reached Villodas, was waiting for Hill to gain further ground, when the bridge at Tres Puentes was observed to be threatened. Joseph, however, had crossed the river commanded from the south bank; and, the French attention being now turned towards their flanks, it was surprised and rushed by Wellington with the
Light division, supported quickly by cavalry and other troops, who maintained themselves on the south bank. Joseph's centre was partially forced, while his left was hard pressed by Hill; and, fearing that Gazan and D'Erlon might be cut off from Reille, he ordered them to withdraw to a ridge farther back, which they did, holding Arinex in front. Here there was no hard fighting; but, as Wellington had now passed three divisions, many guns and the cavalry (which, however, from the nature of the ground could be but little used) across the Zarossa, Margarita, Hermandad and Arinex soon fell to the Allies.

On the left, Graham, having turned the heights north of Zarossa with Longa's Spaniards, seized Gamarra Menor close to the Bayonne road. He also with heavy loss carried Gamarra Mayor and Abechucu, but the bridges south of these villages, though more than once taken, were always recaptured by Reille. At length, when a brigade from the Allied centre had been pushed up from Hermandad against Reille's flank, he withdrew from the obstinately defended bridges, and before this Gazan and D'Erlon had also fallen back, fighting, to a third position on a ridge between Armentia and Ali west of Vitoria. Here, at about 6 p.m., they made a stand, being compelled in the end to yield; and as Graham having now crossed the bridges was close to the Bayonne road, the main body of Joseph's army fled by a bad cross road towards Pamplona, abandoning a library, vehicles and baggage (of which an enormous quantity was parked near Vitoria), Reille afterwards joining it through Betonia. The Allies then occupied Vitoria and pursued the French until nightfall. All Joseph's equipages, ammunition and stores, 143 guns, a million sterling in money, and various trophies fell into Wellington's hands. The French loss in men being nearly 7000, that of the Allies over 5000, of whom 1600 were Portuguese and Spaniards. This decisive victory practically freed Spain from French domination.

VITRÉ, a town of north-western France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Ille-et-Vilaine, situated on a hill rising from the left bank of the Vilaine, 24 m. E. of Rennes by rail. Pop. (1906) town, 7106; commune, 10,092. The town largely retains its feudal aspect. The ramparts on the north side and on the west, consisting of a machicolated wall with towers at intervals, are still standing. Only one gateway remains of the original castle, founded towards the end of the 11th century; the rest was rebuilt in the 14th and 15th centuries (the best period of Breton military architecture) and restored in recent times. It is now occupied by a prison, a museum of natural history and painting and the town library. The church of Notre-Dame, formerly a priory of the abbey of St Méline of Rennes, dates from the 15th and 16th centuries. An outside stone pulpit is a fine example of 16th-century sculpture. The church possesses a fine enamelled triptych of the 16th century. A tower of the 16th century is all that remains of the church of St Martin. The château de Les Rochers 3 m. from Vitré was the residence of Madame de Sévigné.

Vitré was formerly a Breton barony, and belonged in the 10th century to the younger branch of the counts of Rennes. In 1205 it passed to Guy IX., baron of Laval, on his marriage with the heiress, and afterwards successively belonged to the families of Rieux, Colligny and La Trémouille. The town was seized by Charles VIII. in 1488. Protestantism spread under the rule of the houses of Rieux and Colligny; Vitré became a Huguenot stronghold; and a Protestant church was established, which was not suppressed till the revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685. Philip Emmanuel, duke of Mercour, the head of the members of the League in Brittany, besieged the town a few times in 1568. The parties of Bergé, over which the barons of Vitré and of Léon alternately presided, met here several times.

VITRIFIED FORTS, the name given to certain rude stone enclosures whose walls have been subjected in a greater or less degree to the action of fire. They are generally situated on hills offering strong defensive positions. Their form seems to have been determined by the contour of the flat summits which they enclose. The walls vary in size, a few being upwards of 12 ft. high, and are so broad that they present the appearance of embattled camps. Weak parts of the defence are strengthened by double or triple walls, and occasionally vast lines of ramparts, composed of large blocks of unheated and unvitrified stones, envelop the vitrified centre at some distance from it. No lime or cement has been found in any of these structures, all of them presenting the peculiarity of being more or less consolidated by the fusion of the rocks of which they are built. This fusion, which has been caused by the application of intense heat, is not equally complete in the various forts, or even in the walls of the same fort. In some cases the stones are only partially melted and calcined; in others their adjoining edges are only fused so that they are firmly cemented together; in many instances pieces of rock are enveloped in a glassy enamelled coating which binds them into a uniform whole; and at times, though rarely, the entire length of the wall presents one solid mass of vitreous substance.

Since John Williams—one of the earliest of British geologists, and author of The Mineral Kingdom—first described these singular ruins in 1777, about fifty examples have been discovered in Scotland. The most remarkable are Dun Mac Uisneachain (Dun Maccnoichan), the ancient Beregumon, an area of 1000 m. N.N.E. of Ohan; Tap o' Noth, in Aberdeenshire; Craig Phadraic, or Phadrick, near Inverness; Dun Dhardhail (Dunjardil) in Glen Nevis; Knockfarrae, near Strathpeffer; Dun Creich, in Sutherland; Finhaven, near Aberlemno; Barryhill, in Perthshire; Lawls, near Dundee; Dun Gall and Burt Island, in Buteshire; Anwoth, in Kirkcudbright; and Cowdenknowes, in Berwickshire. Dun Mac Uisneachain is the largest in area, being 250 yds. long by 50 yds. broad. In the Tap o' Noth the walls are about 8 ft. high and between 20 and 30 ft. thick. In Dun Mac Uisneachain, Barryhill and Lawls the remains of small rectangular dwellings have been found. For a long time it was supposed that these forts were peculiar to Scotland; but they are found also in Londonderry and Cavan, in Ireland; in Upper Lusatia, Bohemia, Silesia, Saxony and Thuringia; in the provinces of the Rhine, especially in the neighbourhood of the Nahe; in the Ucker Lake, in Brandenburg, where the walls are formed of burnt and smelted bricks; in Hungary; and in several places in France, such as Châteauvieux, Peran, La Courbe, Sainte Suzanne, Puy de Gaudy and Thauron. They have not been found in England or Wales.

In some continental forts the vitrified walls are supported by masses of unvitrified stone built up on each side. This,
in all probability, constituted an essential feature in the Scottish forts. Except on the hypothesis of buttresses of a similar kind, it is impossible to explain the vast quantities of loose stones which are found both inside and outside many of the vitrified walls.

The method by which the fusion of such extensive fortifications was produced has excited much conjecture. Williams maintained that the builders found out, either during the process of smelting bog-ore, or whilst offering sacrifices, the power of fire in vitrifying stone, and that they used this method to cement the stones together in the defences. This view has been keenly controverted, and it has been suggested that the vitrified summits were not forts but the craters of extinct volcanoes, an hypothesis long since abandoned; that they are not so much forts as vitrified sites, and that the vitreousness was produced by fires lighted during times of invasion, or in religious celebrations; and, lastly, that if they were forts they must originally have been built of wood and stone, and that their present appearance is due to their being set on fire by a besieging enemy. The theory of Williams has, with modifications, been accepted by the principal authorities. It is supported by the following facts:

(1) The idea of strengthening walls by means of fire is not singular, or confined to a distinct race or area, as is proved by the burnt-earth enclosure of Azatalan, in Wisconsin, and the vitrified stone-mounds of the Mississippi valley. (2) Many of the Primary rocks, particularly the schists, gneisses and traps, which contain large quantities of potash and soda, can be readily fused in the open air by means of wood fires—the alkali of the wood serving in some measure as a flux. (3) The walls are chiefly vitrified at the weakest points, the naturally inaccessible parts being unvitrified. (4) When the forts have been placed on materials practically insubstantial, as the quartzite conglomerates of the Red Sandstone, as at Craig Phadhair, and on the limestones of Dun Mac Uisneachain, pieces of fusible rocks have been selected and carried to the top from a considerable distance. (5) The vitrified walls of the Scottish forts are invariably formed on a bed which could be easily acted upon by fire, whereas the outer ramparts, which are not vitrified, are built of large blocks. (6) Many of the continental forts are so constructed that the fire must have been applied internally, and at the time when the structure was being erected. (7) Daubrée, in an analysis which he made on vitrified materials taken from four French forts, and which he submitted to the Academy of Paris in 1881, found the presence of nautton in such great abundance that he inferred that sea-salt was used to facilitate fusion. (8) In Scandinavia, where there are hundreds of ordinary forts, and where for centuries a system of signal fires was enforced by law, no trace of vitrifaction has yet been detected.

A great antiquity has been assigned to vitrified forts, without sufficient proof. Articles of bronze and iron have been found in the Scottish forts, while in Puy de Gaudry a Roman tile has been discovered soldered to a piece of vitrified rock. In a few of the German forts Professor Virchow found some of the logs used as fuel in vitrifying the walls, and he concluded from the evenness of their cut surfaces that iron and stone implements must have been used. These results indicate that these structures were possibly in use as late as the early centuries of the Christian era. It has been suggested that they were built as refuges against the Norsemen. Much in the situation and character of the forts favours this supposition. This is especially the case with reference to the Scottish forts. Here the vitrified summits are invariably so selected that they not only command what were the favourite landing-places of the Vikings, but are the best natural defences against attacks made from the direction of the seacoast. In Saxony and Lusatia the forts are known as Schwenkburgs, and in the Highlands of Scotland as the fortresses of the Picts—designations which also seem to point to an original dating back to the times of the Vikings.


VITRIOL, a name given to sulphuric acid and to certain sulphates. Oil of vitriol is concentrated sulphuric acid. Blue or Roman vitriol is copper sulphate; green vitriol, ferrous sulphate (coppers); white vitriol, zinc sulphate; and vitriol of Mars is a basic iron sulphate.

VITRUVIUS (MARCUS VITRUVIUS POLLIO), Roman architect and engineer, author of a celebrated work on architecture. Nothing is known concerning him except what can be gathered from his own writings. Owing to the discovery of inscriptions relating to the Genia Vitruvia Formiae in Campania (Mola di Gaeta), it has been suggested that he was a native of that city, and that Vitruvius had been intimately connected with Verona on the strength of an existing arch of the 3rd century, erected with the name of a later architect of the same family name—"Lucius Vitruvius Cerdo, a freedman of Lucius." From Vitruvius himself we learn that he was appointed, in the reign of Augustus, together with three others, a superintendent of balistas and other military engines, a post which, he says, he owed to the friendly influence of the emperor's sister, probably Octavia (De Archit., i. pref.). In another passage (v. 1) he describes a basilica and adjacent aedes Augusti, of which he was the architect. From viii. 3 it has been supposed that he had served in Africa in the time of Julius Caesar, probably as a military engineer, but the words hardly bear this interpretation. He speaks of himself as being low in stature, and at the time of his writing bowed down by age and ill-health (ii. pref.). He appears to have enjoyed no great reputation as an architect, and, with philosophic contentment, records that he possessed but little fortune. Though a great student of Greek philosophy and science, he was unpractised in literature, and his style is very involved and obscure. To a great extent the theoretical and historical parts of his work are compiled from earlier Greek authors, of whom he gives a list at i. 1 and viii. 3. The practical portions, on the contrary, are evidently the result of his own professional experience, and are written with much sagacity, and in a far clearer style than the more pedantic chapters, in which he gives the somewhat fanciful theories of the Greeks. Some sections of the latter, especially those on the connexion between music and architecture, the scale of harmonic proportions, and the Greek use of bronze vases to reverberate and strengthen the actors' voices in the theatre, are now almost wholly unintelligible. Vitruvius's name is mentioned by Pliny in his work on the aqueducts of Rome; and most of what Pliny says (Hist. Nat. xxxv. and xxxvi.) about methods of wall-painting, the preparation of the stucco surface, and other practical details in building is taken almost word for word from Vitruvius, especially from vi. 1, though without any acknowledgment of the source.

The treatise De Architettura Libri Decem is dedicated to Augustus. Lost for a long time, it was rediscovered in the 19th century at St Gall; the oldest existing MS. dates from the 10th century. From the early Renaissance down to a comparatively recent time the influence of this treatise has been remarkably great. Throughout the period of the classical revival
VITRUY-LE-FRANÇOIS—VITTORIA

Vitruvius was the chief authority studied by architects, and in every point his precepts were accepted as final. In some cases a failure to understand his meaning led to curious results; for example, the medieval custom, not uncommon in England, of placing rows of earthenware jars under the floor of the stalls in church choirs, appears to have been an attempt to follow out suggestions raised by Vitruvius as to the advantages of placing bronze vases round the auditorium of theatres. Bramante, Michelangelo, Palladio, Vignola, and other architects, careful students of the work of Vitruvius, which through them has largely influenced the architecture of almost all European countries.

Bk. i. opens with a dedication to Augustus. C. 1 is on the science of architecture generally, and the branches of knowledge with which the trained architect ought to be acquainted, viz. grammar, music, painting, sculpture, some different aspects of geometry, optics; c. 2 is on the general principles of architectural design; c. 3 on the considerations which determine a design, such as strength, utility, beauty; c. 4 on the nature of different sorts of ground for the construction of houses in wood, stone, marble, brick, concrete and marble, and on the materials for stucco; c. 9 on timber, time for felling it, seasoning, &c.; and c. 10 on the irrigation of gardens.

Bk. ii. relates to materials (preface about Dinocrates, architect to Alexander). There are several great cities in the north-eastern parts of the world; c. 3 of black marbles, c. 4 of the earliest dwellings of man; c. 2 on systems of Thales, Heraclitus, Democritus, &c.; c. 3 on bricks; c. 4 on sand; c. 5 on lime; c. 6 on pozzolana; c. 7 on kinds of stones, c. 8 on foundations, stone pavement, brick, concrete and marble, and on the materials for stucco; c. 9 on timber, time for felling it, seasoning, &c.; and c. 10 on the foundations of buildings.

Bk. iv. on styles and orders, has a preface about Augustus on the scope of the work. The subjects of the first chapters are—(4) the Corinthian, Ionic and Doric orders; (2) the ornaments of capitals, &c.; (2) the Doric order; (4) proportions of the cells and pronos; (8) orders of temples; (9) walls of temples, in the Etruscan or Tuscan order of temples; (8) circular temples; &c.

Bk. v. on public buildings, has a preface on the theories of Pythagoras &c. Its twelve chapters treat—(1) on fora and basilicas, with description of his own basilica at Fanum; (2) of the adjuncts of a forum (aerarium, prison and curia); (3) of their sites, their site and construction; (4) of laws of harmonics; (5) of the arrangement of the parts of the theatre (theatrical purposes); (6) of Roman theatres; (7) of Greek theatres; (8) of the selection of sites of theatres according to acoustical principles; (9) of porticus and covered walks; (10) of the sites of the baths, the foundations of various parts; (11) of palaestrae, stadii and Greek buildings for the exercise of athletics; (12) of harbours and quays.

Bk. vi. is on sites and planning, and the preface treats of various Greek authors. C. 1 is on selection of sites; c. 2 on the planning of buildings to suit different sites; c. 3 on private houses, their construction and styles, the names of the different rooms; c. 4 on foundations and cellars; c. 5 on buildings fitted for special purposes; c. 6 on farms and country houses; c. 7 on Greek houses and the names of various parts; c. 8 on construction of halls and monasteries; c. 9 on mosaics and mosaic floors; c. 2 is on white stucco for walls (opus albium); c. 3 on concrete vaults, gypsum mouldings, stucco prepared for painting; c. 4 on painting; c. 5 on the building of hollow walls to keep out the damp, wall decoration by various processes; c. 6 on methods and styles of wall painting, the debased taste of his time; c. 6 on fine stucco made of pounded marble—three costs to receive wall paintings; c. 7 on colours used for mural decoration; c. 8 on lead (minium) and mercury, and how to use the latter to extract the gold from worn-out pieces of stuff or embroidery; c. 9 on the preparation of red lead and the method of encaustic painting, with hot wax and oil, &c.; (9) on various kinds of sundials and their inventors.

Bk. ix. is on astronomy. The preface treats of Greek sciences, geonics, &c. The discovery of specific gravity by Archimedes, and other discoveries of the Greeks, and of Romans of his time who have wied with the Greeks—Lucertius in his poem De Kerum Natura, Cicero in rhetoric, and Varro in philology, &c. The subjects of the eighteen chapters are—(1) the signs of the zodiac and the seven planets; (2) the phases of the moon; (3) the passage of the sun through the zodiac; (4) and (5) various meteorological phenomena; (6) the relation of astrological influences to nature; (7) the mathematical divisions of the gnomon; (8) various kinds of sundials and their inventors.

Bk. x. is on machinery, with a preface concerning a law at ancient Ephesus compelling an architect to complete any public building he had undertaken; this, he says, would be useful among the Romans of his time. The chapters are—(1) on various machines, such as scaling ladders, winches, &c.; (2) on windlasses, axles, pulleys and cranes for moving heavy weights, such as those used by Chersphon in building the great temple of Diana at Ephesus, and on the discovery by a shepherd of a quarry of marble required to build the temple of the same temple at Ephesus; (3) on water-raising by a revolving spiral tube; (7) on the machine of Ctesibius for raising water to a height; (8) on gourds for irrigation, the devices for raising water by gourds, &c.; (9) on the mathematical subject of the attack of a fortress; (14) on the form of the gourds used for irrigation, and the various points of use in ancient times.

The best edition is by Rosé (2nd ed., Leipzig, 1889); see also Nohl, Index Vitruei (1876); Jolles, Vitruvus Architectus (1896). There is a good translation by Gwilt (1826; reprinted, 1874).

The name of Vitrueius has been given to several works of modern architecture, such as Campbell, Vitrueius Britannicus; London, 1715-71, of the buildings of the 8th century in England, including many works of the brothers Adam; one of these brothers, William Adam, produced a similar work illustrating the buildings which he has designed for Scotland, under the title of Vitrueius Scotiæ (Edinburgh, 1790). Thurah, Le Vitrueius danois (Copenhagen, 1749-50), is a similar collection of modern buildings in Denmark.

VITRY-LE-FRANÇOIS, a town of north-eastern France, capital of the department of the Marne, on the right bank of the Meuse, 20 m. S.E. of Châlons, on the Châlons to Paris road. Pop. (1906) 15,857. The Marne-Rhine canal, the Haute-Marne canal, and the canal of the Marne unite at Vitry. Its church of Notre-Dame is a 17th-century building with fine 18th-century monuments. A convent of the Récollets now contains the town hall, the court-house, a library and a small museum. There is a bronze statue of P. P. Royer-Collard (1763-1845), the politician and philosopher, a native of the district. The industrial establishments include important cement works and the manufacture of faience is carried on. The present town was built in 1545 on a uniform plan by Francis I. to replace the older town which was destroyed by fire in 1544. It was incorporated in the previous year by Charles V.

VITTEL, a watering-place of north-eastern France, in the department of Vosges, 31 m. W. of Epinal by rail. Pop. (1906) 15,694. The waters resemble those of Contrexéville, but are lighter in character; they are bottled and exported in large quantities. They are prescribed in cases of gravel, gout, &c. Vittel has been considerably developed in recent years, and is well supplied with hotels, a fine casino and park, &c.

VITTORIA, a town of Sicily in the province of Syracuse, 95 m. S.W. of Syracuse, being half way to Palermo, founded in 1605 by Giovanni Aliphonso Henriquez, who named it after his mother, the famous Vittoria Colonna. It is a prosperous town.

1 The excavations made in 1887 have shown that Vitrueius was right in describing the great temple of Olympian Zeus at Athens as being octastyle. The previously almost universal opinion that it was decastyle had led to the needless theory that the passage containing this statement was corrupt.

2 Vitrueius names Cicero and Lucretius as post nostram memoriam nascere. The architect being at that time also the contractor.
VITTORIO, a town and episcopal residence of the province of Treviso, Venetia, Italy, 25 m. by rail N. of Treviso, 466 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 2977 (town), 19,133 (commune).

It is a summer resort, with sulphur and saline springs (51°8′ to 59° F.), and was formed in 1879 by the union of Ceneda (the episcopalsee) and the town of Caen, which was increased by the Pompomam Amatella (a pupil of Pordenone) and others. At Serravalle is a church with a fine altar-piece (1547) by Titian. It is a seat of the silkworm breeding and silk-throwing industries.

VITUS, ST (German, Vint; French, Guy). According to the legend, where he is associated with Modestus and Crescendia, by whom he had been brought up, St Vitus suffered martyrdom at a very early age under the emperor Diocletian. Son of a Sicilian nobleman who was a worshipper of idols, Vitus was converted to the Christian faith without the knowledge of his father, and was denounced by him and scourged, but resisted all attacks on his profession. Abandoned by an angel, he crossed the sea to Lucania and went to Rome, where he suffered martyrdom. His festival is celebrated on the 15th of June. The Passion of St Vitus has no historical value, but his name occurs in the Martyrologium hieronymianum. In 366 the abbey of Corvey, in Saxony, received his relics, and became a very active centre of his cult. In the second half of the 9th century the monks of Corvey, according to Helmiold's Chronica Slavorum, evangelized the island of Rügen, where they built a church in honour of St Vitus. The island has been abandoned, but they kept up a shrine of the saint of the (whom they called the god), returning to Christianity three centuries later. At Prague, too, there are some relics of the saint, who is the patron of Bohemia and also of Saxony, and one of the fourteen "protectors" (Nothelfer) of the church in Germany. Among the diseases against which St Vitus is invoked is chorea, also known as St Vitus's Dance.


VIVALDO, UGOLINO and SORLEONE DE (fl. 1291-1315), Genoese explorers, connected with the first known expedition in search of an ocean way from Europe to India. UgoUgino, with his brother Guido or Vatuno Vivaldo, was in command of this expedition of two galleys, which he had organized in conjunction with Tadisio Doria, and which left Genoa in May 1291 with the purpose of going to India "by the Ocean Sea" and bringing back useful things for trade. Planned primarily for commerce, the enterprise also aimed at proselytism. Two Franciscan friars accompanied Ugolino. The galleys were well armed and sailed down the Moroccan coast to a place called Gzora (Cape Nub), in 28° 47′ N., after which nothing more was heard of them. Early in the next (14th) century, Sorleone de Vivaldo, son of Ugolino, undertook a series of distant wanderings in search of his father, and even penetrated, it is said, to Magadzo on the Somali coast. In 1455 another Genoese seaman, Antonio Uso di Mare, sailing with Cadamosto in the service of Prince Henry the Navigator of Portugal, claimed to have met, near the mouth of the Gambia, with the last descendant of the survivors of the Vivaldo expedition. The two galleys, he told, had sailed to the Sea of Guinea; in that sea one was stranded, but the other passed on to a place on the coast of Ethiopia-Mena or Amenuan, near the Gibon (Gambia) where the Seemians, where the Genoese were seized and held in close captivity.


VIVARINI, the surname of a family of painters of Murano (Venice), who produced a great quantity of work in Venice and Crete. The first in the 13th century, leading on to that school which is represented by Carpaccio and the Bellinis.

Antonio Vivarini (Antonio di Murano) was probably the earliest of this family. He came from the school of Andrea da Murano, and his works show the influence of Gentile da Fabriano. The earliest known date of a picture of his, an altar-piece in the Venetian academy, is 1440; the latest, in the Lateran museum, 1464, but he appears to have been alive in 1470. He worked in company with a certain "Joannes de Alemanis," who has been (with considerable doubt) regarded as a brother (Giovanni of Murano), but no trace of this painter exists of a date later than 1447. After 1447 Antonio painted either alone or in combination with his younger brother Bartolomeo. The works of Antonio are well drawn for their epoch, with a certain noticeable degree of softness, and with good flesh and other tints. Three of his principal paintings are the "Virgin Enthroned with the Four Doctors of the Church," the "Coronation of the Virgin," and "Sts Peter and Jerome." The first two (in which Giovanni co-operated) are in the Venetian academy, the third in the National Gallery, London. This gallery contains also specimens of the two under-named painters.

Bartolomeo Vivarini is known to have been active in Crete from 1450 to 1490. He learned oil-painting from Antonello da Messina, and is said to have produced, in 1473, the first oil picture done in Venice. This is in the church of S. Giovanni e Paolo—a large altar-piece in nine divisions, representing Augustine and other saints. Most of his works, however, including one in the National Gallery, are in tempera. His outline is always hard, and his colour good; the figures have much dignified and devout expression. As "vivarino" means in Italian a goldfinch, he sometimes drew a goldfinch as the signature of his picture.

Luigi or Alvise Vivarini, born about 1446, painted in 1475 and on to 1502, when he died. It has sometimes been supposed that, besides the Luigi who was the latest of this pictorial family, there had also been another Luigi who was the earliest, this supposition being founded on the fact that one picture is signed with the name, with the date 1414. There is good ground, however, for considering this date to be a forgery of a later time. The works of Luigi show an advance on those of his predecessors, and some of them are productions of high importance. One of the most important is the picture of S. Girolamo in Venice, representing the saint caressing his lion, and some monks decamping in terror. The architecture and perspective in this work are superior. Other works by Luigi are in Treviso and in Milan. He painted some remarkable portraits.

(W. M. R.)

VIVERO, a town of north-western Spain, in the province of Lugo, on the Ria de Vivero, an estuary formed by the river Landrove, which here enters the Bay of Biscay. Pop. (1900) 12,843. Vivero is an old-fashioned and picturesque town, connected with the opposite bank of the estuary by a bridge of twelve arches and a causeway. Its fishing fleet, its coasting trade and the agricultural products of the fertile country around are important. The only means of communication with the interior is by the road to Cabeceiras, for Lugo and Ferrol.

VIVES, JUAN LUIS (1412-1494), Spanish scholar, was born at Valencia on the 6th of March 1492. He studied at Paris from 1509 to 1512, and in 1519 was appointed professor of humanities at Louvain. At the instance of his friend Erasmus he prepared an elaborate commentary on Augustine's De Civitate Dei, which was published in 1522 with a dedication to Henry VIII. Soon afterwards he was invited to England, and is said to have acted as tutor to the princess Mary, for whose use he wrote De ratione studii puérilis epistolae duo.
VIVIAN, 1st Baron—VIVISECTION

(1523). While in England he resided at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he was made doctor of laws and lectured on philosophy. Having declared himself against the king's divorce from Catherine of Aragon, he lost the royal favour and was confined to his house for six weeks. On his release he withdrew to Bruges, where he took part in the action of Cape de Passos against English forces, chiefly directed against the scholastic philosophy and the preponderant authority of Aristotle. The most important of his treatises is the *De Caussis corruptorum Arilium*, which has been ranked with Bacon's *Organon*. He died at Bruges on the 6th of May 1540.


VIVIAN, RICHARD HUSSEY VIVIAN, 1st Baron (1775-1842), British cavalry leader, came of a Cornish family. Educated at Harrow and Exeter College, Oxford, Vivian entered the army as a volunteer and became captain in the 28th foot in 1798. Under Lord Moira he served in the campaign of 1794 in Flanders and Holland. At the end of the expedition, the 28th bore a distinguished part in Lord Cathcart's action of Gueldernsmen. In 1798 Vivian was transferred to the 7th Light Dragoons (now Hussars), and in Sir Ralph Abercomby's division was present at the battles of Bergen and Alkmaar (19th September to 6th October 1799). In 1800 he received his majority, and in 1804 he became lieut.-colonel of the 7th. In command of this regiment he sailed to join Baird at Corunna in 1808, and took part in Lord Paget's cavalry fights at Sahagun and Benavente. During the retreat of Moore's army the 7th were constantly employed with the rearguard. Vivian was present at Corunna, and returned with the remainder of the army to England. It was not until late in 1813 that the 7th returned to the Peninsula, and Vivian (now colonel and A.D.C. to the prince regent) was soon taken away to command a cavalry brigade under Hill. With this corps he served throughout the fighting on the Nive (9th-13th December). At the beginning of 1814 he was transferred to a cavalry brigade of Beresford's corps, and took a marked part in the operations at Pau and the battle of Orthes. In the advance on Toulouse Vivian fought a brilliant action at Crois d'Orade on the Ers (8th April), when he was very severely wounded. At the beginning of 1815 he was made K.C.B.; he had been a major-general for several months. In April Sir Hussey Vivian was appointed to command a brigade of Uxbridge's cavalry, and at Waterloo his regiments, with those of Vandeleur's brigade, made the final charge of the day between Hougomont and La Haye Sainte, sweeping everything before them. This service was rewarded by the thanks of both houses of parliament, the K.C.H. and the orders of Maria Theresa and St Vladimir, from the emperors of Austria and Russia. He sat in the House of Commons as member for Truro from 1821 to 1831; he was then made commander of the forces in Ireland, and given the G.C.H. In 1835 he became master-general of the ordnance. In 1837 he received the G.C.B., and in 1841, being then M.P. for East Cornwall, was created Baron Vivian in the English peerage. A year later he died at Baden-Baden. He was twice married (first in 1804), and the title descended in the direct line of his natural son, Sir Robert John Hussey Vivian (1802-1887), who was a famous soldier in India, who in 1857 was made K.C.B. and in 1874 G.C.B., having previously attained the rank of general.

VIVIANITE, a mineral consisting of hydrated iron phosphate Fe(PO₄)₂+8H₂O, crystalizing in the monoclinic system. The crystals possess a perfect cleavage parallel to the plane of symmetry and are usually bladed, in habit; they are soft (H=½), flexible and septic. The specific gravity is 2.6. When unaltered and containing no ferric oxide, the mineral is colourless, but on exposure to the light it very soon becomes of a characteristic indigo-blue colour. Crystals were first found in Cornwall (at Wheal Jane near Truro, associated with pyrhotite) by J. G. Vivian, from whom the species was named by A. G. Werner in 1817. The mineral had, however, been earlier known as a blue powdery substance, called "blue iron-earth," met with in peat-bogs, in bog iron-ore, or with fossil bones and shells. (L. J. S.)

VIVISECTION, literally the cutting (section) of living (vivus) animals, a word which might be applied to all surgical operations whether practised upon the lower animals or on man. As conventionally used, however, it has exclusive reference to experiments upon the lower animals undertaken for the advancement of medical sciences. There are a number of people who, calling themselves anti-vivisectionists, strongly object to these experiments on the lower animals; and it must be conceded that the humane reasons which they advance against it can only be set aside as "sentimental" if considerations of a wider humanity can show that the arguments of the anti-vivisectionists really run counter to human progress. The supporters of vivisection, properly considered, must not be confused with those who would make a barbarous use of this means of research. What is at stake here is the right to use it at all. It is possible that the making of experiments is unnecessary to result if the practice of vivisection were unrestricted; and the purpose of this article is to give some account of the method of experiments on animals as sanctioned by law in the United Kingdom, and to justify that method by setting forth the chief historical discoveries that have been made by the help of vivisection. Such experiments have for their object the advancement of the sciences of physiology and pathology. From the earliest periods experimental vivisections have occasionally been practised, but before the days of vivisection, in fact, it was very difficult to draw conclusions. The invention of anaesthetics has greatly extended the scope of the experimental method, because an animal can be kept unconscious and quiet, without even a quiver of a muscle, during prolonged operations. Further, the introduction of the antiseptic method has made it possible to subject all tissues and regions of the body to surgical interference, and this has also had the effect of increasing the possibilities of experimental research.

In 1906 a British Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the whole subject under the chairmanship of Sir Charles Read, Bt., G.C.V.O., and Mr. A. J. Ramsay, K.C., took the chair. The Commission sat from October 1906 to March 1908, and heard no fewer than 21,761 questions and answers. In view of attempts on the part of the anti-vivisectionists to misrepresent the nature of the evidence given before the Commission, in January 1908 the supporters of experiments on animals founded the Research Defence Society, under the presidency of Lord Cromer; by July 1910 this society had some 1,500 members. Its official address is 27, Ladbroke Square, London, W. 2.

1. METHODS EMPLOYED.—The present act relating to experiments on animals was passed in 1876. At that time the majority of these experiments were physiological. There was, it may be fairly said, no such thing as bacteriology, no general following up of Pasteur's work. A few experiments were made in pathology, for instance in tuberculosis; and a few in surgery, in pharmacology, and in the action of poisons, especially snake venom. But the chief use of experiments on animals was for the advancement of physiology. The evidence given before the Royal Commission, in 1873, was almost entirely on physiological matters, on the discoveries of Harvey, Bell, Magendie and Claude Bernard, on the *Handbook for the Physiological Laboratory*, and so forth. The act, therefore, was drafted with a view to physiology, without much concern for pathology, and without foreknowledge of bacteriology. At the time of writing (1910), 95% of the experiments are inoculations. Every experiment must be made in a registered place open to government inspection. But inoculation experiments are sometimes
permitted in non-registered places, for the immediate study of outbreaks of disease, or in circumstances which render it impracticable to use a registered place. Every experiment must be made under a licence; and every application for a licence must be recommended by the signatures of two out of a small body of authorities specified in the Act; and for this purpose the licentiate shall, in every application to be made to the President of certain universities and colleges. The word "experiment" is not allowed to cover the use of more than one animal.

Most experiments are made not under a licence alone, but under a licence plus one or more certificates, and the wording and working of these certificates must be clearly understood, because it is over them that the question arises as to the amount of pain inflicted by these experiments. Under the licence alone, the animal must be kept under an anaesthetic during the whole of the experiment; and if the pain is likely to continue after the effect of the anaesthetic has ceased, or if any serious injury has been inflicted on the animal, it must be killed forthwith under the anaesthetic. Thus, under the licence alone, it is impossible to make an inoculation; for the experiment consists, not in the introduction of the needle under the skin, but in the observation of the results of the inoculation. A guine-pig inoculated with tubercle cannot be kept under an anaesthetic till the disease appears. The disease is the experiment, and it is therefore an experiment made without an anaesthetic, and not authorized by the licence alone. Again, under the licence alone, is it possible to follow out the thyroid treatment of myxoedema, or the facts of cerebral localization. For to remove the thyroid gland, or to remove a portion of the surface of the brain, is to inflict a serious injury on the animal. The operation is done under profound anaesthesia—it would be impracticable otherwise; the wound is treated and dressed by the antiseptic method—suppuration would invalidate the result. But a serious injury has been inflicted. Nevertheless, the animal will not be killed forthwith; the result must be watched.

The and the like experiment, if it be in any way represented, cannot be made under the licence alone. For the removal of such disabilities as these, the act empowers the home secretary to allow certain certificates, to be held with the licence. They must be recommended by two signatures, and various restrictions are put upon them by the home secretary. On July 11, 1898, the home secretary was asked, in the House of Commons, what were the conditions and regulations attached by the Home Office to licences and certificates; and he answered—

The conditions are not always the same, but may vary according to the nature of the investigation. It is hardly possible, therefore, for me to state all the conditions attached to licences and certificates. The most important conditions, however (besides the limitations as to place, time and number of experiments), and the conditions most frequently imposed, are those as to reporting and the use of antisepsics. The latter condition is that the animals are to be treated with strict antisepotic precautions, and if these fail and pain results, they are to be killed immediately under anaesthetics. The reporting conditions are, in brief, that a written record, in a prescribed form, is to be kept of every experiment, and is to be open for examination by the inspector; that a report of all experiments is to be forwarded to the inspector; and that any published account of an experiment is to be transmitted to the secretary of state. Another condition requires the immediate destruction under anaesthetics of an animal in which severe pain has been induced, after the main results have been ascertained.

The home secretary attaches to licences and certificates such endorsements as he thinks fit. The bare text of the act, now thirty-four years old, is a very different thing from the administration of the act; and the present writer is in a position to say that the act is administered with great strictness, under a careful system of inquiry and reference.

The certificates are distinguished as A, B, C, E, EE and F. Certificate D, which permitted the testing, by experiments, of "former discoveries alleged to have been made," has fallen into disuse. Certificate C permits experiments to be made by way of illustration of lectures. They must be made under the provisions contained in the act as to the use of anaesthetics. Certificates E and EE permit experiments on dogs or cats; certificate F permits experiments on horses, asses or mules. These certificates are linked with Certificate A or Certificate B. It is round these two certificates, A and B, that the controversy as to the pain caused by experiments on animals is maintained.

Certificate A permits experiments to be made without anaesthesia. It is worded as follows: "Whereas A. B. of [here insert address and profession] has made, and herewith submits, evidence of the scientific value of his proposals, if duly authorized under the above-mentioned act, to perform on living animals certain experiments described below. We hereby certify that, in our opinion, insensibility in the animal organism can only be brought about by such experiments as are induced by anaesthetics without necessarily frustrating the object of such experiment." All inoculations under the skin, all feeding experiments and tests are scheduled under this certificate. They must be scheduled separately under a licence alone. Though the only instrument used is a hypodermic needle, yet every inoculation is officially returned as an experiment, causing pain, permitted without an anaesthetic. It is for inoculations and the like experiments, and for them alone, and for nothing else, that Certificate A is allowed (or A linked with E or F). This want of a special certificate for inoculations, and this wresting of Certificate A for the purpose, have led to an erroneous belief that "cutting operations" are permitted by the act without an anaesthetic. But, as the home secretary said in Parliament in March 1897, "Certificate A is never allowed except for inoculations and similar trivial operations, and in every case a condition is attached to prevent unnecessary pain." And again he wrote in 1898: "Such special certificates are required for experiments without anaesthesia involving incisions, feeding and similar procedures involving no cutting. The animal has to be killed under anaesthetics if it be in pain, so soon as the result of the experiment isascertained."

The conditions of Certificate B are that it is free of the life of the animal after the initial operation of an experiment. It is worded as follows:

"Whereas A. B. of [here insert address and profession] has represented (i.e. two certificates, or under the above-mentioned act, to perform on living animals certain experiments described below, such animals being, during the whole of the initial operation of such experiments, under the influence of some anaesthetic of sufficient power to prevent their feeling pain: We hereby certify that, in our opinion, the killing of the animal on which any such experiment is performed before it recovers from the influence of the anaesthetic administered to it would greatly interfere with the normal influence of the gland was the initial operation; and this was performed under an anaesthetic, and with the antiseptic method. Then the animal was killed. The observations which were required of the experiment during the observation alone, but the two together. The purpose of this certificate is set forth in the inspector's report for 1909. "In the experiments performed under Certificate B, or C (or linked with EE or F) experiments are performed under anaesthetics from the influence of which the animals are allowed to recover. The operations are required to be performed antiseptically, so that the healing of the wounds shall, as far as possible, take place without pain. If the antisepotic precautions fail, and suppuration occurs, the animal is required to be killed. It is generally essential for the success of these experiments that the wounds should heal cleanly, and the surrounding parts remain in a healthy condition. After the healing of the wounds the animals are not necessarily, or even generally, in pain, since experiments involving the removal of important organs, and affecting the vessels and parts of glands, are performed in an experiment performed under Certificate B, or C linked with EE, a condition is attached to the licence requiring all operative procedures to be carried out under anaesthetics of sufficient power to prevent the animal feeling pain; and no observations or stimulations of a character to cause pain are allowed to be made without the animals being anaesthetized. In no case has a cutting operation more severe than a superficial incision (the opening of the skin) been performed on an animal under the skin been allowed to be performed without anaesthetics."

From this brief account of the chief provisions of the act, we come to consider the general method of experiments on animals in the United Kingdom, and the question of the infliction of pain on them. The figures for a representative year may be given. The total number of licensees in 1909, in England and Scotland, was 483: of whom 135 performed no experiments during the
year. The total number of experiments was 86,277, being 2357 less than in 1908. They were made as follows:—

| Certificate C | 196 |
| Certificate A | 81,566 |
| Certificates A-E | 595 |
| Certificates A-F | 228 |
| Certificate B | 1,385 |
| Certificates B+E+EE | 319 |
| Certificate F | 8 |

The experiments performed under Certificate A (or A+E, or A+F) were mostly inoculations; but a few were feeding experiments, or the administration of various substances by the mouth or by inhalation, or the abstraction of blood by puncture or by simple venesection. Inoculations into deep parts, involving a preliminary incision, are required to be performed under anaesthetics (Certificate B).

"It will be seen," says the report for 1909, "that the operative procedures in experiments performed under Certificate A, without anaesthetics, are only such as are attended by no considerable, if appreciable, pain. The certificate is, in fact, not required to cover the proceedings, but to allow of the subsequent course of the experiment."

The animals most used for inoculations are mice, rats, guinea-pigs and rabbits. It is not once in a thousand times that a dog or a cat is used for inoculation. The act of inoculation is not in itself painful. A small area of the skin is carefully shaved and cleansed, that it may be aseptic, the hypodermic needle is sterilized and the method of hypodermic injection or of vaccination is the same as it is in medical practice. "A guinea-pig that will rest quietly in your hands before you commence to inject it, will remain perfectly quiet during the introduction of the needle under the skin; and the moment it is returned to the cage it resumes its interrupted feeding. Arteries, veins and most of the parts of the viscera are without the sense of touch. We have actual proof of this in what takes place when a horse is bred for the purpose of obtaining curative serum. With a sharp lance a cut may be made in the skin so quickly and easily that the animal does nothing more than twitch the skin-muscle of the neck, or give his head a shake, while of the further proceeding of introducing a hollow needle into the vein, the animal takes not the slightest notice. Some horses, indeed, will stand perfectly quiet during the whole operation, munching a carrot, nibbling at a wad of hay, or playing with a button on the vest of the groom standing at its head." These sentences, written in the Medical Magazine (June 1808) by Dr Sims Woodhead, Professor of Pathology at Cambridge, are sufficient evidence that inoculations and the like experiments are not painful at the time. In a few instances cultures of micro-organisms have been made in the anterior chamber of the eye, by the introduction of a needle behind the cornea. This might be thought painful, but cocaine renders the surface of the eye wholly insensitve. Many operations of ophthalmic surgery are done under cocaine alone, and the anterior chamber of the eye is so far insensitve that a man may have blood or pus (μυγωμα) in it, and, scarcely conscious of the fact. The results of inoculation are in some cases negative, in others positive; the positive results are, in the great majority of cases, not a local change, but a general infection which may end in recovery, or in death. The diseases thus induced may, in many cases, fairly be called painless—such as septicemia in a mouse, snake-venom in a rat, and malaria in a sparrow. Rabbits affected with rabies do not suffer in the same way as dogs and some other animals, but become subject to a painless kind of paralysis. It is probable that animals kept for inoculation the whole, less pain than falls to the lot of a like number of animals in a state of nature or in subjection to work: they are well fed and sheltered, and escape the rapacity of larger animals, the inevitable cruelties of sport, and the drudgery and sexual mutilation that man inflicts on the higher domestic animals.

The present writer has, of course, seen the mice that are used for the study of cancer (Imperial Cancer Research Fund), and the guinea-pigs that are used at the Lister Institute for the testing of the London milk-supply, lest the milk should convey tubercle. He did not see, among all the many animals, one that appeared to be suffering: save that a very few of the mice were incommoded, or, if the word be applicable to mice, distressed, by large tumours. Of the guinea-pigs that had been inoculated, not one seemed to be in any pain. A nodule of tubercle, or a tuberculous gland, is painless in us, and therefore cannot be painful in a guinea-pig. It is not denied that the study of some diseases (plague, tetanus) causes some pain to rats and rabbits; but this pain is hardly to be compared with the pain and horror of these diseases in man.

The animals are now to be considered under Certificate B. If it were lawful, under Certificate B, to make an incision under an anaesthetic, to call this the "initial operation," and then, without an anaesthetic, to make painful experiments, through the incision, on the deeper structures, doubtless much pain might be inflicted under this certificate. But experiments of this kind can be, and are, made under the licence alone, the animal being kept under an anaesthetic all the time, and killed under it. "No experiments requiring anything of the nature of a surgical operation, or that would cause the infliction of an appreciable amount of pain, are allowed to be performed without an anesthetic" (Inspector's report for 1896). "The operations (B) are granted on condition that antiseptic precautions are used; and if these fail, and pain continues after the anaesthetics have ceased to operate, the animal is immediately killed painlessly" (Letter from the Home Secretary, 1898).

Of experiments made under this certificate (which must be linked with Certificate EE for any experiment on a dog or a cat), three instances may be given here: an operation on the brain, a removal of part or the whole of a secreting gland, and the establishment of a fistula. It is to be noted that, for these and the like operations, profound anaesthesia and the strict observance of the antiseptic method are matters of absolute necessity for the success of the experiment: the operation could not be performed without anaesthesia; and the experiment would come to nothing if the wound suppurred. It is to be noted, also, that these operations are such as are performed in surgery for the saving of life or for the relief of pain.

As to operations on the brain, it must be remembered that the surface of the brain is not sensitive. Therefore the removal or destruction of a portion of the surface of the brain, or the division of some tract of central nervous tissue, though it might entail some loss of power or of control, does not cause pain; a wound of the brain is painless. Tension within the cranial cavity, as in cases of cerebral tumour or cerebral abscess, may indeed cause great pain; and, if the aseptic method failed in an experiment, inflammation and tension would ensue: in that case the animal must be killed.

The removal of part or the whole of a secreting gland (e.g. the thyroid, the spleen, the kidney) is performed by the same methods, and with the same precautions, as in human surgery. Profound anaesthesia, and the use of a strict antiseptic procedure, are of absolute necessity. The skin over the part to be removed must be shaved and carefully cleansed for the operation; the instruments, sponges and ligatures must be sterile, not capable of infecting the wound; and when the operation is over, the wound must be carefully closed with sutures, and left to heal under a proper surgical dressing.

The establishment of a fistula, again, is an operation practised, as a matter of course, in large numbers of surgical cases. The stomach, the gall-bladder, the large intestine, are opened for the relief of obstruction, and kept open, either for a time or permanently, according to the nature of the case. Under anaesthesia, the organ that is to be opened is exposed through an incision made through the structures overlying it, and is secured in the wound by means of fine sutures. Then, when it has become adherent there, it is opened by an incision made into it; no anaesthetic is needed for this purpose, because these internal organs are so unlike the skin in sensitiveness that an incision is hardly felt: the patient may say that he "felt a prick," or he may be wholly unconscious that anything has been done. A
fistula thus established is not afterward painful, though there may be some discomfort now and again.

The classical instance is the case of Alexis St Martin, who was shot in the stomach in 1822, and recovered, but with a fistula. He let Dr Beaumont make experiments on him for nine years: "During the whole of these periods, from the spring of 1824 to the present time (1833), he has enjoyed general good health...active, athletic and vigorous; exercising, eating and drinking regularly, healthy and active people. For the last four months he has been unusually plethoric and robust, though constantly subjected to a continuous series of experiments on the perforation of the stomach; allowing the food and drink to be introduced or taken out at the aperture different kinds of food, drinks, elastic catheters, thermometer tubes, gastric juice, chyme, &c., almost daily, and sometimes hourly. Such have been the results of the circumstances for seven years other and he now enjoys the most perfect health and constitutional soundness, with every function of the system in full force and vigour." (Beaumont, Experiments and Observations on the Gastric Juice, 1836).

We come now to the question, What anaesthetics are used in these experiments, and are they properly administered? The anaesthetics used are—(1) chloroform, ether, or a mixture containing chloroform and ether; (2) morphia, chloral, urethane. It is sometimes said that morphia is not an anaesthetic. That depends on the quantity given. Not a month passes in this country without somebody killing himself or herself with morphia or chloral. They die profoundly anaesthetized: they cannot be roused; even the pain of a strong electric shock is not enough to rouse them. So it is with animals. The doses given to them are enormous and produce complete insensibility. On this point the evidence given before the Royal Commission of 1906-9 by Mr Thane, Professor Henry Dixon, Dr Dudley Buxton and Professor Starling is absolutely conclusive. "As to the statements," says Sir Lauder Brunton, "that chloral and opium or morphia are not narcotics, and do not remove pain, there is no other word for it, it is simply a lie; you may as well say that chloroform does not remove pain. If you give any animal a sufficiently large dose of chloral or opium, you so completely abolish sensibility that there is nothing you can do that will awaken its sensibility. The animal is as senseless as a piece of board."

With regard to chloroform, ether and the A.C.E. mixture, it is absolutely certain that animals can be kept, with these anaesthetics, profoundly unconscious for three or four or more hours. Nothing on this point is more worthy of consideration than the evidence in veterinary surgery, given before the Royal Commission by Mr Hobday, one of the very foremost veterinary surgeons in this country (Reports of Evidence, vol. iv. Q. 16284-16353). The opponents of all experiments on animals are apt to believe that dogs and cats must be bound and fastened on boards, and then have the anaesthetic given to them. That is not the case. They can be given just as well, for many of the operations of surgery, are bound in position. And, of course, dogs and cats cannot lie on their backs as we can. "The usual thing we do," said Professor Starling, in his evidence before the Royal Commission, "is to give the animal, half an hour before the experiment, a hypodermic injection of morphia, of about a quarter of a grain—from a quarter to a third. The effect of that is, that the dog becomes sleepy and stupid, and then sometimes it will lie down quietly, and if it is very sleepy you can put a mask over its nose containing the chloroform and alcohol and other mixture, which it takes in at once. If, at the time one wants to begin the operation, the animal is not fully under the influence of morphia—it if still seems restless—it is put in a box, and there it has some wool saturated with the A.C.E. mixture put in the box. The air gradually gets saturated, the dog gets more and more sleepy, and finally subsides at the bottom of the box."

A few words must be said here about curare. It was said, some years ago, by an opponent of experiments on animals, that curare was "inseparable throughout England" whereas, it is seldom used at all, and is never used alone in any sort or kind of operation on any animal in this country; in every such case a recognized anaesthetic must be given. It is true that curare is more frequently used in the stomach in the circumstance of the stomach; but it is in small doses only, and in large doses abolishes the movement of the voluntary muscles, but also acts as an anaesthetic: in small doses it acts only on the voluntary muscles, i.e. on the endings of the motor nerves going to these muscles. For example, suppose that the object of the experiment is to observe and record the action of a nerve on the contraction of certain blood vessels. The nerve gives off some branches to muscles, and other branches to blood vessels. If the animal be anaesthetized, and the nerve stimulated, muscles and vessels will both contract; but, if curare be given, as well as an anaesthetic, the vessels alone will contract, without the muscles; for curare does not on the endings of motor nerves, but on vessels. But, as a practical matter, curare is very hard to obtain, and is often impure, and is very seldom used. One of the inspectors said to the Royal Commission that he had once seen it used, fifteen years ago."

Professor Schäfer said that he had not used it for twenty years. Professor Morris said, it is 'not possible to be at all.' And Sir Lauder Brunton said that he did not think he had used it at all since the period 1876. The fear that, in a case, if curare was being used, the effect of the anaesthetic might 'pass off,' and the animal be left under curare alone, is not reasonable. The dosage and administration of anaesthetics is not such as to kill the animal; and the same small dose of chloroform vapour, it is of necessity under the influence of the chloroform; and the anaesthesia will gradually become not less but more profound. (See the evidence given before the Royal Commission by Professor Langley and Professor Waller.)

It may be interesting to compare the pain, or death, or discomfort among 6,277 animals used for experiments in Great Britain in 1909, with the pain, or death, or discomfort of an equal number of the same kinds of animals, either in a state of nature, or kept for sport, or used for the service of human profit or amusement. But it would be outside the purpose of this article to describe the cruelties which are inseparable from sport, and from the killing of animals for food, and from fashion; neither is this the place to describe the millions of men who keep to hounds, and hounds to hunt, or hunters to breed hounds, or breeders. As one of the Royal Commissioners recently said, the farmyards, at certain times of the year, simply "seethe with vivisection." The number of animals wounded in sport, or in traps, cannot be guessed. Against this vast amount of suffering we have to put an estimate of the condition of 6,277 animals used for medical science. Ninety-five per cent. of them were used for inoculation. In many of these inoculations the result was negative: the animal did not take any disease, and thus did not suffer any pain. In many, more, e.g. cancer in mice, tubercle in guinea-pigs, the pain or discomfort, if any, may fairly be called trivial or inconsiderable. It could hardly be said that these small animals suffer much more than an equal number of the same kind of animals kept in little cages to amuse children. There remain 3888 animals which were submitted to operation under an anaesthetic. In the greater number of these cases the animal was killed then and there under the anaesthetic, without recovering consciousness. In the remaining cases the animal was allowed to recover, and to be kept for observation; but no further observation of any kind, which would cause pain, was allowed to be made on it, or taken off it. Many of these cases, thus allowed to recover after an operation, may fairly be compared to an equal number of domestic animals after one of the formal operations of veterinary surgery. These observations made under Certificate B form but a very small proportion of the total number of experiments on animals in the United Kingdom; and they have led, in recent years, to discoveries of the very utmost importance for human life and health.

II. SCIENTIFIC RESULTS.—We come now to consider the results of experiments on animals, but we must remember that we alone, but animals also, owe a great debt to them. Great epizootic diseases like anthrax, swine-fever, chicken cholera, silkworm disease, pleuro-pneumonia, glanders, Texas cattle fever, blackleg, tuberculosis in cattle, have killed yearly millions of animals, and have been brought under better control by these experiments. The advantages that have been obtained for man may be arranged under two heads—(A) Physiology, (B) Pathology, Bacteriology and Therapeutics.

A. PHYSIOLOGY

1. The Blood.—Galen (A.D. 131) confuted the doctrine of Erasistratus, that the arteries contained xvivida, the breath of life, proving
by experiment that they contain blood. "Ourselves, having tied the exposed arteries above and below, opened them, and showed that they were indeed full of blood." Realdis Columbus (1559), though he did not discover the general or "systematic" circulation, attempted what is known as "Montesquieu's experiment," the pulmonary circulation. "The blood is carried through the pulmonary artery to the lung, and there is attenuated; thence, mixed with air, it is carried through the pulmonary veins into the left heart." Bichat afterward noted or left on record, though it is most worthy of the observance of all men.... And this is as true as truth itself; for if you will look not only at the conditions of the arteries and veins, but always find this pulmonary vein full of blood, which assuredly it would not be if it were designed only for air and vapours.... Verily I pray you, O candid reader, studiosus of authority, but more studious of the human condition, and the control of the pulmonary vein full of blood, not air or fuligo, as these men call it, God help them." Harvey's treatise De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis in Animalibus was published at Frankfurt in 1621. It begins thus: "When by many dissections of living animals, as they came to hand—Cum multis vivorum dissectionibus, ut ad manum doabuntur,—I first gav myself to observing how I might discover, with my own eyes, and not from books the writings of others, to use and purpose of the movement of the heart in animals, for which I found the matter hard indeed and full of difficulty; so that I began to think, with Frascatarius, that the movement of the heart was not observed in any animal. At last I conceived that the disquisition and diligence, by frequent examination of many and various living animals—mutila frequentere et varia animalia vivo introspiendo— I came to believe that I had succeeded, and had escaped every purpose for which I had covered what I desired, the movement and use of the heart and the arteries. And from that time, not only to my friends but also in the presence of all, I could demonstrate the passing from the body of man or beast, by experiment." I did not fear to set forth my opinion in this matter." Here, and again at the end of the Preface, and again in the eighth chapter of the De Motu, he puts his experiments in the very forefront of the argument. "For the chyle from the mesentery, whence vessels of the deep mesentery of the live frog, made out the capillary vessels. He writes to Borelli, professor of mathematics at Pisa, that he has failed in every attempt to discover them by injecting fluids into the larger vessels, but has succeeded by examining the tissues with the microscope: "Such is the divarication of these little vessels coming off from the vein and the artery, that the order in which a vessel issues from the heart is not observable; but the threads of blood are seen to be woven from the offshoots of both vessels" (De Pulmonibus, 1661). Stephen Hales (1733), rector of Farrington and minister of Teddington, and later a professor of medicine at King's College, London, made the first exact estimates of the blood pressure, the rate of the heart, and the flow; and divided the life of the human being into eight hours, each hour being divided into two parts, or four equal parts. In the eighth hour, the seven white threads were examined. The one end of a vertical glass tube was inserted into the crural artery of a mare, and noting the rise of the blood in the tube (Statical Essays, cont. the Motion of the Blood, 1733). Three tubes were used, one for the right, and two for the left side of the body. Hales was the first to use a thermometer to take the temperature of the blood. In 1752 Réaumur began his observations on this fluid, making birds swallow fine fenestrated tubes containing grain or meat, or even pieces of a man, these being absorbed and observed in the dissolution of food, not in any sort of mechanical action or trituration. His observations were extended and perfected by Spallanzani (1777). Then came a period of uncertainty, with experiments of早已 inadequacy; but in 1817, 1818, and 1819, a prize for the best work on the subject, and Tiedemann and Gmelin submitted their observations to him. The work of Tiedemann and Gmelin, and the books of the early physiologists, are the result of the great number of their experiments, from which came not only the absolute proof of the existence of the gastric juice, but also the study of the transformation of starch into glucose. Thus the theory of digestion entered a new phase; it was finally recognized, at least for certain substances, that digestion is not simply dissolution, but a true chemical transformation" (Claude Bernard, Physiologie opératoire, 1879). Beaumont's experiments on Alexis St Martin (hides supræ) were published in 1858. They were, of course, based on the work of the physiologists: "I make no claim to originality in my opinions as respects the existence and opera- tions of the gastric juice, which was first pointed out by Tiedemann (with some modifications) taught by Spallanzani and many of the most enlightened physiological writers" (Beaumont's preface to his book). Eberle, in 1834, showed how this knowledge of the existence of the gastric juice led to the discovery of the chemical action of the stomach, and that the juice of the stomach, coming from the mucous membrane of the stomachs of animals after death: hence came the invention of the various preparations of peptic. Later, Blondlet of Nancy, in 1842, studied the gastric juice by the method of purest starch. Many of the observations have been made on the movements of the stomach during digestion, and on the influences of the nervous system on the process. The liver, the pancreas and the intestinal glands, all are concerned. The recent work of Pawlow and of Starling has greatly advanced our knowledge of the actions of the secretions from these organs. The effect of these secretions on the acidity of the stomach is physical, from the taking of food into the mouth to the expulsion of the waste residue, is now viewed in its entirety; and especial study has been given to the influences, nervous or chemical, which
are exercised, as it were, on a particular tract of the digestive system, at the bidding of another tract. Pavlov, recognizing the importance of keeping the animals under the most normal conditions, and of studying the digestive system in animals not anaesthetized, yet free from pain or distress, made use of fistulae established at different points of the digestive canal, and was able to study the digestive juices at different stages of the digestive process, under normal conditions, by Dr. Haller. The work of Pavlov has been further developed by Professor Starling's recent work on the chemical substances produced in the body, during the act of digestion, to promote digestion.

As the operation of vivisection, and destruction of sugar in the body, was begun in 1843. His discovery of the glycogenic action of the liver, was made by keeping two dogs on a diet deficient in both sugar and fat. He put a fistula into one of them during digestion, and testing the blood in the veins coming from the liver: What was my surprise when I found a considerable quantity of sugar in the hepatic veins of the dog that had been fed on meat, and a very much smaller quantity of sugar substance (glucose) of the animal was allowed to remain. (Newall's Mémoire, 1853.)

5. The Pancreas.—The 17th century was a time of very fanciful theories about the pancreas (Linnaeus, Wharton, Bartholin), which was regarded as a kind of salivary gland. None of these physicians had the wisdom to see that the pancreas must be estimated, not according to its position, but according to its structure, as one of the nature of the salivary glands. He closed his pupil, I do not know why it was, Grasart's greyhound, and I say in my hand to the wool; and though many times I desired of success, yet at last, by the blessing of God on my work and prayers, in the year 1766, I discovered the pancreatic system, and after that, as the panegraut. By the method of a fistula he collected and studied the secretion of the contents of the pancreas; and by further experiment he refuted Bartholin's theory that the pancreas was a sort of apparatus or "biliary vesicle" of the stomach. But he got no help from the chemistry, and, on the other hand split up into fatty acids and glucose, the neutral fat; he clearly proved that it had a powerful action on starch, converting it into sugar. He was the first to give it that name, and that of a proteine matter. At a later date it was discovered that the pancreas, beside its work in digestion, has an "internal secretion"; that it, like the thyroid gland and the suprarenal capsules, helps to maintain the general metabolism of the body. Professor Schäfer, writing in 1894, says on this subject: It was discovered a few years ago by von Mering and Minkowski that if, instead of merely diverting its secretion, the pancreas is bodily removed, the metabolic processes of the organism, and especially the metabolism of carbo-hydrates, are entirely deranged, the result being the production of permanent diabetes. But if even a very small part of the gland is left within the body, the carbo-hygrosis metabolism remains unaltered, and there is no diabetes. The small portion of the organ which has been allowed to remain (and which need not even be left in its proper place, but may be transplanted to other or elsewhere), as long as it continues to exert its action, which go on between it and the blood generally, to prevent those serious consequences to the composition of the blood, and to the general constitution of the body, which result from the complete removal. The complete removal of the pancreas, in a cat or a dog, may cause fatal diabetes, is of importance, because the pancreas in some cases of diabetes in man is diseased; but, at present, experiments on animals have not led to any certain or specific cure of diabetes in man.

6. The Growth of Bone.—The experiments made by Du Hamel (1739-1843) on the growth of bone by deposit from the peritoneum (the cavity of the abdominal cavity) on the fascia lata, by the zymotic observation (1735) that the bones take up the stain of madder mixed with the food. Du Hamel studied the whole subject very carefully, and established this important fact, for preserving putrefying material, which is an important fact in all operations on the bones. As he puts it, in the title of one of his own memoirs, Les os croissent en grosseur par l'addition de couches osseuses qui tirent leur origine du peristéum, c'est-à-dire ligneux et de plusieurs manières, sur l'addition de couches ligneuses qui se forment dans l'écorce. By feeding pigs at one time with dried food, at another with undried food, he obtained their bones in concentric layers alternately stained and unstained. His facts were confirmed by Bazan (1746) and Bichat, who were both of a different opinion, and by the experiments of Duhamel and Haller. Still, he brought men to study the whole subject of the growth of bones, in length as well as in thickness, and the whole modeling of the bones, in adult life, by deposit and absorption. Biiezpeat's discoveraus system of physiology and in surgery. Later, from the point of view of surgery, Syne (1837) and Stanley (1849) made experiments on the growth of bone, and on the exfoliation of dead bone; and, after them, Oliven in the inductive parts of surgical practice has been of the very highest value.

7. The Nervous System.—A. The Nerve-Roots.—Through all the cerebration, and in the cerebral system, the cerebellum, which was worked out by Sir Charles Bell, who lived in the time of George III., no great advance was made in our knowledge of the nervous system. The way of experiment, which had led Galen far ahead of his age, was neglected, and everything was overwhelmed by the results of various experiments by their nerve-trunks) and held together by the same sheath. On laying bare the roots of the spinal nerves I found that I could cut across the spinal nerves. The experiments of people, which took it, the spinal marrow, without conning the muscles of the back; but that on touching the anterior fasciculus with the point of the knife, the muscles of the back were immediately convulsed. Such were my results for concluding that the cerebellum and cerebrum were a different system, we were in the position, and that every nerve possessing a double trunk. In the 19th century, it was discovered, with the nervous system of the embryo. But Sir Charles Bell in exercise, then power, and sensation, and the regulation of sensation, and the division consequently for the relief of pain was a useless operation.

B. The Medulla Oblongata and the Cerebellum.—Flourens, who was among the earliest students of the use of chloroform, is best known for his experiments on the respiratory centre and the cerebellum. He localized the cells in the medulla that govern the reflex movements of respiration. Afterward the discovery of cardiac and other centres in the neighbourhood of the respiratory centre. He showed also that the cerebellum is concerned with the equilibration and co-ordination of the muscles; that an animal, a few days old, deprived of sensation by the amputation of the spinal cord, was thus, the cerebellum also being removed, lost all power of co-ordination of the movements of the body, and that the experiments made by him and by others, it was found that the semi-circular canals of the internal ears are the terminal organs of the sense of equilibration.

The Vasomotor Nerves.—Claude Bernard, studying the sympathetic nervous system, discovered the vasomotor nerves that...
Indeed, it may truly be said that, alike in anatomy and in physiology, the whole present knowledge of the brain, the spinal cord and the nerves, is in great measure due to the use of experiments on animals. And this knowledge is daily applied to the diagnosis and treatment of diseases of the central nervous system. This is the result of what has happened since 1870; and we are now able to cure epilepsy, we are able to cure abscesses of the brain, and we are able to cure paralysis of the brain, because, as we go along, the same thing prevails. In fact, the first operation on the spinal cord I am responsible for, so that I know the history of the subject. The technique of that operation I owe entirely to experiments on animals. The method of operations and the removal of nerves, Bell's operative treatment of neuralgia was guided entirely by his experiments on animals. Then, we come to the great subject of nerve suture. The neural suture being first carried out by Flourens, who was the first, to my knowledge, to make experiments on animals, to suture nerves together, then, to investigate their function. (Sir Victor Horsley, evidence before the Royal Commission, vol. iv, p. 124).

These notes cover a part only of the results that have been obtained in physiology by the help of experiments on animals. The work of Boyle, Hunter, Lavoisier, Despretz, Regnault and Haldane, on animal heat and on respiration; of Petit, Dupuy, Dupuy and Petit, on chemical and organic agency; of Haller, du Bois-Reymond and Pflüger, on muscular contraction—all these subjects have been left out, and many more. In his evidence before the Royal Commission, Dr. Fritsch stated that he was fully convinced that physiology can progress only by the aid of experiments on living animals. I cannot think of any one step which has been made in physiology without that aid.

B. PATHOLOGY, BACTERIOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS

1. INFLAMMATION.—Pathology is so intimately associated with the work of the microscope that it is a new study, in comparison with physiology. In 1850 the microscope was not in general use. It could not, of course, nor did must have these microscope cover-slip fluids that are essential to modern histology. Bacteriology, again, is even younger than pathology. In 1875 it had hardly begun to exist. For example, in the evidence before the Royal Commission (1875) one witness wrote: 'They were beginning to get an idea of the nature of tubercle.' Anthrax was the first disease studied by the methods of bacteriology; and in his evidence concerning this disease, Sir John Simon speaks of bacteriology as of a discovery wholly new and unexplored. Then, in 1881, Koch's discovery of the bacillus of tuberculosis. But a great advance was made, in days before 1875, by the more general use of the microscope. Every change in the tissues during inflammation—the slowing of the blood stream in the capillary vessels, the escape of the leucocytes through their walls into the surrounding tissues, the stagnation of the blood in the affected part—all these changes were observed in small animals, by means of the microscope, in the mesentery of the frog, the bat's wing, or the tadpole's tail, irradiated by a drop of acid, or a crystal of salt, or a scratch with a needle. It was seen that the movement of the leucocytes and other of these observations the rhythmic contraction of veins, and Waller and Coehn observed the escape of the leucocytes, disperedus, through the walls of the capillaries. From these simple experiments under the microscope arose all our present knowledge of the minute processes of inflammation. Later came the work of Metchnikoff and others, showing the importance of disperedus in relation to the presence of bacteria in the tissues.

2. SUPURATION AND WOUND-INFECTION.—Practically every case of suppuration, wound-infection or blood-poisoning, all abscesses, boils, carbuncles, and all cases of purulent fever, septicaemia, or pyaemia, inflammation, infection, either from without or from within the body by various forms of micro-organisms. The same is true of every case of erysipelas, or cellulitis, or acute gangrene—in short, of the whole multitude of septic diseases. The work done on these microorganisms has led to other pathologies, more complete and more perfect, and the result of this course of study has been to modify the acute and morbid state. It would be hard to find a more striking instance of the familiar truth that science and practice work hand in hand.

Again, the experimental method has thrown a flood of light on the subject of inflammation and suppuration in the central nervous system. For example, if we knew what is called Marchi's method; it was described to the Royal Commission (1906-8) by Dr Head and Sir Victor Horsley. It was found, by Professor Waller, that nerve-fibres, separated from the nerve-cells which nourish them, degenerate in a definite way.

The application of this law experimentally has been of great value. 'Let me,' says Dr Head, 'just take a simple. Imagine a wall covered with greyish-yellow paint. Suppose now that the paint comes off from which of these stems any one branch takes its origin, we could cut one stem, and every leaf arising from it would die, marking our whole course of the divided stem. This is the principle that has been used in tractography of the central nervous system. Gowers, by applying this method, discovered the ascending tracts in the lateral columns of the spinal cord. If a great nerve is divided, the nerve-cells degenerate, be treated with osmic acid (Marchi's method), the degenerate fibres show dark; and in this way their course may be traced at all levels of the cord.
as merely accidental concomitants of putrefaction; but now shown by Pasteur to be its essential cause. The present antiseptic method includes the use of heat; that is to say, the instruments and other accessories of an operation are "sterilized" by heat; and, where heat cannot be applied, as to the patient's skin and that of the surgeon's hands, antiseptics are used. Modern surgery is both antiseptic and aseptic.

3. Anthrax. — The bacillus of anthrax (charbon, malignant pustule, wool-sorter's disease) was the first specific micro-organism discovered. Davaine (1855) observed the petit bédouin in the blood of sheep dead of the disease; and in 1861 Pasteur's observations on lactic-acid fermentation were published. Davaine recognized that the bédouins were not blood-broth, and Koch afterwards succeeded in cultivating the bacillus, and in reproducing the disease in animals by inoculation from these cultures. Pasteur's discovery of preventive inoculation of animals against the disease was communicated to the Agriculture des charbonneux in France, and in May, 1881, he gave his public demonstration at Pouilly-le-Fort. Two months later, at the International Medical Congress in London, he spoke as follows of this discovery:

"...La méthode que je viens de vous exposer pour obtenir des vaccins du charbon était à peine connue qu'elle passait dans la grande pratique pour prévenir l'affection charbonneuse. La France perd chaque année pour une valeur de plus de vingt millions de francs des charbon de boeufs de 30 millions, m'a dit une des personnes autorités de notre Ministère de l'Agriculture; mais des statistiques exactes font encore défaut. On n'a jamais voulu mettre à l'épreuve les résultats qui précèdent par une grande expérience publique, à Pouilly-le-Fort, en raison du mal..."

... Je la résume en quelques mots; 50 moutons furent mis à disposition, nous en vaccinâmes 25, les 25 autres ne subirent rien de particulier. Quinze jours après l'environnement, les 50 moutons furent inoculés par le microbe charbonneux le plus virulent de la ville, 25 vaccins résistèrent; les 25 non-vaccinés moururent, tous charbonneux, en cinquante heures. Depuis lors, dans mon laboratoire, on ne peut pas chercher à préparer assez de vaccin pour tous les besoins des fermiers. En quinze jours, nous avons vacciné dans les départements voisins de Paris près de 20,000 moutons et un grand nombre de boeufs, de vaches et de chevaux.

"...The extent of this preventive vaccination may be judged from the fact that a single dose, given at the Sero-Therapeutic Institute of Milan, in a single year (1897-98) sent out 165,000 tubes of anti-charbon vaccine, enough to inoculate 330,100 sheep and boeufs..."

Vaccination against Charbon (France)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total Number of Moutons Vaccinated</th>
<th>Number Vaccinated according to Reports Received.</th>
<th>After First Vaccination.</th>
<th>After Second Vaccination.</th>
<th>Third Vaccination.</th>
<th>After Third Vaccination.</th>
<th>Mortality.</th>
<th>Total Loss per 1000 Sheep.</th>
<th>Average Loss before Vaccination.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1882</td>
<td>272,040</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>1.08 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1883</td>
<td>268,952</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>1.00 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1884</td>
<td>316,553</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.04 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885</td>
<td>342,045</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>1.04 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1886</td>
<td>318,228</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.04 10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vaccination against Rouget (France)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total Number of Sheep Vaccinated</th>
<th>Number Vaccinated according to Reports Received.</th>
<th>After First Vaccination.</th>
<th>After Second Vaccination.</th>
<th>Third Vaccination.</th>
<th>After Third Vaccination.</th>
<th>Mortality.</th>
<th>Total Loss per 1000 Sheep.</th>
<th>Average Loss before Vaccination.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1886</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1887</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1888</td>
<td>15,958</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6,968</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.84 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889</td>
<td>19,338</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11,277</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.92 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>17,692</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14,992</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.92 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>20,583</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17,556</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.92 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892</td>
<td>37,900</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38,128</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.92 10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 111,437 296 75,455 534 188 345 1067 1.45

4. Tubercle. —Laennec, who in 1816 invented the stethoscope, recognized the fact that tubercle is a specific disease, not a simple degeneration of the tissues. Villenin, in 1865, communicated to the Académie des Sciences that he had proved the disease in rabbits by inoculating them with tuberculous matter; and he appealed to these inoculations—en voici les preuves—to show that "la tuberculose is non contagieuse, mais une maladie qui doit être étudiée dans un agent inoculable: l'inoculation se fait très-bien de l'homme au lapin; La tuberculose appartient donc à la classe des maladies zoonoses. In 1868 Chauveau produced the disease not by inoculation but by admixture of tuberculous matter with the animals' food. In 1880, after a period of some uncertainty and confusion
of doctrines, Cohnheim reaffirmed the infectivity of the disease, and even made the proof of tubercle depend on inoculation alone: "everything is tuberculous that can produce tuberculous disease by inoculation in rabbits, whereas this can never be done by inoculation alone."

In 1881 Koch discovered the bacillus tuberculosis, and, in spite of the tragic failure of his tuberculin in 1889-91, a vast amount of practical advantage has already resulted from it and from the vaccines derived from it.

A number of antitoxic substances of practical use have been developed by the Pasteur Institute in the service of medicine and surgery. The most important of these is the antitoxin against tetanus, in man or in animals, the antitoxin has proved of the very utmost value. This has been shown in striking ways in America. One of the worst naturally occurring diseases is tetanus. The Pasteur Institute has produced a tetanus antitoxin for use in Europe. The discovery of the bacillus and the antitoxin was the result of an acute scientific endeavor, this rule was not followed in this case. The antitoxin was first used in 1885.

The American Medical Association has compiled statistics of Fourth of July fatalities for the past six years. In 1903, the Fourth of July tetanus cases numbered 19, of which 15 were due to the use of antitoxin in all cases of blank-cartridge and common crack wounding.

As a result of this campaign of prophylaxis by antitoxin injections, from 416 cases of tetanus in 1903, the number dropped to 100 cases in 1904, 104 cases in 1905, 89 cases in 1906, 73 cases in 1907 and 55 cases in 1908. This reduction in the number of tetanus cases took place while the number of accidents remained practically the same. In 1906, the number of tetanus cases in the United States other than tetanus was steadily rising from 60 in 1903 to 108 in 1908. It is therefore evident that the saving of at least 300 lives from tetanus has been accomplished each year through the prophylactic use of antitoxin. The Fourth of July is thus said to have played a part in the work of the American Medical Association, particularly in the case of tetanus.

7. Rabies (hydrophobia).—The date of the first case treated by Pasteur's preventive method—Joseph Meister, an Austrian shepherd—was July 1885.

The existence of a specific micro-organism of rabies was a matter of inference. The incubation period of the disease is so variable that no preventive treatment was possible unless the incubation period had been accurately determined. The saliva of a rabid animal, introduced under the skin of animals, sometimes failed; and if it succeeded, the incubation period of the disease was thus induced. An emulsion was used not saliva, but an emulsion of the brain or the spinal cord, because the central nervous system is the chief seat of the poison. But this emulsion, introduced under the skin, was also uncertain in amount and gave no practically useful treatment since the poison has a selective action on the nerve cells of the central nervous system, and a sort of natural affinity with them, it must be introduced directly into them, where it will have its proper environment; the emulsion must be put under the skin, but under the dura mater (the membrane enveloping the brain). These subcutaneous inoculations were the turning-point of his work. By transposing the poison through a series of rabbits, by subcutaneous inoculation of each rabbit with a minute quantity of nerve tissue from the rabbit that had died before it, he was able to intensify the poison, to shorten its period of incubation, and to fix this period at six days. This period was determined by the time they began to die in the experiment, and the poison was thus entirely expelled from the system by a specific flagellate organism in superficial soil. It is said to be present in almost all rich garden soils, and that the presence of horse-dung favours its occurrence. There seems to be no doubt that the disease is produced by this organism. In 1890, the work of discovering and isolating the bacillus was full of difficulty. Nicolière, starting from the fact that the disease usually comes from wounds or scratches contaminated with earth, studied the saliva of rabbits with garden mould. He produced the disease, and succeeded in finding and culturing the bacillus, but failed to obtain an animal death from it. He termed the bacillus bacillus anthracis in 1890. The bacillus was then studied by the various French rabies institutes, and a number of observations were made. It has been proved that the infection tends to remain in the blood their chemical products, and that these have a selective action, like strychnine, on the cells of the central nervous system. Therefore the rule that the wounded tissues should be at once excised, and that the wound should be covered with a dressing that will be conducive to healing, is likely to be incorrect. Before Nicolière, while men were still free to believe that tetanus was the result of an acute ascending neuritis, this rule was neither enforced nor explained.

Nicolière, who was the first to apply antitoxin in the treatment of tetanus, in man or in animals, the antitoxin has proved of the very utmost value. This has been shown in striking ways in America. One of the worst naturally occurring diseases is tetanus. The Pasteur Institute has produced a tetanus antitoxin for use in Europe. The discovery of the bacillus and the antitoxin was the result of an acute scientific endeavor, this rule was not followed in this case. The antitoxin was first used in 1885.
to more active doses, guarded each day by the dose of the day before till he has manufactured within himself enough antitoxin to make him proof against any outbreak of the disease. (See HYDROPHOBIA.)

VIVISECTION. The specific organism of Asiatic cholera, the "comma-bacillus," was discovered by Koch in 1883; but such a multitude of difficulties arose over it that it was not universally recognized as the real cause of the disease before 1892, the year of the Bubonic Plague. The discovery of the Bacillus varius was the work of many men, but especially of Halfline, one of Pasteur's pupils. Ferran's earlier inoculations in Spain (1885) were a failure. Halfline's first inoculations were made in 1893. At that time, rabbits bled, rabbits vaccinated by Eberth, rabbits inoculated by von Tschudi, and from Agra went to many other cities of India. Altogether, in twenty-eight months (April 1893–July 1895) no less than 2,121 persons were inoculated, and over 225,950,000 cases; thirteen, causes; these, now, are the English-speaking men. While taking the experiment, Halfline says: "without having to record a single instance of mishap or accident of any kind produced by our vaccines." (See CHOLERA.)

10. Typhoid Fever.—The Bacillus typhosus was discovered by Klebs, Elzerth and Koch in 1880–81. The first protective inoculations in England were made when a regiment of 600 left Egypt for Malta in 1885. Thirty-two vaccinated and 29 unvaccinated. Later, in 1896, Byfield and Surgeon-Major Senple; 16 men vaccinated, and 2 others offered themselves as subjects. The first use of the vaccine during an actual outbreak of typhoid was in October 1897 at the Kent County Asylum: "All the medical staff and a number of attendants accepted the offer. Not one of those vaccinated—84 in number—contracted typhoid fever; while of those unvaccinated, and living under similar conditions, 16 were attacked. This is a significant fact, though it should in fairness be stated that the water was boiled after a certain date, and other precautions were taken, so that the vaccine cannot be said to be altogether responsible for the immunity." Still, the figures were admirable. (Lancet, March 1898). In 1899 Wright vaccinated against typhoid more than 3,000 of the Indian army, at Bangalore, Rawal Findi and Lucknow. Government has now sanctioned voluntary inoculation and the army has given public notice that a volunteer will be allowed to enter the regiment for inoculation. (Lancet, September 28, 1899). The regiment reached India, September 28. A month later, typhoid fever broke out; and during the following few months 63 cases were observed in the regiment. With but two exceptions, the disease attacked only the men who had not been inoculated, and both of these exceptions were men who had refused a second inoculation. Careful experiments were made with the second battalion of Royal Fusiliers in India in 1905 and 1906. The average strength of this regiment was 948 men. During the two years, 284 were inoculated with Wright's anti-typhoid vaccine, and 664 remained unvaccinated. Thirty-two of these were men who had not been inoculated; 9 had been inoculated. Five of the un inoculated died; none of the inoculated. Another Indian regiment, the 17th Lancers, in 1905, 1906 and 1907 inoculated about one-third of its men. During the three years it had 293 cases of typhoid fever. There were 44 deaths, with not a single death of an inoculated man. During the first half of 1908, in the largest seven Indian stations where the regiment was quartered, out of an average strength of 2,237 inoculated for inoculation. Typhoid developed in 2% of the un inoculated, and in less than 1% of the inoculated men. For fourteen months after the vaccination, no one died among the un inoculated and 1% was among the inoculated men. In the United States army, a medical board has strongly recommended anti-typhoid vaccinations, and vaccination is now effectually carried on in the army, and particularly received inoculation. The German army has adopted the same means of prophylaxis, and is "pushing it vigorously." (Waltlasse, loc. cit.).

"Widal's reaction" for the early diagnosis of the disease—a matter of the very highest practical importance. A drop of blood from the finger of a patient suspected to be suffering from typhoid fever, is diluted fifty or more times, that the perfect delicacy of the test may be secured. This drop is mixed with a nutrient fluid containing living bacilli of typhoid, and a drop of this mixture is observed under the microscope. The motility of the bacilli is instantaneous or very quickly arrested, and in a few minutes the motility is completely destroyed. The motility is also made visible to the naked eye by the subsidence of the agglutinated bacilli to the bottom of the containing vessel. The amazing delicacy of the Widal test is a part of the wonder. Its power of making a diagnosis after a recovery, a fiftyfold wonder, because it is obtained by cause clumping; it has even been obtained from an infant whose mother had typhoid shortly before the child was born. A drop of blood from a recovery is also taken, and post to be tested a hundred miles away, and the answer telegraphed back.

11. Malta Fever (Mediterranean fever).—The Micrococcus Maltae. Widal discovered in 1887 by Sir David Bruce. The disease is an epidemic fever, and preserving an immunizing serum was done at Netley Hospital. In this fever, as in typhoid and some others, Widal's disease from typhoid is, of course, a highly important practical matter. It is exceedingly difficult in the early stages." (Manson). Even in a dilution of 1 in 1000, the blood of Malta fever can give the typical reaction with the Widal's antitoxin. The presence of the bacillus of Malta fever and the disease that results from its presence has been identified as the disease that is an epidemic disease in Malta. The disease has been produced by the discovery of a horse for the preparation of serum-protective against Malta fever; and his blood, when examined, had a typical reaction with the Widal's antitoxin. The disease was only known in Malta before the Widal's disease has been identified in Malta fever for the last eight months, was immediately bled, and we are informed that the patient had two injections, each of 30 cub. cm. of the serum. He is doing well, and it is hoped that the attack has been cut short. About 50 cases of the fever, by April 1899, had been treated at Netley. The Lancet, April 15, 1899, says that the treatment was "with good success." When the drug treatment failed, the antitoxin treatment had been generally adopted, and it has now proved that the usual source of infection with Malta fever is the drinking of the milk of infected goats; thus, by the avoidance of infected milk, the fever may be prevented: and prevention is better than cure. In 1904 a commission was sent out to Malta by the Royal Society, at the request of our government, to discover how the fever is conveyed to man. They found that it is not conveyed by air, or by drinking-water, or by pollution of sewage, or by contact; nor are its germs carried, like those of malaria, yellow fever and sleeping sickness, on dust or insects. They found that it might be conveyed in milk, and before Bruce examined the milk-goats, since goats' milk is universally drunk in Malta. The goats looked healthy enough, but it was found that the blood of 50% of them gave the Widal reaction, and that their milk produced the reaction in about one-third of the cases. The milk from one of them, even for one day, almost invariably got the disease. On the 1st of July 1906, a special order was issued forbidding the supply of goats' milk to our garrisons. The year before this order was issued, milk had caused 116 cases, up to the 1st of July, there were 123 cases. During the rest of the year, including the three worst months for the fever, there were 40 cases. In 1907 there were 11 cases; in 1908 there were 5 cases; in 1909 there was 1 case; in 1910, by latest accounts, none.

12. Epidemic Meningitis.—The history of the serum treatment of epidemic meningitis affords an admirable example of the place of experiment on animals in the advancement of medical practice. This form of meningitis is one of the worst ways in which a man can die. Dr. Robb, who had charge of the Belfast fever hospitals in the early days of the Great Plague, found that 71 out of 200 cases of the disease died. The plague consumed its victims, and the public health authorities cannot prevent its sudden appearance in a town. "Many of those attacked," says Dr. Robb, "died within a few hours of the onset, and that after terrible suffering; while many of those who survived the acute attack lingered on for weeks and months, under the most terrific pain, and with suffering of the most hideous kind. Again, many of those who did survive were left permanently maimed." That is the usual picture of the disease when it is left to itself. By means of inoculation experiments, Dr. Flekner and Dr. Jobling, of the Rockefeller Institute, proved that the disease is due to a particular kind of germ, diplococcus intracellularis. They obtained this germ in a pure form, and of this they cultivated the germs all by themselves, in test tubes, apart from all other kinds of germs; and they were able to reproduce the disease in monkeys by injecting under the skin a minute quantity of this pure culture of the germs. It may be noted
that the disease in monkeys is less violent and less painful than it is in man. By the help of these experiments, Flexner and Jobling were able to prepare a serum for the treatment of the disease, in the same way as the serum is prepared which has been such a blessing to the world in cases of diphtheria. This serum for the treatment of epidemic meningitis was first used in the spring of 1907.

The contrast between cases without serum treatment and cases with serum treatment is very plain. We may first give the records before the use of the serum. Of 4000 cases in New York in 1904, 75 % died; Baker reports from Galveston (1906) 77.4 % mortality; Chalmers reports from Glasgow (1907) 998 cases with 683 deaths, giving 64.4 % mortality; Ballie reports in Belfast (1907) 623 cases with 493 deaths, giving 79.2 % mortality; Ker reports that in the Edinburgh epidemic the mortality was 78 % mortality; Robertson reports from Leith (1907) 62 cases with 74.4 % mortality; Turnour reports from the Transvaal 200 cases with 74 % mortality. Amongst patients treated in hospitals the death-rate was lower. Of 200 cases in Ban Hill Hospital, Glasgow, 79.2 % died; of 108 cases in Edinburgh Fever Hospital, 80.5 % died; of 275 cases in Belfast Fever Hospital, 72.3 % died; and Dunn reports that in the Boston Children's Hospital, during the eight years 1899-1907, the mortality varied from 69 % to 80 %. Contrast with these the results in cases treated with Flexner's and Jobling's Serum:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital</th>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Died</th>
<th>Mortality per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City Hospital, Cincinnati</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr Dana</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island Hospital</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakeside Hospital, Cleveland</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edinburg Fever Hospital</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mount Sinai Hospital (Children)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Hospital, Philadelphia</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belfast Fever Hospital</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures speak for themselves. Similar results have been obtained with similar treatment in France and Germany. From these figures, says Dr Robb, "it will be seen that the death-rate in cases not treated with serum averaged some 75%. This has been reduced to about 15% in the cases treated from every hospital and in many instances much below that figure."

"My own experience has been that of 275 cases under my care in hospital, before the use of the serum was commenced, 72.3 % died; while of the 98 cases treated with serum 29.6 % died. No selection of cases was made: every case sent into hospital since September 1907 has been treated in this way. No change in the severity of the attack was observed; in the three months immediately before the serum arrived with us 45 cases came under treatment, of whom 37, or 82.6% died; and in the first four months after we began its use in hospital 30 cases were treated, of whom 8 died, a mortality of 26.6 %; while of the 36 cases treated with the serum in the same period, only 1 died, or a mortality of 2.8 %."

Great as this change in the death-rate has been, it is not more striking than the results of the patients in the other hospitals, for it was common to have cases running on into weeks and even months, such cases are no longer met with" (R. D. S. pamphlet, 1905).

13. Malaria.—Laveran, in 1880, discovered the Plasmodium malaris, an amoeboid organism, in the blood of malarial patients. In 1884 Manson took, as a working theory of malaria, the old belief that the mosquito is the intermediate host of the parasite. In 1885 came MacCulm's observations on an allied organism, Balantidium. In 1887, after two years' work, Ross found bodies, pigmented like the Plasmodium, in the outer coat of the stomach of the grey or "apple-winged" mosquito, after it had been fed on malarial blood. In February 1898 he started work in Calcutta: "Arriving sick into hospital, and not treated with the serum, over 80 % died. Great as this change in the death-rate has been, it is not more striking than the results of the patients in the other hospitals, for it was common to have cases running on into weeks and even months, such cases are no longer met with" (R. D. S. pamphlet, 1905).

14. Yellow Fever.—A special mosquito (Stegomyia) conveys yellow fever from man to man. The germ, like the germ of rabies, has not yet been made visible under the microscope. It is probably a certain minute spiral bacillus in the blood. The body of the mosquito told off for that purpose. The earlier experiments (1819-20) made on themselves by Chervin, Potter, Firth and others were truly heroic, but proved nothing. Finlay (1880-81) experimented with living mosquitoes and died; and certainly proved the transmissibility of the fever through mosquitoes. Sanarelli (1885) prepared an immunizing serum which gave good results; but it was reserved for the future, when a specific cause of the fever, having found it in cases of the fever, is yet not accepted by bacteriologists as specific. But the great work, which proved to the world the way of infection of yellow fever, was done by the Commission of the United States, and in the sinking of the Savannah, and certainly proved the transmissibility of the fever through mosquitoes. Sanarelli (1885) prepared an immunizing serum which gave good results; but it was reserved for the future, when a specific cause of the fever, having found it in cases of the fever, is yet not accepted by bacteriologists as specific.

15. Sleeping-Sickness.—Experiments on animals have proved that sleeping-sickness is due to specific germs carried by tse-tse flies from man to man. By means taken to prevent this way of infection, leprosy in human lives have been saved. Among the study of the gland for disease (gole) had been followed by symptoms such as Gull and Ord had described. In 1883 Horsley, by removal of the thyroid gland of monkeys, produced in them a chronic state characterized by a certain disease of the skin and the leprosy. In 1888 the Clinical Society of London
VIZAGAPATAM

published an exhaustive report, of 215 pages, on 115 cases of the disease, giving all historical, clinical, pathological, chemical and experimental facts; but out of 215 pages there is but half a page about treatment, of the useless old-fashioned sort. In 1890 Horsley published the first good account of the thyroid gland from a killed animal should be transplanted beneath the skin of cases of myxoedema: "The justification of this procedure rested on the remarkable experiments of Schill and von Eisselberg. I only became acquainted with the experiments of Mr. Bichat..."

and the interval was... It had done forestalled in 1889 by Dr. Bircher in Aarau. Kocher had tried to do the same thing in 1883, but the graft was soon absorbed; but each of the second grafts took it again in five cases, and one greatly improved.

In 1893 Neumann published his "Note on the Treatment of Myxoedema by Hypodermic Injections of an Extract of the Thyroid Gland of a Sheep." Later, the gland was administered in food. At present, the thyroid glands of the killed rabbit are used. We could not have a better example how experiments on animals are needed for the advancement of medicine. Now, with little bottles of tablets, men and women are restored to health who had become degenerate in body and mind, disfigured and deformed. The same treatment has given back mental and bodily growth to countless cases of sporadic cretinism. Moreover, the action of the thyroid gland has been made known, as the facts of "internal secretion" have been in part elucidated. (Claude Bernard, speaking of the thyroid, the thymus and the suprarenal capsules, said: "We know absolutely nothing about the functions of these organs; we have not so much as the least imaginable idea how they may possibly because experiments have told us nothing about them, and anatomy, left to itself, is absolutely silent on the subject.")

18. The Action of Drugs.—Even in the 18th century medicine was becoming more and more a science. The great superscription of 1721 "Pharmacopoeia" contains substances that were the regular stock-in-trade of witchcraft. Long after 1721 neither clinical observation, nor anything that might be said about a reasonable understanding of the action of drugs: it was the physicians who configured the world, more than the physicians, who worked the thing out: Bichat, Magendie, Claude Bernard. Magendie's study of upas and strychnine, Bernard's study of curare and digitalis, revealed the selective action of drugs: the direct influence of strychnine on the central nerve-cells, of curare on the terminal filaments of motor nerves. These discoveries may be given how experiments on animals have elucidated the action of drugs, and the list might be made longer: atoxin, belladonna, chloride of calcium, cocaine, chloral, ergot, morphia, salicylic acid, strophantus, the chief diuretics, the chief diaphoretics—all these and many more have been studied to this purpose by this method; but it must suffice to quote here (1) Sir Thomas Fraser's account of digitalis, and (2) Sir Thomas Lauder Brunton's account of nitrate of amyl.

19. Digitalis was introduced as a remedy for dropsy; and on the applications which were made of it for the treatment of that disease, a slovenly action on the cardiac movements was observed, which led to the relaxing a reputation of a cardiac sedative. . . . It was not until the experiments of Spallanzani, in 1770, in poison, in the first instance by Claude Bernard, and subsequently by Dubowskii, Pelikan, Meyer, Böhm and Schmielebe, that the action of digitalis upon the heart was discovered. It was shown that the effects upon the circulation were not in any exact sense sedative, but, on the contrary, stimulant and tonic, rendering the action of the heart more powerful, and increasing the force of the venous vessels. All these indications of digitalis disease were thereby revolutionized, and at the same time rendered more exact; and the striking benefits which are now afforded by the use of this substance in most (cardiac) diseases were made available to humanity.

2. In the spring of 1895 I had opportunities of constantly observing a patient who suffered from angina pectoris, and of obtaining from him numerous sphygmographic tracings both during the attack and during the interval. These showed that during the attack the pulse became quicker, the blood-pressure rose and the arteries contracted. . . . It occurred to me that if it was possible to diminish the tension, instead of increasing it, the pain would be removed. I knew from unpublished experiments on animals by Dr. A. Gamgee that nitrate of amyl had this power, and therefore tried it on the patient. My expectations were perfectly answered.

19. Snake Venom.—Sewall (1878) showed that animals could be immunized, by repeated injection of small doses of rattlesnake's venom, against the venom of the same species. Dr. A. Fletcher recently reported experiments on the immunity of animals against cobra venom: afterward Fraser, Calmette and many others worked at the subject. Fraser's work on the anti- cobra serum of sheep and other animals is of the very highest interest and value, both in physiology and in therapy. Canada's work is an admirable instance of the delicacy and accuracy of the experimental method. The different venoms were measured in milligrams, the animals inoculated with bodies-weights of the animals inoculated; but of course this estimate of virulence was checked according to the susceptibility of the animals; guinea-pigs, rabbits and especially rats being more susceptible than dogs.

"The following table gives the relative toxicity, for 1 kilogramme of rabbit, of the different venoms that I have tested":

| Venom of Naja | 0.25 milligramme per kilogramme of rabbit kills 4000 kilogrammes of rabbit: activity 1,000,000. |
| 1. Venom of Naja | 0.25 milligramme per kilogramme of rabbit kills 4000 kilogrammes of rabbit: activity 1,000,000. |
| 2. Venom of Hopsiphasus | 0.25 milligramme per kilogramme of rabbit kills 3500 kilogrammes of rabbit: activity 700,000. |
| 3. Venom of Pseudoscidae | 0.25 milligramme per kilogramme of rabbit kills 3000 kilogrammes of rabbit: activity 600,000. |
| 4. Venom of Pseudoscidae | 0.25 milligramme per kilogramme of rabbit kills 2500 kilogrammes of rabbit: activity 500,000. |

By experiments in vitro Calmette studied the influence of heat on these venoms. Whether one could cool off and, working by various methods, was able to immunize animals: "I have got to immunizing rabbits against doses of venom that are truly colossal. I have several, vaccinated more than a year, and that have not succumbed to venom doses of 25 to 50 milligrammes of venom of Naja tripudians at once. Five drops of serum from these rabbits wholly neutralize in vitro the toxicity of one milligramme of Naja venom. . . . It is not even necessary that the serum should come from an animal vaccinated against the same sort of venom as that in the mixture. The serum of a rabbit immunized against the venom of the cobra or the vipers acts differently on all the venoms that I have tested."

In 1895 he prepared a curative serum: "If you if you inoculate a rabbit with such a dose of venom as kills the control-animal in a few hours; and then, an hour after injecting the venom, inject lender that skin of the abdomen four to five cubic centimetres of serum, recovery is the rule. When you interfere later than this, the results are uncertain; and out of all my experiments the death at an hour and a half is the most that I have been able to reach."

In 1896 four successful cases were reported in the British Medical Journal. In 1896 Calmette reports:—

sir: "That was the use of my antivenous serum was introduced in India, in Algeria, in Egypt, on the West Coast of Africa, in America, in the West Indies, Antilles, &c. It has been very often used for men and domestic animals (dogs, horses, oxen), and even to none of those that have been received an injection of serum have succumbed. A great number of observations have been communicated to me, and not one of them refers to a case of failure" (Brit. Med. Journ., May 14, 1896; see also Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, April 7, 1896).

It is of course impossible that "antivenom" should be always at hand, or that it should bring about any great decrease in the higher degree of death, that is involved in the snake, but in India alone are annually; but at least something has been accomplished with it.

The account given above of the chief discoveries that have been made by the help of experiments on animals, in physiology, pathology, bacteriology and therapeutics, might easily have been lengthened if we added to it other methods of treatment that one less, but yet over something, to these experiments. Nevertheless, the facts quoted in this article are sufficient to indicate the great debt that medicine owes to the employment of vivisection.

VIZAGAPATAM, a town and district of British India, in the Madras presidency. The town stretches 3 m. along the coast, and has a station on a short branch of the East Coast railway, 484 m. N.E. of Madras Pop. (1901) 40,892. It lies on a small bay, the south extremity of which is bounded by a promontory known as the Dolphin's Nose, and its northern extremity by the suburb of Waltair. The town or fort, as it is called, is separated from the Dolphin's Nose by a small river, which forms a bar which it enters the sea, but is passable for vessels of 300 tons during spring tides. An English factory was established here early in the 17th century, which was captured by the French in 1757, but shortly afterwards recovered. The town owes much to the munificence of the neighbouring raja of Vizianagram. A water supply has been provided at a cost of £50,000. Waltair is the European quarter. There is a considerable Roman Catholic population and a branch of the London Mission. The exports by sea include manganese ore, rice and sugar. Some weaving and bleaching is carried on, and there is a specialty of ornamental boxes, &c., carved out of sandalwood, horn, ivory, porcupine quills and silver.

The District of VIZAGAPATAM has an area of 17,722 sq. m., being one of the largest districts in India. It is a picturesque and hilly country, but for the most part unhealthy. The surface is generally undulating, rising towards the interior, and crossed by streams, which are dry except during the rainy season. The main portion is occupied by the Eastern Ghats. The slopes of these mountains are clothed with luxuriant
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vegetation, amid which rise many tall forest trees, while the bamboo grows profusely in the valleys. The drainage on the east is carried by numerous streams direct to the sea, and that to the west flows into the Godavari through the Indravati or through the Sabari and Siller rivers. To the west of the range is situated the greater portion of the extensive zamindari of Jaipur, which is for the most part very hilly and jungly. In the extreme north a remarkable mass of hills, called the Nimghir, rise to a height of 900 ft. The plain along the Bay of Bengal is a vast sheet of cultivation, green with rice fields and greens of sugar-cane and tobacco, and great varieties of climate in the district. Along the coast the air is soft and relaxing, the prevailing winds being south-easterly. The average annual rainfall at Vizagapatam exceeds 40 in. Pop. (1901) 2,033,650, showing an increase of 4.7% in the decade. The principal crops are rice, millets, pulses and oil-seeds, with some sugar-cane, cotton and tobacco. The coast portion of the district is traversed throughout by the East Coast railway, opened from Madras to Calcutta in 1904; and a line through the hills from Vizianagram to Raipur in the Central Provinces has been sanctioned. The chief seaports are Bimilipatam and Vizagapatam.

On the dissolution of the Mogul empire Vizagapatam formed part of the territory known as the Northern Circars, which were ceded to the East India Company by treaties in 1765 and 1766. It was long before British authority was established over the hilly tract inland, inhabited by aboriginal tribes, and still administered under a peculiar system, which vests in the collector the powers of a political agent. This tract, forming more than two-thirds of the whole district, is known as the Agency.

The Vizagapatam District Gazetteer (Madras, 1907).

VIZETELLY, HENRY (1820-1894), English publisher, was born in London on the 30th of July 1820, the son of a printer. He was early apprenticed as a wood engraver, and one of his first blocks was a portrait of "Old Parr." Encouraged by the success of the Illustrated London News, Vizetelly in 1843, with his brother James Thomas Vizetelly (1817-1897) and Andrew Spottiswoode (1756-1860), started the Pictorial Times, which was published successfully for several years. In 1853, in partnership with Boyne, he started a threepenny paper called the Illustrated News, which four years later was merged in the Penny Illustrated Paper. In 1865 Vizetelly became Paris correspondent for the Illustrated London News. During the years he remained in Paris he published several books—Paris in Peril (1852), The Story of the Diamond Necklace (1867) and a free translation of Topin's Man in the Iron Mask. In 1872 he was transferred to Berlin; where he wrote Berlin under the New Empire (1879). In 1887 he established a publishing house in London, issuing numerous translations of French and Russian authors. In 1888 he was prosecuted for publishing a translation of Zola's La Terre, and was fined £100 and when he reissued Zola's works in 1889 he was again prosecuted, fined £500 and imprisoned for three months. In 1893 he wrote a volume of autobiographical reminiscences called Glances Back through Seventy Years, a graphic picture of literary Bohemia in Paris and London between 1840 and 1870. He died on the 1st of January 1894. His younger brother, Frank Vizetelly (1830-1883), was a clever artist and journalist; he went to Egypt as war correspondent for the Illustrated London News and was never heard of after the massacre of Hicks Pasha's army in Kordofan.

VIZIADURG, Vijnadurg or Gheria, a port on the W. coast of India in Ratnagiri district, Bombay, 770 m. S. of Bombay city. Pop. (1901) 2,339. It is one of the best harbours on the west coast, being without any bar, and may be entered in all weathers; even to large ships it affords safe shelter during the south-west monsoon. At the beginning of the 18th century the pirate chief Angria made Vizadurdur the capital of a territory stretching for 150 m. along the coast and from 30 to 60 m. inland. The fort was taken by Admiral Watson and Captain Wager in 1756.

VIZIANAGRAM, a town of British India, in the Vizagapatam district of Madras, 17 m. from the seaport of Bimilipatam, on the East Coast railway, 522 m. N.E. of Madras. Pop. (1901) 37,270. It has a small military cantonment. It contains the residence of a zamindar of the same name, who ranks as the first Hindu nobleman of Madras. His estate covers about 3,000 sq. m., with a population of 900,000. The estimated income is £180,000, paying a permanent land revenue of £34,000. The town possesses many fine buildings, entirely supported by the raja. It has a college and two high schools.

The ruling family, which claims descent from a high official at the court of Golconda, established itself in Vizagapatam in the 17th century. In 1754 Vizianarama Raz made an alliance with the French, but his son, on succeeding, fell out with them, captured Vizagapatam from them and ceded it to the British in 1758. The next raja, another Vizianaram, was entirely under the influence of his half-brother Sita Ram, whose power, however, became so great a menace that he was forced to retire in 1793. A period of decay now set in. The raja was incompetent, and his estate having been sequestered for debt, revolted and was defeated and killed in 1794. The next raja, Narayana Babu, was no more successful, and his estate had been long under the management of the British government when he died in 1845. Vizianarama Gajapati Raz, who succeeded him and took over full powers in 1852, was a man of ability, and received the titles of maharaja and K.C.S.I.; as also was his son, the maharaja Ananda Raz, G.C.I.E. He died in 1897, and was succeeded by Raja Pusapati Vizianarama Gajapati Raz, during whose minority (till 1904) the estate was again under government administration.

VIZIER, more correctly VIZIR (Arabic Wazir), literally "burden-bearer" or "helper," originally the chief minister or representative of the Abbasid caliphs. The office of vizier, which spread from the Arabs to the Persians, Turks, Mongols, and other Oriental peoples, arose under the first Abbasid caliphs (see MAHOMMEDAN INSTITUTIONS, and CALIPHATE, C § 1) and took shape during its tenure by the Barmecides (q.v.). The vizier stood between sovereign and subjects, representing the former in all matters touching the latter. This withdrawal of the head of the state from direct contact with his people was unknown to the Omayyads, and was certainly an imitation of Persian usage; it has even been plausibly conjectured that the name is but the Arabic adaptation of a Persian title. In modern usage the term is used in the East generally for any important official under the sovereign.

VIZZOLA TICIINO, a village of Lombardy, Italy, in the province of Milan, 6 m. W. of Gallarate and 31 m. N.W. of Milan, 725 ft. above sea-level. Pop. (1901) 469. It is situated on the Ticino, and is remarkable as having one of the largest electric works in Europe, worked by water-power from the Ticino brought by a canal 41 m. long, constructed in 1889-91 by the Societa Lombarda per Distribuzione di Energia Elettrica. Gallarate, Sesto Calendone, Sarzano and other neighbouring places are supplied from here with electricity.

VLAARDINGEN, a river port of Holland, in the province of South Holland, on the Maas, 6 m. by rail W. of Rotterdam. Pop. 17,000. A very old town and the seat of a former marquavate belonging to the counts of Holland. Vlaardingen is now chiefly important as the centre of the great herring and cod fisheries of the North Sea. Its only ornaments are the old market-place and the gardens formed by the purchase in 1825.
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of a seat called the Hof. The chief industries are those connected with the large fishing trade.

VLACHS. The Vlachs (Vlakh, Wallach) or Ruman race constitutes a distinct division of the Latin family of peoples, widely disseminated throughout south-eastern Europe, both north and south of the Danube, and extending sporadically from the Russian river Bug to the Adriatic. The total numbers of the Vlachs may be estimated at 10,000,000 or 17,000,000. North of the Danube, 5,400,000 dwell in Rumania; 1,250,000 are settled in Transylvania, where they constitute a large majority of the population; and there are others in Wallachia and Moldavia, and in other Hungarian districts west and north of Transylvania. Close upon 1,000,000 inhabit Bessarabia and the adjoining parts of south Russia, and about 230,000 are in the Austrian province of Bukovina. South of the Danube, about 500,000 are scattered over northern Greece and European Turkey, under the name of Kutzovo-Vlachs, Tzintzars or Aromani. In Servia this element is preponderant in the Timok valley, while in Istria it is represented by the Cici, at present largely Slavonized, as are now entirely the kindred Morlachs of Dalmatia. Since, however, the Vlachs have made a partial adaptation to the climate and race of the surrounding peoples, and have intermarried with them, the points of similarity between them and the Slavonic races are so closely connected, the figures given above can only be regarded as approximately accurate; and some writers place the total of the Vlachs as low as 9,000,000. It is noteworthy that the Romans north of the Danube continually gain ground at the expense of their neighbours; and even the long successful Greek propaganda among the Kutzovo-Vlachs were checked after 1865 by the labours of Apostolou Margaritis and other nationalists.

A detailed account of the physical, mental and moral characteristics of the Vlach race, its modern civilization and their historical development, will be found under the headings RUMANIA and MACEDONIA.

All divisions of the race prefer to style themselves Romani, Romeni, Rumeni or Aromani; and it is from the native pronunciation of this name that we have the equivalent expression Ruman, a word which must by no means be confined to that part of the Vlach race inhabiting the present kingdom of Rumania.

The name "Vlachs," applied to the Romans by their neighbours but never adopted by themselves, appears under many spellings and forms, the Slavs saying Volach or Wolach, the Greeks Vlachoi, the Magyars Olóh, and the Turks, at a later date, Ilbök. In its origin identical with the English Weolh or Welsh, it represents a Slavonic adaptation of a generic term applied by the Teutonic races to all Roman provincials during the 4th and 5th centuries. The Slavs, at least in their principal extent, first knew the Roman empire through a Teutonic medium, and adopted their term Volokh from the Ostro-Gothic equivalent of the Anglo-Saxon Wealh. It thus finds its analogies in the German name for Italy—Welschland (Wälschland), in the Walloons of the Low Countries and the Waldegg of Tirol. An early instance of its application to the Roman population of the Eastern empire is found (c. 550-600) in the Traveller's Song, where, in a passage which in all probability connects itself with the early trade-route between the Baltic staple of Wollin and Byzantium, the gleeman speaks of Caesar's realm as Walairic, "Welschry." In verse 140 he speaks of the Rum-ulvas, and it is to be observed that Rum is one of the words by which the Vlachs of eastern Europe still know themselves.

The Vlachs claim to be a Latin race in the same sense as the Spanish or Italians—Latin by language and culture, and, in a smaller degree, by descent. Despite the long predominance of Greek, Slavonic and Turkish influence, there is no valid objection to this claim, which is now generally accepted by competent ethnologists.

The language of the Vlachs is Latin in structure and to a great extent in vocabulary; their features and stature would not render them conspicuous as foreigners in south Italy; and that their ancestors were Roman provincials is attested not only by the names "Vlach" and "Ruman" but also by popular and literary tradition. In their customs and folk-lore both Latin and Slavonic traditions assert themselves. Of their Roman traditions the Trojan saga, the celebration of the Latin festivals of the Rosalia and Kalendae, the belief in the striga (witch), the names of the months and days of the week, may be taken as typical examples. Some Roman words connected with the Christian religion, like biserica (basilica) = a church, botes = botez, duminita = Sunday, prot (presbytery) = priest, point to a continuous tradition of the Illyrian church, though most of their ecclesiastical terms, like their liturgy and their church architecture, are of Slavonic origin. In most parts of the country, where political organization the Slavonic element is also preponderant, though there are words like imprimat = imperator, and domn = dominus, which point to the old stock. Many words relating to kinship are also Latin, some, like vitrigr (vitrigro) = father-in-law, being alone preserved by this branch of the Romance family. But if the Latin descent of the Vlachs may be regarded as proven, it is far less easy to determine their place of origin and to trace their early migrations.

The centre of gravity of the Vlach or Ruman race is at present undoubtedly the Danube in the almost circular territory between the Danube, the Theiss, and the San, and corresponds roughly with the Roman province of Dacia, formed by Trajan in A.D. 106. From this circumstance the popular idea has arisen that the race itself represents the descendants of the Romanized population of Trajan's Dacia, which was assumed to have maintained an unbroken existence in Walachia, Transylvania and the neighbour provinces, beneath the dominion of a succession of invaders. The Vlachs of Pindus, and the southern region generally, were, on this hypothesis, to be regarded as later immigrants from the lands north of the Danube. In 1871, E. R. Roessler published at Leipzig, in a collective form, a series of essays entitled Romanische Studien, in which he absolutely denied the claim of the Rumanian and Transylvanian Vlachs to be regarded as autochthonous Dacians. He laid stress on the statements of Vopscus and others as implying the total withdrawal of the Roman provincials from Trajan's Dacia by Aurelian, in A.D. 272, and on the non-mention by historians of a Latin population in the lands on the left bank of the lower Danube, during their successive occupation by Goths, Huns, and Avars by J. L. P. Riesius, Professor at Kuffel, and other writers. He found the first trace of a Roman settlement north of the Danube in a Transylvanian diploma of 1222. Roessler's thesis has been generally regarded as an entirely new departure in critical ethnography. As a matter of fact, his conclusions had to a great extent been already anticipated by F. J. Sulzer in his Geschichte des Transsilvanischen Dacians, published in Vienna in 1781, and at a still earlier date by the Dalmatian historian G. Lusco (Lucius of Traul) in his work De Regno Dalmatiae et Croatica, Amsterdam, 1666.

The theory of the late immigration of the Romans into their present abodes north of the Danube, as stated in its most extreme form by Roessler, commanded wide acceptance, and in Hungary it was politically utilized as a plea for refusing parity of treatment to a race of comparatively recent intruders. In Rumania itself Roessler's views were respected as an attack on Ruman nationality. Outside Rumania they found a determined opponent in Dr J. Jung, of Innsbrucker, who upheld the continuity of the Roman provincial stock in Trajan's Daca, disputing from historic analogies the total withdrawal of the provincials by Aurelian; and the reaction against Roessler was carried further by J. L. P. Riesius, Professor at Jassy, B. F. Hasdeu, D. Oniciu, and many other Rumanian writers, who maintain that, while their own race north of the Danube represents the original Daco-Roman population of this region, the Vlachs of Turkey and Greece are similarly descended from the Moeso-Roman and Illyro-Roman inhabitants of the provinces lying south of the river. On this theory the entire Vlach race occupies almost precisely the same territories to-day as in the 3rd century.
On the whole it may be said that the truth lies between the two extremes. Roessler is no doubt so far right that after 272, and throughout the early middle ages, the bulk of the Ruman people lay south of the Danube. Pici's view that the population of the Roman provinces of Moesia and Illyria were Hellenized rather than Romanized, and that it is to Trajan's Dacia alone that we must look for the Roman source of the Balkans, is correct, though we know of the Latinizing of the Balkan lands from inscriptions, martyrologies, Procopius's list of Justinian's Illyrian fortresses and other sources. This Roman element south of the Danube had further received a great increase at the expense of Trajan's colonial foundation to the north when Aurelian established his New Dacia on the Moesian side of the river. On the other hand, the analogy supplied by the withdrawal of the Roman provincials from Riparian Noricum tells against the assumption that the official withdrawal of the Roman colonists of Trajan's Dacia by Aurelian entailed the entire evacuation of the Carpathian regions by their Latin-speaking inhabitants. As on the upper Danube the continuity of the Roman population is attested by the Vici Romanisi of early medieval dialogues and by other traces of a Romanic style still represented by the Ladines of the Tirol, so it is reasonable to suppose a Latin-speaking population continued to exist in the formerly thickly colonized area embracing the present Transylvania and Little Walachia, with adjoining Carpathian regions. Even as late as Justinian's time (483-565), the official connexion with the old Dacian province was not altogether severed. The names of some of certain fortified posts on the left bank of the lower Danube.

We may therefore assume that the Latin race of eastern Europe never wholly lost touch of its former trans-Danubian strongholds. It was, however, on any showing greatly diminished there. The open country, the broad plains of what is now the Rumanian kingdom, and the Banat of Hungary were in barbarian occupation. The centre of gravity of the Roman or Romance element of Illyricum had now shifted south of the Danube. By the 6th century a large part of Thrace, Macedonia and even of Epirus had become Latin-speaking.

What had occurred in Trajan's Dacia in the 3rd century was consummated in the 6th and 7th throughout the greater part of the South-Illyrian provinces, and the Slavonic and Avar conquests severed the official connexion with eastern Rome. The Roman element was uprooted from its fixed seats, and swept hither and thither by the barbarian food. Nomadism became an essential of independent existence, while large masses of homeless provincials were dragged as captives in the train of their conquerors, to be distributed in service colonies. They which hung on the confines of the barbarian首席 Slav, Avar and Bulgarian—to trans-Danubian and Pannonian regions. In the Acts of St Demetrius of Thessalonica (d. A.D. 306) we find an account of such a Roman colony, which, having been carried away from South-Illyrian cities by the Avar kaghan (prince), and settled by him in the Sirmian district beyond the Save, revolted after seventy years of captivity, made their way once more across the Balkan passes, and finally settled as an independent community in the country inland from Salonica. Others, no doubt, thus transported northwards never returned. The earliest Hungarian historians who describe the Magyar invasion of the 9th century speak of the old inhabitants of the country as Romans, and of the country they occupied as Puscowa Romana; and the Russian Nestor, writing about 1100, makes the same invader fight against Slavs and Vlachs in the Carpathian Mountains. So far from the first mention of the Vlachs north of the Danube occurring only in 1222, as Roessler asserts, it appears from a passage of Nicetas of Chonae that they were to be found already in 1164 as far afield as the borders of Galicia; and the date of a passage in the Niburger Siegelbuch, which mentions the Vlachs, under their leader Ramun, in association with the Poles, cannot well be later than 1200.

Nevertheless, throughout the early middle ages the bulk of the Ruman population lay south of the Danube. It was in the Balkan lands that the Ruman race and language took their characteristic mould. It is here that this new Illyrian Romance first rises into historic prominence. Already in the 6th century, as we learn from the place-names, such as Szeptecasas, Burghaldu, Clisura, &c., given by Procopius, the Ruman language was assuming, so far as its Latin elements were concerned, its typical form. In the somewhat later campaigns of Constantine (387) and Priscus, against the Avars and Slavs, we find the Latin-speaking soldiery of the Eastern emperor making use of such Romance expressions as torna frate! (turn, brother!), or sculea (out of bed) applied to a watch (cf. Ruman a se sculea = Italian coricarsi + ex(-s) privative). Next we find this warlike Ruman population largely incorporated into the Bulgarian kingdom, and, if we are to judge from the names Paganus and Sabinus, already supplying it with rulers in the 8th century. The blending and close contact during this period of the surviving Latin population with the Slavonic settlers of the peninsula impregnated the language with its large Slavonic ingredient. The presence of an important Latin element in Albanian, the frequent occurrence of Albanian words in Rumanian, and the remarkable retention by both languages of a suffix article, may perhaps imply that both alike took their characteristic shapes in the same region. The fact that these peculiarities are common to the Rumanas north of the Danube, whose language differs dialectically from that of their southern brothers, shows that it was this southern branch which did the greatest work in assimilating the Latin elements or breaking up the Slavic barrier, and thus in producing a dominating influence. Migrations, violent transplantation, the intercourse which was kept up between the most outlying members of the race, in its very origin nomadic, at a later period actual colonization and the political influence of the Bulgaro-Vlachian empire, no doubt contributed to propagate these southern linguistic acquisitions throughout that northern area to which the Ruman race had been destined almost imperceptibly to shift its centre of gravity.

Byzantium, which had ceased to be Roman, and had become Romanic, renewed its acquaintance with the outposts of the Latin provincials of Illyricum through a Slavonic medium, and applied to them the name of Vlach, which the Slav himself had borrowed from the Goth. The first mention of Vlachs in a Byzantine source is about the year 976, when Cenedonus (ii. 430) relates the murder of the Bulgaric tsar Samuel's brother "by certain Vlach wayfakers," at a spot called the Fair Oaks, between Castoria and Prespa. From this period onwards the Ruman inhabitants of the Balkan peninsula are constantly mentioned by this name, and we find a series of political organizations and territorial divisions connected with the name of Vlach for a short space, but these are the more important of these, outside the limits of Rumania itself.

1. The Bulgaro-Vlach Empire.—After the overthrow of the older Bulgaric tsardom by Basil Bulgaroktonos (976-1025), the Vlach population of Thrace, Haemus and the Moesian lands passed once more under Byzantine dominion; and in 1185 a heavy tax, levied in kind on the cattle of these warlike mountain shepherds, stirred the Vlachs to revolt against the emperor Isaac Angelas, and under the leadership of their Vlach brothers, they founded a new Bulgaro-Vlachian empire, which ended with Kaliman in 1257. The dominions of these half-Slavonic half-Roman emperors extended north of the Danube over a great part of the lowland Rumania, and during the period that the Vlach population north of the river seems to have been most largely reinforced. The 13th century French traveller Rubruquis speaks of all the country between Don and Danube as Vlach or Blakia.

2. Great Walachia (Марака Вьлаха).—It is from Anna Comnena, in the second half of the 11th century, that we first hear of a Vlach settlement, the nucleus of which was the mountainous region of Bessarabia. Benjamin of Tudela, in the 12th century, is interested in the occurrence of this Great Walachia, then completely independent. It embraced the southern and central ranges of Pindus, and extended over part of Macedonia, thus including the lands through which the Vlachs, in their migrations from the 6th to the 12th centuries, had fixed their abode. After the Latin conquest of Constantinople in 1204, Great Walachia was included in the enlarged despotate of Epirus, but it soon reappeared as an independent principality under its old name, which, after passing under the yoke...
VLADIMIR, ST. (c. 956-1015), grand duke of Kiev and of all Russia, was the youngest son of Svyatoslav I and his mistress Malushka. In 970 he received Great Novgorod as his apanage. On the death of Svyatoslav in 972, a long civil war took place between his sons Yaropolk and Oleg, in which Vladimir was involved. From 977 to 984 he was in Scandinavia, collecting as many of the Viking warriors as he could to recover Novgorod, and on his return marched against Yaropol. On his way to Kiev he sent ambassadors to Ragnvald, prince of Polotsk, to sue for the hand of his daughter Ragnhild. The haughty princess refused to affiance herself to "the son of a bondswoman," but Vladimir attacked Polotsk, slew Ragnvald, and took Ragnhild by force. Subsequently (980) he captured Kiev also, slew Yaropol by treachery, and was proclaimed prince of all Russia. In 981 he conquered the Chervenks cities, the modern Galicia; in 983 he subdued the heathen Yatvyags, terrifyaying their territories between the Samara and Poland; and in 985 he led a fleet along the central rivers of Russia, coming to the Bulgars of the Kama, planting numerous fortresses and colonies on his way. At this time Vladimir was a thoroughgoing pagan. He increased the number of the trebiticha, or heathen temples; offered up Christians (Theodore and Ivan, the proto-martyrs of the Russian Church) on his altars; had eight hundred concubines, besides numerous wives; and spent his whole leisure in feasting and hunting. He also formed a great council out of his boys, and set his twelve sons over his subject principalities. In the year 997, as the result of a consultation with his boys, Vladimir sent envoys to study the religion of the various neighboring nations whose representatives had been urging him to embrace their respective faiths. The result is amusingly described by the chronicler Nestor. Of the Musul- man Bulgarians of the Volga the envoys reported: "there is no gladness among them; only sorrow and a great stench; their religion is not a good one." In the temples of the Germans they saw "no beauty"; but at Constantinople, where the full festival ritual of the Orthodox Church was set in motion to impress them, they found their ideal. We no longer knew whether we were in heaven or on earth, nor had we an idea how to tell it." If Vladimir was impressed by this account of his envoys, he was yet more so by the offer of the emperor Basil II. to give him his sister Anna in marriage. In 988 he was baptized at Kherson in the Crimea, taking the Christian name of Basil out of compliment to his imperial brother-in-law; the sacrament was followed by his marriage with the Roman princess. Returning to Kiev in triumph, he converted his people to the new faith with no apparent difficulty. Crypto-Christians had been numerous in Kiev for some time before the public recognition of the Orthodox faith. The remained of the reign of Vladimir was devoted to good works. He founded numerous churches, including the splendid Dey- zinanny Sobor or "Cathedral of the Tithes" (989), established schools, protected the poor and introduced ecclesiastical courts. With his neighbours he lived at peace, the incursions of the savage Petchenegs alone disturbing his tranquillity. His nephew Svyatpo, son of his brother and victim Yaropol, he married to the daughter of Boleslaus of Poland. He died at Berestova, near Kiev, while on his way to chastise the insolence of his son, Prince Yaroslav of Novgorod. The various parts of his dismembered body were distributed among his numerous sacred foundations and were venerated as relics. The university of Kiev has rightly been named after the man who both civilized and Christianized ancient Russia. His memory was also kept alive by innumerable folk ballads and legends. With him the Varangian period of Russian history ceases and the Christian period begins.

See Memorials (Russ.) published by the Commission for the examination of ancient documents (Kiev, 1881, &c.); I. Komann and M. Istomin, Collection of Historical Materials (Russ.) (Kiev, 1890, &c.); O. Partitsky, Scandinaviand in Ancient Russia (Russ.) (Lemberg, 1897); A. Lapko-Danilevsky, Scythian Antiquities (Petropavlovsk, 1893); J. Macquart, Orientalische Streifzüge (Leipzig, 1903); G. B. Kyrger, Höhlen- kirche als Kulturzentrum des vormongolischen Russlands (Passau, 1894).

VLADIMIR, a town and fortress of Russia in northern Caucasus, the capital of the province of Terek. Pop. (1900) 40,924. It stands on a plateau, at an altitude of 2,354 ft., on both banks of the Terek, where that river issues from the Darial gorge. It is 434 m. by rail S.E. from Rostov-on-the-Don, and has regular communication with Tiflis (333 m.) by coach through the Darial Pass (Georgian military road) of the Caucasus. Moreover, a line of railway, running eastwards to the Caspian ports of Petrovsk and Baku, connects Vladikavkaz, or rather the station Beshan, 14 m. N. of it, by the Transcaucasian railway, i.e. with Tiflis, Poti and Batum. Russians, Armenians and Jews constitute the bulk of the population, which also contains Ossetes, Chechens, Ingushes and others. There are distilleries and a number of smaller factories. The fort, around which the town has grown up, was built in 1784. The town is an episcopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church.
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300 ft. to 450 ft. below the general level, so that the country has a hilly appearance. The western depression of the middle Volga and Oka extends into the east of the government. The Upper Carboniferous limestone, of which it is mostly built up, are overlain by Permian sandstones towards the east, and patches of Jurassic clays—denuded remnants of the Permian massif—towards the western part of the surface. The whole is covered with a thick sheet of boulder clay, considered to be the bottom moraine of the North-European ice-sheets. Many terraces are built by deposits, by extensive lacustrine clays and sands. The geology, especially of the western parts, has been investigated by Professor Nikitin, who has ascertained that under the Glacial and post-Glacial deposits—the lower still—lie the richest both of coal and iron—while in the east and the upper for extinct prehistoric forests occur—Lower Cretaceous deposits and deposits intermediate between the Cretaceous and the Jurassic (Volga deposits). Upper Jurassic (l.l. Oxford) and Upper Carboniferous deposits are also found, and at Gorbatov Permian marls.

The soil is for the most part unfertile, save in the district of Yuriev, where patches of black earth, which have occasioned a good deal of discussion among Russian geologists. Iron ore is widely diffused, and china clay and gypsum are met with in several places. Peat is of common occurrence. Forests cover extensive tracts in the southeast. The climate resembles that of Moscow, but is a little colder, and still more continental: the average yearly temperature at the city of Vladimir is 38°F. (January, 16°; July, 66°).

The Oka flows through the government for 85 m., and is navigable throughout. Of its tributaries, the Klyazma is navigable to Krovov, and even to Vladimir in summer; and timber is floated on the Teza. The soil is as rich in the southern part of Vladimir as in that of Plesheevyevo or Pereyaslavl (5 m. in length) has historical associations. Peter the Great found there during his boyhood his first experiences in navigation. The marshes extend to more than half a million acres.

Vladimir ranks third among the governments of European Russia for manufactures. It has some 500 large factories, which employ over 100,000 persons (one-third women); the principal establishments are cotton, linen and silk mills, dye-works, and rope, paper, cardboard, oil, chemical, machine, glass and iron works, and distilleries. Wood, coal, petroleum and peat are all used for fuel. A distinctive feature of Vladimir is the great variety of petty trades, many of which are cultivated by peasants who still consider their activities as a means of earning money to supplement their allotments. While in some villages almost all the male peasants leave their homes and travel all over Russia as carpenters, masons, iron roof makers, or as peddlers or travelling merchants, other villages have their specialisms. In the district of Mstislav, for example, one-third of the male population are engaged in the manufacture of paper and books. Nearly 30,000 carpenters leave Vladimir every year. Whole villages are engaged in painting sacred pictures or icons; and although the icons are sold at a shilling the hundred, the aggregate trade is valued at £50,000. The iron works of Vladimir (or Suzdal) pictures are sold all over Russia and the Balkan peninsula. In other villages some 1200 men are employed in making sicles, knitting and weaving. The products of the various villages are transported to the towns of Vladimir and Klyazma. The movement of shipping on the Volga and its tributaries and sub-tributaries, the Oka, Klyazma and Teza, is considerable. The principal ports are Murom on the Volga and Krovov and Vyazniki on the Oka. Timber, wood for fuel and manufactured goods are the chief exports.

Numbers of Palaeolithic stone implements, intermingled with bones of the mammoth and the rhinoceros, and still greater numbers of Neolithic stone implements, have been found in the basement, and a great number of burial-mounds belonging to the Bronze and Iron periods, and containing decorations in amber and gold; nearly 200 such burial-mounds are scattered round Lake Pleshcheyev, from the last belonging to the pagan period and some to the early Christian. Coins from Arabia, Bakhara, Germany and Anglo-Saxon lands are found in great quantities. (P. A. K.: J. T. Be.)

VLADIMIR, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name known in history as Vladimir-on-the-Klyazma, to distinguish it from Vladimir in Volhynia. It is picturesquely situated on the Klyazma and Lybed, 118 m. by rail E.N.E. of Moscow. Pop. (1884) 18,420; (1900) 32,029. The city is the archiepiscopal see of the Orthodox Greek church. The Lybed divides it into two parts. Extensive cherry orchards occupy the surrounding slopes, and in each is a small watch-tower, with cords drawn in all directions to be shaken by the watch when birds alight. The Kremlin stands on a hill and contains two very old cathedrals—the Uspenskiy (1150; restored in 1891), where all the princes of Vladimir have been buried, and the Dmitrievski (1197; restored in 1834-1835). Several churches date from the 12th century, including one dedicated to the Birth of Christ, in which St Alexander Nevski was buried. The "Golden Gate"—a triumphal gate surmounted by a church—was built by the grand duke Andrei Bogolyubski in 1138.

Vladimir was founded in the 12th century. It first comes into history in 1117, when Andrei Bogolyubski secretly left Vysyhgord—the domain of his father in the principality of Kiev—and migrated to the newly settled land of Suzdal, where he became (1157) grand prince of the principalities of Vladimir, Suzdal and Rostov. In 1242 the principality was overrun by the Mongols under Batu Khan, and he and his successors asserted their suzerainty over it until 1328. During this period Vladimir became the chief town of the Russian settlements in the basin of the Oka, and it disputed the superiority with the new principality of Moscow, to which it finally succumbed in 1328.

In the 17th century it began to decay.

VLADIMIR—VOLHYNSKIY, a town of Russia, in the government of Volhynia, 19 m. N.N.E. of Kharkov, where the frontiers of Russia, Poland and Galicia meet and 500 m. W.N.W. of Kiev. Pop. (1885) 8752; (1897) 9605, three-fourths Jews. Though not mentioned in the annals before 988, Vladimir was probably in existence in the 9th century under the name of Ladomir. In the 10th century it was the capital of the principality of Volhynia. The Tatars and the Lithuanians destroyed it several times, but it always recovered, and only fell into decay in the 17th century. It was finally annexed to Russia after the first division of Poland (1772). The ruins in and near the town include remains of a church supposed to have been built by Vladimir, grand duke of Kiev, in the 10th-11th centuries, and of another built in 1160 by his descendant Mstislav. This latter was apparently very well built, and its length exceeded that of the temple of St Sophia at Kiev. The town contains a good archaeological museum.

VLADIVOSTOK, the chief Russian seaport and naval station on the Pacific Ocean, situated at the southern extremity (43° 27' N. and 135° 25' E.) of the Maritime Province, not far from the point where the government touches both Manchuria and Korea (Cho-sen). It is connected with Khabarovsk (470 m. N.N.E.), the capital of the Amur region, and with Chita in Transbaikalia (1392 m.) via Ninguta, Khabar, Tsetsisak and Khalair. Pop. (1900) 38,000. The town stands on Peter the Great Gulf, occupying the northern shore of one of its horn-like expansions, which the Russians have called the Golden Horn. The depth of the Eastern Bosphorus ranges from 13 to 20 fathoms, and that of the Golden Horn from 5 to 13, the latter affording a spacious harbour. The hills are covered with forests of oak, lime, birch, maple, cork, walnut, acacia, ash, aspen, poplar, elm, apple pear and wild cherry, with a rich undergrowth of the most varied shrubs. Excellent timber is supplied by...
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oak and cedar forests not far off. The climate, however, is severe, as compared with that of corresponding latitudes in Europe. Though standing in almost the same parallel as Marseilles, Vladivostok has an average annual temperature of only 40° F., and, although the gulf itself never freezes, a thin ice-crust forms along the shores in December and remains until April. The town has several handsome buildings, a monument to the Emperor Alexander III (1857), a cathedral museum, an observatory, an Oriental institute (opened in 1890), professional schools, a naval hospital, mechanical and naval works, steam saw-mills and flour-mills. The drawback of Vladivostok is that it has not, and cannot have, a well-developed hinterland, despite the great efforts which have been made by the Russian government to supply the Usuri region (to the north of Vladivostok) with Russian settlers. The town of Vladivostok was founded in 1860–1861, and from 1865 to 1900 was a free port.

VODENA (Turk. and Bulg. Voden, anc. Elesia, q.b.), a city of European Turkey, in the vilayet of Salonica, western Macedonia; at the source of the small river Bistrita, which flows east and south into Lake Yenije, and on the railway from Salonica to Monastir. Pop. (1905) about 25,000, consisting of Turks, Slavs and Greeks. The town stands on a rocky height commanding views of Pindus and Olympus; the approaching slopes are richly wooded, and traversed by picturesque waterfalls, from which the name of Vodena (Slav. voda, water) is probably derived. Vodena is the see of a Greek archbishop, and possesses numerous churches and mosques, besides the Temples and remains of Byzantine and Byzantine buildings. It has manufactures of cotton, hemp, wool and leather, and a large trade in wine, silk cocoons and red pepper.

VODEYSHANKAR, GOWRISHANKAR (1805–1892), native minister of the state of Bhauanagar in Kathiawar, Bombay, was born on the 21st of August 1805, of a family of Nagar Brahmins. He rose from being a revenue officer to be state minister in 1847. His success in this capacity was such that on the death of the reigning chief, in 1870, he was appointed joint administrator in concert with a British official. The experiment was in every respect successful. Under the simple and economical forms used in native states, improvements suggested by British experience were introduced. The land revenue was based on a cash system, the fiscal and customs systems were remodelled and tree planting was encouraged. The town of Bhauanagar received the great boon of the Gowrishankar Waterworks, on which six lakhs of rupees were spent. The Bhauanagar state also warmly pressed for railway communication with the continent of India, and thus began a movement which has spread a network of railway lines over the peninsula of Kathiawar. The British government reversed all these many services of Gowrishankar with the distinction of C.S.I. in 1857. He helped to establish the Rajkumar College at Rajkot, for the education of native princes, and also the Rajasthani Court, which, after settling innumerable disputes between the land-owning classes and the chiefs, has since been abolished. In 1879 Gowrishankar resigned office, and devoted himself to the study of the higher literature of that Vedanta philosophy which through his whole life had been to him a solace and a guide. In 1884 he wrote a work called Svarupanusandhan, on the union of the soul with Deity, which led to a letter of warm congratulation from Max Müller, who also published a short biography of him. In 1887 he put on the robe of the Sanyasi or ascetic, the fourth stage, according to the Hindu Shastras, in the life of the twice-born man, and in this manner passed the remainder of his life, giving above ten hours each day to Vedantic studies and holy contemplation. He died, revered by all classes, in December 1892.

See Javerital U. Jajalk, Gowrishankar Udajyshankar (Bombay, 1889).

VOEY, VODER or VOKEY, the Russian national spirituous beverage. Originally vodka was made almost entirely from rye. Today malt to the extent of 15 to 20% being used to effect saccharification (see Spirits), but at the present day potatoes and maize are the staple raw materials from which this spirit is manufactured, and, as a rule, green rye malt is now used instead of barley. The distillation is conducted by means of live steam in a double still of the "patent" type. Vodka as manufactured contains from 90 to 96% of alcohol, but it is diluted, previous to retailing, to a strength of 40 to 40%. It is illegal to sell it with less than 40% of alcohol.

WERTITUS (Veer), GYBERTUS (1588–1676), Dutch theologian, was born at Heusden, Holland. He studied at Leiden, and in 1611 became pastor of Blymen, whence in 1617 he returned to Heusden. In 1619 he played an influential part in the Synod of Dort, and in 1654 was made professor of theology and Oriental science at Utrecht. Three years later he became pastor of the Utrecht congregation. He was an advocate of the extremest form of Calvinism against the Arminians; but his personal influence was good, and the city of Utrecht perpetuated his memory by giving his name to the street in which he lived.

VOGEL, EDUARD (1829–1896), German traveller in Central Africa, was born at Krefeld on the 7th of March 1829. He studied mathematics and astronomy at Leipzig and Berlin, and in 1850 engaged in astronomical work in London. In 1853 he was chosen by the British government to take supplies to Heinrich Barth, then in the western Sudan; and Vogel met Barth at Kuka in Bornu (1854). During 1854 and 1855 he explored the countries round Lake Chad and the upper course of the Benue. On the 1st of December 1855 he left Kuka for the Nile Valley, and nothing further was heard of him. Several search expeditions were organized to ascertain his fate and to recover his papers; it was not until 1873 that Gustav Nachtigal on reaching Wadai learnt that Vogel had been murdered in that country in February 1856.

See Erinnerungen an einen Versuchten (Leipzig, 1863), by Vogel's sister, E. Polko, and Der Afrikaforscher Eduard Vogel (Hamburg, 1889).

VOGEL, SIR JULIUS (1835–1890), British colonial statesman, son of Albert Leopold Vogel, was born in London on the 24th of February 1835; was educated at University College school, London, and emigrated to Victoria during the exciting years which followed the discovery of goldfields there. He became editor of a newspaper at Maryborough, stood for the Legislative Assembly and was defeated, and in 1861 left Victoria, carried in the mining rush to Otago, New Zealand, where much gold had just been found. Settling in Dunedin, he bought a half-share in the Otago Daily Times, and was soon its editor and a member of the Otago Provincial Council. He made his paper the most influential in the colony, and was returned to the House of Representatives. In 1866 he was head of the Otago Provincial Executive (having in his hand the key to the provincial parliament), and was treasurer in the ministry of Sir William Fox. Without delay he brought forward a scheme for the construction of trunk railways and other public works, the purchase of land from the Maori tribes, and the introduction of immigrants, all to be done with money borrowed in London. At that time New Zealand hardly contained a quarter of a million of white settlers, was exhausted by the ten years' struggle with the Maori, not then ended, and was depressed by the low price of her staple product, wool, and the abatement of a gold-fever. Yet Vogel's sanguine, energetic appeals and remarkable gift of persuasion induced the House of Assembly to adopt a modified version of his scheme. For the next six years he was the most powerful man in the colony. Millions were borrowed, railways were pushed on, immigrants—state and voluntary—streamed in. Lasting peace was made with the Maori, a telegraph line laid to Australia, a steam mail service secured across the Pacific to San Francisco; a government life insurance office, and a public trust office, were established, both of which proved useful and were well-managed. During a visit to London on the colony's financial business, Vogel succeeded in arranging for the bank at the Bank of England, an arrangement afterwards confirmed by the imperial parliament. In 1875 he was knighted.
VOGHERA—VOGLER

In 1874 Vogler, until that time a supporter of the Provincial system, decided to abolish it. In this, with the aid of Sir E. W. Stafford and Sir H. A. Atkinson, he succeeded. In the struggle, however, he broke with many of his old allies, and in 1876 suddenly quit New Zealand to take the post of agent-general in London. This he held until 1880, and while holding it negotiated a loan for five millions. Having become connected with certain public companies, and the New Zealand government objecting thereto, he had to resign his position. An attempt, too, which he made in 1880 to enter the House of Commons as Conservative member for Penryn was unsuccessful. In 1884 he returned to New Zealand, was at once elected to parliament, and in the same year was appointed to the Senate. He held this position until his death in 1895, and it was mainly through his influence that the proposed change in the construction of the organization consisted in simplifying the mechanism, introducing free-reeds in place of ordinary reed-stops, and substituting unisonous stops for the great "mixtures" then in vogue. The theoretical system, though professedly based on Valotti's principles, was to a great extent empirical. Nevertheless, in virtue of a certain substratum of truth which seems to have underlain his new theories, Vogler undoubtedly exercised a powerful influence over the progress of musical science, and numbered among his disciples the majority of the great organists of the day.

In 1778 the elector removed his court to Munich. Vogler followed him thither in 1780, but, dissatisfied with the reception accorded to his dramatic compositions, soon quitted his post. He went to Paris, where after much hostility his new system was recognized as a continuation of that started by Rameau. His organ concerts in the church of St Sulpice attracted considerable attention. At the request of the queen, he composed the opera Le Patriote, which was produced before the court at Versailles. His travels were wide, and extended over Spain, Greece, Armenia, remote districts of Asia and Africa, and even Greenland, where he received a warm welcome. In 1786 he was appointed "kapellmeister" to the king of Sweden, founded his second music school at Stockholm, and attained extraordinary celebrity by his performances on an instrument called the "orchestron"—a species of organ invented by himself. In 1790 he brought this instrument to London, and performed upon it with great effect at the Pantheon, for the concert-room of which he also constructed an organ upon his own principles. The abbé's pedal-playing excited great attention. His most popular pieces were a fugue on themes from the "Für Elise" and the "Carmen," composed after a visit to Handel's festival at Westminster Abbey, and A Musical Picture for the Organ, by Knecht, containing the imitation of a storm.

From London Vogler proceeded to Rotterdam and the chief towns on the Rhine. At Esslingen he was presented with the "wine of honour," reserved for the use of sovereigns. At Frankfort he attended the coronation of the emperor Leopold II. He then visited Stockholm, and after a long residence there, interrupted by endless wanderings, once more established himself in Germany, where his compositions, both sacred and secular, enjoyed uninterrupted forms of national man. He was heard of in Berlin in 1800, at Vienna in 1804 and at Munich in 1866. While at Frankfort in 1807 he received an invitation from Louis I., grand duke of Hesse-Darmstadt, offering him the appointment of "kapellmeister," with the order of merit, the title of privy councillor, a salary of 3000 florins, a house, a table supplied from the duke's own kitchen, and other privileges, which determined him to bring his wanderings at last to a close.

At Darmstadt he opened his third and most famous music school, the chief ornaments of which were Gängbacher, Weber and Meyerbeer, whose affection for their old master was unbounded. One of Vogler's latest exploits was a journey to Frankfort in 1810, to witness the production of Weber's Sylva. He continued to work hard to the last, and died suddenly of apoplexy at Darmstadt on the 6th of May 1814. He was a

1 Robert Browning's poem on "Abt Vogler extemporizing on an instrument of his own invention" has made his name familiar to the literary public.
brilliant and accomplished performer, and an excellent if an eccentric teacher; but his own compositions have not survived.

Vogt, Karl Christoph (1817-1859), German naturalist and geologist, was born at Giessen on the 5th of July 1817. In 1847 he became professor of zoology at Giessen, and in 1852 professor of geology and afterwards also of zoology at Geneva, where he died on the 5th of May 1859. His earlier publications were on zoology; he dealt with the Amphibia (1839), Reptiles (1840), with Moluscus and Crustacea (1845) and more generally with the invertebrata fauna of the Mediterranean (1854).

His separate works include Im Gebirg und auf den Gletschern (1836); Physiologische Briefe (1845); Grundzüge der Geologie (1860); and Lehrbuch der Geologie und Petrographie (2 vols., 1846-47; ed. 4, 1879). An English version of his Lectures on Man: his Place in Creation and in the History of the Earth was published by the Anthropological Society of London in 1844.

Vogtland, or Vogtland, a district of Germany, forming the S.W. corner of the kingdom of Saxony, and also embracing parts of the principality of Reuss and of the duchies of Saxe-Altenburg and Saxe-Weimar. It is bounded on the N. by the principalities of Reuss, in the S.E. by Bohemia, and on the S.W. and W. by Bavaria. Its character is generally mountainous, and geologically it belongs to the Erzgebirge range. It is extremely rich in mineral ores—silver, copper, lead and bismuth. The name denoted the country governed for the election of a Vogt (bailli or steward), and was, in the Middle Ages, known as terra advocatorum. The Vögte are said to have met with in the country in the 10th century, and the office shortly afterwards appears to have become hereditary in the princely line of Reuss. But this house was not in undivided possession, rival claims being raised from time to time; and after being during the middle ages a bone of contention between Bohemia, the burggraves of Nuremberg and the Saxon house of Wettin, it passed gradually to the Wettins, falling by the division of 1485 to the Ernestine branch of the family. The elector Augustus I. was one of the principal cities of his dominions.

Se. Liner, Geschichte des Vogtlandes (Gera, 1829-28, 4 vols.); Simon, Das Vogtland im Mittelalter (Greiz, 1892); and Metzner, Vogtlandische Wanderungen (Annaberg, 1902).

Vogué, Eugène Melchor, Comte de (1845–), French author, was born at Nice on the 25th of February 1848. He was educated in Paris, and, on the conclusion of the war entered the diplomatic service, being appointed successively attaché to the legations at Constantinople and Cairo and secretary at St Petersburg. He resided in 1882, and from 1891 to 1898 was deputy for Ardèche. His connexion with the Retour des deux mondes began in 1873 with his Voyage en Syrie et en Palestine, and subsequently he was a frequent contributor. He did much to awaken French interest in the intellectual life of other countries, especially of Russia, his sympathy with which was strengthened by his marriage in 1878 with a Russian lady, the sister of General Annenkow. De Vogué was practically the first to draw French attention to Dostoevski and his successors. He became a member of the French Academy in 1888.

His works include: Histoires orientales (1870); Portraits du siècle (1883); Le Fils de Pierre le Grand (1884); Histoires d’hiver (1885); Retour au royaume (1886); Voyages et littératures (1892); Cœurs russes (1894); Devant le siècle (1896); Jean d’Aigrive (1898); Le Rappel des ombres (1900); Le Maître de la mer (1903); Maxime Gorky (1905).

Voice (Fr. voix, from Lat. vox), the sound produced by the vibrations of the vocal cords, or ligaments or bands of fibrous elastic tissue situated in the larynx. It is to be distinguished from speech, which is the production of articulate sounds intended to express ideas. Many of the lower animals have voice, but none has the power of speech in the sense in which man possesses that faculty. There may be speech without voice, as in whispering, whilst in singing a scale of musical voices we have voice without speech. (See Song; and for speech see Phonetics; also the articles on the various letters of the alphabet.)

1. Physiological Anatomy.—The organ of voice, the larynx, is situated in man in the upper and fore part of the neck, where it forms a well-known prominence in the middle line (see details under RESPIRATORY SYSTEM). It opens below into the trachea or wind-pipe, and above into the cavity of the pharynx, and it consists of a framework of cartilages, suited by elastic membranes or ligaments, two of which constitute the true vocal cords. These cartilages are movable on each other by the action of various muscles, which thus regulate the position and the tension of the vocal cords. The trachea conveys the blast of air from the lungs during expiration, and the whole apparatus may be compared to an acoustical contrivance in which the lungs represent the wind chest and the trachea the tube passing from the wind chest to the sounding body contained in the larynx. Suppose two tight bands of any elastic membrane, such as thin sheet india-rubber, stretched over the end of a wide glass tube so that the margins of the bands touched each other, and that a powerful blast of air is driven through the tube by a bellows. The pressure would so distend the margins of the membrane as to open the aperture and allow the air to escape; this would cause a fall of pressure, and the edges of the membrane would spring back by their elasticity to their former position; again the pressure would increase, and again the edges of the membrane would be distended; and those vibrations would be so quickly repeated as to cause the edges of the membrane to vibrate with sufficient rapidity to produce a musical tone, the pitch of which would depend on the number of vibrations executed in a second of time. In other words, there would be a rapid succession of puffs of air. The condensation and rarefaction of the air thus produced are the chief cause of the tone, as H. von Helmholtz has pointed out, and in this way the larynx resembles the siren in its mode of producing tone. It is evident also that the intensity or loudness of the tone would be determined by the amplitude of the vibrations of the margins of the membrane, and that its pitch would be affected by any arrangement effecting an increase or decrease of the tension of the margins of the membrane. The pitch might also be raised by the strength of the current of air, because the great amplitude of the vibrations would increase the mean tension of the elastic membrane. With tones of medium pitch, the pressure of the air in the trachea is equal to that of a column of mercury of

160 mm.; with high pitch, 6250 mm.; and with notes of very high pitch, 945 mm.; whilst in whispering it may fall as low

FIG. 1.

FIG. 2.
as that represented by 30 mm. of water. Such is a general conception of the mechanism of voice.

The cartilages form the framework of the larynx. They consist of two series of triangular membranes, the arytenoid and the thyro-epiglottic, and of three pairs of (two arytenoids and two cornicula of Santorini and two cornu-cunei of Wrisberg), see figs. 1 and 2. The epiglottis, the cornicula cartilages, the arytenoids and the true vocal cords are composed of yellow or elastic fibro-cartilage, whilst the cartilage of all the others is of the hyaline variety, resembling the cartilage of the articular cartilages.

These cartilages are bound together by ligaments, some of which are seen in figs. 1 and 2, whilst the remainder are represented in fig. 3. The ligaments specially concerned in the production of voice are the inferior thyro-epiglottal ligament, and true vocal cord. These are composed of fine elastic fibres attached behind to the anterior projection of the base of the arytenoid cartilage, and in front to the middle of the angle between the wings or laminae of the thyroid cartilage. They are practically continuous with the lateral crico-thyroid ligaments, 6 in fig. 3.

The cavity of the larynx is divided into an upper part, by the narrow aperture of the glottis or chink between the edges of the true vocal cords, the rima glottidis. Immediately above these are the arytenoid cartilages, and behind them is the false vocal cords, there is on each side a recess or pouch termed the ventricle of Morgagni, and opening from each ventricle there is a still smaller recess, the laryngeal pouch, which passes for the space of half an inch between the arytenoid cartilage on one side and the thyroid cartilage outside, reaching as high as the upper border of that cartilage at the side of the epiglottis. The ventricles do not permit a free vibration of the true vocal cords. The upper aperture of the glottis is triangular, with front and narrow lateral, cornu-cuneiform cartilages, and also the cushion of the epiglottis, are readily seen in the laryngoscopic picture. The glottis, 6, is seen in the form of a long narrow fissure, bounded by the true vocal cords, B, while above them we have the false vocal cords, G, and between the true and false cords the opening of the ventricle, 7, the rima glottidis, between the true vocal cords, in the adult male measures about 23 mm., or nearly an inch from before back, and from 6 to 12 mm. across its widest part, according to the degree of dilatation. In females and in males before puberty the antero-posterior diameter is about 17 mm. and its transverse diameter about 4 mm.

The vocal cords of the adult male are composed of 15 mm. of cartilage. The vocal cords of the adult female are about 11 mm. vocal cord. (From Mandl.) The arytenoids, at the lower part of the ventricle, 7, which is closely adherent to the upper part of the glottis, is connected with the thyro-arytenoid, or arytenoid, cartilage.

The cartilages of the larynx, in the greater portion of the larynx, are of the columnar ciliated variety, and by the vibratory action of the cilia mucus is driven upwards, but over the true vocal cords the epithelium is squamous. Patches of squamous epithelium are also found in the ciliated tract above the glottis, on the under surface of the epiglottis, on the inner surface of the arytenoid cartilages, and on the free border of the upper or false vocal cords, which do not exist in the living state of the rima glottidis, more especially in the epiglottis. In each laryngeal pouch there are sixty to seventy such glands, surrounded by fat.

We are now in a position to understand the action of the muscles of the voice. If the cords are drawn upwards forming the rima glottidis, they can be tightened and relaxed, or by which they can be approximated or separated. Besides certain muscles—sterno-hyoid, omohyoid, sterno-thyroid and thyro-hyoid—which move the larynx as a whole, there are two sets of muscles which move the cartilages on each other. Some of these are seen in fig. 5. These muscles are (a) the crico-thyroid, (b) the posterior crico-arytenoid, (c) the lateral crico-arytenoid, (d) the thyro-aryteno-tide, and (e) the rathenoid, and (f) the aryteno-epiglottides. Their actions will readily be understood with the aid of the diagrams in fig. 6. (1) The crico-thyroid is a short thick triangular muscle, its fibres passing from the thyroid to the arytenoid cartilage, and in front of the cartilage to the larynx, and in front of the cartilage to the outer border of the thyro-aryteno-tide, and in front of the cartilage to the thyro-arytenoid cartilage. Thus these muscles separate the crico-thyroid and the thyro-epiglottides, and the aryteno-epiglottides. (2) The thyro-aryteno-tides has been divided by anatomists into two parts—one, the thyro-aryteno-tide, and the other, which is muscle, and the other, external, immediately within the ala of the thyro-arytenoid cartilage. Many of the fibres of the aryteno-epiglottides pass from the thyro-aryteno-tide, with a slight curve (concavity inwards) to the processus vocalis at the arytenoid cartilage, whilst others are parallel with the true vocal cords, and when they contract the aryteno-tides are drawn forwards, carrying with them the posterior part of the rima glottidis and relaxing the vocal cords. Thus the rima glottidis are the antagonists of the crico-aryteno-tides. K. F. W. Ludwig has pointed out that certain fibres (portio vocalis) arise from the side of the glottis itself and pass obliquely back to the processus vocalis. These will tighten the parts of the cord in front of the glottis and the parts behind, their points of attachment.

Some of the fibres of the outer part run obliquely upwards from the side of the crico-thyroid membrane, pass through the antero-posterior fibres of the inner portion of the muscle, and finally end in the tissue of the false cord. These fibres have been supposed to render the edge of the cord more prominent. Other fibres inserted into the thyro-epiglottides and inter aryteno-epiglottides may be seen in the laryngoscope. A few passing up into the aryteno-epiglottides may assist in depressing the epiglottis (Quain). (3) The posterior and lateral crico-aryteno-tides muscles have antagonistic action on the aryteno-epiglottides, from the posterior surface of the thyro-aryteno-tide, and passing upwards and downwards are attached to the outer angle of the base of the arytenoid. On the other hand, the larynx is derived from the aryteno-epiglottides from the anterior surface of the aryteno-epiglottides, and passing forwards are attached to the outer angle of the base of the arytenoid. On the other hand, the lateral are from the aryteno-epiglottides from the anterior surface of the aryteno-epiglottides, and passing forwards are attached to the outer angle of the base of the arytenoid. On the other hand, the lateral are from the aryteno-epiglottides from the anterior surface of the aryteno-epiglottides, and passing forwards are attached to the outer angle of the base of the arytenoid. On the other hand, the lateral are from the aryteno-epiglottides from the anterior surface of the aryteno-epiglottides, and passing forwards are attached to the outer angle of the base of the arytenoid.
and thus approximate the cords. (4) The arytenoids pass from the one arytenoid cartilage to the other, and in action these cartilages will be approximated and slightly depressed. (5) The aryteno-epi-
glotideus muscles arise near the outer angles of the arytenoid; their
fibres pass obliquely upwards, decussate and are inserted partly into

Fig. 6.—Diagrams explaining the action of the muscles of the larynx.
The dotted lines show the positions taken by the cartilages and the
two vocal cords by the action of the muscle, and the arrows show
the general direction in which the muscular fibres act. A, Action
cricothyroid: 1, cricothyroid cartilage; 2, arytenoid cartilage;
thyroid cartilage; 4, true vocal cord; 5, thyroid cartilage, new
position; 6, true vocal cord, new position. B, Action of arytenoid;
section of thyroid; 2, arytenoid; 3, posterior border of epi-
glottis; 4, true vocal cord; 5, direction of muscular fibres;
arytenoid, new position; 7, true vocal cord, new position.
C, Action of lateral crico-arytenoid; same description as for A
and B; 8, posterior border of epiglottis, new position; 9, arytenoid
in new position. D, Action of posterior crico-arytenoid; same
description. (From Beaunis and Bouchard.)

2. Physiology of Voice Production.—The vocal cords are
tightened by the action of the crico-thyroid, or, as it might
be more appropriately termed, the thyro-cricoid
muscle. It stretches the thyro-arytenoid ligaments,
the free edges of which, covered by mucous membrane,
form the vocal cords. The adductors of the cords are the
lateral crico-arytenoids, while the posterior crico-arytenoids
are the abductors. The arytenoid muscle brings the cords
together. Many of the fibres of the thyro-arytenoid are inserted
obliquely into the sides of the cord, and in contraction they
tighten the cord by pulling on the edge and making it curved
instead of straight. Some such action is indicated by the
elliptical shape of the rima glottidis in passing from the chest
register to the middle register. Other fibres, however, running
parallel with the cord may tend to relax it in certain circum-
stances. All the muscles except the thyro-cricoid (which is
innervated by the superior laryngeal) receive nerve filaments
from the inferior laryngeal branch of the vagus, the fibres
being derived from the accessory roots. Both the adductor
and adductor nerves come therefore from the inferior laryngeal.
When an animal is deeply anaesthetized stimulation of the
inferior laryngeal nerve causes adduction of the cord, but if
the anaesthesia is slight, then we have adduction. The tonic
contraction of the abductors is stronger than that of the
adductors, so in a state of rest the glottis is slightly open.
The centre of innervation is in the medulla oblongata, and this
is dominated by a centre in the Rolandic region of the cerebral
cortex.

The intensity or loudness of voice depends on the amplitude

of the movement of the vocal cords. Pitch depends on the
number of vibrations per second; and the length, size and
tension of the cords will determine the number of
vibrations. The more tense the cords the higher the pitch,
and the greater the length of the cords the lower will be the
pitch. The range of the human voice is about three octaves—
that is, from f3 (87 vibrations per second) to f1 (768 vibra-
tions). In men, by the development of the larynx, the
cords become more elongated than in women, in the ratio of
3 to 2, so that the male voice is of lower pitch and is
usually stronger. At the age of puberty the larynx
 grows rapidly, and the voice of a boy "breaks" in
consequence of the lengthening of the cords, generally falling an octave in pitch. A similar
change, but very much less in amount, occurs at the same
period in the female. At puberty in the female there is an
increase of about one-third in the size of the glottis, but it is
nearly doubled in the male, and the adult male larynx is
about one-third greater than that of the female. In advanced
life the upper notes of the register are gradually weakened
and ultimately disappear, whilst the character of the voice
also changes, owing to loss of elasticity caused by ossification,
which first begins about middle life in the thyroid cartilage,
then appears in the cricoid, and much later in the arytenoid.
Eunuchs retain the voices of childhood; and by careful train-
ing it is possible in normal persons to arrest the development
of the larynx so that an adult male can still sing the soprano
parts sometimes used in cathedral choirs. The ranges of the
different varieties of voice are shown in the following diagram,
where the dotted lines give the range of certain remarkable
voices, and the figures represent vibrations per second, taking
the middle C of the piano as 256 vibrations per second.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Note</th>
<th>Pitch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| F3   | 87
| F4   | 331
| F5   | 649
| F6   | 1256
| F7   | 2512
| G3   | 341
| G4   | 682
| G5   | 1365
| A3   | 768
| A4   | 1536
| B3   | 768
| B4   | 1536
| C5   | 192
| D5   | 384
| E5   | 768
| F5   | 1536
| G5   | 3072
| A5   | 6144
| B5   | 12288
| C6   | 24576

A basso named Gaspard Forster passed from fa to la; the
younger of the sisters Sessi had a contralto voice from do to fa;
the voice of Catalani ranged three and a half octaves; a
much singer, Farinelli, passed from la to re; Nilsson, in Il
Flauto Magico, could take fa; and Mozart states that he heard
in Parma in 1770 a singer, Lucrezia Ajugari, range from sol to
la, which she gave purely, whilst she could execute trills on re.
The latter is the most highly pitched voice referred to in
musical literature, an octave and a half above the highest
ordinary soprano. It will be observed that the lowest note of
Gaspard Forster's voice is not much above the pitch at which
the perception of musical tone begins, and that from this note to the upper note of Lucrezia Ajugari there is a range of nearly six octaves, whilst the extreme range of ordinary voices, from the lowest bass to the highest soprano, is a little over three octaves. It is the first series of six, to the flat, that the range of the true notes for the perception of musical tone is from do,,

to do,, or from about 32 to 33,768 vibrations per second—
eleven octaves.

3. The Voice Registers.—The voice has been divided by writers into three registers—the lower or chest, the middle and the small or head register. In singing, the voice changes in volume and in quality in passing from one register into another. There is remarkable diversity of opinion as to what happens in the larynx in passing through the various registers. There has also been much discussion on the production of falsetto tones. Lehfeldt and Johannes Müller held that a weak blast of air caused only a portion of the cords, as regards length, to vibrate; M. J. Örtel noticed that when a falsetto tone is produced nodal lines are formed in the cords parallel to their edges, an observation supporting the first contention; M. Garcia was of opinion that as the voice rose in pitch into falsetto only the ligamentous edges of the cords vibrated; and W. E. Hodgkinson showed, by dusting finely powdered indigo into the larynx and observing the blue specks with the laryngoscope, that the "best note of the lower register" showed a stripe of the thyroid cartilage in front to a point behind the junction of the ligamentous and cartilaginous portions of the cord." In singing falsetto tones these additional parts are not thrown into action. Some remarkable and instructive photographs obtained by French show that in proceeding from the lowest to the highest notes of the lower register the cords became lengthened by one-eighth of an inch in a contralto singer's larynx; the same singer, in passing into the middle register, showed a shortening of the cords by one-sixteenth of an inch, and another increase of the length of the cords when the middle register was reached.

4. Condition of the Larynx in the Various Registers.—In singing, one can readily observe that the voice may appear to come chiefly from the chest, from the throat or from the head, or it may show the peculiar quality of tone termed falsetto. Authorities differ much in the nomenclature applied to these varieties of the voice. Thus the old Italian music masters spoke of the voice di petto, voce di gola and voce di testa. Madame Seiler describes five conditions, viz. the first series of tones of the chest register, the second series of tones of the chest register, the first series of tones of the false register, the second series of the false register, and the head register. French writers usually refer to two registers only, the chest and the head; whilst Behnke gives three registers for male voices (lower thick, upper thick and upper thin) and five for the voices of women and children (lower thick, upper thick, lower thin, upper thin and small). These distinctions are of more importance practically than as implying any marked physiological differences in the mechanism of the larynx during the production of the tones in the different registers. By means of the laryngoscope it is possible to see the condition of the rima glottidis and the cords in passing through all the range of the voice.

In 1807 Bozini first showed that it was possible to see into the dark cavities of the body by illuminating them with a mirror, and in 1829 W. Babington first saw the glottis in this way. In 1854 Garcia investigated his own larynx and that of other singers, and three years later Türek, and especially J. N. Czernik, perfected the construction of the laryngoscope. In 1883 Lenox Browne and Emil Behnke obtained photographs of the glottis in the living man. The laryngoscope is a small mirror, about the diameter of the rima glottidis, and the cords in passing through all the range of the voice.

In the picture the larynx to be examined in the small mirror at the back of the throat, an image will be seen as in fig. 4. During calm breathing, the glottis is lance-shaped, between the upper and lower cords. A deep inspiration causes the glottis to open widely, and in favourable circumstances one may look into the trachea. When a sound is to be made, the vocal cords are brought close together, either along their whole length, as in fig. 7, or only along the ligamentous portion, the space between the arytenoids being still open, as in fig. 8. Then when the sound begins the

can be thrown from a mouth into the mouth and throat. In the centre of the mirror there is a small hole through which the eye of the observer sees the image in the small mirror at the back of the throat. By placing a second plane mirror in front of the face, an observer can easily see the mechanism of his own larynx.

5. The Quality of the Human Voice depends on the same laws that determine the quality, clang-tint or timbre of the tones produced by any musical instrument. Musical tones are formed by the vibrations of the true vocal cords. These tones may be either pure or mixed, and in both cases they are
strengthened by the resonance of the air in the air-passages and in the pharyngeal and oral cavities. If mixed—that is, give a special character to the sound; and in the case of a vowel tone the pitch does not appear to depend on that of the fundamental tone but on the pitch of the resonance cavity, as adjusted for the sounding of any particular vowel. When vowels to pronounce or sing a vowel the oral cavity must be adjusted to a certain form, and it is only when it has that form that the vowel can be sounded. The nature of vowel tones has been investigated by means of the phonograph by Fleming Jenkin and Ewing, L. Hermann, Pipping, Boeke, Lloyd, McKendrick and others. E. W. Scripture has worked with the grampus. These observers may be ranged in two divisions—those who uphold the theory of relative as opposed to those who contend for the theory of fixed pitch. Assuming that a vowel is always a compound tone, composed of a fundamental and partials, those who uphold the relative pitch theory state that if the pitch of the fundamental is changed the pitch of the partials must undergo a relative change, while their opponents contend that whatever may be the pitch of the tone produced by the larynx, the pitch of the partials which gives quality or character to a vowel is always the same, or, in other words, vowel tones have a fixed pitch. Helmholtz held that all the partials in a vowel tone were harmonic to the fundamental tone, that is that their periods were simple multiples of the period of the fundamental tone. Hermann, however, has conclusively shown that many of the partials to be harmonic to the fundamental. This practically upsets the theory of Helmholtz. The methods by which this problem can be investigated are mainly two. The pitch of the oral cavity for a given vowel may be experimentally determined, or an analysis may be made of the curve-forms of vowels on the wax cylinder of the phonograph or the disk of the gramophone. By such an analysis, according to Fourier's theorem, the curve may be resolved into the partials that take part in its formation, and the intensity of those partials may be thus determined. The observations of Donders, Helmholtz, König and others as to the pitch of vowels give very different results. Greater success has followed the attempts made by Hermann, Boeke, McKendrick, Lloyd and Mareichelle to analyse the curves imprinted on the phonograph. (Examples of such phonograms are given by McKendrick in the article on "Vocal Sounds" in Schäfer's Physiologie, ii. 1228; see also PHONOGRAM.)

The following is an instructive analysis by Boeke of the curves representing the tones of a cornet, and it illustrates the laws that govern the production of quality in such an instrument:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>O U O A I E I EU U</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>fa2 si3 sb4 sb5 sb6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes</td>
<td>235 470 940 1880 3760</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| No. of vibrations | 170 470 940 1536 1920 2304 1024 1536 |}

F. C. Donders has given a third result, differing from each of the above; and there is little doubt that much will depend on the quality of tone peculiar to different nationalities. By means of Koenig's manometric flames with revolving mirror the varying quality of tone may be illustrated: with a pure tone, the teeth in the flame-picture are equal, like the serrations of a saw, whilst usual the tone is mixed with partials which show themselves by the unequal serrations. Thus quality of voice depends, not merely on the size, degree of elasticity and general mobility of the vocal cords, but also on the form of the resonating cavities above, and very slight differences in these may produce striking results.

6. Vowel Tones.—A vowel is a musical tone produced by the vibrations of the vocal cords. The tone produced by the vocal cords is a mixed one, composed of a fundamental and partials, and certain of the partials are strengthened by the resonance of the air in the air-passages and in the pharyngeal and oral cavities. In this respect the quality of the human voice depends on the same laws as those determining the quality or timbre of the tones produced by any musical instrument. The pitch of the note of a musical instrument, however, depends on the pitch of the first or fundamental tone, while the partials are added with greater or less intensity so as to

![Fig. 11.](image1)

![Fig. 12.](image2)
This analysis shows: (1) that the man’s resonance rises slightly (half-semitone) in ascending seven semitones in the middle of his register; (2) that the boy’s resonance rises three semitones in ascending nine semitones in the upper half of his register; and (3) in the mid-register the boy’s resonance is to the man’s at 5:14. Thus, as we sing a vowel in an ascending scale the pitch of the oral cavity slightly changes, or, in other words, the pitch of the resonating cavity for a given vowel may be slightly altered.

It would appear that both theories are partially true; they are not mutually exclusive. The view of Donders that each vowel has an oral cavity of unchangeable and fixed pitch is too exclusive, and, on the other hand, it cannot be denied that each vowel has a predominant partial or predominant partials which give it a definite character, and which must be produced by the oral cavity as a whole, or by the double resonance of portions of the cavity, as suggested by Lloyd. As we sing a vowel in an ascending scale the form of the resonance cavity may slightly change, but not sufficiently to alter the quality of the vowel. Without still detecting the vowel tone. A singer almost instinctively chooses such vowels as best suit the resonating arrangements of his or her voice, and avoids vowels or vowel combinations that would lead to the production of notes of inferior quality.


**VOIRON—VOITURE**

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Partial voices reinforced we obten the pitch of the mean resonance.

Lloyd applies this method to the foregoing figures as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Reinforced</th>
<th>Mean Partial</th>
<th>Pitch in Complete Vibration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man’s ăă</td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f' = 170-6 vibs.</td>
<td>6-6</td>
<td>6-6</td>
<td>968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c' = 250</td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy’s ăă</td>
<td>2-2</td>
<td>2-2</td>
<td>1084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e' = 384 vibs.</td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>1307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c' = 360</td>
<td>4-4</td>
<td>4-4</td>
<td>1084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis states that the man’s resonance rises slightly (half-semitone) in ascending seven semitones in the middle of his register; that the boy’s resonance rises three semitones in ascending nine semitones in the upper half of his register; and that in the mid-register the boy’s resonance is to the man’s at 5:14. Thus, as we sing a vowel in an ascending scale the pitch of the oral cavity slightly changes, or, in other words, the pitch of the resonating cavity for a given vowel may be slightly altered.

It appears that both theories are partially true; they are not mutually exclusive. The view of Donders that each vowel has an oral cavity of unchangeable and fixed pitch is too exclusive, and, on the other hand, it cannot be denied that each vowel has a predominant partial or predominant partials which give it a definite character, and which must be produced by the oral cavity as a whole, or by the double resonance of portions of the cavity, as suggested by Lloyd. As we sing a vowel in an ascending scale the form of the resonance cavity may slightly change, but not sufficiently to alter the quality of the vowel. Thus we still detect the vowel tone. A singer almost instinctively chooses such vowels as best suit the resonating arrangements of his or her voice, and avoids vowels or vowel combinations that would lead to the production of notes of inferior quality.


**VOIRON,** a town of France in the department of the Isère. Pop. (1901) 12,625. It stands at a height of 190 ft., on the Rhône (a tributary of the Isère). It is a manufacturing town, and contains numerous factories which produce a sort of cloth named after the town, and also silk-weaving factories (2000 looms, with an annual output of eight to nine million yards). There are also paper-making factories in the town. The fine church of St Bruno was built 1864–73 at the expense of the monks of the Grande Chartreuse. Voiron is the starting-point of the steam tramways to St Laurent du Pont, 12 m. (for the Grande Chartreuse), and to Charavines, 10½ m. (for the Lac du Bourget). The town is on the road to Savoy, but in 1355 was exchanged (with the rest of the region between the Rhône and the Isère, watered by the Guiers Mort) by the count with France for Faugency and Gex.

**VOISENEN, CLAUDE HENRI DE FUZÉE,** entered the château of Voisonen near Melun, on the 8th of July 1708. At the age of ten he addressed an epistle in verse to Voltaire, who asked the boy to visit him. From this introduction dated a friendship that lasted for fifty years. Voisenon made his début as a dramatist with L’Heuresse remissemblance in 1728, followed in 1739 by a three-act comedy L’École du monde at the Théâtre Français. This was preceded by a verse prologue, L’Ombre de Molère, and a month later Voisenon produced a criticism on his own piece in Le Retour de l’ombre de Molère. A duel in which he was the aggressor inspired him with remorse, and he entered the priesthood, becoming vicar-general to the bishop of Bourgogne. He received the abbey of Jard, which made no demands on him. He became closely attached to Madame du Châtelet, the mistress of Voltaire (q.v.), and was intimate with Hectore de Caylus and Mademoiselle Quinault. Dutreux was made witty but by no means edifying contributions to the Étrennes de Saint-Jean, the Bals de Bois, &c. In 1744 he produced the Mariages assortis and in 1746 his masterpiece, the Coquette fixée. He lived on terms of the closest intimacy with Charles Simon Favart and his wife. His pen was always at the service of any of his friends, and it was generally supposed, though on insufficient grounds, that he had a considerable share in Favart’s most successful operas. Voisenon had, strange to say, scruples all his life about the incongruity between his way of living and his profession, but he continued to write indelent stories for private circulation, and wrote verses in imitation of Madame du Barry, as he had done for Madame de Pompadour. He was elected to the Academy in 1762. On the disgrace of his patron, the duc de Choiseul, he lost his pensions and honours, but soon recovered his position. He was intimate with the chancellor Maupeou, and was suspected of writing on his behalf in defence of the abolition of the parlement. This and some other incidents brought him into general disgrace. Early in 1775 he retired to the château of Voisenon, where he died on the 22nd of November of the same year.

**VOITURE, VINCENT** (1598–1648), French poet, was the son of a rich merchant of Amiens. He was introduced by a school-fellow, the comte d’Avaux, to Gaston d’Orléans, and accompanied him to Brussels and Lorraine on diplomatic missions. Although a follower of Gaston, he won the favour of Richelieu, and was one of the earliest academicians. He also received appointments and pensions from Louis XIII. and Anne of Austria. He published nothing in book form, but his verses and his prose letters were the delight of the coteries, and were regarded above all as a model and admired more than the work of any contemporary. He had been early introduced to the Hôtel de Rambouillet, where he was the special friend of Julie d’Angennes, who called him her “dwarf king.” His ingenuity in providing amusement for the younger members of the circle ensured his popularity, which was never seriously threatened except by Antoine Godeau, and this rivalry ceased when Richelieu appointed Godeau bishop of Grasse. When the desire of the duc de Montausier nineteen poets contributed to the Guirlande de Julie, which was to decide the much-talked-about question of his faute de paroles. He contributed to a duet of which the quarrel between the Uranistes and the Jobelins arose over the respective merits of a sonnet of Voiture addressed to a certain Uranie, and of another composed by Isaac de Benserade, till then unknown, on the subject of Job. Another famous piece of his of the same kind, La Belle Maliceuse, is less exquisite, but still very admirable, and Voiture stands in the highest rank of writers of vers de société. His prose letters are full of lively wit, and, in some cases, as in the letter to Richelieu’s policy (Letter LXIV.), show considerable political penetration. He ranks with Jean de Balzac as the chief director of the reform in French prose which accompanied that of Malherbe in French verse. Voiture died at the outbreak of the Fronde, which killed the society to which he was accustomed, on the 26th of May 1648.

1 See A. Roux, Œuvres de M. de Voiture (Paris, 1856); and C. A. Sainte-Beuve, Causeries du lundi, vol. xii.
VOIVODE—VOLCANO

VOIVODE (also Vaiode, Vayode, Wayode, &c., Med. Gr. βασιλεὺς), a title in use among certain Slavonic peoples, meaning literally "leader of an army" (Sl. voi, host, army; "voiditi," to lead), and so applied at various periods and in various eastern European countries to rulers, governors or officials of varying degree. It is best known as the title of the princes of Moldavia and Wallachia. In these states the title remained in use from the earliest times until 1638 in the case of the first state, and until 1716 in that of the second, when it gave way to "Hospodar" (q.v.). During the period of Hungarian domination of Transylvania (1000–1716) it was governed by a voivode as a Hungarian province, the last voivode raising himself to the position of an independent prince. In Poland the title was used of certain administrative officials; Polish historians latinized it by palatinus. At the present day voivode is used, in its original sense of a high military officer, in the Montenegro army, where it corresponds to the general officer in other European armies.

VOKES, the name of a family of English actors. Frederick Mowbray Vokes (1826–1888), the son of a costumier, made his first appearance on the stage in 1834. In 1861 he, his sisters Jessie (1831–1884), Victoria (1833–1894) and Rosina (1835–1894), and Walter Fawdon (Vokes), first as the "Vokes Children" and then as the "Vokes Family," began to perform at music halls and at the pantomimes, and by their agility and humour made the name well known to English and American theatre-goers. Fred Vokes was a man of real inventiveness as well as rare acrobatic skill.

VOLAPUK, the first artificial language (see Universal Language). Although it was suggested that there were materials of practical success, First published in 1880, it was the work of J. M. Schleyer (b. 1839), a south-German priest. Volapük is not, like the earliest attempts of the kind, an a priori language, but is based mainly on English, the rest of the vocabulary being made up from Latin and the Romance languages. The borrowed words are reduced to a monosyllabic form and are often altered in a very arbitrary manner. Thus the name Volapük itself is made up of the two English words, world and speak, the first in the genitive, the three vowels, a, e, i, being used to express the three cases, genitive, dative and accusative respectively; the nominative is expressed by the bare root, and s is added to form the plural. The grammar of Volapük is therefore partly borrowed, like the vocabulary, partly original. Adjectives end in -ik. The persons of the verb are indicated by adding the pronouns of "I," "thou," "he," "we," &c.; the tenses and the passive are indicated by prefixes, the moods by suffixes following the person-endings, many other inflections being used as well, so that the Volapük verb boasts of no less than 305,440 different forms.

Although founded on English, Volapük is mainly German in structure. It gets rid of the German word-order and the irregularities of German grammar, but it is often impossible to understand a Volapük text without thinking in German. The following is a specimen of the language:

Lőfob kemenis valik volo likol, patiko etis pekuliów, kels konfidos Volapük, as bale medas gleitkin netazetanha.

"I love all my fellow-creatures of the whole world, especially those cultivated (ones) who believe in Volapük as (being) one of the greatest means of nations binding.

Here konfido governs the dative just as its German equivalent does, and "cultivated" is used in the sense of the German geistreich.

The history of Volapük has an interest greater than that of the language itself. It has proved (1) that people in general are ready to adopt an artificial language, and (2) that an artificial language is easier to learn than any national language, and supplies an efficient means of communication between those who have no other language in common. Volapük had no special philological merits to recommend it; yet, after a few years' incubation in south Germany, it spread, first to France (about 1885) and then in a few years over the whole civilized world, so that in 1889, when the third Volapük congress met at Paris, there were 283 Volapük societies all over the world, and the total number of Volapük students was estimated at over a million. At this congress every one—even the waiters—spoke Volapük, and the permanent triumph of the language seemed certain. But the year of its zenith was the beginning of a decline even more rapid than its rise. It fell to pieces through dissensions in its own camp, the first cause of which was the opposition of the inventor to those of his disciples who aimed at making the language mainly an instrument of commerce, correspondence, and advocated the greatest possible simplification of grammar and vocabulary. The divergence of views between the inventor and his colleagues became more and more marked; and after the third congress the breach between M. Schleyer and the Volapük Academy (founded at the second congress in 1887) became a definite one: the director of the Academy proposed a totally new scheme of grammar, and other members proposed others, although one of the objects of the foundation of the Academy was the preservation of the integrity of the language. A new director, M. R. Rieterer of St. Petersburg, was elected in 1893; and from this moment the Academy dissociated itself from Volapük and began to construct a new international language, Idiom Neutral (see Universal Languages). (H. Sw.)

VOLCAE, a Celtic people in the province of Gallia Narbonensis, who occupied the district between the Garumna (Garonne), Cerbenna Mons (Cévennes), and the Rhodanus (or even farther to the east in earlier times), corresponding roughly to the old province of Languedoc. They were divided into two tribes, the Arecomici on the east and the Tectosages (whose territory included the coast of Tolosate) on the west, separated by the river Arauris (Hérault) or a line between the Arauris and Orbis (Orbe). The Volcae were free and independent, had their own laws, and possessed the jus Latii. The chief town of the Tectosages was Tolosa (Toulouse); of the Arecomici, Nemausus (Nîmes); the capital of the province and residence of the governor was Narbo Martius (Narbonne). It was said that there was an early settlement of Volcae Tectosages near the Hercynia Silva in Germany; Tectosages was also the name of one of the three great communities of Gauls who invaded and settled in Asia Minor in the country called Galatia.


VOLCANO, an opening in the earth's crust, through which heated material is brought, permanently or temporarily, from the interior of the earth to the surface, where it usually forms a hill, more or less conical in shape, and generally with a hollow or crater at the top. This hill, though not an essential part of the volcanic mechanism, is what is commonly called the volcano. The name seems to have been applied originally to Etna and some of the Lipari Islands, which were regarded as the seats of Hephaestus, a Greek divinity identified with Vulcan, the god of fire in Roman mythology. All the phenomena connected directly or indirectly with volcanic activity are comprised under the general designation of vulcanism or vulcanicity—words which are also written less familiarly as volcanism and volcanicity; whilst the study of the phenomena forms a department of natural knowledge known as vulcanology. Vulcanicity is the chief superficial expression of the earth's internal igneous activity.

It may happen that a volcano will remain for a long period in a state of moderate though variable activity, as illustrated by the normal condition of Stromboli, one of the Lipari Islands; but in most volcanoes the activity is more decidedly intermittent, paroxysms of greater or less violence occurring after intervals of comparative, or even complete, repose. If the period of quiescence has been very protracted, the renewed activity is apt to be exceptionally violent. Thus, Krakatoa before the great eruption of 1883 had been dormant for something like two centuries, and it is believed that the Japanese
VOLCANO

By far the greatest proportion of the vapour is steam, which sometimes occurs almost to the exclusion of other gaseous products. Such, at least, is the usual and probably correct view, though it is opposed by A. Brun, who regards the volcanic vapours as chiefly composed of chlorides with steam in only subordinate amount. In the case of a mild eruption, like that occurring normally at Stromboli, the vapours may be discharged in periodical puffs, marking the explosion of bubbles rising more or less rhythmically from the scathing lava in the volcanic cauldron. S. Wise observed at the volcano of Sangay, in Ecuador, no fewer than 267 explosions in the course of an hour, the vapour here being associated, as is so often the case, with ashes. During a violent eruption the vapour may be suddenly shot upwards as a vertical column of enormous height, penetrating the passing clouds. For a short distance above the vent the superheated steam, in April 1906, a transparent vapour, but it soon suffers partial condensation, forming clouds, which, if not dispersed by winds, accumulate over the mountain. When the vapour is free from ash it forms rolling balls of fleecy cloud, but usually it carries in mechanical association more or less finely divided lava as volcanic dust and ashes, whereby it becomes yellow, brown, or even black, sometimes as foul as the densest smoke. In a calm atmosphere the dust-laden vapour may rise in immense rings with a rotatory movement, like that of vortex-rings. Frequently the vapours, emitted in a rapid succession of jets, form cumulus clouds, and are sometimes accompanied by a sound like a distant rumble. The general atmospheric disturbance is sometimes accompanied by a loud cracking noise, and the air is rendered electric. Sometimes the arrows may be seen, and frequently there is lightning in the sky. The phenomena are often continued for many hours, and the air is rendered electric for several days. The sound of the jet may be heard at a distance of many miles, and in some cases it is observable for several hundred miles.

Volcanic opinions of the atmosphere which endure for weeks and months are not unusual. When a volcano is in an active state, there is a discharge of steam, with quantities of gases, and ashes, sometimes in vast clouds. The phenomena are often accompanied by a loud cracking noise, and the air is rendered electric. Sometimes the arrows may be seen, and frequently there is lightning in the sky. The phenomena are often continued for many hours, and the air is rendered electric for several days. The sound of the jet may be heard at a distance of many miles, and in some cases it is observable for several hundred miles.

The electrical phenomena attending an eruption are often of great intensity and splendour. The dark ash-laden clouds of vapour are shot through and through by volcanic lightning, sometimes in rapid horizontal flashes, then in oblique forked streaks, or again in tortuous lines compared to fiery serpents, whilst the borders of the cloud may be brilliant with electric scintillations, often forming balls and stars of fire. During the great eruption of Krakatoa remarkable phenomena were observed by ships in the Strait of Sunda, luminous balls like "St Elmo's fire" appearing at the mast-heads and the...
yard-arms, whilst the volcanic mud which fell upon rigging and deck was strongly phosphorescent.

Quite distinct from any electrical phenomena is that intermittent reddish glare which is often seen at night in clouds hanging over an active crater, and which is simply a glow due to reflection from the incandescent lava and stones in the volcanic caldron below.

It is called Rush Mud.—The condensation of the vast volumes of steam exhaled during an eruption produces torrents of rain, which, mingling to a greater or less extent with the volcanic ashes, forms a hot muddy stream known in Italy as lava d'acqua and lave di fango, and in South America as naya. Debris of such mud-lava may rush violently down the mountain-side and spread over the neighbouring country with terribly destructive effect, whence they are greatly dreaded by those who dwell at the base of a volcano. The solidified volcanic mud, often mingled with larger fragments of lava, is known as tuff or tufa. Herculaneum was buried beneath a flood of mud swept down from Vesuvius during the Plinian eruption of 79, and the hard tufaceous crust which thus sealed up the infested city came in turn to be covered by lava-flows from subsequent eruptions: hence the difficulty of excavating at Herculaneum compared with similar work at Pompeii, where there was probably much less mud, since the city, having been at a greater distance from the volcanic centre, was overwhelmed in great measure by loose ashes, capable of removal with comparative ease.

It sometimes happens that volcanic mud is formed by the mingling of hot ashes not directly with rain but with water from streams and lakes, or even, as in Iceland, with melted snow. A torrent of mud was one of the earliest symptoms of the violent eruption of Mont Pelé in Martinique in 1902. This mud had its source in the Etang Sec, a crater-basin high up on the S.W. side of the mountain. By the explosive discharge of ashes and vapours mingled with the water of the tarn there was produced a vast volume of hot muddy matter which on the 5th of May suddenly escaped from the basin, when a huge torrent of boiling black mud, charged with blocks of rock and moving with enormous rapidity, rolled like an avalanche down the gorge of the Rivière Blanche. If a stream of lava obstructs the drainage of a volcano, it may give rise to floods.

**Ejected Blocks.—** When a volcano after a long period of repose starts into fresh activity, the materials which have accumulated in the crater, including probably large blocks from the disintegration of the crater-walls, have to be ejected. If the lava from the last eruption has consolidated as a plug in the throat of the volcano, the conduit may be practically closed, and hence the first effort of the renewed activity is to expel this obstruction. The hard mass becomes shattered by the explosions, and the angular fragments so formed are hurled forth by the outrushing stream of vapour. When the discharge is violent, the vapour, as it rushes impetuously up the volcanic duct, may tear fragments of rock from its walls and project them to a considerable distance from the vent. Such ejected blocks, by no means uncommon in the early stages of an eruption, are often of large size and naturally vary according to the character of the rocks through which the duct has been forced. They may be irregular masses of felsic rocks, possibly lavas of earlier eruptions, or they may be stratified, sedimentary and fissilose rocks representing the platform on which the volcano has been built, or the yet more deeply seated fundamental rocks. By Dr. H. J. Johnston-Lavis, who specially studied the ejected blocks of Vesuvius, the volcanic materials broken from the cone are termed "accessory" ejecta, whilst other fragmentary materials he conveniently calls "accidental" products, leaving the term "essential" ejecta for plastic lava, ashes, crystals, &c. Masses of Cretaceous or Apenine limestone ejected from Somma are scattered through the tuffs on the slopes of Vesuvius; and objects carved in such altered limestone are sold to tourists as "lava" ornaments. Under the influence of volcanic heat and vapours, the ejected blocks suffer more or less alteration, and may contain in their cavities many crystallized minerals. Certain blocks of sandstone ejected occasionally at Etna are composed of white granular quartz, permeated with vitreous matter and encased in a black scoriaceous crust of basic lava.

A rock consisting of an irregular aggregation of coarse ejected materials, including many large blocks, is known as a "volcanic agglomerate." Any fragmental matter discharged from a volcano may form rocks which are described as "pyroclastic.

**Cinders, Ashes and Dust.—** After the throat of a volcano has been cleared out and a free exit established, the copious discharge of vapour is generally accompanied by the ejection of fresh lava in a fragmentary condition. If the ejected masses bear obvious resemblance to the products of the hearth and the furnace, they are known as "cinders" or "scoriae," whilst the small cinders not larger than walnuts often pass under their Italian name of "lapilli" (q.v.). When of globular or ellipsoidal form, the ejected masses are known as "bombing" (g.v.) or "volcanic tears." Other names are given to the smaller fragments. If the lava has become granulated it is termed "volcanic sand"; when in a finer state of division it is called ash, or if yet more highly comminuted it is classed as dust; but the latter terms are sometimes used interchangeably. The pulverized material, consisting of lava which has been broken up by the explosion, or triturated in the crater, is often discharged in prodigious quantity, so that after an eruption the country for miles around the volcano may be covered with a blanket of fine ash. The fine ash is a combination of bone and snow, but often of greyish colour, looking rather like Portland cement, and in many cases becoming reddish by oxidation of the ferruginous constituents. Even when first ejected the ash is sometimes cocoa-coloured. This finely divided lava insinuates itself into every crack and cranny, reaching the interior of houses even when windows and doors are closed. A heavy fall of ash or cinders may cause great structural damage, crushing the roofs of buildings by sheer weight, as was markedly the case at Ottajano and San Giuseppe during the eruption of Vesuvius in 1906. On the sub-tropical slope of the sides of the volcanic cone like an avalanche, forming great ash slides with ridges and furrows rather like barrancos, or ravines, caused by rain. The burial of Ottajano and San Giuseppe in 1906 by Vesuvian ejecta, mostly lapilli, has been compared with that of Pompeii in 79.

Deposits of volcanic sand and ashes retain their heat long after ejected, so that rain will cause them to evolve steam, and if the wind be heavy and sudden it may produce explosions with emission of great clouds of vapour. The fall of ash is at first prejudicial to vegetation, and is often accompanied or followed by acid rain; but ultimately the ash may prove beneficial to the soil, chiefly if it is mixed with snow, but often of greyish colour, looking rather like Portland cement, and in many cases becoming reddish by oxidation of the ferruginous constituents. Even when first ejected the ash is sometimes cocoa-coloured. This finely divided lava insinuates itself into every crack and cranny, reaching the interior of houses even when windows and doors are closed. A heavy fall of ash or cinders may cause great structural damage, crushing the roofs of buildings by sheer weight, as was markedly the case at Ottajano and San Giuseppe during the eruption of Vesuvius in 1906. On the sub-tropical slope of the sides of the volcanic cone like an avalanche, forming great ash slides with ridges and furrows rather like barrancos, or ravines, caused by rain. The burial of Ottajano and San Giuseppe in 1906 by Vesuvian ejecta, mostly lapilli, has been compared with that of Pompeii in 79.
heavy, dark, crystalline minerals, whilst the dust at a distance was excessively fine and perfectly white. According to this observer, the parent mass had undergone a transformation and concretion of the finest particles into a yellowish, granulated, hard spar, glass. The finely comminuted material, carried to a great height in the atmosphere, consisted largely of delicate threads and attenuated spiral filaments, each of the form of a candle, and containing air-bubbles. The greater part of the dust was formed by the mutual attrition of fragments of brittle pumice as they rose and fell in the crater, which thus became a powerful "dust-making mill." By this tribulation of the numerous lava, carried on for the space of three months during which the eruption lasted, the quantity of finely pulverized material must have been enormous; yet the amount of ejected matter was probably very much less than that termed dust during some cases of historical eruptions, such as that at Tomboro in Sumbawa, in 1815. The explosions at Krakatoa were, however, exceptionally violent, having been sufficient to project as far as 15,000 feet into the atmosphere, and to have been at least 30 m. It is usually impossible during a great eruption to determine the height of the column of "smoke," since it hangs over the country as a pall of darkness.

The great black cloud, which was so characteristic a feature in the terrible eruptions in the West Indies, in 1902, was formed of steam with sulphur dioxide and other gases, very heavily charged with incandescent sand or dust, forming a dense mixture that in some respects behaved like a liquid. Unlike the Krakatoa dust, which was derived from a vitreous pumice, the solid matter of the black cloud was largely composed of fragments of crystalline minerals, which had been partially melted, and which were thrown up into the air by the explosions that during the afternoon of the 17th of May, 1902, the solid matter ejected from the Soufrière of St Vincent amounted to several billions of tons, and that some of the dust fell at distances more than 40 miles, and even to the sea.

In Mexico and Central America, under the favourable influence of warmth and moisture, rich soils are rapidly formed by the decomposition of the volcanic dust. In the central part of the volcanic areas in North America, especially in Nebraska and Kansas, are covered with thick deposits of volcanic dust, partly from recent eruptions but principally from volcanic activity in geologic time. The dust is used in the arts as an abrasive agent.

Lava.—The volcanic cinders, sand, ashes and dust described above are but varied forms of solidified lava. Lava is indeed the most characteristic product of volcanic activity. It consists of mineral matter which is, or has been, in a molten state; but the liquidity is not due to simple dry fusion. The magma, or subterranean molten matter, may be regarded as composed essentially of various silicates, or their constituents, in a state of mutual solution, and heavily charged with certain vapours or gases, principally water-vapour, superheated and under pressure. In consequence of the peculiar constitution of the magma, the order in which minerals separate and solidify from it is determined by the relative degree of fusibility, or the order of their relative fusibility. The lava differs from the magma before eruption, inasmuch as water and various volatile substances may be expelled on extrusion. The rapid escape of vapour from the lava contributes to the explosive phenomena of an eruption, whilst the rate at which the vapour is disengaged depends largely on the viscosity of the magma.

The lava on its immediate issue from the volcanic vent is probably at a white heat, but the temperature is difficult of determination since the molten matter is usually not easy of approach, by reason of the houing vapour. Determinations of temperature are generally made at a short distance from the exit, when the lava has undergone more or less cooling, on a small stream from a subordinate vent. A. Bartoli, using a platinum electric resistance pyrometer, found that a stream of lava near a beso, or source of emission, on Etna, in the eruption of 1892, had at a depth of one foot a temperature of 1090°C. On the return journey, where the lava stream was completely covered, but which were observed, and red and of copper have frequently been melted. Probably the lava at the surface of the stream has a temperature of something like 1100°C., but this must not be assumed to be its temperature at the volcanic focus. C. Doelter, in some experiments on the melting-point of lava by means of an electric furnace, found that a lava from Etna softened at from 962° to 979°C. and became fluid at 1010° to 1090°, whilst a Volcanian lava softened at from 962° to 1010°, and became fluid at 1080° to 1090°. These results were obtained at ordinary atmospheric pressure, but it has been assumed that the melting-point of lava at a great depth would, through pressure alone, exceed that obtained in the laboratory. On the centre of eruptions of Volcani in 1871, when the fiery torrent had a perpendicular fall of 50 ft.

In Hawaii the smooth shining lava, often superficially wavy and laccolithic, is known as pahoehoe, whilst the ragged cliffs, or aa. These terms are now used in a general terminology, having been introduced by American geologists. The fields of aa often contain lava-balls and bombs.
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pahoehoe corresponds practically with the *Fluiden lava* of German vulcanologists, and the aa with their *Schollen lava*. Rugged flows are known in Auvergne as *cheires*. The surface of a cinder-field has often a horribly jagged character, being formed of angular blocks bristling with sharp points. In the case of an obsidian-flow a most dangerous surface is produced by the keen edges and points of the fragmentary volcanic glass.

When the lava has become crusted over, the underlying magma should flow away, a long cavern or tunnel may be formed. Should the flow be rapid the roof may collapse and the fragments, falling in, may be consolidated inward and become absorbed in the fused mass. The walls and roof of a lava-cave are occasionally adorned with stalactites, whilst the floor may be covered with stalagmitic deposits of lava. The volcanic stalactites are slender, tubular, hollow, often fragmentary, and the crystalline, whilst the stalagmites are rounded, and the fragments are downed by convection-currents. On the other hand a solid piece, though denser than the corresponding liquid, may be buoyed up for a time by the viscous condition of the molten lava. Moreover, the presence of minutes of rest may lighten the mass. Although the minerals of a rock-magma may separately crystallize it does not follow that the magma itself, in which they probably exist in a state of solution, will not after crystallization a similar change of volume. On the whole, however, there seems reason to believe that lava on solidifying always almost diminishes in volume and consequently increases in density.

According to the experiments of C. Doelter the specific gravity of molten lava is invariably less than that of the same lava when solid, though in some cases the difference is but slight. In a vitreous or isotropic condition the lava has a lower density than when crystalline.

The figures are illustrated by the following table, where the figures give the specific gravity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Liquid</th>
<th>Slowly cooled</th>
<th>Rapidly cooled</th>
<th>Glassy-crystalline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lava of Etna</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.58-2.74</td>
<td>2.71-2.75</td>
<td>2.81-2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vesuvius</td>
<td>2.83-2.85</td>
<td>2.60-2.74</td>
<td>2.69-2.75</td>
<td>2.77-2.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Experiments by Dr C. Barus showed that a diabase of specific gravity 3.017 formed a glass of sp. gr. 2.717, and melted to a liquid of specific gravity 2.818. In the various cases cited, he found that in all cases the rock in a vitreous state had a lower sp. gr. than in a crystalline condition, the difference being greatest in the acid plutonic rocks. A. Harker, however, has called attention to the remarkable change of specific gravity of the dyke rock, which is denser than the same rock in a crystalline condition in the interior of the dykes.

**Physical Structure of Lavas.**—An amorphous vitreous mass may result from the rapid cooling of a lava on its extrusion from the volcanic vent. The common type of volcanic glass is known as obsidian (q.v.). Microscopic examination usually shows that even in this glass some of the molecules of the magma have assumed definite orientation, forming the incipient crystalline bodies known as microlites, &c. By the increase of these minute enclosures, in number and magnitude, the lava may become devitrified and assume a lithoidal or stony structure. If the molten magma consolidate slowly, the various silicates in solution tend to separate by crystallization as their respective points of saturation are reached. Should the process be arrested before the entire mass has crystallized, the crystals that have been developed will be embedded in the residual magma, which may, on consolidation, form a vitreous base. It is believed that in many cases the lava brings up, through its conduit, certain crystals that have developed during solidification in the heart of the volcanic apparatus. Showers of crystals of leucite have occurred at Vesuvius, of labradorite at Etna, and of pyroxene at Vesuvius, Etna and Stromboli. They have been noticed as being magmatic, and had they remained in suspension, this magma might on consolidation have enveloped them as a ground-mass or base. A rock thus consisting of crystals surrounded by a ground-mass is termed a porphyry. In such a lava the large crystals, or phenocrysts, evidently represent an early phase of consolidation, and the minerals of the matrix a later stage. It is notable that the intercalated crystals often lack sharpness of outline, as though they had suffered corrosion by attack of the molten magma, whilst they may contain vitreous enclosures, suggesting that the surrounding mass was liquid during their consolidation. It is believed that the molten magma contained dissolved gases to a considerable depth, cooling slowly under great pressure, and forming rocks which are termed "plutonic" or "abyssal" to distinguish them from rocks truly volcanic, or those which, if not effusive, like lava-flows, have at least solidified very near the surface as dykes and sills. The volcanic and plutonic rocks pass, however, into each other by gradual transition. The dyke-rocks, or intrusive masses, form an intermediate group which may be distinguished under the name of "hypabyssal" rocks, as suggested by W. C. Brögger. Lavas extruded in submarine eruptions may have solidified under a great weight of sea-water, and therefore to that extent rather under plutonic conditions. The range of specific gravity of lavas is generally more than 50, between 30 and 60, or less than 50. Some lavas consist of various silicates, either crystallized as definite minerals or unidividualized as volcanic glass. In addition, however, to the mineral silicates, a volcanic rock may contain a limited amount of free acid and basic oxides represented by such minerals as quartz and magnesite. Rhyolite may be cited as a typical example of an acid lava, andesite as an intermediate and basalt as a basic lava. The various volcanic rocks are described under their respective headings, so that it is needless to refer here to their chemical or mineralogical composition. It may, however, be useful to cite a few selected analyses of some recent lavas and ashes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rock Type</th>
<th>Specific Gravity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Silica</td>
<td>2.61-2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumina</td>
<td>2.71-2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferric oxide</td>
<td>3.41-3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferrrous oxide</td>
<td>3.33-3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manganous oxide</td>
<td>4.37-4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnesia</td>
<td>3.43-3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime</td>
<td>2.70-2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodat</td>
<td>2.68-2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium carbonate (soda)</td>
<td>2.58-2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Titanium dioxide</td>
<td>4.99-5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the course of the life of a volcano, the lava which it emits may undergo changes, within moderate limits, being at one time more acid, and at another more basic. Such changes are not always uniform, but may be modified by a shifting of the axis of eruption. Thus at Etna the lavas from the old axis of Trifoglietto in the Valle del Bove were andesites, with about 60 per cent of silica, but some of them were more doleritic, with a silica-content of only about 50%. It seems probable that, to a limited extent, changes in the character of a lava may sometimes be due to contact with the magma with different rocks underground; if these are in silica rich rocks, the lava will naturally increase; while if they are rich in calcareous and ferromagnesian constituents, the basalt will increase: the variation is consequently apt to be between andesite and basalt. In the above table, for instance, the basaltic andesite is intermediate between these extremes.

By various means and some others it has been held that during a long period of igneous activity a definite order in the succession of the erupted rocks is everywhere constant; but though some working coincidences may be cited, it is hard to find a generalization that has been satisfactorily established. It has, however, been often observed, as emphasized by Professor Iddings, that a volcanic centre will start with the emission of lavas of neutral or intermediate type, followed in the course of a geological period by
acid and basic lavas, and ending with those of extreme composition, indicating progressive change in the magma.

The old idea of a universal magma, or continuous pyroxisphere, has been abandoned, and there is reason to believe that in every case in the primitive condition of the interior of the earth, it seems necessary to admit that the magma must now exist in separate reservoirs. The independent identity of the large volumes of water and steam, which have escaped from them, has been the subject of much speculation among geologists of southern Italy and the neighboring islands exhibit little or no sympathy in their action, and emit lavas of diverse type. The lavas of Vesuvius, one of the Lipari Isles, are rhyolitic, whilst those of Stromboli, Lipari, and the Lipari islands, as well as Stromboli, are basaltic. The distinction, sometimes made after Prof. Iddings, as "consanguinity," and appears to be due to the fact that the rocks are drawn from a common source. Professor Judd pointed out the existence of a prior and lower generation, and that what are described as eruptive rocks during a given geological period have a certain family likeness and have appeared in definite succession. Thus he recognized a Brito-Icelandic petrographical province of Tertiary and recent lavas in the Pacific archipelagoes, and the analogous province of the Atlantic, which are generally associated with the Atlantic type of coast and sub-alkaline lavas of the Pacific type.

Although the character of an erupted product from a volcano is usually brought about very slowly, it has often been supposed that even in the course of a single prolonged eruption, or series of eruptions, the character of the lava may vary to some extent, and this is probably true of, and is engaged, in the case of basaltic lavas, as is usually the case with andesite. M. H. Arlandus, for instance, analysed the bombs of augite-andesite thrown out from Santorin at the beginning of the eruption of 1866, others ejected in 1867, and others again at the close of the same eruption. The chemical composition of the magma during these successive stages. Moreover, Professor A. Lacroix found that the material extruded from Vesuvius in 1906 remained practically the same composition from the beginning to the end of the eruption, and further, that it presented great analogy to that of 1872 and even to that of 1631.

All the Vesuvian lavas are of the type of rock known as leucophosphate or leucite-phyllite, or they pass by, in the presence of a little olivine, into leucite-basalts. Leucite is characteristic of the lavas of Vesuvius, and its olivine riet is excessively rare in those of Etna, where a normal doleritic type prevails. Nepheline, a felspathoid related to leucite, is common in the lavas of the islands. Many of the lavas from the volcanoes of South America consist of hornblende, a basic felspathoid, and the lavas of Guatemala are the result of the eruptions of St Vincent and Martinique in 1902 and from Krakatoa in 1883 were evidently derived from a magma of this Pacific type.

It commonly happens that acid lavas are paler in colour, less dense and less fusible than basic lavas, and they are probably drawn in some cases from shallower depths. As a consequence of the reasonable fusibility of many basic lavas, they flow freely on emission, running to great distances and forming far-spread sheets, whilst the more acid lavas, rapidly become viscous and tend to consolidate nearer to their origin, often in hummocky masses. The shape of a volcanic mountain is consequently determined by the activity of the material subterranean. When the lavas are of the product of the magma, it flows freely on a slope of less than one degree. In consequence, too, of this mobility, it is readily thrown into spray and even projected by the expansive force of the vapour into jets, which may rise to the height of hundreds of feet, and form columns of smoke, producing the appearance of "fire fountains." The emission is not usually accompanied, however, by violent explosions, such as are often found in the case of the composition of the lavas, and these are typically insular. L. Palmieri, however, described certain sublimes on lava at Vesuvius after the eruption of 1872 as deposits of "sea-salt," to show that they were not simply sodium chloride, but contaminated with other elements. L. Palmieri found that these were sea-salt, and he is a believer that the sea-salt is absorbed by certain basaltic lavas in the course of their evolution, and becomes sea-salt.
When a stream of lava flows into the sea it no doubt immediately generates a prodigious volume of steam; but this is only a temporary phenomenon, for the lava rapidly becomes chilled by the cold water, with formation of a superficial solid layer, which by its low thermal conductivity prevents the internal heat from the stream being dissipated. In the great eruption of Krakatoa in 1883 the sea-water gained occasional access to the molten lava, and by its cooling effect checked the escape of vapour, thus temporarily diminishing the volcanic activity on the beach. It was found that the small balls of Siberian obsidian called marakeni threw off, when strongly heated, clouds of finely divided particles formed of pyroxene, olivine, quartz, and felspar, rather than mass through the escape of water. Fuses thus when ignited lose some cases as much as 10% of its weight, due to expulsion of water.

Much of the steam and other vapour brought up from below by a lava may be condensed on contact with the air, and a stream freshly extruded is generally beclouded with more or less vapour. Gaseous bubbles in the lava render it vesicular, especially in the upper part of a stream, where the pressure is relieved, and the formation of gases by subterranean subsidence or elongation in the direction of movement. Vesication, being naturally resisted by cohesion, is not common in very viscous lavas of the extrusive type, though such lavas become vesicular under great pressure, but it is seen to perfection in surface-flows of liquid lavas of basaltic character. A vesicular structure may sometimes be seen even in dykes, but the cavities are usually rounded rather than elongated, and are often arranged in bands parallel to the walls of the dyke. A very small proportion of water in a lava suffices to produce vesication. Secondary minerals developed in a cellular lava may be deposited in the steam-holes, thus producing an annular algal rock.

After the surface of a lava-stream has become rounded over, vapour may still be evolved in the interior of the mass, and in seeking release it forms fumaroles or gas vents. Such vents may, for instance, be thrown up on a lava-flow, and when vapour escapes from terminal or lateral orifices they are known as "spiracles." The stream may issue with sufficient projectile force to toss up the lava in little fountains, or it may overflow the very liquid lavas of the effusive type. In the Hawaiian lavas, it may after projection from the blow-hole fall back in drops and plastic clots, which on consolidation form, by their union, small cones.

During an eruption, the gaseous products may vary considerably. Johnston-Lavis found at Vesuvius that the vapour which first escaped from the boiling lava contained much sulphur and that hydrochloric acid and other chlorides appeared later.

If the vapours exhaled from volcanoes are derived originally from superficial sources, the lava would, of course, merely return to the earth what had been taken from it in the course of the cycle of change. But if, as is now rather generally believed, much if not most of the volcanic vapour is derived from original subterranean sources, and transported to the earth's surface by processes of the atmosphere and hydrosphere, and consequently becomes of extreme geological interest.

**Description of Special Gases and Vapours**—Hydrochloric acid, HCl, escapes abundantly from many vents, often accompanied with the vapours of certain metallic chlorides, and is responsible for much of the acid effects of volcanic exhalations. To avoid dangerous results, an active volcano should be ascended on the windward side. Free hydrochloric acid, HF, has sometimes been detected with the hydrochloric acid among Vesuvian vapours, and silicon fluoride, SiF₄, has also been reported. Sulphured hydrogen, H₂S, is a triangular gas, composed of two atoms of hydrogen and one of sulphur. This and the other combustible fumes have an unpleasant odour, and the lamp flames seen in some eruptions. It readily suffers oxidation, giving rise to sulphur dioxide and water. By the interaction of hydrogen sulphide and carbon dioxide, water and carbon oxyde are formed. CO₂, and often a portion of free carbon dioxide and free sulphur are produced, such being no doubt the origin of many deposits of volcanic sulphur. Hydrogen sulphide may be formed by the decomposition of certain metallic sulphides, like that of calcium, in the presence of moisture, as suggested by Anderson and Fleet with regard to certain muds at the Soufrière of St. Vincent. Sulphur dioxide, SO₂, is one of the commonest exhalations, especially in older eruptions, and is formed by the oxidation of various metallic sulphydrides, that of burning brimstone, even when present in very small proportion and in the presence of an excess of hydrochloric acid. By hydration it readily forms sulphurous acid, which may be further hydrated to sulphuric acid (with hydrochloric acid) in the water of the Rio Vinagre which issues from the volcano of Puracé in the Andes of Colombia; and it occurs, also in certain other volcanic waters. Carbon dioxide, CO₂, is generally a product of the later stages of an eruption, and is
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often evolved after all other gases have ceased to escape. Although it may sometimes be due to the decomposition of limestone, it seems to be mostly of true magmatic origin. At the well-known Grotta del Bue Marino in Italy, a first formation of a chloride resembling halite, KCl, was observed by the first visitors, and there has been for ages a copious discharge, and analyses of the air of the cave by T. Graham Young showed the presence of from 61.5 to 71.1% of chloride. Hence the first observer of this deposit, in the vapours (excluding water-vapour) emitted from the Solfatara near Pozzuoli in the Bay of Naples. The gas by its descent tends to accumulate in depressed areas, as in the Death Valley region of California, where the abundance of the yellow rhombohedral sublimate, which he proved to be a chloride of manganese and potassium, whence he proposed for it the name chloromanganokali. It was studied by L. J. Spencer, and found to be a mixture of CaCl2 and Na2MnCl4. But the yellow sublimate, CaCl2, has been found in cubic crystals on Vesuvius lava. Fluorite, or calcium fluoride, CaF2, is also known as a volcanic product. Lead chloride, PbCl2, a rare Vesuvian mineral, was named potinite, by Prof. Dr. Chappuz of Napoli. Therefore the yellow chloride may give rise to galena, PbS, found by A. Lacroix on Vesuvius in 1906. Atacacite, or cupric oxychloride, CuCl3/3Cu(OH)2, has been named by A. Lacroix in 1906. Another green mineral from Vesuvius was named by A. Sciacchi to be a sulphate containing copper, with potassium and sodium, which he named from its fine colour escholioria. The yellow in the sublimates on Vesuvius will sometimes plate the iron nails of a traveler's boots when crossing the newly erupted lava. Cupric oxide, CuO, occurs in delicate crystalline scales termed palmetire, by Prof. A. Lacroix. Sulphur, by A. Lacroix, was found in Vesuvius lava. The sulphur, which was formerly known as native sulphur, is called today the rimosus, which consists of the intergrowth of sulphur, FeS2, and FeS, and which is found in Vesuvius lava. As, which was named by A. Lacroix in 1874, and was named by O. Silvestri, who examined it, sideraetic.

Boric acid, H3BO3, occurs in the crater of Vesuvius so abundantly that it was at one time collected commercially. It has also led to the foundation of an industry in Tuscany, where it is obtained from the sifoni (v.g.) of the Maremma. From Sasso in Tuscany it has received the name of saponyl or sassoilit. Realgar, or arsenic sulphide, As4S4, occurs in certain volcanic exhalations and is deposited as an orange-red incrustation, often with a greenish tinge, as at the Solfatara, where it was named by A. Lacroix, As4S4, has also been found.

All of volcanic products, sulphur (g.) is in some respects the most interesting one. It may occur in quantities covering the area of a dormant volcano and be ignited by a fresh outburst of lava, thus producing flames which, from their position in the crater, may readily deal a death-blow to a vessel.
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has pointed out, similar phenomena have no doubt occurred elsewhere, especially in the Azores. By Drs Tempest Anderson and J. B. Flett, who were commissioned by the Royal Society to report on the phenomena, this type of explosive eruption is distinguished as the "Peléan type." Its distinctive character is found in the sudden emission of a dense black cloud of superheated and suffocating gases, heavily charged with incandescent dust, moving with great velocity and accompanied by the discharge of immense volumes of volcanic sand, which are not rained down in the normal manner, but descend like a hot avalanche. The cloud, with the avalanche, is called by Lacroix a nade Peléenne, or nade ardente, the latter term having been applied to a similar eruption on the island of San Jorge. This occurred in 1818. In its typical form, the cloud at Pelé appeared as a solid bank, opaque and impermeable, but having the edge in places hanging like folds of a curtain, and apparently of brown or purplish colour. Rolling along like an ink torrent, it produced in its passage intense darkness, relieved by vivid lightning. So much solid matter was suspended in the cloud, that it became too dense to mount ordinary obstacles and behaved rather like a liquid. It has, however, been suggested that its peculiar movement as it swept down the mountain was due not simply to its heavy charge of solids, but partly to the oblique direction of the wind and partly to the leaping of rough lava from the levees. The cloud, when it underwent enormous expansion, and Anderson and Flett were led to suggest that possibly at the moment of emission it might have been partly in the form of liquid drops, which on solidifying evolved large volumes of gas held previously in occlusion. The deadly effect of the blast seems to have been mostly due to the irritation of the mucous membrane of the respiratory passages by the fine hot dust, but suffocating gases, like sulphur dioxide and sulphuric hydrogen, were associated with the water-vapour. Possibly the incandescent dust was even hotter than this suffocating vapour, since the latter might be cooled by expansion.

It is said that the black cloud as it swept along was accompanied by an indraught of air, not however sufficiently powerful to check its rapid advance. The current of air was likened by Anderson and Flett to the irush of air at a railway station as an express train passes. An attempt was made to determine the temperature of the fatal blast which destroyed St Pierre, but without very definite results. Thus it was assumed that as the telephone wires were not melted the temperature was below the fusing-point of copper: possibly, however, the blast may have been hot enough to produce the effects which might normally be due to its temperature.

Shape of Volcanic Cones.—Those volcanic products which are solid when ejected, or, if solid, the sides of which are composed of lava, are generally a steep cone, their accumulation around the eruptive vent a hill, which, though generally more or less conical, is subject to much variation in shape. It occasionally happens that the hill is composed wholly of ejected blocks, not themselves of volcanic origin. In this case an explosion has rent the ground, and the effusive vapours have hurled forth fragments of the shattered rock through which the vent was opened. But no ash or other volcanic fragmentary material has been ejected, nor has any lava been poured forth. This exceptional type is represented in the Eifel by certain monticules which consist mainly of fragments of Devonian slate, more or less altered. In some cases the area within a ring of such rock is occupied by a hollow, or a rounded depression, known in the Eifel as a maar. Piles of fragmentary matter of this character, though containing neither cinders nor lava, may be fairly regarded as volcanic, inasmuch as they are due to the explosive action of hot subterranean vapours.

In the ordinary paroxysmal type of eruption, however, cinders and ashes are shot upwards by the explosion and then descend in showers, forming around the orifice a mound, in shape rather like the diminutive cone, but often larger. In very large eruptions the sides of cinder cones of this character may be formed within the crater of a large volcano during a single eruption: whilst large cones are built up by many successive discharges, each sheet of fragmentary material moving more or less regularly round the preceding layer. The symmetry of the hill is not infrequently affected by disturbing influences—a strong wind, for example, blowing the loose matter downwind. In some cases the cone has gradually prostrated itself into the shape of a cinder cone, then by further flow of lava, or by the growth of a scoriaceous cinder-cone, or by the formation of a scoria-cone, have developed into the form of a lava-dome. Many examples of this type are found around Vesuvius. The process is usually slow, varying from 30° to 45°, depending on the angle of repose of the ejectamenta. Excellent examples of small scoria-cones are found among the pyas of Auvergne in central France, whilst a magnificent illustration of this type of hill is furnished by Fujiyama, in Japan, which reaches an altitude of 12,000 ft. How such a cone may be rapidly built up was well shown by the formation of Monte Nuovo, near Pozzuoli—a hill 400 ft. high and a mile in circumference, which has been formed in the course of a few days in September 1538. The shape of a cinder cone may be retained for ages, since it is not liable to suffer greatly by denudation, as the rain soaks into the loose material and the latter is in consequence very firm. If the cone is built upon a porous substratum the water is carried away and the cone is liable to collapse. By a similar process it may be destroyed.

It often happens that the cinders and ashes ejected from a volcano become mixed with water, and so form a paste, which sets readily as a hard tufaceous mass. Such natural tuff is indeed similar to artifically built up tufa, such as that of a Roman temple. A remarkable example of such a formation is found in Auvergne, and is known as a tuff-cone. The world is remarkable for the occasional volcanic coverings of the sea. When lava and the volcanic mud are blown into the sea, they are quickly covered with the sea-bottom mud, and thus form a bed of volcanic material, and if this is subsequently carried away, it may be deposited as a volcanic deposit.

Lava-cones are built up of streams of lava which have consolidated and are usually accompanied by cinder-cones. As the lava usually flows from the volcano in different directions, it may be seen to flow from the centre, or flow from lateral or eccentric orifices, as irregular tongues, and do not generally form continuous sheets covering the mountain. The cone is the sole or chief element in the cone, the shape of the hill is determined to a great extent by the chemical composition and viscosity of the lava, its copiousness and the rapidity of flow. If the lava is highly plastic and mobile, it may spread to a great distance before solidifying, and thus form large cones and basaltic caves and rising perhaps to a great height, but remarkably flat in profile. Were the lava perfectly liquid, it would indeed form a sheet without any perceptible slope of surface. As a matter of fact, however, the lava are so fluent as to run down an incline of 1°, and it is probable that in some cases a slope of only 10° or even less. The colossal mass of Mauna Loa, in Hawaii, forms a remarkably flat broad cone, standing about 5000 ft. above sea-level, and spreading over a surface of 13,900 sq. ft. Major Dutton, writing in 1883, said that "a moderate eruption of Mauna Loa represents more material than Vesuvius has desquamated since the earliest period of its history. Yet the lava is so mobile that it generally wells forth quietly, without explosive demonstration, and therefore unaccompanied by fragmentary ejectaments. Fluent lavas like those of Hawaii are also poured forth from the volcanoes and volcanic fissures of Iceland.

If the lava be less basic and less fusible, the hill formed by its accumulation instead of being a low dome will take the shape of a cone with sides of higher gradient: in the case of andesitic cones, for example, the sides of the cone are often straight, or nearly so. If the lava contains much silica, as rhyolites and trachytes, may be emitted as very viscous lavas tending to form dome-shaped or bulbous masses. Such lavas solidify slowly, yet may be blown up into a cone, and in a semi-solid condition, it is possible to form large towers in size not by the lava running over the crater and down the sides, but by injection of the pasty magma within the expanding bulb of the cone. This is a mode of growth in which the dome consists of successive sheets that have been compared to the skins of an onion, has been illustrated by the experiments of Dr A. Reyner, and the structure is typically represented by the mamelons or steep-sided domes of the Isle of Bourbon. The Puy-de-Ingou in Auvergne is an example of a cone formed of the trachytic rock called from its locality domite, whilst the Dome sacroin in the same region illustrates the broad dome or saucer-shaped type of hill. Such domes may have or may not be crater, and it is then usually assumed that the top with the crater has been removed by denudation, but possibly in some cases such a feature has been formed by means of the water. If the lava be extremely fluid, acid lava extruded as a homogeneous mass, without conspicuous chymney or crater. Although domes are usually composed of acid rocks, it seems possible that they may be formed also of basic lavas, as the solidifying may be retarded slowly at a low temperature so as to be rapidly congealed.

The Spine of Pelé.—A peculiar volcanic structure appeared at Mont Pelé in the course of the eruption of 1902, and was the subject of much discussion by scientists in Europe and other parts of the world. One of the early observers, Mr. J. Wilson, of the Royal Geographical Society, says that the sandstone was excavated by means of a huge tuff cone, formed of scoria, the top of which had been removed, and other observers. It appears that from fissures in the floor of the Etang Sec a viscous andesitic lava, partly crystallized, was poured forth and rapidly solidified superficially, forming a dome-mound, which, by further activity, became sliced, and the interior was invaded by a more fluid lava. According to Lacroix, the crust soon became fractured, partly by shrinkage on consolidation and partly by internal tension, and the dome grew rapidly by injection of molten matter. Then there gradually rose from the dome a huge monolith or neckle, forming a terminal spine, which, in the course of its existence varied in shape and height, having been at its maximum in July 1903, when its absolute height was about
2376 ft. above sea-level. The walls of the spine, inclined at from 75° to 90° to the horizon, were apparently slickensided, or polished and scratched by friction; masses were occasionally detached and voluntarily fell inwards into the crater, and the whole of the cone has also formed. Some observers regarded the great spine as a solidified plug of lava from a previous outburst, expelled on a renewal of activity. Lacroix, however, believed it to be formed by the collapse of highly viscid magma, partly solidified before emission, and he compared the formation of the dome in the crater to the structure in Santorin in 1866, described by Kossuth. In any case, it has been regarded as a more or less perfect cone, of a kind of volcanic agglomerate, rising from a cone of talus formed of its ruins.

The exitive orifice in normal volcanoes—the beca of Italian vulcanologists—is usually situated at the bottom of a depression or cup, known as the crater. This hollow is formed and kept open by the explosive force of the elastic vapours, and when the volcano becomes dormant or extinct it may be closed, partly by rocks falling from its crumbling walls and partly by the solidification of the lava which it may contain. If a renewed outburst occurs, the floor of the old crater may reappear or a new outlet may be formed after a total breach of the cone. Hence a crater, with regard to position, be either terminal or lateral. The position of the crater will evidently be also changed on any shifting of the mountain, and in the cases of any very rapid movement of the earth's crust, the floor of a crater may be elevated to several hundred feet during the great eruption of 1906, the east side of the cone having lost, according to V. R. Matteucci, 120 metres.

While in many cases the crater is a comparatively small circular hollow around the orifice of discharge, it forms in others a large hollow, like cavity, such as is termed in some localities a "caldera." In the Sandwich Islands the craters are wide pits bounded by nearly vertical walls surrounded by a continuous concentric wall, or a great plain of black basalt, sometimes with lakes of molten lava. Professor W. H. Pickering compares the lava-pits of Hawaii to the crater-rings in the moon. Some of the pit-craters in the Sandwich Islands are known as Mauna Loa to the Hawaiians, after the great cone of the lunar craters. Dr. G. K. Gilbert, however, has suggested that the ring-shaped pits on the moon are not of volcanic origin, but are deformations formed by the impact of meteorites. Similarly has the "crater" of Coon Butte, near Canyon Diablo, in Arizona, which is 4000 ft. in diameter and 500 ft. deep, has been regarded as a vast pit due to collision of a meteorite of prodigious size. Probably the largest terrestrial volcanic crater is that of Aso-san, in the island of Kiushiu (Japan), which is a huge oval depression estimated by some observers to have an area of about 200 sq. m. Some of the large pit-craters have probably been formed by subidence, the core of the mountain being pushed back to the level of the surface. Asa-san, after the destruction of the cone, and the roof of the cavity having then subsided by loss of support. The term caldera has sometimes been limited to craters formed by subsidence.

On the floor of the crater, ejected matter may accumulate as a conical pile; and if such action be repeated in the crater of the new cone, a succession of concentric cones will ultimately be formed. The walls of a perfect crater form a ring, giving the cone a truncated appearance, but the ring may suffer more or less destruction in the course of the history of the mountain. A familiar instance of such change is afforded by Vesuvius. The mountain now so called, using the term in a restricted sense, is a huge composite cone, its base being within an old crateral hollow, the walls of which still rise as an encircling rampart on the N. and N.E. sides, and are known as Monte Somma; but the S. and W. sides of the ancient crater have disappeared, having been blown away during some former outburst, probably the Plinian eruption of 79. In like manner the relics of an old crater form an amphitheatre partially engulfing the Soufrière in St. Vincent, and other examples of "Somma sings" are known to vulcanologists.

Much of the fragmental material ejected from a volcano rolls down the inside of the crater, forming beds of tuff which incline towards the crater's margin. Beds of this kind, which are formed of sheets of cinder and lava which form the bulk of the cone slope away from the axis, or have a dip that is sometimes described as periclines, or folds, on their margins. These periclines, or "folds of theory," held especially by A. von Humboldt, L. von Buch and Elf de Beaumont, this inclination of the beds was regarded as mainly due to upheaval. It was contended that the volcanic cone owed its shape to "folds" created by differential subsidence of the earth's crust, burst at the summit to form the "elevation crater." Palma, in the Canaries, has been taken as a fine example of such an elevation. This view was opposed mainly by Poulet-Scorpée, Sir Chas. Lyell and Constant Prévost, who argued that the volcano, so far from being bladder-like, was practically a solid cone of erupted matter; hence this view came to be known as the "crater of eruption theory." Its general soundness has been demonstrated whenever an igneous structure of the cone of Krakatoa in 1883 a magnificent natural section of the great cone of Rakata, at the S. end of the island, was exposed—there is no doubt that having been lost. It is then evident that this mountain was a practically solid cone, built up from the successive accumulation of irregular beds of tuff and lava, braided together by intersecting dykes. The internal architecture of a volcano is rarely so simple; it is commonly composed of large and small fragments, the local expansion and rupture of the ground required by the old theory. It may be noted, however, that in recent years the view of elevation cones has been modified in order to explain certain facts.

Where the growth of a volcanic mound takes place within, as in certain steep-sides trachytic cones, there may be no perceptible crater or external outlet. Again, there are many volcanoes which have a crater at the summit, because the eruptions always take place from lateral outlets. Even when a terminal pit is present, the lava may issue from the body of the mountain, and in some cases it exudes from so many vents or cracks that the volcano has been described as "omega-shaped" or "mulberry-shaped.

Parasitic Cones.—In the case of a lofty volcano the column of lava may not have sufficient ascensional force to reach the crater at the summit, the greater part of it being blown away after a weak outburst. Thus at Etna, which rises to a height of more than 18,800 ft., the eruptions usually proceed from lateral fissures, sometimes at least a mile distant from the summit. Where such a weak outburst has ejected from a lateral vent a cinder-cone is formed, and by frequent repetition of such ejections the flanks of Etna have become dotted over with hundreds of scoria-cones much like the pays of Avuegno, of Monte Pelée in Martinique. It may be a feature of this kind.

The small cones which are frequently thrown up on lava streams were admirably exemplified on Vesuvius in the eruption of 1855 and figured by J. Schmidt. The name of "dribble cones" was given by Mr. Drury to those formed at the latter of the Krakatoa eruption. These were formed by avalanches of lava blown from escaping holes at Kilauea, the flows of lava remaining plastic and cohering as they fell. Such deposits form columns and plugs with almost a perfect cone, and the large or less of this character occur elsewhere, but are usually built up through spires. Small cones formed by mere dabs of lava are known trivially as "spatter cones."
a declining phase of volcanism. Sir Archibald Geikie, who has specially studied the subject of fissure eruptions, regards the Tertiary basaltic plateaus of N.E. Ireland and the Inner Hebrides as outflows from fissures, which may be represented by the gigantic submarine formations off the coast of Scotland. The structure of the northern part of Britain and Ireland. Those dykes extend over an area of something like 40,000 sq. m., while the outflows form an aggregate of about 5000 ft. in thickness. In parts of Scotland, on the other hand, the fissures are found to extend for miles, but the basalt from fissure eruptions occupy an area of about 200,000 sq. m., and constitute a pile at least 2000 ft. thick. In India the Deccan traps represent an outflow of volcanic matter, over an area of like extent but of Cretaceous date, while Switzerland furnishes other examples of similar outflows. Professor J. W. Gregory recognized in the Kaffe plains of East Africa evidence of a type of volcanic eruption extending over a similar extent of land.

Solidification.—Lava flows have cooled very slowly, both in water and air, or have been chilled by the earth, but the rock often consists of a close aggregate of regular polygonal prisms, mostly hexagonal. Each prism is divided at intervals by transverse joints, more or less curved, so that the portions are rather like the slices of cheese cut by a knife than by the holes through the columns of the columns at right angles to the cooling surface they are vertical in a horizontal sheet of lava, horizontal in a vertical dyke, and inclined or curved in other cases. It sometimes happens that in a basaltic dyke the formation of the prisms, having started from the opposite walls as chilling surfaces, has not been completed; and hence the prisms fail to meet in the middle. A spheroidal structure is often developed in basalt columns by weathering, the rock exfoliating in spherical shells, rather like the skins of an onion: such a structure is characteristically shown at the Kasekell, known also as the Ellen Grotto, at Berthier, near All on the Mosel, in Northern Ireland, in the Hebrides, in Ireland, and in the Hebrides, and is developed by the cooling of the molten lava. Some dyke, the rock exfoliates in the form of a prismatic sheet, and the rock is sometimes given the name of the slab.

Extrusive and Intrusive Magmas.—When the molten magma in the interior of the earth makes its way upward and flows forth superficially as a stream of lava, the product is described as extrusive, effusive, or effusive; but if, failing to reach the surface, the magma solidifies in a fissure or another subterranean cavity, it is said to be intrusive or intrusive. Many of the former group only are discovered at the surface as structures such as the dykes, the fissure variety of which is conventionally, at least in certain cases, to igneous rocks of the latter type, including therefore certain hypabyssal and even plutonic rocks. An intrusive magma has been forced into narrow irregular crevices it forms "veins," which may exhibit complex ramifications, especially marked in some acid rocks; but when injected into a rock mass, a lava flow, or lava sheet, composed of extrusive or intrusive rocks, that solidifies in situ is termed a "dyke." Most dykes are approximately vertical, or at least highly inclined in position. The inclination of a dyke to a vertical plane is termed its "hade.

When molten matter is thrust between beds of tuff or between successive lava-flows or even ordinary sedimentary strata, it forms an intrusive sheet of volcanic rock known as a "sill" or a "dyke," which may sometimes be traced to its connexion with a dyke, which reduced the channel up which the lava rose, but instead of reaching the surface the fluid found an easier path between the strata or perhaps through the tuff and flowed laterally. Although the "sill" may reach hundreds of feet in thickness, the process of formation, if the lava has been removed at the surface by denudation, the dyke termen terminates abruptly, so that its function as the former feeder of a lava sheet is indicated by the method of its formation.

Lava which has solidified itself between planes of stratification may, instead of spreading out as a sheet or sill, accumulate locally as a lenticular mass, known as a laccolith or laccolithic (q.v.). Such a mass, in many cases rather mushroom-shaped, may force the superincumbent rocks upwards as a dome, and though at first concealed may be ultimately exposed by removal of the overlying beds by erosion. The term laccolith was introduced by A. Harker to denote a meniscus-shaped mass of lava intruded in folded strata, along a previously existing fracture. The laccolithic of Professor Iddings is a laccolith of about 50,000 ft. in extent, a feature quite irregular in shape has been termed by R. A. Daly a chonolith (Gr. chonlith, a mound), whilst an intrusion of very great size and ill-defined form is sometimes described as a batholith or batholite.

Structural Peculiarities in Lava.—Many of the structures exhibited by lava are due to the conditions under which solidification has been effected. A dyke, for example, may be vitreous at the margin where it has been rapidly chilled by contact with the walls of the fissure into which it was thrown, or it may be crystalline or lithoidal or crystalline; hence a basalt dyke will sometimes have a selvage formed of the fassahic glass known as tachylite. A similar dyke frequently has a thin selvage of checkered or columnar structure or "perlitic cracks" of certain obsidians, indicating a tendency to assume a peculiar structure. The first-formed crystals of such a structure being removed by the accumulation of "spherulites," or globular masses with a radiating fibrous structure, sometimes well seen in devitrified glass. Occasionally the spherulitic bodies in lava are hollow, when they are known as lithophyses, of which excellent examples occur at Obsidian Cliff near the Yellowstone National Park, as described by Professor Iddings. Globular structure on a large scale is sometimes displayed by lavas, especially those of basic type, such as the basalt of Acé Castello in Portugal, the basalt of Platañia, by flow of the lava into subaqueous sill of the Mediterranean, and the basalt of Savages. Joints, or cracks formed by shrinkage on solidification, may occasionally occur at the surface of a lava, but are more commonly recognized in the form of cracks or fissures in the lava in which it is intruded. In the rock of the Mediterranean. Dr T. Anderson has observed them in the recent lavas of Savages.

Submarine Volcanoes. Considering how large a proportion of the face of the earth is covered by the sea, it seems likely that volcanic eruptions must frequently occur on the ocean-floor. When, as occasionally though not often happens, the effects of a submarine eruption are observed during the disturbance, it is seen that the surface of the sea is violently agitated, with copious discharge of steam; the water passes into a state of ebullition, perhaps rising up huge fountains; showers of dead ashes, with volcanic cinders, bombs and fragments of pumice, float around the centre of eruption, and ultimately a small island may appear above sea-level. This new land is the peak of a volcanic cone which is based on the sea-floor, and if in deep water the submarine mountain must evidently be of great magnitude. Christmas Island in the Indian Ocean, described by Dr C. W. Andrews, appears to be a volcanic mountain, with Tertiary limestones, standing in water more than 14,000 ft. deep. Many volcanic islands, such as those abundantly scattered over the Pacific, must have started as submarine volcanoes which reached the surface either by continued upward growth or by upheaval of the sea-bottom. Etna began its long geological history by submarine eruptions in a bay of the Mediterranean, and Vesuvius in like manner represents what was originally a volcano on the sea-floor. As the ejectaments from a submarine vent accumulate on the sea-bottom they become intermingled with relics of marine organisms, and thus form fossiliferous volcanic tuffs. By the distribution of the ashes over the sea-floor, through the agency of waves and currents, these tuffs may pass insensibly into submarine deposits of normal sedimentary type.

One of the best examples of a submarine eruption resulting in the formation of a great island is the volcanic island of the Canaries between Sicily and the coast of Africa, where the water was known to have previously had a depth of 100 fathoms. After the eruptions of volcanic activity in 1436 and 1437, the volcanic cinders and ashes formed an island which reached at one point a height of 200 ft., so that the pile of erupted matter had a thickness of about 800 ft. The new island, which was studied by Constant in 1707, is considered by many to be the same as Vulcão de Ilheu and in Italy by various names as Isola Ferdinandea. Being merely a loose pile of scoriae, it rapidly suffered erosion by the sea, and in about three months was reduced to a shoal called Graham's
Reef. In 1891 a submarine eruption occurred near the island of Pantelleria in the same waters, and the eruptive centre was termed by Professor H. S. Washington and Fosseranti volcano, but it gave rise to no outflow. A well-known volcano, though small, was emplaced at Cerro del Totumo in 1796, and this eruption lasted about one month, and was observed by Humboldt, who considered it to be the most remarkable of the year. The eruption of some of the volcanic cones in the neighborhood of this volcano was similar to that of the volcanoes of the Duncan, and more distinct, including the largest volcanic mountains in the world. The grandest group of South American volcanoes, though generally rather insignificant, is in Ecuador. Cotopaxi, seen in activity from the summit of Chimborazo, in 1850 by Humboldt, and reported by him to be the highest volcano in the world, is an active volcano which, in 1880, produced a considerable amount of ash and sand. The crater of Cotopaxi is 3,000 ft. in diameter, and is surrounded by a rise of black sand which has continued to rise to an elevation of about 500 ft. The mud oozes from the top and spreads over the sides, or is spurted forth with the gases. Occasionally the discharge is vigorous, mud and stones being thrown up to a considerable height, sometimes accompanied by flames due to combustion of the hydrocarbons. Mud volcanoes occur in groups, and have a wide distribution. They are known in Iceland; in Modena; at Taman and Ketch, in the Crimea; at Baku on the Caspian; in Java and in Trinidad; Humboldt described those near Turbaco, in Colombia. In Sicily they occur in the Gergenti, and a group is known at Patagona on Elba. By the Sicilians they are termed, masolude, a word of Arabic origin. The "paint-pots" of the Yellowstone National Park are mud volcanoes. Many so-called mud volcanoes appear to be due to the drainage of subterranean water-flow or to landslips in connection with earthquakes, whilst others may be referable to certain chemical reactions going on underground; but there are others again which seem to be truly volcanic origin. Hot water and steam escaping through clay, or crumbling tufts reduced to a clayey condition, may form conical mounds of pumice, which rise to an elevation of about 500 ft. Sometimes mud volcanoes give an appearance of being connected with the mountain and destroyed Old Guatemala, but this flood was probably not of volcanic origin.

The plateau of Mexico is the seat of several active volcanoes which occur in a band stretching across the country from Colima, in the west to Tuxtlas near Vera Cruz. The highest of these volcanic mountains is Oraiba, or Cithaltepetl, rising to an altitude of 17,880 ft. and known to have been active in the 19th century. The Popocatepetl ("the smoking mountain") reaches a height of about 17,880 ft., and from its crater sulphur was at one time systematically collected. The famous volcano of Jorullo, near Toluca, at a distance of about 150 m. from the sea, has been the centre of much scientific discussion since it was regarded by Humboldt, who visited it in 1803, as a striking proof of the elevation theory. It came into existence rapidly during an eruption which began in September 1814, and by January 1815 it was said to be about 500 ft. high. The ground became suddenly inflated from below. The cone, though not of exceptional magnitude, is situated in an elevated district, and its foundation is doubtless to a large extent subterranean. The cone of Jorullo is divided into several parts, and from these numerous vents form a mass of rough barren surfaces, which pass under the name of malpais, or bad lands. In the United States very few volcanoes are active at the present day, though many have been active in times that are comparatively recent. An eruption occurred in 1857 at Tres Virgenes, in the south of California, and the cinder cone on Lassen's Peak (California) was also active in the 19th century. The Mono Valley craters and Mount Shasta, in California, are extinct. The Cascade Range contains numerous volcanic peaks, but only a few do not show signs of activity. Mount Hood, in Oregon, exhalas vapour from a number of vents, but the most interesting are Mount Rainier (Washington) was in eruption in 1811 and 1822, and Mount Baker (Washington), the most northern of the volcanoes connected with the Cascade Range, is said to have been active in 1834. Few volcanic peaks occur in the Rocky Mountains, but evidence of lingering activity is very marked in the geysers and hot springs of the Yellowstone National Park. The earth's internal heat is also manifested at many points elsewhere, as at Steamboat Springs on the Virginia Range, an offshoot of the Sierra Nevada, and in the Comstock Lode. Volcanic activity is prominent in Alaska, along the Coast Range and in the neighbouring islands. The crater of Mount Edgecumbe, in Lazard Island, is said to have been active in 1796, but this is doubtful. Mount Fairweather has probably been in recent activity, and the lofty cone of Mount Wrangell, on Copper River, is reported to have been in eruption in 1819. In the neighbourhood of Cook's Inlet there are several volcanoes, including the island of St Augustine. Unimak Island has two volcanoes, which have supplied the natives with sulphur and obsidian; one of these volcanoes being Mount Shishaldin, a cone rivalling Fishtyama in graceful contour. The great volcanic ring may be traced, though with many and extensive interruptions, from Cape Horn to Alaska. In South America the chain of the Andes between Corcovado in the south and Tolima in the north is composed of volcanic rocks, and these volcanoes are more distinct, including the loftiest volcanic mountains in the world. The grandest group of South American volcanoes, though mostly quiescent, is in Ecuador. Cotopaxi, seen in activity from the summit of Chimborazo, in 1850 by Humboldt, and reported by him to be the highest volcano in the world, is an active volcano which, in 1880, produced a considerable amount of ash and sand. 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**VOLCANO**
Aletian volcanic belt is a narrow, curved chain of islands, extending from Cook’s Inlet westwards for nearly 1,600 m. It is notable that the convexity of the curve faces the great ocean, as has been observed in other cases, the arcs following the direction of the rock-folds. Approximately, by the time of T. C. Russell, the geologist of N. America, there are in the Aletian Islands and in the peninsula no fewer than 57 craters, either active or recently extinct.

It is known that a long band of the Pacific changes its direction, and passing to the peninsula of Kamchatka, where 14 volcanoes are said to be active, turns southwards and forms the festoon of the Kurile Islands. Here again the convexity of the island faces the great ocean. This volcanic archipelago leads on to the great islands of Japan, where the volcanoes have been studied by Professor J. Milne, who also described those of the Kuriles. Of the 54 volcanoes recognized as now active or recently extinct, the best known are the group of the sacred mountain Fujiyama, but others less pretentious are far more dangerous. The great eruption of Bandaian, about 120 m. of Toku, which occurred in 1888, blew off the side of the peak called Kohandai, removing, according to Professor Sekiya’s estimate, about 2,982 million tons of material. Aso-san in Kiushii, the southernmost large island of Japan, is notable for the enormous size of its crater. In the Bonin group of islands volcanic activity is indicated by such names as Volcano Island and Sulphur Island.

South of the Japanese archipelago the train of volcanoes passes through some small islands in or near the Loo Choo (Li Kiu) group and the Kurile Islands, where a large number of active and subterranean activity finds abundant expression in earthquakes and volcanoes. After leaving this region the linear arrangement of the islands is more irregular, though towards the south, for instance, every island in the Moluccas and the Sunda Archipelago teams with volcanoes, solfataras and hot springs. Possibly, however, a broken zone may be traced from the Moluccas through New Guinea and the Celebes, and outwards, perhaps, into the islands of the Philippines (for though no active volcanoes are known there, relics of comparatively recent activity are abundant); or again by way of the Bismarck Archipelago, the Solomon Islands, the New Hebrides, the Fiji Islands and Kerama Islands.

The great volcanic district in New Zealand is situated in the northern part of North Island, memorable for the eruption of Tarawera in 1886, which covered a mountain range with a layer of ash Tarawera, not previously known to have been active, suddenly burst into action; a huge rift opened, and Lake Rotomahana subsided, with destruction of the famous sinter terraces. The crater of Tarawera has become a lake, Mount Rihoua, which was regarded as extinct. On White Island in the Bay of Plenty the cone of Whakariki is feebly active.

Far to the south, on Ross Island, off South Victoria Land, in Antarctica, are the volcanoes of Erebus and Terror, the former of which is active. These are often regarded as remotely related to the Pacific zone, but Dr G. T. Prior has shown that the Antarctic volcano category which he examined belonged to the Atlantic and not the Pacific type.

Within the great basin of the Pacific, imperfectly surrounded by its broken girdle of volcanoes, there is a vast number of scattered islands. Some of these islands of minor origin, of volcanic or submarine birth, and having in many cases active craters. The most important group is the Hawaiian Archipelago, where there is a chain of islands, including active volcanoes, extending from the extreme of the exception of three in Hawaii, namely Mauna Loa, Kilauea and Kualalii; and of these Kualalii has been dormant since 1811. It is notable that the two present gigantic centres of activity, though within 20 m. of each other, appear to be independent in their eruption. Several of the Hawaiian Islands, as pointed out by J. D. Dana, who was a very high authority on this group, consist of two volcanoes united at the base, forming volcanic twins or doublets.

The volcanic regions of the Pacific are connected with those of the Indian Ocean by a grand train of islands rich in volcanoes, stretching from the west of New Guinea through the Moluccas and the eastern extremity of the Philippine Islands, and of which the Java and Sumatra.

Here is situated the principal theatre of terrestrial volcanicity, apparently representing an enormous fissure, or system of fissures, in the earth’s crust, sweeping in a bold curve, with its convexity towards the Indian Ocean.

Numerous volcanic peaks occur in the string of small islands to the east of Java—notably in Flores, Sumbawa, Lombok and Bali; and the Java group of terrestrial eruptions and volcanic activity of the world occurred in the province of Java, in the island of Sumbawa, in the year 1815. Java contains within its small area as many as 49 great volcanic mountains—active, dormant and extinct. The largest of these is Mt. Gunung Memanggo, a volcanic cone which is said to be Gunung Lamongang, which is in almost uninterrupted activity, emitting usually only ashes and vapour, though in 1883 Java stream as through. Many of the Javanese volcanoes possess great and deep craters. The cones of the Java and Sumatra, like those of the Pyrenees, are vastly more symmetrical and rugged, some being conical, others irregular and slightly sunken; many being steeply furrowed by tropical rains and sometimes riddled by ash-slides. The radian furrows on volcanic cones are sometimes known as "barrancos."

The little uninhabited island of Krakatoa in the Strait of Sunda appears to be situated at a volcanic node, or the intersection of two curved fissures, and it is believed that the island itself represents part of the basal wreck of what was once a volcanic gigantic. After two centuries of repose, a violent catastrophe occurred in 1833, and since then this island has been the scene of two eruptions and its effects were made the subject of careful study by Vorbeek, Brion and Judd.

On the western side of Sumatra, on the island of Sumatra, is a chain of volcanoes which, running north and south, contains the Mascarenne group, several craters in Réunion (Bourbon) being still active. Far south in the Indian Ocean are the volcanic islands of New Amsterdam and St Paul. The Comoro Islands in the Atlantic Ocean contains the peaks of the African volcanoes, and in Central Africa there are several centres, mostly extinct but some partially active, associated with the Rift Valleys. The enormous cones of Kenia and Kilimanjaro are extinct, but on the Kusoi of the summits of the latter, a crater is still preserved. The Mombacho volcanoes, S. of Lake Edward, rise to a height of more than 14,700 feet. Kirunga, N. of Lake Kivu, is still partially active. Elgon is an old volcanic peak, but Ruwenzori is not of volcanic origin. On the west side of Africa, the Cameroon Peak is a volcano which was active in 1909, and the island of Fernando Po is also volcanic. Along the Red Sea there are not wanting several examples of volcanic activity, Suez and Akakus.

Passing to the Atlantic, a broken band of volcanoes, recent and extinct, may be traced longitudinally through certain islands, some of which are noted for the formation of small volcanoes in part of its length, into an eastern and a western trough. The northern extremity of the series is found in Jan Mayen, an island in the Arctic Ocean, where an eruption occurred in 1818. Iceland, too, is a volcanic land, and is the largest point of the end of all the Atlantic centres. According to Dr T. Thoroddsen there are in Iceland about 130 post-glacial volcanoes, and it is known that from 25 to 30 have been in eruption during the historical period. Many of the Icelandic lava-floors, such as the immense flood from Lak (Skapa Jökull) in 1783, are referable to fissure eruptions, which are the characteristic though not the only kind of lava formations. They are also responsible for the sheets of old lava in the terraced hills of the Faroe Islands, to which may have been related the Tertiary volcanoes of the west of Scotland and the north of Ireland.

An interesting development from the volcanic archipelagoes of the Azores, the Canaries and the Cape Verde Islands. Palma—a little island in the Canary group, with a caldera or large crater at its summit, from which fissions of volcanic radiate—is famous in the history of volcanology, in that it furnished L. von Buch with evidence on which he founded the "crater-of-elevation" theory. The remaining volcanic islands of the Atlantic are not of volcanic origin. The island of Tristan da Cunha, whilst in the western part of the South Atlantic are the small volcanic isles of Trinidad and Ferdinandino do Noronha. St Paul’s rocks appear also to be of volcanic origin.

One of the most remarkable facts in the geology of the world is found in the West Indies, where the Lesser Antilles—the scene of the great catastrophes of 1902—form a string of islands, stretching in a regular line from the island of Tobago to the island of Martinique, about 400 miles in length, and separated from the Greater Antilles by the Caribbean Sea. Subject to frequent seismic disturbance, and rich in volcanoes, solfataras and hot springs, these islands seem to form the summit of a great earth-fold which, rising as a curved ridge from deep water, separates the Caribbean Sea from the Atlantic. The volcanoes are situated on the inner border of the curve. It is notable that the Antilles and the Sunda Islands, two of the grandest theatres of volcanicity on the face of the earth, are situated at the antipodes of each other—one being apparently an eastern and the other a western offshoot of the great Pacific girdle.

The European volcanoes, recent and extinct, may be regarded as forming a great girdle around the main body of the Atlantic land. Vesuvius is the only active volcano on the mainland, but in the Mediterranean there are Etna on the coast of Sicily; the Lipari Islands, with Stromboli and Vulcano in chronic activity; and another, the Etna, on the island of Sicily, where new islands have appeared in historic times. Submarine eruptions have occurred also between Sicily and the coast of Africa; one in 1870, which is believed to have given rise to the island of a small volcanic cone, 100 feet through. In 1891, appearing near Pantelleria, itself a volcanic isle. Of the extinct European volcanoes, some of the best known are in Auvergne, in the Eifel, in Bohemia and in Catalonia, whilst the volcanic activity of Italy is one of the most notorious phenomena of the Phlegrean Fields, &c. The great lakes of Bolsena and Bracciano occupy old craters, and many smaller sheets of water are on similar sites. The volcanic islands no longer active include Iceland, with the immense crater of the Grænavatn, and a number of the Balearic Islands, the Porza Islands, Nisi, Vivera and others near Naples, and several in the Greek archipelago, such as Milos, Kimolos and Paros.

From the eastern end of the Mediterranean evidence of former
volcanic activity may be traced into Asia Minor and thence to Armenia and the Caucasus. East of Smyrna is there a great desolate tract which the ancients recognized as volcanic and termed Euxine Desert. The volcanic districts of Lydia were studied by Professor H. S. Washington. In the plateau of Armenia there are several extinct volcanic mountains, more or less destroyed, of which the best known is Ararat. Nimrud Dugh on the shore of Lake Van is said to have been in eruption in the year 1441. Dr F. Oswald has described the volcanoes of Armenia. Of the volcanoes in Persia territory now not active, Demavend, south of the Caspian, is the most important. But it has been doubted whether it still active, and recent volcanic rocks are known from the Przevalsky chain and other localities.

The number of volcanoes known to be actually active on the earth is generally estimated at between 300 and 400, but there is reason to believe that this estimate is far too low. If account be taken of those volcanic cones which have not been active in historic time, the total will probably rise to several thousands. The distribution of volcanoes at various periods of the earth's history, as revealed by the local occurrence of volcanic rocks at different horizons in the crust of the earth, is discussed in Part II. Periods of great earth-movement have been marked by exceptional volcanic activity.

Causes of Volcanicity.

In discussing the cause of volcanicity two problems demand attention: first the origin of the heat necessary for the manifestation of volcanic phenomena, and secondly the nature of the force by which the heated matter is raised to the surface and ejected. According to the old view, which assumed that the earth was a sphereol of molten matter invested by a comparatively thin crust of solid rock, the explanation of the phenomena appeared fairly simple. The molten interior supplied the heated matter, while the shrinkage of the cooling crust served to produce the volcanic eruptions. It is, however, probable that subterranean reservoirs of magma were the origin of all volcanic activity, the crust of the earth being capable of being squeezed out in the process of contraction. When physicists urged the necessity of assuming that the globe was practically solid, volcanologists were constrained to modify their views. Following a suggestion of W. Hopkins of Cambridge, they supposed that there were, instead of existing in a general central cavity, was located in comparatively small subterranean lakes. Some authorities again, like the Rev. O. Fisher, regarded the magma as constituting a liquid zone, intermediate between a solid core and a solid shell.

If solidification of the primitive molten globe proceeded from the centre outwards, so as to form a sphere practically solid, it is conceivable that portions of the original magma might nevertheless be retained in cavities, and thus form "residual lakes." Although the mass might be for the most part solid, the outer portion, or "crust," could conceivably have a honeycombed structure, and any magma retained in the cells might serve indirectly to feed the volcanoes. Neighbouring volcanoes seem in some cases to draw their supply of lava from independent sources, favouring the idea of local cisterns or "intercrustal reservoirs." It is, however, probable, that subterranean reservoirs of magma, if they exist, do not represent relics of an original fluid condition of the earth, but the molten material may be merely rock which has become fused locally by a temporary development of heat or more likely by a relief of pressure. It should be noted that the quantity of magma required to supply the most copious lava-flows is comparatively small, the greatest recorded outflow (that of Tomboro in Sumhava, in 1815) not having exceeded, it is said, six cubic miles; and even this estimate is probably too high. Whilst in many cases the magma-cisterns may be comparatively small and temporary, it must be remembered that there are regions where the volcanic rocks are so similar throughout as to suggest a common origin, thus needing intercrustal reservoirs of great extent and capacity. It has been suggested that comparatively small basins, feeding individual volcanoes, may draw their supply from more extensive reservoirs at greater depths.
centre outwards, caused local fusion of the rocks, though without forming distinct reservoirs of molten magma, and the fused matter charged with gases rose in liquid threads or tongues, which worked their way upwards, some reaching the superficial part of the earth and escaping through fissures in the zone of fracture, thus giving rise to volcanic phenomena. It is held that the explosive activity of a volcano is due to the pressure which has been built up from the interior of the earth, whilst only a small and perhaps insignificant part is played by water of superficial origin.

Entirely new views of the origin of the earth's internal heat have resulted from the discovery of radioactivity. It has been shown by the Hon. R. J. Strutt, Professor J. Joly and others, that radium is present in all igneous rocks, and it is estimated that the quantity in the crust of the earth is ample sufficient to maintain its temperature. An ingenious hypothesis was enunciated by Major C. E. Dutton, who found in the radioactivity of the rocks a sufficient source of heat for the explanation of all volcanic phenomena. He believes that the development of heat arising from radioactivity may gradually bring about the local melting of the rocks so as to form large subterranean pools of magma, from which the volcanoes may be supplied. The supply is usually drawn from shallow sources, probably, according to Dutton, from a depth of not more than three or rarely four miles, and in some cases at not more than a mile from the surface. If the water in the local magma should attain sufficient expansive power, it will rupture the overlying mantle and give rise to an eruption. Before the reservoir becomes exhausted the eruption ceases, but if more heat be generated by continued radioactivity further fusion may ensue, and in time the eruption be repeated. According, however, to Professor Joly, it is improbable that sufficient heat for the manifestation of volcanic phenomena could be developed by the local radioactivity of the rocks in the upper part of the earth's crust.

Himalayas, and North America, are divided into genera and subgenera. Examples of some of these are afforded by the English representatives of the group.

The first of these is the common short-tailed field-mouse, or "field-vole," *Microtus agrestis*, which belongs to the typical section of the upper Volga with the Neva, the commercial mouth of the Volga has been transferred, so to speak, from the Caspian to the Baltic, thus making St Petersburg, the capital and chief seaport of Russia, the chief port of the Volga basin as well. Other less important canals connect it with the Western Dvina (Riga) and the White Sea (Archangel); while a railway only 5 m. in length joins the Volga with the Don and the Sea of Azov, and three great trunk lines bring its lower parts into connexion with the Baltic and western Europe.

The Volga rises in extensive marshes on the Valdai plateau, where the W. Dvina also has its origin. Lake Seiger was formerly considered to be the principal source; but that distinction is now given to the rising issuing between the Volga and the Oka (L. *...*) in the midst of a large marsh to the west of Seiger. The honour has also been claimed, not without plausibility, for the Kuna rivulet. Recent exact surveys have shown these originating streams to be no more than 2 ft. above sea-level, and the Volga first traverses several small lakes, all having the same level, and, after its confluence with the Kuna, enters Lake Volga. A dam 5 m. from its mouth 5 miles below the source with a capacity of 5,000,000 million c.f. of water, makes it possible to raise the level of the Volga as far down as the Shelkina, thus rendering it navigable, even at low water, from its 65th mile onwards.

The Volga flows with a very gentle descent towards the south-east, past Yaroslavl and Kostroma, along a broad valley hollowed to a depth of 150-200 ft. in the Permian and Jurassic deposits. In fact, its course lies through a series of depressions from which the lakes are huddled together. When the Volga at length assumes a due south-east direction it is a large river (8250 cuf. ft. per second, rising occasionally in high flood to as much as 178,300 cuf. ft.) of its numerous tributaries, the Uzha (365, 339 navigable), from the north, is the most important.

The next great tributary is the Oka, which comes from the southwest after having traversed, on its course of 950 m., all the greatest Russian provinces of central Russia. It rises in the govern-

ment of Orel, among hills which send tributaries to the Dnieper and the Don, and receives on the left the Upa, the Dvina (600 m. above the mouth of the Ugra (300 m. above the mouth of the Dnieper), the Klyazma (305 m.), on whose banks arose the middle-Russian principality of Suzdal, and on the right the navigable tributaries of the Volga, the Kama and the Seiger (20 m. above the mouth of the Seiger and the Kama) and the tracts of the Caspian sea, all navigable, are connected with some important event in the history of Great Russia. The drainage area of the Oka is a territory of 97,000 sq. m. It has been maintained that, of the two rivers which unite at Nizhny-Novgorod, the Oka, not the Volga, is the chief; the fact is that both in length (818 m.) and drainage area above the confluence (86,500 sq. m.), as well as in the aggregate length of its tributaries, the Volga is the inferior stream.

At its confluence with the Oka the Volga enters the broad lacustrine depression which must have communicated with the Caspian during the post-Pliocene period by means of at least a broad strait. This deep lake is only 90 ft. above that of the Caspian. Immediately below the confluence the breadth of the river ranges from 350 to 1750 yds. There are many islands which change their appearance and position after each inundation. On rising 5 ft. the level of the Caspian, the Volga is joined by the Seiger, which drains a large area and brings a volume of 2700 to 22,000 cuf. ft. of water per second, the Vetluga (456 m. long, of which 365 are navigable), from the forest-fracts of Yaroslav, and many smaller tributaries. Then the Volga enters the Young Russian, or the Caspian depression, where it receives the Kama, below Kazan. Remains of mounds still exist in the Caspian on the Caspian to the Caspian.

The Kama, which brings to the Volga a contribution ranging from 32,000 to 144,400 cuf. ft. and occasionally reaching 315,000 cuf. ft. per second, might again be considered as the more important of the two rivers. It rises in the Northern Urals, takes a wide swing towards the Caspian sea, and then flows south and west-south to join the Volga after a course of no less than 1150 m.

The Volga is navigable from Yaroslavl and the Dnieper to the mouth of the Dvina, a distance of 650 m., in summer; but its navigability is not sufficient for the serious traffic of Russia. Its current in summer is fairly moderate, but from March to October the river is subject to great fluctuations of current, dependent on the state of the Caspian sea and the Kama, which join the Volga at Kazan. 

1 To the Voytaks it is known as the Budzh-kin. To the Chuvash it is known as the Shoja-agil, and to the Tatars as the Cholman-ideil or Ak-ideil, all words signifying "White river."
Along the next 375 m. of its course the Volga—now 580 to 2500 yds. wide—flows south-west and south-west, with but one great bend at Samara.

The Samara bend.

At this point, where it pierces a range of limestone hills, the river is anastomosed by a large number of tributaries, all of which is the delta of the river is very picturesque, fringed as it is by cliffs which rise 1000 ft. above the level of the stream (which is only 54 ft. above the sea at Samara). Along the whole of the Samara bend the Volga is accompanied on its right bank by high cliffs which it is constantly and in some places by broad lowland areas stretch along the left or eastern bank, and are intersected by several old beds of the Volga.

At Tsaritsyn the great river reaches its extreme south-western limit, and there is separated from the Caspian sea by an isthmus only 45 m. in width. The isthmus is too high to be crossed by means of a canal, but a railway to Kalat brings the Volga into some sort of connection with the Don and the Sea of Azov. At Tsaritsyn the river takes a sharp turn in a south-easterly direction towards the Caspian; it enters the Caspian steppes, and a few miles above Tsaritsyn sends off a branch—the Akhtuba—which accompanies it for 330 m. before falling into the Caspian. Here the Volga receives no tributaries; its right bank is skirted by low hills, but on the left it anastomoses freely with the Akhtuba when its waters are high, and floods the country for 15 to 35 m. The width of the main stream ranges from 550 to 3500 yds. and the depth exceeds 80 ft. The delta proper begins 40 m. above Astrakhan, and the branches subdivide so as to reach the sea by as many as 200 separate mouths. Below Astrakhan navigation is difficult, and on the sand-bars at the mouth the maximum depth is only 12 ft. in calm weather.

The figures given show how immensely the river varies in volume, and the greatness of the changes which are constantly going on in the channel and on its banks. Not only does its level occasionally rise in flood as much as 50 ft. and overflow its banks for a distance of 5 to 15 m.; even the level of the Caspian, which is only affected by the sudden rise and fall brought by the Volga. The amount of suspended matter brought down is correspondingly great. All along its course the Volga is eroding and destroying its banks with great rapidity; towns and loading ports have constantly to be shifted farther back.

The question of the gradual desiccation of the Volga, and its causes, has often been discussed, and in 1838 a committee which included Karl Baer among its members was appointed by the Russian academy of sciences to investigate the subject. No positive result was, however, arrived at, principally on account of the want of regular measurements of the volume of the Volga and its tributaries—measurements which began to be made on scientific principles only in 1880. Still, if we go back two or three centuries, it is indisputable that rivers of the Volga basin which were easily navigable then are now hardly accessible to the smallest craft. The desiccation of the rivers of Russia has been often attributed to the steady destruction of its forests. But it is obvious that there are other general causes at work, which are of a much more important character, as for instance the steady rise of the Caspian sea, which is the principal cause of the general desiccation of Eastern and Western Turkestan are contemporaneous manifestations. The gradual elevation of the whole of northern Russia and Siberia, and the consequent draining of the marshes, is one of these deeper-seated, ampler causes; another is the desiccation of the lakes all over the northern hemisphere.

Fisheries.—The network of shallow and still limans or "cut-offs" in the delta of the Volga and the shallow waters of the northern Caspian, where these are by far the largest of the Russian fish, the Kura and the Terek, is exceedingly favourable to the breeding of fish, and as a whole constitutes one of the most productive fishing grounds in the world. As soon as the ice breaks up in the delta, in late April (Luciottutia leucichthys), which is formerly neglected, but has now become more important than sturgeon; the sturgeon A. stellatus and "wels" (Silurus glanis) follow, and finally the sturgeon Anguilla, which is so much talked of for its caviar and as a food. A gravelly spawning-ground the sturgeon go up the river as far as Saratov (250 m.). The lamprey, now extensively pickled, the sterlet (A. ruthenus), the tench, the gudgeon and other species are immensely important. It is estimated that 180,000 tons of fish of all kinds, of the value of considerably over 1,500,000, are taken annually in the four fishing districts of the Volga, Ural, Terek and Kura. Seal-hunting is carried on off the Volga mouth, and every year about 40,000 of Phoca vitulina are killed to the north of the Manghishlak peninsula on the east side of the Caspian.

Ice Changes.—In winter the numberless tributaries and sub-tributaries of the Volga become highways for sledges. The ice lasts 90 to 160 days, and breaks up earlier in its upper course than in some parts lower down. The average date of the break-up is April 11th at Yar, and 14 days later at Kronstadt and St. Petersburg. The upper river traffic consists chiefly of manufactured goods and timber, the latter mostly for the treeless governments of Samara, Saratov and Astrakhan, as well as for the region adjacent to the lower course of the Don. Drifting fisherman and the numerous whalers who are stationed near the most dangerous sandbanks to assist vessels that run aground. The following table shows the principal river ports, with the movement of shipping in an average year:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chief River Ports on the Volga</th>
<th>Vessels</th>
<th>Tons.</th>
<th>Approx. Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entered</td>
<td>Cleared</td>
<td>Imported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volga</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Astrakhan</td>
<td>2,724</td>
<td>3,528</td>
<td>938,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsaritsyn</td>
<td>6,412</td>
<td>5,482</td>
<td>1,152,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samara</td>
<td>1,403</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>590,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novgorod</td>
<td>1,296</td>
<td>817</td>
<td>723,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saratov</td>
<td>1,639</td>
<td>1,738</td>
<td>923,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Formerly tens of thousands of buraki, or potteries, were employed in dragging boats up the Volga and its tributaries, but this method of traction has disappeared unless from a few of the tributaries. Horse-power is still extensively resorted to along the three canal systems. The first large steamers of the American type were built in 1872. Thousands of steamers are now employed in the traffic, to say nothing of smaller boats and rafts. Many of the steamers use as fuel mazut or petroleum refuse. Large numbers of the boats and rafts are broken up after a single voyage.

History.—The Volga was not improbably known to the early Greeks, though it is not mentioned by any writer previous to Ptolemy. According to him, the Rha is a tributary of an interior sea, formed from the confluence of two great rivers, the sources of which are separated by twenty degrees of longitude, but it is scarcely possible to judge from his statements how far the Slavs had by that time succeeded in penetrating into the basin of the Volga. The Arab geographers throw little light on the condition of the Volga during the great migrations of the 3rd century, or subsequently under the invasion of the Huns, the growth of the Khazar empire in the southern steppes and of that of Bulgaria on the middle Volga. But we know that in the 9th century the Volga was a navigable river by Khazars and various Turkish races in the south. The Slavs, driven perhaps to the west, had only the Volkov and the Dnieper, while the (Mohammedan) Bulgarian empire, at the confluence of the Volga with the Kama, was so powerful that for some time it was an open question whether Islam or Christianity would gain the upper hand among the Slav idolaters. But, while the Russians were driven from the Black Sea by the Khazars, and later on by a tide of Ugrian migration from the north-east, a stream of Slavs moved slowly towards the north-east, down the upper Oka, into the backwaters between the Finnish and Samogitian regions. After two centuries of struggle the Russians succeeded in colonizing the fertile valleys of the Oka basin; in the 15th century they built a series of fortified towns on the Oka and Klyazma; and finally they reached the mouth of the Oka, there founding (in 1122) a new Novgorod—the Novgorod of the Lowlands, now Nizhny-Novgorod. The great lachrymose depression of the middle Volga was thus reached; and when the Mongol invasion of 1239-42 came, it encountered in the Oka basin a dense agricultural population with no signs of military resistance which the Mongols found they could conquer, indeed, but were unable to drive before them as they had done so many of the Turkish tribes.
This invasion, checkmate by the Germans, did not stop the advance of the Russians down the Volga. Two centuries elapsed before the Russians crossed the river and which separate the mouths of the Oka and the Kama and took possession of Kazan. But in the meantime a flow of Novgorodian colonization had moved eastward, along the upper portions of the left-bank tributaries of the Volga, and had reached the Ural.

With the capture of Kazan (1552) the Russians found the lower Volga open to their boats, and eight years afterwards they were masters of the mouth of the river at Astrakhan. Two centuries more elapsed before the Russians secured a free passage to the Black Sea and became masters of the Sea of Azov. The town of Wellstown maintains this free distribution and was that which Volodymyr Semenov's company used to sell their goods to the merchants of Petersburg, not the city itself.

The Germans in Wellstown was called New Lublin (1200 ft. above the town) was a center of the trade of amber and salt, and was on one of the roads along which the traffic was carried. It is called Wellstown.

VOLHYNIA—VOLLMAR

VOLHYNIA, a government of south-western Russia, bounded by the Polish governments of Lublin and Siedloc on the W., Grodno and Minsk on the N., Kiev on the E. and Podolia and Galicia (Austria) on the S., with an area of 27,690 sq. m. A broad, flat spur of the Carpathians—the Avratynsk plateau—which enters from the west and stretches out eastward towards the Dnieper occupies its southern portion, reaching a maximum elevation of 1200 ft.; another branch of the Carpathians in the west of the government ranges between 700 and 900 ft. at its highest points. Both are deeply grooved in places, and the average gives a hilly aspect to the district in which they occur. The remainder of the government, which is quite flat, with an imperceptible slope towards the marshes of Pinnk, is known as the Polyesie (see Minsk).

The population in 1906 was estimated at 3,547,500. Some three-fourths of the population are Little Russians; the other elements are White and Great Russians, Poles (5.2%), Jews (13.2%) and Germans (5.7%). The government is divided into twelve districts, the chief towns of which are Zhitomir, the capital, Dubno, Kovel, Kremenets, Lutsk, Nizhny Novgorod, Volynsky, Ostrog, Ovruch, Vladimir Volynsky, Rovno, Staro-Konstantinov and Zaslaw. The conditions of peasant ownership differ from those which prevail in other parts of Russia, and of the total area the peasants hold approximately one-half; 42% of the total is in the hands of private owners, a considerable number of Germans having settled and bought land in the government.

Forests cover nearly 90% of the area in the north (that is, in the Polissia) and 15% elsewhere. Agriculture is well developed in the south, and in 1906 there were 2,223,000 acres (24%) under cereal crops alone. In the Polyesie the principal occupations are connected with the export of timber and firewood, the preparation of products of wood and the manufacture of and wood furniture. Lignite and coal, some graphite and kaolin, are mined, as also amber, which is often found in big lumps. Manufacturing industries are not very highly developed. The factories are confined to sugar works, distilleries, and railroad ways, tobacco, paper, and agro-cultural machinery works. Domestic industry in the villages is chiefly limited to the making of wooden goods, including parquets. The production of tobacco and timber, chiefly to Germany and Great Britain, and of wool and flax, are considerable.

Vohynia has been inhabited by Slavs from a remote antiquity. In Nestor's Annals its people are mentioned under the name of Duels, and later in the 12th century they were known as Velhynians and Buzhans (dwellers on the Bug). From the 9th century the towns of Velhynia-Vladimir, Ovruch, Lutsk and Dubno were ruled by descendants of the Scandinavian or Varangian chief Rurik, and the land of Velhynia remained independent until the 14th century, when it fell under Lithuania. In 1569 it was annexed to Poland, and so remained until 1795, when it was taken possession of by Russia.

VOLK, LEONARD WELLS (1826–1899), American sculptor, was born at Wellstown (now Wells), Hamilton county, New York, on the 7th of November 1828. He first followed the trade of a marble cutter with his father at Pittsfield, Massachusetts. In 1848 he opened a studio at St Louis, Missouri, and in 1855 was sent by his wife's cousin, Stephen A. Douglas, to Rome to study. Returning to America in 1857, he settled in Chicago, where he helped to establish an Academy of Design and was for eight years its head. Among his principal works at Chicago was the Douglas monument at Chicago and the Soldiers' and Sailors' monument at Rochester, New York, and statues of President Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas (in the Illinois State Capitol at Springfield, III.), and of General James Shields (in Statuary Hall, Capitol, Washington), Elijah B. Washburn, Zachariah Chandler and David Davis. In 1860 he made a life-mask (now in the National Museum, Washington) of Lincoln, of whom only one other, by Clark Mills in 1865, was ever made.

His son, Douglas Volk (b. 1856), figure and portrait painter, who studied under J. L. Gérôme in Paris, became a member of the Society of American Artists in 1880 and of the National Academy of Design in 1889.

VOLKSRUST, a town on the Transvaal, 75 m. S.E. of Johannesburg and 308 m. N.N.W. of Durban. Pop. (1904) 2382, of whom 1342 were whites. The town lies at an elevation of 3520 ft. just within the Transvaal frontier and 4 m. N. of the pass through the Drakensberg known as Laing's Nek. It is the centre of a rich agricultural district. It was founded by the Boer government in 1885. As a customs port of entry it was of some importance, and it maintains its position as a distributing depot. It was created a municipality in 1903. Volkmarsen is quarried in the district.

VOLLENHEIM, a small village of Holland in the province of North Holland, adjoining Edam on the shores of the Zuider Zee. It is remarkable for the quaintness of the buildings and the picturesque costume of the villagers, who are of a singularly dark and robust type. Many artists have been attracted to settle here. Vollenhove has its origin in the building of the great sea-dam for the new waterway to Edam in the middle of the 14th century. On the seaward side of the dike are some houses built on piles in the style of lake dwellings.

VOLLMAR, GEORG HEINRICH VON (1830–90), German Socialist, was born at Munich in 1830. He was educated in a school attached to a Benedictine monastery at Aschaffenburg, and in 1855 entered the Bavarian army as a lieutenant in a cavalry regiment. He served in the campaigns of 1859 and 1860, and then entered the papal army as a volunteer. In 1869 he returned to Germany, and during the war with France served in the army railway department. He was severely wounded at Blois and pensioned. Permanently crippled by his wounds, he devoted himself to political and social studies. In 1872 he was converted to the principles of Social Democracy, and threw himself with great energy into political agitation. In 1877 he became head of the party at Dresden, and under the Socialist law was repeatedly condemned to various terms of imprisonment, and was also expelled from that city. From 1879 to 1882 he lived at Zürich, then the headquarters of Social Democracy, where, besides attending the university, he took part in editing the Social Demokrät. In 1881 he was elected member of the Reichstag, and from 1883 to 1889 was a member of the Saxon diet. After 1885 he resided in Bavaria, and it was to him that was chiefly due the great success of the Socialists in the older Bavarian provinces. He identified himself with the more moderate and opportunist section of the Socialist party, decisively dissociating himself from the doctrine of a sudden and violent overthrow of society, and urging his associates to co-operate in bringing about a gradual development towards the Socialist state. He refused to identify Social Democracy with the extreme views as to religion and the family advocated by Bebel, and successfully resisted attempts made in 1891 to expel him from
the party in consequence of his opinions. He became a member of the Bavarian Diet in 1893.

In addition to a couple of books on the preservation of forests, he published Der isolierte Soziale Staat (Zürich, 1889).

**VOLNEY, CONSTANTIN FRANÇOIS CHASSÉBOURG, COMTE DE** (1753-1820). French savant, was born at Creuse (Maine-et-Loire) on the 3rd of February 1753, of good family; he was at first surnamed Boisgrais from his father's estate, but afterwards assumed the name of Volney. He spent some four years in Egypt and Syria, and published his Voyage en Égypte et en Syrie in 1787, and Considérations sur la guerre des Turcs et de la Russie in 1788. He was a member both of the States-General and of the Constituent Assembly. In 1791 appeared Les Ruines, ou méditations sur les révolutions des empires, an essay on the philosophy of history, containing a vision which predicts the final union of all religions by the recognition of the common truth underlying them all. Volney tried to put his politico-economic theories into practice in Corsica, where in 1792 he bought an estate and made an attempt to cultivate colonial produce. He was thrown into prison during the Jacobin triumph, but escaped the guillotine. He was some time professor of history at the newly founded École Normale. In 1795 he undertook a journey to the United States, where he was accused in 1797 of being a French spy sent to prepare for the reoccupation of Louisiana by France. He was obliged to return to France in 1798. The results of his travels took form in his Tableau du climat et du sol des États-Unis (1803). He was not a partisan of Napoleon, but, being a moderate man, a savant and a Liberal, was impressed into service by the emperor, who made him a count and put him into the senate. At the restoration he was made a peer of France. He became a member of the Institute in 1795. He died in Paris on the 25th of April 1820.

**VOLO** (Second Part), a town and seaport of Greece, on the east coast of Thessaly, at the head of the gulf to which it gives its name. Pop. (1907) 23,319. It is the chief seaport and second industrial town of Thessaly, connected by rail with the town of Larissa. The anchorage is safe, vessels loading and discharging by means of lighters. The port has a depth of 23 to 25 ft.

The *Kastri*, or citadel, of Volos stands on or close to the site of Pagasa, whence the gulf took the name of Sinus Pagassaeus or Pagasicus, and which was one of the oldest places of which mention occurs in early history and legend. From Pagasa a Phoenician Argonautic expedition was said to have sailed, and it was already a flourishing place under the tyrant Jason, who from the neighbouring Phereae ruled over all Thessaly. Two miles farther south stand the ruins of Demetrias, founded (200 B.C.) by Demetrius Poliorcetes, and for some time a favourite residence of the Macedonian kings. On the opposite side of the little inlet at the head of the gulf rises the high mountain which stands over the ancient city of Iocasus. At Dimini, about 3 m. W. of Volos, several tombs have been found and which yielded remains of the later Mycenean Age.

**VOLOGASES (Vologaes, Vologasae; on the coins Ologases; Armen. Valarst; Mod. Pers. Balash), the name of five Parthian kings.**

1. **VOLOGASES I.**, son of Vonones II. by a Greek concubine (Tac. Ann. xii. 44), succeeded his father in A.D. 51 (Tac. Ann. xii. 14; cf. Joseph. Ant. xx. 3, 4). He gave up the kingdom of Media Atropatene to his brother Pacorus, and occupied Armenia for another brother, Tiridates (Tac. Ann. xii. 50, xv. 2; Joseph. Ant. xx. 3, 4). This led to a long war with Rome (54-63), which was ably conducted by the Roman general Corbulo. The power of Vologases was weakened by the attack of the Dahan and Sacan nomads, a rebellion of the Hyrcanians, and the usurpation of Vardanes II. (Tac. Ann. xii. 7, 37; xiv. 25; xv. 1; cf. Joseph. Ant. xx. 4, 2, where he is prevented from attacking the vassal king of Sacania by an intervention of the eastern nomads). At last a peace was concluded, by which Tiridates was acknowledged as king of Armenia, but had to become a vassal of the Romans; he went to Rome, where Nero gave him back the diadem (Tac. Ann. xv. 1 ff.; Dio Cass. lixi. 19 ff., lxiii. 1 ff.); from that time an Arsacid dynasty ruled in Armenia under Roman supremacy. Vologases was satisfied with this result, and honoured the memory of Nero (Suet. Ner. 57), though he stood in good relations with Vespasian also, to whom he offered an army of 40,000 archers in the war against Vitellius (Tac. Hist. iv. 51; Suet. Vespas. 6; cf. Joseph. Ant. vii. 5, 2, 7, 5; Dio Cass. lixi. 11). Soon afterwards the Alani, a gold nomadic tribe beyond the Caucasus, invaded Media and Armenia (Joseph. Bell. vii. 7, 4; 4); Vologases applied in vain for help to Vespasian (Dio Cass. lixi. 11; Suet. Tit. Domit. 2). It appears that the Persian losses in the east also could not be repaired; Hryciana remained an independent kingdom (Joseph. Bell. vii. 7, 4; Aurel. Vict. Epit. 15, 4). Vologases I. died about A.D. 77. His reign is marked by a decided reaction against Hellenism; he built Vologosesca (Balashkert) in the neighbourhood of Ctesiphon with the intention of drawing to this new town the inhabitants of the Greek city Seleucia (Plin. vii. 222). Another town founded by him is Vologesiana on a canal of the Euphrates, south of Babylon (near Him; cf. Nödlke in Zeitschrift der deutschen-morgeng. Gesellschaft, xxviii. 93 ff.). On some of his coins the initials of his name appear in Arabic letters.

2. **VOLOGASES II.**, probably the son of Vologases I., appears on coins, which bear his proper name, in 77-70, and again 121-47. During this time the Parthian kingdom was torn by civil wars between different pretenders, which reached their height during the war of Trajan, 114-17. Besides Vologases II. we find four coins in the authors Pacorus (178-186), Artabazus (186-97), Vologases III. (807), Osroes (196-205), Mithridates V. (c. 195-47) and some others; thus the Parthian empire seems during this whole time to have been divided into two or three different kingdoms. By classic authors Vologases II. is mentioned in the time of Hadrian (c. 131), when Capadocia, Armenia and Media were invaded by the Alani (Dio Cass. lixix. 15).

3. **VOLOGASES III.**, 147-91. Under him, the unity of the empire was restored. But he was attacked by the Romans under Marcus Aurelius and Verus (162-65). In this war Seleucia was destroyed and the palace of Ctesiphon burnt down by Avidius Cassius (164); the Romans even advanced into Media. In the peace, western Mesopotamia was ceded to the Romans (Dio Cass. lixix. 1 f.; Capitolin. Marc. Aur. 8 f.; Verus 8 f., &c.). Vologases III. is probably the king Volgas of the Parsee tradition, preserved in the Dinkart, who began the gathering of the writings of Zoroaster.

4. **VOLOGASES IV.**, 191-209. He was attacked by Septimius Severus in 195, who advanced into Mesopotamia, occupied Nisibis and plundered Ctesiphon (199), but attempted in vain to conquer the Arabic fortress Atra; in 202 peace was restored. Soon after his accession his brother Artabanus IV., the last Arsacid king, rebelled against him, and became master of the greater part of the empire (Dio Cass. lixixii. 12). But Vologases V. maintained himself in a part of Babylonia; his dated coins reach down to A.D. 222. (Ed. M.)

**VOLOGDA**, a government of north-eastern Russia, having the government of Archangel on the N., Tobolsk on the E., Perm, Vyatka, Kostroma and Yaroslavl on the S., Novgorod, Olonets and Archangel on the W. This immense government, which, as it comprises an area of 1,218,000 square miles, is almost one-third of the whole empire, extends in a north-easterly direction for 800 m., from Novgorod to the Urals, and includes the broad depression drained by the Sukhona from the S.W., and the Yychegda from the N.E., both head-waters of the N. Dvina. From the basin of the Volga it is separated by a flat, swampy, wooded swelling, where the heads of tributaries belonging to both Arctic and Caspian drainage-areas are closely intermingled. The eastern boundary of Volgoda follows the main water-parting of the Urals, which has but few peaks over 1300 ft.; wide parnas, or woody plateaux, rest up the space between the main chain of the Urals and the southern spurs of the Timan Mountains, in the upper basin of the Pechora. It is above the parnas—especially those over which are nearest the Urals proper—that the highest summits of the Urals rise in the form of dome-shaped mountains (Toll-pož-iz, 5535 ft.; Kožhem-iz, 4225 ft.; Shadamaha, 4115 ft.). The Timan
Mountains are a swampy plateau, where the rivers flowing to the N. Dvina or to the Pechora take their rise in common marshes; so that on the Mylva portage boats have to be dragged a distance of only 3 m. to be transported from one system to the other.

Perman sandstones and cupferiferous slates cover most of the territory; in patches of Jurassic clay overlie them; in the east, in the Ural *parmas*, coal-bearing Carboniferous, Devonian and Silurian slates and limestones appear, wrapping the crystalline slates of the foundation; the sands, clay, loam and Lias beds overlap the whole. Rock-salt and salt springs, iron ore, millstones and grindstones are the chief mineral products; but mining is in its infancy.

The Dvina, which rises in the south-west and flows north-east, is navigable for 375 m. After its confluence with the Yug (390 m. long), which flows from the south, it becomes the N. Dvina, which proceeds north-west, and receives the Volga, 740 m. long and navigable for 570 m., though it passes through a nearly uninhabited region. The Luza, a tributary of the Yug, is also navigated for more than 250 m. The Pechora, which flows through eastern Vologda, is an artery for the export of corn and the import of fish. The Pingea, the Mezen and the Vaga, all belonging to the Arctic basin, rise in northern Vologda. In the south-west the Sukhona is connected by means of Lake Kubina and the canal of Alexander the Great with Lake Ladoga. Its course through smaller lakes occurs, and marshes cover a considerable part of the surface.

The climate is severe. The average annual temperature being 36° in Vologda (Jan., 19°; July, 63°) and 32°-35° at Ust-Syosolsk (Jan., 4°-8; July, 61°-7).

The flora and the physical aspects vary greatly as the traveller moves north-eastward. The *parmas* of the Pechora. In the south-west the forests are cleared, and the dry slopes of the hills have been converted into fields and meadows; the population is relatively dense, and nearly one-quarter of the area is cultivated. There is a surplus of grain, especially rye, which is used for distilleries, and apples are extensively cultivated. The flora is middle-Russian. Further north-east the climate grows more severe; but still, until the Dvina is reached, corn succeeds well, and there is no lack of excellent meadows on the river-terras. Flax is cultivated for export; but only 4% of the area is tilled, the remainder being covered with thick fir forests with occasional groups of deciduous trees (birk, aspen, oak). At 40° E. the larch forest is no longer accompanied by fir. Several plants unknown in western Russia make their appearance (*Silene tartarica, Anthyllis vulneraria, Euphorbia palustris, Filipago arenaria, Lycopodium complanatum, Sanguisorba officinalis*). The *Verem* is especially characteristic; it sometimes encroaches on the meadows to such an extent as to compel their abandonment. The region of the upper Mezen (the Udora) again has a distinctive character. The winter is severe; the snow lies on the ground for 100 days; the springs are sometimes compelled to clear away the snow from their barley-fields. But the summer is so hot (a mean of 54° for the three summer months) that barley ripens in 30 days, being ready for harvest. The Timan plateau is a marked boundary for the middle-Russian flora.

Those to the east of them are uninhabitable; even on the banks of the rivers the climate is so severe, especially on account of the dry winds, that most of the land is cleared and large hayfields and orchards. The whole is covered with quite impenetrable forests, growing on a soil saturated with water. Mosquitoes swarm in the forests; birds are rare. The Siberian cedar begins and the lime trees disappear. Fir, cedar, pine and larch compose the forests, with birch and aspen on their outskirts. Hunting is the chief occupation of the Syryenian inhabitants.

The population was estimated in 1906 at 1,517,500, of whom 57,407 lived in towns; 90% were Great Russians and 50% Syryenians. The population is divided into ten districts, the chief towns of which are Vologda, Gwyjatk, Latski, Nikolsk, Svolychegodsk, Totma or Totyma, Ustyug Velikiy, Ust-Syosolsk, Velik and Yarenok. The agriculture thrives in the south-western districts. Live-stock breeding occupies considerable numbers of people. A little salt is raised, and there are a few ironworks, but manufacturing industries are in their infancy; the chief branch is the weaving of linen in the villages.

Vologda, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, situated in its south-east corner on the river Vologda, above its confluence with the navigable Suiker; 127 m. by rail N. of Yaroslav. Pop. (1887) 17,025; (1897) 27,822. It is an old town, having many ancient churches, including one which dates from the 12th century, and the cathedral, founded in 1568. Vologda is a considerable commercial centre—flax, fished, oats, hemp, butter and eggs being exported to both St Petersburg and Archangel. It has distilleries, tanneries, and oil, soap, tobacco, candle and furnishing works.

Vologda existed as a trading town as early as the 12th century. It was a colony of Novgorod, and was founded in 1147, and carried on a brisk trade in furs, salt, flax, sugar, corn, etc. In 1273 it was plundered by the prince of Tver in alliance with the Tatars, but soon recovered. Moscow disputed its possession with Novgorod until the 15th century; the Moscow princes intrigued to find support amidst the poorer inhabitants against the richer Novgorod merchants, and four successive times Vologda had to fight against its metropolis. It was definitely annexed to Moscow in 1447. When Archangel was founded, and opened for foreign trade in 1533, Vologda became the chief depot for goods exported through that channel. Polish bands plundered it in 1613, and the plague of 1648 devastated it; but it maintained its commercial importance until the foundation of St Petersburg, when Russian foreign trade took another channel.

VOLSCI, an ancient Italian people, well known in the history of the first century of the Roman Republic. They inhabited the partly hilly, partly marshy district of the S. of Latium, bounded by the Aurunci and Samnites on the S., the Hernici on the E., and stretching roughly from Norba and Cora in the N. to Antium in the S. They were among the most dangerous enemies of Rome, and frequently took part in the great feuds of the Hernici, with whom they were often at war. At the same time their relations with the Latin towns were friendly. In the Samnium Wars, and later, when the Hernici were submitted, their lands formed part of the Latium of Rome. The territory lay between the towns of Vernalia (Vellertii), the birthplace of Augustus. From this town we have a very interesting though brief inscription dating probably from early in the 3rd century B.C.; it is cut upon a small bronze plate (now in the Naples Museum), which must have once been fixed to some votive object, dedicated to the god Decluns (or the goddess Decluna).

The language of this inscription is clear enough to show the very marked peculiarities which rank it close beside the language of the Iguvine Tables (see *Icuvium*). It shows on the hand the localization of the original velar *g* (Volscan *pis* = Latin *quis*), and on the other hand it palatalizes the guttural *c* before a following *i* (Volscan *facia* = Latin *faciat*). Like Umbrian also, but unlike Latin and Oscian, it has degraded all the diphthongs into simple vowels (Volscan *se* parallel to Oscan *sai*; Volscan *dene*, Old Latin and Oscan *detuai* or *detuari*). This phenomenon of what might have been taken for a piece of Umbrian text appearing in a district remote from Umbria and hemmed in by Latine on the north and Oscan-speaking Samnites on the south is a most curious feature in the geography of the Illyrian and most of the Italic dialects, and is clearly the result of some complex historical movements.

In seeking for an explanation we may perhaps trust, at least in part, the evidence of the Ethnicon itself. The name *Volsci* belongs to what may be called the -CO- group of tribal names in the centre, and mainly on the west coast, of Italy, all of whom were subdued by the Romani before the end of the 4th century B.C. ; and many of whom were conquered by the Samnites about a century or more earlier. They were, from south to north, Osci, *Umbri*, Etrusc, Volsci, with whom there was no doubt associated the original inhabitants of *Aricia* and of *Sidici-num*, of *Vescia* among the *Aurunci*, and of *Labici* close to Hernic territory. The same formative element appears in the adjective *Mons Massicus*, and the names *Glancio* and *Morico* belonging to the Auruncean district, with *Gratisciae* in south Etruria, and a few other names in central Italy (see "I due strati nella popolazione Indo-Europea dell' Italia Antica," in *Attis del Congresso Internazionale di Storie Sotlie*, Rome, 1903, p. 17). With these names must clearly be judged the forms *Tusci* and *Etrusi*, although these forms must not be regarded as anything but the names given to the Etruscans by the folk among whom they settled. Now the historical fortune of these tribes is reflected in several of their names (see *Sabin*). The Samnite and Roman conquerors tended to impose the form of their own Ethnicon, namely the suffix -NO-,
the tribes they conquered; hence the Marrucini became the Marruci, the *Ariici became Articini, and it seems at least probable that the forms Sidicini, Corecini, and others of this shape are the results of this same process. The conclusion suggested is that these -CO tribes occupied the centre and west coast of Italy at the time of the Etruscan invasion (see *ETRURIA: Language); whereas the -NO tribes only reached this part of Italy, or at least only became dominant there, long after the Etruscans had settled in the Peninsula to which they had previously been transferred.

It remains, therefore, to ask whether any information can be had about the language of this primitive -CO folk, and whether they can be identified as the authors of any of the various archaeological strata now recognized on Italian soil. If the conclusions suggested under Sarbini may be accepted as sound we should expect to find the Volsci speaking a language similar to that of the Ligures, whose fondness for the suffix -so- we have noticed (see *LIGURES), and identical with that spoken by the plebeians of Rome; and that this branch of Indo-European was among those which preserved the original Indo-European Velars (sqq.).

In that of *Volus- *volus- is phonetically regular in Latin. The name Marciaco (*godess of the salt-marshes*) among the Aurunci appears also both on the coast of Picenum and among the Ligurians; and Stephanus of Byzantium identified the Osic with the Siculi, whom there is reason to suspect were kinmen of the Ligures.

It is remarkable in how many marshy places this *co-* or -ca-suffix is used. Besides the Aurunci and the dea Marica and the intertemporacque Gratiae (Virg. Aen. x. 184), we have the *Ustica cubani* of Horace (Odes i. 17, 11), the *Hercini* in the Trerus valley, *Satricum* and *Glosina* in the Pompeite marshes.

For the text and fuller account of the Volscian inscription, and for other notes of the dialect, see R. S. Conway, The Italian Dialects, pp. 267 sqq.

**VOLSIINI, an ancient town of Etruria, Italy.** The older Volscia occupied in all probability the isolated tufo rock, so strongly defended by nature, upon which in Roman times stood the town which Procopius (B.G. ii. 11 seq.) calls *Ophiopetros* (Urbs vetus, the modern Orvieto). This conjecture, first made by O. Muller, has been generally accepted by modern archaeologists; and it is a strong point in its favour that the bishop of Orvieto in 595 signs himself episcopus civitatis Bolsinensis (Gregor. Magn. Regist. v. 57a; cf. ii. 11, vi. 27). It had, and needed, no outer walls, being surrounded on all sides except the S.W. by abrupt tufo cliffs; but a massive wall found by excavation on the S.W. side of the town may have belonged to the acropolis. No remains of antiquity are to be seen within the city; but at the foot of the hill on the N. a large Etruscan necropolis was found in 1874, dating from the 5th century B.C. The tombs, constructed of blocks of stone and arranged in rows divided by passages (like houses in a town), often had the name of the deceased on the façade. Many painted vases, &c., were found; some of the best are in the Museo Civico at Orvieto. Tombs with paintings have also been found to the W. of the town on the way to Bolsena.

Volsci was reputed the richest of the twelve cities of Etruria. Wars between Volscia and Rome are mentioned in 592, 208 and 294 B.C., and in 265-64 B.C. the Romans assisted the inhabitants against their former slaves, who had successfully asserted themselves against their masters and took the town. Fulvius Flaccus gained a triumph for his victory, and it was probably then that the statue of Vertumnus which stood in the Vicus Tuscus at Rome was brought from Volsci. Zonaras states that the city was destroyed and removed elsewhere, though the old site continued apparently to be inhabited, to judge from the inscriptions found there. The new city was certainly situated on the hills on the N.E. bank of the Lake of Bolsena (*Lacus Volsciensis*), 12 m. W.S.W. of Orvieto, where many remains of antiquity have been found, on and above the site of the modern Bolsena (q.v.). These remains consist of Etruscan tombs, the sacred enclosure of the goddess Nortia, with votive objects and coins ranging from the beginning of the 3rd century B.C. to the middle of the 3rd century A.D., remains of Roman houses, &c., and an amphitheatre of the imperial period (E. Gabrici in Monumenti dei Lancisi, xvi, 1906, 169 sqq., and in Notizie degli Scavi, 1906, 59 sqq.).

The history of the new Volsci is somewhat scanty. Sejanus, the favourite of Tiberius, and Musonius Rufus the Stoic were natives of the place. The earliest dated inscription from the cemetery of S. Christina (discovered with its subterranean church in 1880-81) belongs to A.D. 376 and the first known bishop of Volsci to A.D. 499. In the next century, however, the see was transferred to Orvieto. Etruscan tombs have been found on the Isola Biscinta, in the lake; and on the west bank was the town of Visentium, Roman inscriptions belonging to which have been found. The site is marked by a medieval castle bearing the name Bisesanu.

See E. Bornman in Corp. Inscr. Latin. xi, 1888, pp. 423 sqq.; Notizie degli Scavi, passim; G. Dennis, op. cit. (ii. 18 sqq.).

(T. As.)

**VOLTA, ALESSANDRO (1745-1827),** Italian physicist, was born at Como on the 18th of February 1745. He is celebrated as a pioneer of electrical science, after whom the "volt" is named. In 1774 he was appointed professor of physics in the gymnasium of Como, and in 1777 he travelled through Switzerland, where he formed an intimate friendship with H. B. de Saussure. In 1779 a chair of physics was founded in Pavia, and Volta was chosen to occupy it. In 1782 he journeyed through France, Germany, Holland and England, and became acquainted with many scientific celebrities. In 1791 he received the Copley medal of the Royal Society. In 1807 Napoleon called him to Paris, to show his experiments on contact electricity, and a medal was struck in his honour. He was made a senator of the kingdom of Lombardy. In 1815 the government of Austria made him director of the Royal Technological School and professor of physics at the University of Padua. He retired in 1819 and settled in his native town, where he died on the 5th of March 1827. For Volta's electrical work, and his place in the history of discovery (see *ELECTRICITY; also VOLTMETER*).

**VOLTA, the largest river of the coast of Upper Guinea, between the Gambia and the Niger, with a length of about 900 m. Its mouth and the greater part of its course are in British territory. Its lower course had been known since the discoveries of the Portuguese, from whom it received (15th century) its name of Gambia. It runs through the forest and savannah regions to the coast of Guinea, its mouth is about 20 m. wide, and there are here great falls. So far as we can judge from the charting of the British, French and Spanish, it is navigable by small vessels.**

**There are two main upper branches, the Black and the White Volta. Their sources lie on the grassy plateaus north of the forest belt of the Guinea coast, the Black Volta rising (as the Baule) in about 17° N. latitude and the White Volta, which joins it at a point about 19° N. latitude, about 14° N. — the most northerly point of the basin,—it turns sharply south. From the vicinity of the ninth parallel the river forms the boundary between the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast (British) and the French Ivory Coast colony. The southerly course of the stream ceases at 8° 15' N. where it is deflected E., and even N., by a mountain range composed of sandstone and granite, which it finally breaks through by a narrow pass, in which its width is only some 60 yds.** Elsewhere
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it has a general width of 150 to 200 yards. In $o^\circ 50' W.$ it receives the White Volta, which flows generally south from about $13^\circ N.$ and like the other both serves to make an escape. Both rivers shrink greatly in the dry season, reaching their lowest level at the end of January. Below the junction the Volta flows S.E. and S., turning, however, E. for 40 m. just north of $1^\circ 37' N.$ It receives on the left bank a large tributary, the Oti, coming from $12^\circ N.$ In its lower course, through the forest belt, the river has often a width of over half a mile, with a depth in places of 60 to 90 ft. In the rains, but in $6^\circ 18' N.$ it traverses a pasture, and its width is narrowed to 30 yds. Its use as a water-way is limited by a number of rapids, the lowest of which occur in $6^\circ 7' N.$ above the trading port of Akuse. Its mouth is also obstructed during the greater part of the year by rocks and sandbars, and is usually navigable by small vessels from its mouth for about 60 m.

The lower Volta was explored by M. J. Bonnât in 1875, but the upper basin was first traversed by the German traveller G. A. Krause (1886-87) and the French captain L. G. Binger (1888). It has since been explored by a number of colonial officials—German, French and British.

VOLTAIRE, FRANÇOIS MARIE AROUET (1694-1778), French philosopher, historian, dramatist and man of letters, whose real name was François Marie Arouet simply, was born on the 21st of November 1694 at Paris, and was baptized the next day. His father was François Arouet, a notary; his mother was Marie Marguerite Daumont or D'Aumard. Both father and mother were of Poitevin extraction, but the Arouets had been for two generations established in Paris, the grand-father being a prosperous tradesman. The family appear to have always belonged to the yeoman-tradesman class; their special home was the town of Saint-Loup. Voltaire was the fifth child of his parents—twins (of whom one survived), a girl, Marguerite Catherine, and another boy who died young, having preceded him. Not very much is known of the mother, who died when Voltaire was but seven years old. She pretty certainly was the chief cause of his early introduction to good society, the abbé de Châteauneuf (his sponsor in more ways than one) having been her friend. The father appears to have been somewhat peremptory in temper, but neither inaptorial nor tyrannical. Marguerite Arouet, of whom her younger brother was very fond, married early, her husband's name being Mignot; the elder brother, Armand, was a strong Jan- senist, and there never was any kind of sympathy between him and François.

The abbé de Châteauneuf instructed him early in belles-lettres and deism, and he showed when a child the unsupervised faculty for facile verse-making which always distinguished him. At the age of ten he was sent to the Collège Louis-le-Grand, where he showed in some things so early and so great a faculty that many doubted whether he had not been educated by some Jesuits, and remained there till 1711. It was his whim, as part of his general liberal-ism, to depreciate the education he received; but it seems to have been a very sound and good education, which formed the basis of his extraordinarily wide, though never extraordinarily accurate, collection of knowledge subsequently, and (a more important thing) disciplined and exercised his literary faculty and judgment. Nor can there be much doubt that the great attention bestowed on acting—the Jesuits kept up the Renaissance practice of turning schools into theatres for the performance of plays both in Latin and in the vernacular, had much to do with Voltaire's lifelong devotion to the stage.

It must have been in his very earliest school years that the celebrated presentation of him by his godfather to Ninon de Lenclos took place, for Ninon died in 1705. She left him two thousand francs "to buy books with." He worked fairly, played fairly, lived comfortably, made good and lasting friends. Some curious traits are recorded of this life—one being that in the terrible famine year of Malpaquet a hundred francs a year were added to the usual boarding expenses, and yet the boys had to eat pain bis.

In August 1711, at the age of seventeen, he came home, and the usual battle followed between a son who desired no profession but literature and a father who refused to consider literature a profession at all. For a time Voltaire submitted, and read law at least nominally. The abbé de Châteauneuf died before his godson left school, but he had already introduced him to the famous and dissipated coterie of the Temple, of which the grand prior Vendôme was the head, and the poets Chaulieu and La Fare the chief literary stars. It does not appear that Voltaire got into any great scrapes; but his father tried to break him from French society by sending him first to Caen and then, in the suite of the marquis de Châteauneuf, the abbé's brother, to the Hague. Here he met a certain Olympe Dunoyer ("Pimpette"), a girl apparently of respectable character and not bad connexions, but a Protestant, penniless, and daughter of a literary lady whose literary reputation was not spotless. The mother discouraged the affair, and, though Voltaire tried to avail himself of the mania for proselytizing which then distinguished France, his father stopped any idea of a match by procuring a lettre de cachet, which, however, he did not use. Voltaire, who had been sent home, submitted, and for a time pretended to work in a Parisian lawyer's office; but he again manifested a faculty for getting into trouble—this time in the still more dangerous way of writing libellous poems—so that his father was glad to send him to stay for nearly a year (1714-15) with Louis de Caumont, marquis de Saint-Angé, in the country. Here he was still supposed to study law, but devoted himself in part to literary essays, in part to storing up his immense treasure of gossiping history. Almost exactly at the time of the death of Louis XIV. he returned to Paris, to fail of official favours by and by not only the marquis de Créquy, but by and by not only the marquis de Créquy, but to the tragedy of Édipe, which he had already written, privately known. He was now introduced to a less questionable and even more distinguished coterie than Vendôme's, to the famous "court de Sceaux," the circle of the beautiful and ambitious duchesse du Maine. It seems that Voltaire lent himself to the duchess's frantick hatred of the regent Orleans, and helped to compose lampoons on that prince. At any rate, in May 1716 he was exiled, first to Tulle, then to Sully. Allowed to return, he again fell under suspicion of having been concerned in the composition of two violent libels—one in Latin and one in French—called from their first words the Puero Regnante and the Æcie, was inveigled by a spy named Beuregard into a real or burlesque confession, and on the 16th of May 1717 was sent to the Bastille. He there recast Édipe, began the Henriade and determined to alter his name. Ever after his exit from the Bastille in April 1718 he was known as Arouet de Voltaire, or simply Voltaire, though legally he never abandoned his patronymic. The origin of the famous name has been much debated, and attempts have been made to show that it actually existed in the Daumont family, and to maintain that it was an abbreviation of a childish nickname, "le petit volontaire." The balance of opinion has, however, always inclined to the hypothesis of an anagram on the name "Arouet le jeune," or "Arouet l. j.," u being changed to v and j to i according to the ordinary rules of the game.

A further "exile" at Châteanay and elsewhere succeeded the imprisonment, and though Voltaire was admitted to an audience by the regent and treated graciously he was not trusted. Édipe was acted at the Théâtre Français on the 18th of November of the year of release, and was very well received, a rivalry between parties not dissimilar to that which not long before had helped Addison's Cato assisting its success. It had run of forty-five nights, and brought the author not a little profit. With these gains Voltaire seems to have begun his long series of successful financial speculations. But in the spring of next year the production of Lagrange-Chancel's libels, entitled the Philippiques, again brought suspicion on him. He was informally exiled, and spent much time with Marshal Villars, again increasing his store of reminiscences. He returned to Paris in the winter, and the second part of Henriade was pro- recast with some success Voltaire never published it as a whole, and used parts of it in other work. He again spent much of
his time with Villars, listening to the marshal's stories and making harmless love to the duchess. In December 1721 his father died, leaving him property (rather more than four thousand livres a year), which was soon increased by a pension of half the amount from the regent. In return for this, or in hopes of more, he offered himself as a spy—or at any rate as a secret diplomat—to Dubois. But meeting his old enemy Beauregard in one of the minister's rooms and making an offensive remark, he was waylaid by Beauregard some time after and carried off to England, ostensibly bearing a message to the Duke of Ancaster.

His visiting espionage, as unkind critics put it—his secret diplomatic mission, as he would have liked to have it put himself—began in the summer of 1722, and he set out for it in company with a certain Madame de Rupelmonde, to whom he as usual made love, taught deism and served as an amusing travelling companion. He stayed at Cambrai for some time, where European diplomats were still in full session, journeyed to Brussels, where he met and quarrelled with Jean Baptiste Rousseau, went on to the Hague, and then returned. The Henriade got on considerably during the journey, and according to its lifelong habit, the poet, with the help of his friend Thiriô and others, had been "working the oracle" of puffy. During the late autumn and winter of 1722–23 he abode chiefly in Paris, taking a kind of lodging in the town house of M. de Bernières, a nobleman of Rouen, and endeavouring to procure a "privilege" for his poem. In this he was disappointed, but he had the work printed at Rouen nevertheless, and spent the summer of 1723 revising it. In November he caught smallpox and was very seriously ill, so that the book was not given to the world till the spring of 1724 (and then of course, as it had no privilege, appeared privately). Almost at the same time, the 4th of March, his third tragedy, Mariamne appeared, was well received at first, but underwent complete damnation before the curtain fell. The regent had died shortly before, not to Voltaire's advantage; for he had been a generous patron. Voltaire had made, however, a useful friend in another grand seigneur, as prolific and nearly as intelligent, the duke of Richelieu, and with him he passed 1724 and the next year chiefly, recasting Mariamne (which was now successful), writing the comedy of L'Inquisiteur, and courting the queen on the ministry, the favours of which everybody who seemed worth. The end of 1725 brought a disastrous close to this period of his life. He was insulted by the chevalier de Rohan, replied with his usual sharpness of tongue, and shortly afterwards, when dining with the duke of Sully, was called out and bastinadoed by the chevalier's hirelings. Rohan himself looking on. Nobody would take his part, and at last, nearly three months after the outrage, he challenged Rohan, who accepted the challenge, but on the morning appointed for the duel Voltaire was arrested and sent, for the second time to the Bastille. He was kept in confinement a fortnight, and was then packed off to England in accordance with his own request. Voltaire revenged himself on the duke of Sully for his conduct towards his guest by cutting Maximi lien de Béthune's name out of the Henriade.

No competent judges have ever mistaken the importance of Voltaire's visit to England, and the influence it exercised on his future career. In the first place, the ridiculous and incredulous incident of the beating had time to blow over; in the second, England was a very favourable place for Frenchmen of note to pick up guineas; in the third, and most important of all, his contact with it was formed in every conceivable way from their neighbours than any two peoples of Europe are different now, acted as a sovereign tonic and stimulant on his intellect and literary faculty. Before the English visit Voltaire had been an elegant triñler, an adept in the forms of literature popular in French society, a sort of superior Dorat or Bouillers of earlier growth. He returned from it with that of the foremost literary men in Europe, with views, if not profound or accurate, yet wide and acute on all les grands sujets, and with a solid stock of money. The visit lasted about three years, from 1726 to 1729; and, as if to make the visitor's luck certain, George I. died and George II. succeeded soon after his arrival. The new king was not fond of "bovery," but Queen Caroline was, and international jealousy was pleased at the thoughts of welcoming a distinguished exile from French illiberality. The Walpoles, Bubb Dodington, Bolingbroke, Congreve, Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, Pope, were among his English friends. He made acquaintance with, and at least tried to appreciate, Shakespeare. He was much struck by English manners, was deeply persuaded by English liberal republican republican and eccentricity, and gained some thousands of pounds from an authorized English edition of the Henriade, dedicated to the queen. But he visited Paris now and then without permission, and his mind, like the mind of every exiled Frenchman, was always set thereon. He gained full licence to return in the spring of 1729.

He was full of literary projects, and immediately after his return he is said to have increased his fortune immensely by a lucky lottery speculation. The Henriade was at last licensed in France. Brusius, a play which he had written, was accepted for performance, but kept back for a time by the author; and he began the celebrated poem of the Pucelle, the amusement and the torment of great part of his life. But he had great difficulties with two of his chief works which were ready to appear, Charles XII. and the Lettres sur les Anglais. With both he took all imaginable pains to avoid offending the censorship; for Voltaire had, more than any other man who ever lived, the ability and the willingness to stoop to conquer. At the end of 1730 Brusis indeed actually got acted. Then in the spring of the next year he went to Rouen to get Charles XII. and some other poems printed, which he accomplished. In 1732 another tragedy, Eriphone, appeared, with the same kind of halting success which had distinguished the appearance of its elder sisters since Iphigene. But at last, on the 13th of August 1732, he produced Zaore, the best (with Mepope) of all his plays, and one of the ten or twelve best plays of the whole French classical school. Its motive was borrowed to some extent from Othello, but that matters little. In the following winter the death of the comtesse de Fontaine-Martel, whose guest he had been, turned him out of a comfortable abode. He then took lodgings with an agent of his, one Demoulins, in an out-of-the-way part of Paris, and was, for some time at least, as much occupied with contracts, speculation and all sorts of means of gaining money as with literature. In the middle of this period, however, in 1733, two important books, the Lettres philosophiques sur les Anglois and the Temple du goët. Both were likely to make bad blood, for the latter was, under the mask of easy verse, a satire on contemporary French literature, especially on J. B. Rousseau, and the former was, in the guise of a criticism or rather panegyric of English ways, an attack on everything established in the church and state of France. It was published with certain "remarks" on Pascal, more offensive to orthodoxy than itself, and no mercy was shown to it. The book was condemned (June 10th, 1734), the copies seized and burnt, a warrant issued against the author and his dwelling searched. He himself was safe in the independent duchy of Lorraine with Emilie de Breteuil, marquise du Châtelet, with whom he began to be intimate in 1733; he had now taken up his abode with her at the château de Cirey.

If the English visit may be regarded as having finished
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Voltaire's education, the Cirey residence may be justly said to be the first stage of his literary manhood. He had written important and characteristic work before; but he had always been in a kind of literary Wanderjahre. He now obtained a settled home for many years, and, taught by his numerous brushes with the authorities, he began and successfully carried out that system of keeping out of personal harm's way, and of at once denying any awkward responsibility, which made him for nearly half a century at once the chief and the most prosperous of European heretics in regard to all established ideas. It was not till the summer of 1734 that Cirey, a half-dismantled country house on the borders of Champagne and Lorraine, was fitted for his residence. Richelieu's quarters of himself, of his hostess, and now and then of her accommodating husband. Many pictures of the life here, some of them not a little malicious, survive. It was not entirely a bed of roses, for the "respectable Emily's" temper was violent, and after a time she sought lovers who were not so much des écrubusques as Voltaire. But it provided him with a safe and comfortable retreat, and with every opportunity for literary work. In March 1735 the ban was formally taken off him, and he was at liberty to return to Paris, a liberty of which he made good use by polishing off his "Essai sur les moeurs" and the "Sûlè de Louis XIV." composed. He also returned, not too well-advisedly, to the business of courtiership, which he had given up since the death of the regent. He was much employed, owing to the incident, in the fêtes of the dauphin's marriage, and was rewarded through the influence of Madame de Pompadour on New Year's Day 1745 by the appointment to the post of historiographer-royal, once jointly held by Racine and Boileau. The situation itself and its accompanying privileges were what Voltaire chiefly aimed at, but there was a salary of two thousand livres attached, and he had the year before come in for three times as much by the death of his brother. In the same year he wrote a poem on Fontenoy, he received medals from the pope and dedicated "Mahomet" to him, and wrote court divertissements and other things to admiration. He was not only a courtier, he was a courtier with the best of the known of Voltairiana is the contempt or at least silence with which Louis XV.--a sensualist but no fool--received the maladroit and almost insolent inquiry "Trojan est-il content?" addressed in his hearing to Richelieu at the close of a piece in which the emperor had appeared with a transparent reference to the king. All this asentation had at least one effect. He, who had been for years admittedly the first writer in France, had been repeatedly passed over in elections to the Academy. He was at last elected in the spring of 1746, and received on the 14th of May. The tide began to turn. His name at court had naturally exasperated his enemies; it had not secured him any real friends, and even a gentlemanship of the chamber was no solid benefit, except from the money point of view. He did not indeed hold it very long, but was permitted to sell it for a large sum, retaining the rank and privileges. He had various proofs of the instability of his hold on the king during 1747 and in 1748. He once lay in hiding for two months with the duchesse de Maine at Sceaux, where were produced the comedietta of "La Prude" and the tragedy of "Rome sourte" and, afterwards for a time lived churlily at Lunéville; here Madame de Chatelet had established herself at the court of King Stanislaus, and carried on a liaison with Saint-Lambert, an officer in the king's guard. In September 1749 she died after the birth of a child.

The death of Madame du Chatelet is another turning-point in the history of Voltaire. He was fifty-five, but he had nearly thirty years more to live, and he had learnt much during what may be called his Cirey cohabitation. For some time, however, after Madame du Chatelet's death he was in a state of pitiable unsetlement. At first, after removing his goods from Cirey, he hired the greater part of the Châtelet town house, and then the whole. He had some idea of settling down in Paris, and might perhaps have done so if mischief had not been the very breath of his nostrils. He went on writing satiric tales like "Zadig." He engaged in a foolish and undignified struggle with Crébillon tère (not filé), a rival set up against him by Madame de Pompadour, but a dramatist who, in part of one play, "Rhodamiste et Zénobie," has struck a note of tragedy in the grand Cornelian strain, which Voltaire could never hope to echo. "Semiramis" (1748), "Oreste" (1750) and "Rome sourte" itself were all produced by an unsuccessful courtier, and the public, if he used the most extraordinary efforts to make himself more popular than he was, but he could not help being uncomfortable.

All this time Frederick of Prussia had been continuing his invitations. Voltaire left Paris on the 15th of June 1751, and reached Berlin on the 10th of July. This Berlin visit is more or less familiar to English readers from the two great essays of Macaulay and Carlyle as well as from the Frederick of the
latter. But these two masters of English were not perhaps the best qualified to relate the story. Both were unjust to Voltaire, and Macaulay was unjust to Frederick as well. It is lucky that the king so behaved together like a king to his guest. He pressed him to remain; he gave him (the words are Voltaire's own) one of his orders, twenty thousand francs a year, and four thousand additional for his niece, Madame Denis, in case she would come and keep house for her uncle. But Voltaire's conduct was from the first Voltairean. He insisted on the consent of his own king, which was given without delay. But Frenchmen, always touchy on such a point, regarded Voltaire as something of a deserter; and it was not long before he bitterly repented his desertion, though his residence in Prussia lasted nearly three years. It was quite impossible that Voltaire and Frederick should get on together for long. Voltaire was not humble enough to be a mere butt, as many of Frederick's led poets were; he was not enough of a gentleman to hold his own place with dignity and discretion; he was constantly jealous both of his equals in age and reputation, such as Maupertuis, and of his juniors and inferiors, such as Buculard d'Arnaud. He was greedy, restless, and in a way Bohemian. Frederick, though his love of teasing for teasing's sake has been exaggerated by Macaulay, was a martinet of the first water, keenly though one-sidedly. He had not the slightest intention of allowing Voltaire to insult or to tyrannize over his other guests and servants. If he is to be blamed in this particular matter, the blame must be chiefly confined to his imprudence in inviting Voltaire at the beginning and to the brutality of his conduct at the end. Within Voltaire there was always a mischievous and ill-behaved child; and he was never more mischievous, more ill-behaved and more childish than in these years. He tried to get d'Arnaud exiled, and succeeded. He got into a quite unnecessary quarrel with Lessing. He had not been in the Netherlands before he engaged in a spectacular piece of financial gambling with Hirsch, the Dresden Jew. He was accused of something like downright forgery—that is to say, of altering a paper signed by Hirsch after he had signed it. The king's disgust at this affair (which came to an open scandal before the tribunals) was so great that he was on the point of ordering Voltaire out of Prussia, and Darget the secretary had no small trouble in arranging the matter (February 1753). Then it was Voltaire's turn to be disgusted with an occupation he had undertaken himself—occupations! "A king and a Frederick the Great! Have you succeeded in finishing and printing the Salle de Louis XIV., while the Dictionnaire philosophique is said to have been devised and begun at Potsdam? But Voltaire's restless temper was brewing up for another storm. In the early autumn of 1751 La Mettrie, one of the king's parasites, and a man of much more talent than is generally allowed, hurried Voltaire by telling him that Frederick had in conversation applied to him (Voltaire) a proverb about "sucking the orange and flinging away its skin," and about the same time the dispute with Maupertuis, which had more than anything else to do with his exclusion from Prussia, came to a head. Maupertuis got into a dispute with one König. The king took his president's part; Voltaire took König's. But Maupertuis must needs write his Letters, and thereupon (1752) appeared one of Voltaire's most famous, though perhaps not one of his most read works, the Diatribe du Docteur Akakia. Even Voltaire did not venture to publish this lampoon on a great official of a prince so touchy as the king of Prussia without some permission, and if all tales are true he obtained this by another piece of something or forgery—getting the king to endorse a totally different pamphlet on its last leaf, and affixing that last leaf to Akakia. Of this Frederick was not aware; but he did get some wind of the Diatribe itself, sent for the author, heard it read to his own great amusement, and either actually burned the MS. or believed that it was burnt. In a few days printed copies appeared. Frederick did not like disobedience, but he still less liked being made a fool of, and he put Voltaire under arrest. But again the affair blew over, the king believing that the edition of Akakia confiscated in Prussia was the only one. Alas! Voltaire had sent copies away; others had been printed abroad; and the thing was irrecoverable. It could not be proved that he had ordered the printing, and all Frederick could do was to have the pamphlet burnt by the hangman. Things were now drawing to a crisis. One day Voltaire sent his orders, &c., back; the next Frederick returned them, but Voltaire had quite made up his mind to fly. A kind of reconciliation occurred in March, and after some days of good-fellowship Voltaire at last obtained the long-sought leave of absence and left Potsdam on the 26th of the month (1753). It was nearly three months afterwards that the famous, ludicrous and brutal arrest was made at Frankfort, on the persons of himself and his niece, who had met him meanwhile. They were given some faint excuse for Frederick's wrath. In the first place, the poet chose to linger at Leipzig. In the second place, in direct disregard of a promise given to Frederick, a supplement to Akakia appeared, more offensive than the main text. From Leipzig, after a month's stay, Voltaire moved to Gotha. Once more, on the 23th of May, he moved on to Frankfort. Frankfort, nominally a free city, but with a Prussian resident who did very much what he pleased, was not like Gotha and Leipzig. An excuse was provided in the fact that the poet had a copy of some unpublished poems of Frederick's, and as soon as Voltaire arrived hands were laid on him, at first with courtesy enough. The resident, Freytag, was not a very wise person (though he probably did not, as Voltaire would have it, spell "poesie" "poesie"); constant references to Frederick were necessary; and the affair was prolonged so that Madame Denis had time to join her uncle. At last Voltaire tried to steal away. He was followed, arrested, his niece seized separately, and sent to join him in custody; and the two, with the secretary Collini, were kept close prisoners at an inn called the Goat. This situation was at last put an end to by the city authorities, who probably felt that they were not playing a very creditable part. Voltaire left Frankfort on the 7th of July, travelled safely to Mainz, and thence to Mannheim, Strasbourg and Colmar. The last-named place he reached (after a leisurely journey and many honours at the little courts just mentioned) at the beginning of October, and here he proposed to stay the winter. finish his Annals of the Empire and look about him.

Voltaire's second stage was now over. Even now, however, in the sixtieth year, it required some more external pressure to induce him to make himself independent. He had been, in the first blush of his Frankfort disaster, refused, or at least not granted, permission even to enter France proper. At Colmar he was not safe, especially when in January 1754 a pirated edition of the Essai sur les mœurs, written long before, appeared. Permission to establish himself in France was now absolutely refused. Nor did an extremely offensive performance of Voltaire's—the solemn partaking of the Eucharist at Colmar after due confession—at all mollify his enemies. His exclusion from France, however, was chiefly metaphorical, and really meant exclusion from Paris and its neighbourhood. In the summer he went to Plombières, and after returning to Colmar for some time journeyed in the beginning of winter to Lyons, and thence in the middle of December to Geneva. Voltaire had no purpose of remaining in the city, and almost immediately bought a country house just outside the gates, to which he gave the name of Les Délides. He was here practically at the meeting-point of four distinct jurisdictions—Geneva, the canton Vaud, Sanciena and Franches, while other cantons were within easy reach; and he bought other houses dotted about these territories, so as never to be without a refuge close at hand in case of sudden storms. At Les Délides he set up a considerable establishment, which his great wealth made him able easily to afford. He kept open house for visitors; he had printers close at hand in Geneva; he fitted up a private theatre in which he could enjoy what was perhaps the greatest pleasure of his whole life—acting in a play of his
own, stage-managed by himself. His residence at Geneva brought him into correspondence (at first quite amicable) with the most famous of her citizens, J. J. Rousseau. His *Orphée de la Chine*, performed at Paris in 1755, was very well received; the notorious *La Pucelle* appeared in the same year. The earthquake at Lisbon, which appalled other people, gave Voltaire an excellent opportunity for ridiculing the beliefs of the orthodox, first in verse (1756) and later in the (from a literary point of view) unsurpassable tale of *Candide* (1759). All was, however, not yet quite smooth with him. Voltaire had a law expressly forbidding theatrical performances in any circumstances whatever. Voltaire had infringed this law already, and the stage was being considered as a very suitable way Voltaire might establish himself and think of building a regular theatre, not indeed at Geneva but at Lausanne. In July 1755 a very polite and, as far as Voltaire was concerned, indirect resolution of the Consistory declared that in consequence of these proceedings of the Sieur de Voltaire the pastors should notify their flocks to abstain, and that the chief syndic should be informed of the Consistory's perfect confidence that the edicts would be carried out. Voltaire obeyed this hint as far as Les Délèces was concerned, and consoled himself by having the performances in his Lausanne house. But he never was the man to take opportunities of the kind without some meditations. He undoubtedly instigated D'Alembert to include a censure of the prohibition in his *Encyclopédie* article on "Geneva," a proceeding which provoked Rousseau's celebrated *Lettre à D'Alembert sur les spéciales*. As for himself, he looked about for a place where he could combine the social liberty of France with the political liberty of Geneva, and he found one.

At the end of 1758 he bought the considerable property of Ferney, on the shore of the lake, about four miles from Geneva, and on French soil. At Les Délèces (which he sold in 1759) he had been a householder no small settlement; and the purchase of Ferney (which he increased by other purchases and leases) he became a complete country gentleman, and was henceforward known to all Europe as sire of Ferney. Many of the most celebrated men of Europe visited him here, and large parts of his usual biographies are composed of extracts from their accounts of Ferney. His new occupations by no means quenched his literary activity. He did not make himself a slave to his visitors, but reserved much time for work and for his immense correspondence, which had for a long time once more included Frequent and enthusiastic, getting on very well when they were not in contact. Above all, he now, being comparatively secure in position, engaged much more strongly in public controversies, and resorted less to his old labyrinthine tricks of disavowal, garbled publication and private libel. The suppression of the *Encyclopédie*, to which he had been a considerable contributor, and whose conductors were his intimate friends, drew from him a shower of lampoons directed now at "l'infini" (see infra) generally, now at literary victims, such as Le Franc de Pompignan (who had written one piece of verse so much better than anything serious of Voltaire's that he could not be forgiven), or Paissot (who in his play *Les Philosophes* had boldly gibbetted most of the persons so termed, but had not included Voltaire), now at Fréron, an excellent critic and a dangerous writer, who had attacked Voltaire from the conservative side, and at whom the patriarch of Ferney, as he now began to be called, levelled in return the very inferior farce-lampoon of *L'Écosaise*, of the first night of which Fréron himself did an admirably humorous criticism.

How he built a church and got into trouble in so doing at Ferney, by the pet phrase "Deo erexit Voltaire" on it (1760-61) and obtained a relic from his work for his new building, how he entertained a grand-niece of Cornelle, and for her benefit wrote his well-known "commentary" on that poet, are matters of interest, but to be passed over briefly. Here, too, he began that series of interferences on behalf of the oppressed and the ill-treated which, whatever mixture of motives may have prompted it, is an honour to his memory. Volumes and almost libraries have been written on the Calas affair, and we can but refer here to the only less famous cases of Sirven (very similar to that of Calas, though no judicial murder was actually committed), Espinasse (who had been sentenced to the galleys for harbouring a Protestant minister), Lally (the son of the unjustly treated but not blameless Irish-French commander in India), D'Etalonde (the companion of La Barre), Montbaillii and others. In 1768 he entered into controversy with the bishop of the diocese; he had differences with the superior landlord of part of his estate, the president *De Brosses*, and he engaged in a long and tedious return match with the republic of Geneva. But the general events of this Ferney life are somewhat of that happy kind which are no events. Voltaire may have been a little too easily appalled by whatever he established himself at Ferney, became a very old one almost without noticing it. The death of Louis XV. and the accession of Louis XVI. excited even in his aged breast the hope of re-entering Paris, but he did not at once receive any encouragement, despite the reforming ministry of Turgot. A much more solid gain to his happiness was the adoption, or practical adoption, in 1776 of Reine Philiberte de Varicourt, a young girl of noble but poor family, whom Voltaire rescued from the convent, installed in his house as an adopted daughter, and married to the marquis de Villette. Her pet name was "Belle et Bonne," and nobody had more to do with the happiness of the last years of the "patriarch" than she had. It is doubtful whether his last and fatal visit to Paris was due to his own wish or to the instigation of his niece, Madame Denis; but this lady—a woman of disagreeable temper, especially to her inferiors—appears to have been rather hardly treated by Voltaire's earlier, and sometimes by his later, biographers.

The suggestion which has been made that the success of Beaumarchais' piéce he has nothing impossible in it. At any rate he had, at the end of 1777 and the beginning of 1778, the most of his famous play *Le Misanthrope*, which was not only an immense success, but so far exceeded the limits of that spirit, that he was sent to prison. He was to have been able to attend a performance of it, which was to have been the last of his time, but was not able to be there and was set free. He was crowned with laurel in his box, amid the plaudits of the audience, and did not seem to be the worse for it. He even began or proceeded with another tragedy—*Agathoclée*—and attended several Academic meetings. But such proceedings in the case of a man of eighty-four were impossible. To keep himself up, he exceeded even his usual excess in coffee, and about the middle of May he became very ill. On the 30th of May the priests were once more sent for—to wit, his nephew, the abbé Mignot, the abbé Gaultier, who had cared for the former occasion, and the parish priest, the curé of St Sulpice. He was, however, in a state of half-insensibility, and petulantly motioned them away, dying in the course of the night. The legends about his death in a state of terror and despair are certainly false; but it must be regarded as singular and unfortunate that he, who had more than once gone out of his way to confer ostentatiously and with his tongue in his cheek, should have neglected or missed this last opportunity. The result was a difficulty as to burial, which was compromised by hurried interment at the abbey of Seillères in Champagne, anticipating the interdict of the bishop of the diocese by an hour or two. On the 15th of July 1791 the body was transferred to the Pantheon, but during the Hundred Days it was once more, it is said, disentombed, and stowed away in a piece of waste ground. His heart, taken from the body when it was embalmed, and given to Madame Denis and by her to Madame de Villette, was preserved in a silver case, and when it was proposed (in 1864) to restore it to
the other remains, the sarcophagus at Sainte Geneviève (the Pantheon) was opened and found to be empty.

In person Voltaire was not engaging, even as a young man. His smooth volatile manner is marked, among other things, by the very poor but well-known epigram attributed to Young, and identifying him at once with "Satan, Death and Sin." In old age he was a mere skeleton, with a long nose and eyes of preternatural brilliency peering out of his wig. He never seems to have been addicted to any manly sport, and took little exercise. He was sober enough (for his day and society) in eating and drinking generally; but drank coffee, as his contemporary, counterpart and enemy, Johnson, drank tea, in a hardened and inveterate manner. It may be presumed with some certainty that his attentions to women were for the most part platonic; indeed, both on the good, and the bad side of him, he was all brain. He appears to have had no great sense of natural beauty, in which point he resembled his generation (though one remarkable story is told of his being deeply affected by Alpine scenery); and, except in his passion for the stage, he does not seem to have cared much for any of the arts. Conversation and literature were, again as in Johnson's case, the sole gods of his idolatry. As for his moral character, the wholly intellectual cast of mind just referred to makes it difficult to judge that. His beliefs or absence of beliefs emancipated the mind from theorists and he held his opinions but for subject for those who maintain that a nice morality may exist independently of religion. He was good-natured when not crossed, generous to dependents who made themselves useful to him, and indefatigable in defending the cause of those who were oppressed by the systems with which he was at war. But he was inordinately vain, and totally unscrupulous in gaining money, in attacking an enemy, or in protecting himself when he was threatened with danger. His peculiar fashion of attacking the popular beliefs of his time has also failed to secure the approval of some who had very little sympathy with those beliefs. The only excuse made for the alternate cringing and insult, the alternate abuse and lying, which marked his course in this matter, has been the very weak plea that a man cannot fight with a system—a plea which is sufficiently answered by the retort that a great many men have so fought and have won. Voltaire's works, and especially his private letters, constantly contain the word "l'infâme" and the expression (in full or abbreviated) "écrase l'infâme." This has been misunderstood in many ways—the mistake going so far as in some cases to make it appear that Voltaire meant to disparage by this pejorative expression. No careful and competent student of his works has ever failed to correct this gross misapprehension. "l'infâme" is not God; it is not Christ; it is not Christianity; it is not even Catholicoism. Its briefest equivalent may be given as "persecuting and privileged orthodoxy" in general, and, more particularly, it is the particular system which Voltaire saw around him, of which he had felt the effects in his own exiles and the confiscations of his books, and of which he saw the still worse effects in the hideous sufferings of Calas and La Barre.

Vast and various as the work of Voltaire is, its vastness and variety meet in the presence of its nobility and clarity quality: The divisions of it have long been recognized, and may be treated regularly.

The first of these divisions is in order, not the least in bulk, and, though not the first in merit, inferior to none in the amount of congenial labour spent on it, is the theatre. Between fifty and sixty different pieces (including a few which exist only in fragments or sketches) are included in his writings, and they cover his literary life. "Vaste défense," whose com- power was undoubtedly far in excess of his tragic, should have written many tragedies of no small excellence in their way, but only one fair second-class comedy, Nantus. His other efforts in this latter direction are either slight and almost insignificant in scope, or, as in the case of the somewhat famous Ecossaise, deriving all their interest from being personal libels. His tragedies, on the other hand, are works of extraordinary merit and importance. Although Voltaire had neither the perfect versification of Racine nor the noble poetry of Corneille, he surpassed the latter certainly, and the former in the opinion of some not incompetent judges, in playing the difficult and artificial game of the French tragedy. Zenone is one of those who have adopted the moral, and Mérope, among those where this motive is excluded and lost in subordination, yield to no plays of their clasie in that same the, in stage effect and in uniform literary merit. The acknowledged first of his players are those who essay to win these prizes for a capable and successful dramatist, and he was determined to win these prizes. He therefore set all his wonderful energies to the task, and in the end to adopt a little even of that Romantic disobedience to the strict classical theory which he condoned, and no doubt sincerely, in Shakespeare.

As regards his poems proper, of which there are two long ones, the Henriade and the Thésée, both are, if not the best, a bare catalogue fills fourteen royal octavo columns, their value is very unequal. The Henriade has by universal consent been relegated to the position of a school reading book. Conceived and written in almost a year, it has very little of the Medium a very unsuitable vehicle—the Alexandre coupé (as rendered and rendered monotonous for dramatic purposes)—and animated rather by enthusiasm for. The subject not very real, standing thereof, it could not be an unsatisfactory performance. The Pucelle, if morally inferior, is from a literary point of view of far more value. It is desultory to a degree; it is a base libel on religion and history; it differs from its model Aristotel in being, not as Aristot is, a mixture of romance and burlesque, but a sometimes tedious tissue of burlesque pure and simple; and it is exposed to the objection—often and justly urged—that much of its fun depends on the fact that there is not enough in Christianity to make its jokes give pain to them and to make their disgust at such jokes piquant to others. Nevertheless, to the end of his life, Voltaire was to the public as much above the Pucelle as the Pucelle is above the Henriade. It is true that there is nothing, or hardly anything, that properly deserves the name of poetry in them—no passion, no sense of the beauty of nature, only a narrow 'criminal' life; but still, and philosophical optimism, L'Homme aux quarante-tous cent certain social and political views of the time, Zadig and others the received forms of moral and metaphysical orthodoxy, who some are mere lampoons in the Bible, the unfailing stock of Voltaire's But (as always happens in the case of literary work where the form exactly suits the author's genius) the purpose in all the best of them is not merely a satire, but an almost entirely independent for others that the peculiar quality of Voltaire—ironie style without exaggeration—appears. That he learned it partly from Saint Evremont, still more from Anthony Hamilton, partly even from the species of parody Le Sage, partly from the political and social租车s, and others the received forms of moral and metaphysical orthodoxy, who some are mere lampoons in the Bible, the unfailing stock of Voltaire's But (as always happens in the case of literary work where the form exactly suits the author's genius) the purpose in all the best of them is not merely a satire, but an almost entirely independent for others that the peculiar quality of Voltaire—ironie style without exaggeration—appears. That he learned it partly from Saint Evremont, still more from Anthony Hamilton, partly even from the species of parody Le Sage, partly from the political and social. If one especial peculiarity can be singled out, it is the extreme restraint and simplicity of the verbal treatment. There is never this force of skill and art in the making that he has said, elucidates or comments on his own jokes, guffaws over them or exaggerates their form. The famous "pour encourager les autres" (that the shooting of Byng did "encourage the others" very much is not to the point) is a typical example, and indeed the whole of Candide shows the style at its perfection.

The fourth division of Voltaire's work, the historical, is the bulkiest of all except his correspondence, and some parts of it are or have been among the most read works but it is far from being even among the best. The small treatises on Charles XII. and Peter the Great are indeed models of clear narrative and ingenious if somewhat dull and ordinary style, especially the curious account of Louis XIV. and Sibelle de Louis XV. (the latter inferior to the former but still valuable) contain a great miscellany of interesting matter, treated by a man of great acuteness and unsurpassed power of word, and who was able to attach much important private information. But in even these books defects are present, which appear much more strongly in the singular olla podrida entitled Essais sur les mœurs, in the Annales de l'empire and the Histoire philosophique. This absence of any comprehension of what has since been called the philosophy of history, the constant presence of gross prejudice, frequent inaccuracy of detail, and a certain lack of perspective, are the chief defects, except from the narrow standpoint of a half-pessimist and half self-satisfied philosophe of the 18th century.

His work in physics concerns us less than any other here; it is, however, not inconsiderable in bulk, and is said by experts to give proof of aptitude. To his own age Voltaire was pre-eminently a poet and philosopher; the unkindness of succeeding ages has sometimes questioned
VOLterra

whether he had any title to either name, and especially to the latter, is a question. His philosophical work, at least so called, is the curious medley entitled *Dictionnaire philosophique*, which is composed of articles contributed by him to the great *Encyclopédie* and of several minor philosophical works. In English, as he moved from one religious country to another, his personal foibles, and the whole being largely seasoned with that acute, rather supercilious, common-sense, but also commonplace, ethical, and social criticism which became so popular at that period, perhaps second only to the novels as showing the character, literary and personal, of Voltaire; and despite its form it is nearly as readable. The minor philosophical works of *Dictionnaire philosophique* is the brief essay *Définition de la meta physique* the author makes his grand effort, but scarcely succeeds in doing more than show that he had no real conception of what metaphysic is.

In general *criticism* and *miscellaneous* writing Voltaire is not inferior to himself in any of his other functions. Almost all his more substantive works, whether in verse or prose, are preceded by prefaces of one sort or another, which are models of pungent *causerie*; and in a vast variety of nonsensical pamphlets and writings he shows himself a perfect journalist. In literary criticism pure and simple his principal work is the *Commentaire philosophique* (1763). Here he needed to be at once as specific as possible, sometimes (as in his Life and notes of Molière) independently sometimes as part of his *Siciles*. Nowhere, perhaps, except when he is dealing with religion, are Voltaire's defects more than balanced by his merits. He has the sense of the history of language and literature, and more here than anywhere else he showed the extraordinarily limited and conventional spirit which accompanied the 18th century against limits and conventions in theological, ethical and political matters.

There remains only the huge division of his *correspondence*, which is constantly being augmented by fresh discoveries, and which, according to Georges Rosso, has never been fully or correctly printed, even in some of the parts longest known. In this great mass Voltaire's personality is of course best shown, and perhaps his literary qualities not worst. His immense energy and versatility, his absolute faith in himself, his almost unerring sense of the path to be chosen to fling the most ruthless sarcasm when he chose to be sarcastic, his utter unscrupulous business faculty, his more than rather unscrupulous sense of the public eye, his desire to escape home and enemies,—all these things appear throughout the whole mass of letters.

Most judgments of Voltaire have been unduly coloured by sympathy with or dislike of what may be briefly called his political side. When sympathy and dislike are both discarded or allowed for, he remains one of the most astonishing, if not exactly one of the most admirable, figures of letters. That he never, as Carlyle complains, gave utterance to one great thought is truly not true. That his character is not a Germanic charlatan rather than positive genius is also true. But that he was merely a mocker, which Carlyle and others have also said, is not strictly true either. In politics proper he seems indeed to have had few or no constructive ideas, and to have been entirely ignorant or quite reckless of the fact that his attacks were destroying a state of things for which as a whole he neither had nor apparently wished to have any substitute; but he was, probably, and sincerely, that his own attitude was not purely negative; but here also he seems to have failed altogether to distinguish between prudence and cutting down. Both here and elsewhere his great fault was an inordinate superficiality. But this superficiality was accompanied by such wonderful acuteness within a certain range, by such an absolutely unsurpassed literary aptitude and sense of style in all the lighter and some of the graver modes of literature, by such unerring energy and versatility in enterprise, that he has no parallel among ready writers anywhere. Not the most elaborate work of Voltaire is of much value for matter; but not the very slightest work of Voltaire is without value. In literary criticism and biography he was at once versatile and accomplished, he has no superior and scarcely a rival.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY.**—The bibliography of Voltaire is a very large subject. It is not the purpose of a discussion of a diplomatist of such erudition and judgment, Georges Bengesco, *Bibliographie de Voltaire* (4 vols., Paris, 1882–90). The best edition of the works is that by Louis Moland in 52 volumes (Paris, Garnier); the handsome edition issued in a fine royal octavo by Furne, and kept in print by the house of Didot. Of the earlier editions, though their bulk is an objection, several are indispensably important. The edition of 1736 at first noticed the full edition of Kehl, in which Voltaire himself, and later Beaumarchais, were concerned (70 vols., 1736–89); those of Dalibon and Baudourin, each in 97 volumes (from which 52 of the hundred volumes of *Voltaire* have been derived, from the edition of 1775); and the Lounsbury's (2 vols., 1785), also of the year 1775. Editions of separate or selected works are innumerable, and so are books upon Voltaire. There is no really good detailed life of him, with complete examina-

tion of his work, in any language, though the works containing materials for such are numerous (the first of importance being that of T. J. Du-Denier in 1797), and sometimes (especially in the case of M. Desnoyerestures, *Voltaire et la société française*, 1867 and others) has comprised a number of letters. The English edition of *G. S.*
82–80 B.C. As a result of its resistance Sulla carried a law for the confiscation of the land of those inhabitants of Volaterrae who had had the privileges of Roman citizenship. This, however, does not seem to have been carried out until Caesar as dictator divided some of the territory of Volaterrae among his veterans. Among its noble families the chief was that of the Caxaeae, who took their name from the river which runs close to Volaterrae and still retains the name Cecuia. Cicero defended one of its members in an extant speech. It is included by Flainy among the municipal towns of Etruria. In the 12th and 13th centuries it enjoyed free institutions, and in 1361 it fell under the power of Florence. It rebelled, but was retaken and pillaged in 1472. Persius the satirist and the painter Daniele da Volterra were both natives of the town. Several works of the latter are preserved there.


**VOLTMETER**

An instrument for measuring differences of electric potential (see **Electrostatics**) in terms of the unit called a volt. The volt (so called after A. Volta) is defined to be the difference of potential which exists between the terminals of a resistance of one ohm sends through it a continuous current of one ampere. A voltmeter is therefore one form of electrometer (q.v.), but the term is generally employed to describe the instrument which indicates on a scale, not merely in arbitrary units but directly in volts, the potential difference of its terminals. Voltmeters may be divided into two classes, (a) electrostatic, (b) electrokinetic.

Electrostatic voltmeters are based on the principle that when two conductors are at different potentials they attract one another with a force which varies as the square of the potential difference (P. D.) between them. This mechanical stress may be made the measure of the P. D. between them, if one of the conductors is fixed while the other is movable, this last being subject to a constraint due to a spring or to gravity, means being also provided for measuring either the displacement of the movable conductor against the constraint or the force required to hold it in a fixed position relative to the fixed conductor. One large class of electrostatic voltmeters consists of a fixed metal plate or plates and a movable plate or plates, the two sets of plates forming a condenser (see **Leiden Jar**). The movable system is suspended or pivoted, and when a P. D. is created between the fixed and movable plates, the latter are drawn into a new position which is resisted by the torque of a wire or by the force due to a weight. Utilizing this principle many inventors have devised forms of electrostatic voltmeter. One of the best known of these is Lord Kelvin’s multicellular voltmeter. In this instrument (fig. 1) there are two sets of fixed metal plates, connected to the other member of the circuit, and a difference of potential is created between them, then the movable needle is drawn in so as to balance the measured voltage more included between the fixed plates. This movement is resisted by the torsional elasticity of the suspending wire, and hence a fixed indicating needle attached to the movable plate is caused to indicate directly on a scale the difference of potential between the terminals of the instrument in volts. Instruments of this kind have been constructed not only by Lord Kelvin, but also by W. E. Ayrton and others, for measuring voltages from 1000 to 10,000 volts.

Other types of electrostatic instruments the movable system rotates a horizontal axis or rests upon knife edges like a scale beam; in others the movable system is suspended by a wire. In the former case the control is generally due to gravity, the plates being so balanced on the knife edge that they tend to take up a certain fixed position from which they are constrained when the electric force tends to move them into another displacement relatively to the fixed plates being shown on a scale and thus indicating the P. D. between them. In the case of high tension voltmeters, the movable plate takes the form of a single plate of paddle shape, and for extra high tensions it may simply be suspended from the end of a balanced arm; or the movable system may take the form of a cylinder which is suspended within, but not touching, another fixed cylinder, the position being such that the electric forces draw the suspended cylinder more into the fixed one. Electrostatic voltmeters are now almost entirely used for the measurement of high voltages, from 2000 to 50,000 volts employed in electrotechnics. For lower voltages, however, those that are always under 1000 volts, whether in a metal case, the indicating needle moving over a divided scale which is calibrated to show directly the potential difference in volts of the terminals of the instrument. One much-used electrostatic voltmeter of this type is the Kelvin multimeter electrometer voltmeter (fig. 2). For use at the switch-boards of electric supply stations the instrument takes another form known as the “edge-wise” pattern.

Another class of voltmeters comprises the **electrokinetic voltmeter**. In these instruments the potential difference between two points is measured by the electrokinetic current produced by making the two points of the wire connecting to two points. In any case of potential difference measurement it is essential not to disturb the potential difference being measured; hence it follows that in electrokinetic voltmeters the wire connecting to two points of which the potential difference is to be measured must be of very high resistance. The instrument, therefore, may simply become an ammeter of high resistance, and may take any of the forms of practically used ammeters (see **Ampermeter**). Electromagnetic voltmeters may therefore be thermal, electromagnetic or electrodynamic.

As a rule, electromagnetic voltmeters are only suitable for the measurement of relatively small potentials—0 to 200 or 300 volts. Numerous forms of hot-wire or thermal voltmeter have been devised. In that known as the Cardew voltmeter, a fine platinum-silver wire, having a resistance of about 300 ohms, is stretched in a tube or upon a frame retained in a tube. This frame or tube is so constructed of iron and brass (one-third iron and two-thirds brass) that its temperature coefficient of linear expansion is the same as that of the platinum-silver alloy. The fine wire is fixed to one end of the tube or frame by an insulated support and the other end is attached to a motion-multiplying gearing. As the frame has the same linear expansion as the wire, external changes of the temperature will not affect their relative length, but if the whole wire is heated by the passage of an electric current, its expansion will move the indicating needle over the scale, the motion being multiplied by the gear. In the Hartmann and Braun form of hot-wire voltmeter, the fine wire is fixed between two supports and the expansion produced when a current is passed through it causes the wire to sag down, the sag being multiplied by a gear and made to move an indicating needle over a scale. In this case, the actual working wire, being short, must be placed in series with an additional high resistance. Hot wire voltmeters, like electrostatic voltmeters, are suitable for use with alternating currents of any frequency as well as with continuous currents, since voltages are measured in opposition of phases. Voltmeters consist of a conducting channel connecting to the terminals of the instrument, and extended the current produced in that wire by a difference of potential between the terminals creates a magnetic field proportional at any point to the strength of the current. This magnetic field may be made to cause a displacement...
in a small piece of soft iron, as in the case of the corresponding ammeters, and this in turn may be made to displace an indicating needle over a scale so that corresponding to every given potential difference between the terminals of the instrument there is a corresponding fixed position of the needle. The instrument takes the form of an electromagnetic voltmeter that is generally known as a *movable coil voltmeter* (fig. 3). In this instrument there is a fixed permanent magnet, producing a magnetic field in the in the interspace between the poles is fixed a delicately pivoted coil of wire carried in jewel bearings. The neutral position of this coil is with its plane parallel to the lines of force of the field. The current produces the temperature of the movable coil by means of fine flexible wires. The movable coil has attached to it an index needle moving over a scale, and a fixed coil of high-resistance wire is included in series with the movable coil between the terminals of the instrument. When a difference of potential is made between the terminals, a current passes through the coil, and the needle is also driven over a scale to place itself with its plane more or less at right angles to the lines of force resembling the hair of a spring. With this arrangement there is also a capacity to place the coil at any point on the scale corresponding to each potential difference between the terminals, provided it is within the limits of the scale. The instrument is only adapted for the measurement of continuous potential difference, that is to say, unidirectional potential difference, but not for alternating voltages. Like the corresponding ammeters, they have the great advantage that the scales are most divisional and that there is no dead part in the scale, whereas both the electrostatic and electrothermal voltmeters, described above, labour under the disadvantage that the scales of divisions are too large, but there is also a rise of voltages, here concretely, is generally a portion of the scale near the zero point where the divisions are so close as to be useless for reading purposes and are therefore omitted. For the measurement of continuous voltages, movable coil voltmeters are much employed, generally constructed then in the "edgewise" pattern (fig. 4).

**Electrodynamic Voltmeters.**—A high-resistance electrodynamic meter may be employed as a voltmeter if both the fixed and movable circuits consist of fine wires, and the instrument is constructed and used in a manner similar to the Siemens potentiometer for measuring continuous alternating current (see below). Another method used for measuring continuous current or unidirectional potential difference employs the principle of potentiometer (p.e.). In this case a high-resistance wire is connected between the points of which the potential difference is required, and from some known fraction of this resistance wire are brought to an electrostatic voltmeter, or to a movable coil electrometer voltmeter, according as the voltage to be measured is alternating or continuous. This measurement is applicable to the measurement of high potentials, either alternating or continuous, provided that in the case of alternating currents the high resistances of the voltmeter are not increased and an electrostatic voltmeter is used. The high-resistance wire should, moreover, be one having a negligible change of resistance with temperature. For this purpose it must be an alloy such as manganin or constantan. Consider, for instance, a hot-wire electrostatic voltmeter for measuring potential difference if it is necessary to keep the voltmeter permanently connected to the two points. Any form of electrodynamic voltmeter for measuring alternating current through the wire necessitates the expenditure of energy to maintain this current and therefore involves cost of production. This amount may not by any means be an insignificant quantity. Consider, for instance, a hot-wire electrometer voltmeter. If the wire has a resistance of 300 ohms and is connected to two points differing in potential by 100 volts, the instrument passes a current of one-third of an ampere, say 33 watts in power. Since there are 8760 hours in a year, if such an instrument were connected continuously to the circuit it would take up energy equal to 263,000 watt-hours, or 260 Board of Trade units per annum. If the cost of production of this energy was only one penny per unit, the working expenses of keeping such a voltmeter in connexion with a circuit would therefore be more than £1 per annum, representing a capitalized value of, say, £10. Electrostatic instruments, however, take up no power and hence cost nothing for maintenance other than wear and tear of the instrument. The instructions required in a good voltmeter are:—(i.) It should be quick in action, that is to say, the needle should come quickly to a position giving immediately the P.D. of the terminals of the instrument. (ii.) The instrument gives the corresponding position of the needle to the same P.D. whether this has been arrived at by increasing from a lower value or decreasing from a larger value; in other words, there should be no indication of hysteresis. (iii.) The instrument should have no temperature correction; this is a good point for electrostatic instruments, but in all voltmeters of the electrokinetic type which are wound with copper wire an increase of one degree centigrade produces a motion of the needle equal to one-thousandth of its total travel of 0.4°, and therefore to the same extent alters the correctness of the indications. (iv.) It should, if possible, be available both for alternating and continuous currents. (v.) It should be portable for use in the field, and for that good quality of external electric or magnetic fields. This last point is important in connexion with voltmeters used on the switchboards of electric power stations, where the fields may be present, due to strong currents passing through conductors near or on the board. It is therefore always necessary to check the readings of such an instrument in situ. Electrostatic voltmeters are also liable to have their indications disturbed by electrostatic fields of the glass cover of the instrument; this can be avoided by varnishing the glass with a semi-conducting varnish so as to prevent the location of electrostatic charges on the glass.

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**VOLTURNO—VOLUINSKY**

(anc. *Voluteum*, from *volvere*, to roll), a river of central Italy, which rises in the neighbourhood of Alfedena in the central Apennines of Samnium, runs S. as far as Venafro, and then S.E. After a course of some 75 m. it receives, about 5 m. E. of Caiazzo, the Calore, only 3 m. less in length, which runs first N. and then W., and after 37 m. reaches Benevento, near which it receives several tributaries; then curves round the mountain mass to the N. of the Caudine Forks, and so beyond Telese joins the Volturno. The united stream now flows W.S.W. past Capua (anc. *Castrum*), where the river fields may be present, due to strong currents passing through conductors near or on the board. It is therefore always necessary to check the readings of such an instrument in situ. Electrostatic voltmeters are also liable to have their indications disturbed by electrostatic fields of the glass cover of the instrument; this can be avoided by varnishing the glass with a semi-conducting varnish so as to prevent the location of electrostatic charges on the glass.

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**VOLUINSKY, ARTEMY PETROVICH** (1689-1749), Russian general and statesman, son of Peter Voluinsky, one of the dignitaries at the court of Theodore III, Emperor of an ancient family. He entered a dragon regiment in 1704 and rose to the rank of captain; then, exchanging the military service for diplomacy, he was attached to the suite of Vice-Chancellor Shafirov. He was present during the campaign of the Truth, shared Shafirov's captivity in the Seven Towers and in 1715 was sent by Peter the Great to Persia to promote Russian influence there, and it possible to find an outlet to India. In 1718 Peter made him one of his six adjutant-generals, and governor of Astrakhan. In this post Voluinsky displayed distinguished administrative and financial talents. In 1723 he married Alexandra Narushkina, Peter's cousin. The same
year he was accused of peculation and other offences to the emperor, who caned him severely and deprived him of his plenipotentiary powers, despite his undeniable services in Persia, but for which Peter could never have achieved so triumphant from the difficult Persian war of 1723–25. Catharine, despite the severe losses of her artillery and infantry units, has been also divided Short time, and he held the same post for two years (1728–30) under Peter II. But his incorruptible courage and unbridled temper so discredited the government that he was deprived of the post shortly after the accession of Anne. From 1730 to 1736 Voluinsky served in the army under Münich. In 1737 he was appointed the second Russian plenipotentiary at the abortive congress of Nemirov held for the conclusion of peace with the Porte. In 1736 he was introduced into the Russian cabinet by Biren as a counterpoise against Andrei Osterman. Voluinsky, however, now voluntarily himself strong enough to attempt to supersede Biren himself, and openly opposed the favourite in the Council of State in the debates as to the indemnty due to Poland for the violations of her territory during the war of the Polish Succession, Biren advising that a liberal indemnty should be given, whereas Voluinsky objected to any indemnty at all. Biren thereupon forced Anne to order an inquiry into Voluinsky's past career, with the result that he was tried before a tribunal of Biren's creatures and condemned to be broken on the wheel and then beheaded. On the scaffold, "by the clemency of the empress," his punishment was mitigated. Voluinsky was exiled to Siberia, his fortune confiscated, his estate burnt, and his property confiscated. The whole business seems to have been purely a piece of vindictiveness on the part of Biren.


**Volunteers**, a general term for soldiers who are not professionals nor permanently embodied under arms in peace. Although it would be difficult to say when the principle of volunteer organization for national defence was first adopted in England, it is certain that voluntary military societies existed in various parts of the country in the reign of Henry VIII., who in fact granted a charter in 1537 to the "Fraternity of Gylde of Saint George: Maisters and Rulers of the said Science of Artillary as aforesaid rehearsed for long-bowes Cros-bowes and Hand-Gomes." This ancient corps is now the Honourable Artillery Company of London. Although the Honourable Artillery Company has always been a distinct association, it was at one time (notably during the Great Rebellion) a centre of instruction for the City-trained hands, and in later times the H.A.C., divided itself into various city units when one time or another were training and obligations to the Volunteer or Territorial Forces. Charters of a similar kind were granted to a Colchester society in 1619 and to one at Bury St Edmunds in 1628. In the 16th and 17th centuries also various temporary corps outside the militia or trained-band organization were called volunteers. At Boston, Massachusetts, there is established a corps bearing the name of the "Antient and Honourable Company of Volunteers of the Massachusetts." This company was formed in 1638 after its London prototype, and at the head of a large organized Volunteer Force, however, seems to have originated in England at the time of the Militia Bill of 1757, which was amended in 1758 so as to allow the militia captains to accept volunteers instead of the ordinary militiamen who were compulsorily furnished *pro rata* by each parish. In 1778 the volunteers were still voluntary substitutes for the militia, though formed in separate companies of the militia unit, but volunteer corps soon began to form themselves independently of the militia. In the meantime a large volunteer force had sprung up in Ireland. In 1770, Ireland being threatened with foreign invasion, a levy of 20,000 Protestants was made by the government in the north. The 20,000 Protestants had gone in 1782 to 100,000 of all arms and both creeds, and they used their strength effectively for political purposes. After the establishment of the parliament at Dublin, and the general peace of 1783, attempts were made to use this army for party purposes, and

The moderate men in parliament therefore hastened to disband it. But this military coup d'etat was not forgotten in England. Ireland indeed supplied 70,000 volunteers during the Napoleonic wars, practically in place of her militia quota. But the rebellion of 1798 kept alive the memory of 1782, and about 1804 the government of the French press became more and more formidable. Volunteer corps, some dependent as companies upon the militia, others independent units, were raised in 1794, volunteer service counting as militia service for the purposes of raising the county, town or parish quota. This was followed in 1798 by the formation, for purely local defence, of the Armed Associations, the equivalent of the modern "rifle clubs." At the peace of Amiens the 340,000 on active service were nearly all disbanded, but one or two corps passed into the regular army as entire regiments, and some others managed to avoid disbandment and therefore the renewal of the war. The danger of invasion was then at its height, and in a few months the force numbered 380,000 men, or 3% of a population which already kept up a regular army and a militia. But the training of this mass was very unequal; the numbers fell off as the likelihood of invasion decreased, and in the reaction from the first enthusiasm it began to be questioned whether the volunteers could be of much value under the existing conditions of service prevailing. In 1803, therefore, the Local Militia was revived, in which terms of enlistment and training liabilities were both stricter and better defined. The greater part of the volunteers transferred themselves to the Local Militia, which by 1812 (aided by the ballot) had reached a strength of 215,000 as against the 70,000 of the remaining volunteers. With the general peace of 1814 all these forces except the H.A.C. and the Yeomanry (g.v.) disappeared.

After an interval of nearly half a century the warlike attitude of France caused British citizens once more to arm for the protection of their country. The British army and navy had declined in strength and efficiency; France, on the other hand, by the energetic development of her military and naval power and the early application of steam to ships of war, brought the possibilities of the invasion of England in 1856 within measurable distance. England at this time was awakened to the gravity of the situation by the publication of a letter from Wellington to Sir John Burgoyne, followed by a well-timed pamphlet by Sir Charles Napier, entitled *The Defence of England by Volunteer Corps and Militia*. The French danger, in abeyance during the Crimean War, was revived in 1857, when the threat of the French press became more and more menacing. The war in China, the Indian Mutiny and difficulties with the United States taxed the regular army to the utmost; while at home, besides the actual garrisons, there were barely 36,000 militia. This threatening condition of affairs tended to aggravate, if not to produce, a serious commercial panic. It was then that the volunteer movement began, and the Orsini episode and the openly expressed threats of French officers were all that was necessary to free the pent-up enthusiasm.

A few rifle clubs were already in existence, and two of these, which were formed to assist the military administration of 1853–54, were the two senior volunteer battalions—1st V.B. (now 4th Bn.) Devonshire Regt., and Victoria Rifles (now 9th Bn. London Regt.). But it was not until the situation became acute that the War Office took the step of raising the "Volunteer Force." A circular letter, dated 12th May 1859, from the secretary for war to the lords-lieutenant of counties in Great Britain authorized the formation of volunteer corps. The general enrolment took place at first under the old statute (44 Geo. III.). The main provisions of that act, however, were found inapplicable to the altered conditions under which invasion was now possible, and they failed also to provide for the maintenance of the volunteer force on a permanent footing in peace. A new act (Volunteer Act 1863) was therefore passed, the most important provision of which was that apprehended invasion should constitute a

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1 See *Life and Letters of Field-Marshal Sir John Burgoyne*. 

sufficient reason for the sovereign to call out the volunteers, in lieu of the old condition which required the actual appearance of the enemy. The volunteers were, when called out, bound to serve in Great Britain until released by a proclamation declaring the occasion to have passed. This was modified in 1900 during the South African War, a new enactment allowing the authorities to call them out at any time of "military necessity, under danger and great emergencies". In 1871 the volunteers were removed from the control of the lords-lieutenant and placed under the War Office. In 1881 the infantry battalions were affiliated to the various line regiments.

The force thus brought into existence was composed of corps of light horse, mounted rifles, garrison and heavy artillery, engineers and rifle volunteers. Later there existed also in connexion with the admiralty a corps of "Royal Naval Artillery Volunteers" for the coast defences. The terms of service and training liabilities underwent no alteration of principle during the forty-eight years of the force's existence. The property belonging to the corps was vested in the commanding officer and administered by a committee of officers under the rules of the corps. These rules were in the first instance agreed on at a general meeting of officers and men, and, having received the queen's approval, became legal, and could be enforced. The commanding officer could dismiss a man from the corps, and a volunteer not on actual service could terminate his engagement at fourteen days' notice. But, as it became the almost universal practice for the government or the regimental commander to issue clothing and equipment freely, the volunteersshade in return for his services than to retain the ranks in anticipation of war, cared no longer to bear arms. Their places were taken by the artisan class, which added materially to the number and permanence of the force. But, as contributions and subscriptions now flagged, it became evident that public grants would have to be voted for its maintenance, and a scale of capitation allowances, subject to regulation, was fixed, on the recommendation of a Royal Commission. This capitation allowance per efficient volunteer was thenceforward the only item of all regimental finance and administration.

The turnpike, in the history of the volunteers was the South African War. In January 1900, and on several subsequent occasions, the volunteers were invited to supply service companies for South Africa, to be incorporated in the regular battalions to which the volunteer battalions were affiliated. About one-third of the whole force volunteered for service in South Africa, and some 20,000 served in the volunteer companies with the line and in the "City Imperial Volunteers", besides a great number of volunteers whom the higher pay, the light horse and mounted rifles disappeared in the end, or else were converted into yeomanry. The "rifle" title was retained even after the infantry had been assimilated in drill, uniform and other respects to the line battalions. For this reason even scarlet-covered battalions had no colours, pouch-belts instead of sashes, &c.

Strength of the Volunteer Force
(From the Territorial Year Book 1900).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Establishment</th>
<th>Strength</th>
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VOLUSENUS, FLORENTIUS [Florence Wilson, or Wolsey, in later writers Wilson, though in letters in the vernacular he writes himself Volusenue (c. 1504-c. 1547), Scottish historian, was born near Elgin about 1504. He studied philosophy at Aberdeen, and in the dialogue De Animis Tranquillitati says that the description of the abode of tranquillity was based on a dream that came to him after a conversation with a fellow-student on the banks of his native Lossie. He was then a student of philosophy for four years' standing. Proceeding to Paris, he became tutor to Thomas Wynter, reputed son of Cardinal Wolsey. He paid repeated visits to England, where he was well received by the king, and, after Wolsey's fall, he acted as one of Cromwell's agents in Paris. He was in England as late as 1534, and appears to have been rector of Speldhurst in Kent. In Paris he knew George Buchanan, and found patrons in the cardinal, Jean de Lorraine and Jean du Bellay. He was to have gone with du Bellay on his mission to Italy in 1535, but illness kept him in Paris. As soon as he recovered he set out on his journey, but at Avignon, by the advice of his friend Antonio Bonvisi (d. 1538), he sought the patronage of the bishop of the diocese, the learned and pious Paul Sadolet, who made him master in the school at Carpentras, with a salary of seventy crowns. Volusenus paid frequent visits to Lyons (where Conrad Gesner saw him, still a young man, in 1542), probably also to Italy, where he had many friends, perhaps even to Spain. A letter addressed to him by Sadolet from Rome in 1546 shows that he had then resolved to return to Scotland, and had asked advice on the attitude he should adopt in the religious dissensions of the time. He died on the journey, however, at Vienne in Dauphiné, in 1546, or early in the next year.

Volusenus's linguistic studies embraced Hebrew as well as Greek and Latin. His reputation, however, rests on the beautiful dialogue De Animis Tranquillitati, the first printed by S. Gryphius at Lyons in 1543. From internal evidence it appears to have been composed about that time, but the subject had exercised the writer for many years. The dialogue shows us Christian humanism at its best. Volusenus is a great admirer of Erasmus, but he criticizes the purity of his Latin and also his philosophy. His own philosophy is Christian and Biblical rather than classical or scholastic. He takes a fresh and independent view of Christian ethics, and he ultimately reaches a doctrine as to the witness of the Spirit and the
assurance of grace which breaks with the traditional Christianity of his time and is based on ethical motives akin to those of the German Reformers. The verses which occur in the dialogue, and the poetical context under which it is given, VOLVOLUMINA (Vulcanus) and Vulcans, but it is as a Christian philosopher that he attains distinction.

The dialogue was reissued at Leiden in 1637 by the Scots writer David Eclint, whose poems, with a selection of three poets, from the dialogue of Volvulusa, appear, with others, in the famous Dutch collection Deliaetae Poetarum Societatem hujus aevi, printed by Baev in 2 vols. in 1637. Later editions of the dialogue appeared by Edmundson (1879), the 70th ed. (D. G. Wishart). All the reissues contain a short life of the author by Thomas Wilson, advocate, son-in-law and biographer of Archibald Patrick Adamson. Supplemental facts are found in the entries under the poet, and in Sadleir's Letters.

VOLUTE (Lat. volutum, volvere, to roll up), in architecture, the spiral scroll of the capital of the Ionic order. As in the earliest example known, that of the archaic temple of Diana at Ephesus, the width of the abacus is twice that of the depth, constituting therefore a bracket-capital; it is probable that at first it consisted of an oblong block of timber, which, raised on a vertical post or column, lessened the bearing of the architrave or beam, and the first volutes or scrolls were painted on. In votive columns carrying a sphinx, as at Delphi, or seated figures of women, such as are found at Hagia Sophia, at least two volutes were retained, but in the porticoes of the Greek temples the abacus was made square and the volute diminished in projection on each side. In the side elevation of the capital which joins the two volutes is known as the cushion, and when the Ionic column was used in porticoes in the capitals of the angle columns the volute was brought out on the diagonal, so as to present the same design on front and side; this, however, at the back led to a very awkward arrangement with two half volutes at right angles to one another, which was not of much importance under the portico, but when, in the open peristyle of the Pompeian house, it faced the open court, another design was necessary, and the angle volute was employed on all four sides. A similar arrangement was devised by Ictinus for the capitals of the interior of the temple at Bassae (430 B.C.), and was employed in the semidetached columns of the raised stage at Epidaurus. The Romans adopted the angle volute in the temple of Fortuna Virilis at Rome, but, except in their porticoes and as semidetached between arches, the Ionic order was rarely employed by them, and few Roman examples are known.

The architects of the Revival in the 18th century entirely misused this form, and meanly detached the volute from the inner fillet of which was always carried horizontally across the abacus in Greek and Roman work, and mistook them for horse, which they turned down into the echinus moulding.

VONDEL, JOOST VAN DEN (1587-1679), Dutch poet, was born at Cologne on the 17th of November 1587. His father, a hatter, was an exile from Antwerp on account of his Anabaptist opinions; but he returned to Holland when Joost was about ten years old, and settled in Amsterdam, where he carried on a hosier business. Joost was the eldest son, and was expected to succeed to his father's shop. He was early introduced to the chamber of the Eglatine, however, and devoted most of his time to poetry and study. When the elder Vondel died he married Maria de Wolf, and seems to have left the management of his affairs in her capable hands. He read the French contemporary poets, and was especially influenced by the Divine Heptaméron of Du Bartas; he made some translations from the German; he was soon introduced to the circle gathered in the house of Roemer Visscher, and with these friends began to make a close study of classical writers. His first play, Iet Pascha, was printed in 1612, and proved to be the beginning of a long and brilliant literary career (see DUTCH LITERATURE).

After the production of his political drama of Palamedes, or Murdered Innocence (1623), which expressed his indignation at the judicial murder of Olenenearneveldt in 1619, Vondel had to go into hiding, but the Amsterdam magistrates eventually satisfied themselves with an exorbitant fine. In the following years he issued a number of stinging satires against the extreme Calvinists, and he entered into close relationship with Hugo Grotius, another sufferer for his liberal opinions. Vondel had long been attracted by the aesthetic side of the Roman Catholic Church, and this inclination was perhaps strengthened by his friendship with Marie Tesseachersch Visscher, for the Visscher household had been Catholic and liberal. Tesserarcs's husband died in 1634; Vondel's wife died in 1635; and the ties between the two were strengthened by time. Vondel eventually showed his revolt against the Calvinist tyranny in formally embracing the Roman Catholic faith in 1625.

The step was not made by many of his friends, and Hooff forbade him the hospitality of his castle at Middlen. In 1657 his only surviving son, who was entrusted with the hospitable business, mismanaged affairs to such an extent that he had to take ship for the East Indies, leaving his father to face the creditors. Vondel had to sacrifice the whole of his small fortune, and became a government clerk. He was pensioned after ten years' service, and died on the 5th of February 1679.

The more important of his thirty-two dramas are: Hierusalem Restovert ("Jerusalem had desolate") (1620); Palamede, of Vermoorde onnooselheyt ("Palamedes, or Murdered Innocence") (1625); Gijstbrecht van Aensel (1637); De Gereeders (1640), the subject of which is the rule of the Louvre; De Staat der Heere Maria Stuart, of gemarcellte majestee (1646); the pastoral De Leerouwenders (1683); Lucifer (1654); Solomonus (Solomon) (1657); Echlin (1640); Koning David in ballingschap ("King David in exile") (1660); Koning David in ballingschap and Samson (1660); Batasche Gereeders, of the subject of which is the story of Claudius Civila (1663); Adam in ballingschap ("Adam in exile") (1664), after which he retired.

He also wrote translations from the tragedies of Seneca, Euripides, and Sophocles; didactic poems; and much lyrical poetry besides what is to be found in the choruses of his dramas.

His complete works were edited by van Lennep (12 vols., 1880-1886). A bibliography (1888) was published by J. H. W. Unger, who revised van Lennep's edition in 1888-94. Lucifer was translated by L. C. van Nappen (New York, 1896). See also E. Cosse, Studies in Northern Literature (1897); E. Edmundson, Milton and Vondel (1885), where Milton's supposed indebtedness to Vondel is discussed; and critical studies by A. Baumgarten, Des H. H. D. Vondels Leben und Werke (1893); J. Thimm (Portretten van Joost van den Vondel, 1876); and especially the chapters on Vondel (pp. 133-329) in W. J. A. Jonckhote's Geschiedenis der nederlandsche letterkunde (vol. iv. 1890).

VON HOLST, HERMANN EDUARD (1841-1904), German-African historian, was born at Pella in the province of Luvonia, on the 19th of June 1841. He was educated at the universities of Dorpat and Heidelberg, receiving his doctor's degree from the latter in 1865. He emigrated to America in 1867, remaining there until 1872. He was professor of history in the newly reorganized university of Strassburg from 1872 to 1874, and at Freiburg in Baden from 1874 to 1892, and for ten years he was a member of the Baden Herrenhaus, and vice-president for four. He revisited the United States in 1878-79 and in 1884, and in 1892 he became head of the department of history at the university of Chicago. Retiring on account of ill-health in 1900, he returned to Germany and died at Freiburg on the 20th of January 1904. Both through his books and through his lectures at the university of Chicago, Von Holst exerted a powerful influence in encouraging American students to follow more closely the German methods of historical research. His principal work is his Constitutional and Political History of the United States (German ed., 5 vols., 1873-91; English trans. by Lator and Mason, 8 vols., 1877-92), which covers the period from 1783 to 1861, though more than half of it is devoted to the decade 1850-60; it is written from a strongly anti-slavery point of view. Among his other writings are: The Constitutional Law of the United States of America (German ed., 1885; English trans., 1887); John C. Calhoun (1882), in the American Statesmen Series; John Brown (1888), and The French Revolution Tested by Mirabeau's Career (1894).

See the Political Science Quarterly, v. 697-78; the Nation, lxxvii. 65-67.

VONNOH, ROBERT WILLIAM (1858- ), American portrait and landscape painter, was born in Hartford, Connecticut, on 10th of September 1858. He studied at the École des Beaux-Arts in Paris; became an instructor at the Cowles Art School, Boston (1884-85), at the Boston
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VORONEZH, a government of southern Russia, bounded N. by the government of Tambov, E. by Saratov and the Don Cossacks, S. by Kharkov and W. by Kursk and Orel; area, 25,435 sq. m. It occupies the southern slopes of the middle-Russian plateau, and its average elevation is from 450 to 700 ft. The surface is hilly, and intersected by ravines in the west (where two ranges of chalk hills separated by a broad valley run north and south), but flat and low cast of the Don. Devonian sandstones crop out in the north: further south these are covered with Cretaceous deposits. Glacial valleys with erratic boulders extend as far south as Voronezh, and extensive areas are covered with Lacsunite clays and sands. The soil is very fertile, owing to the prevalence of black earth; it becomes, however, sandy towards the east.

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Voronezh lies on the border between the forest and meadow region of middle Russia and the southern steppes; the forests disappear rapidly towards the south, and those which in the time of Peter the Great stood on the upper tributaries of the Don, and were used for shipbuilding, have now been almost entirely destroyed. Less than one-tenth of the entire area is under wood.

The Don traverses Voronezh from N. to S.E., draining it for more than 400 m.; it is an important channel for the export of corn and other raw produce, as well as for the import of wood, floated down from the north. Its tributary, the Voronezh is also navigated, and the Bityug and Khoper, both left-hand affluents of the Don, flow in part through the government. Many other small streams flowing into the Don intersect the territory, but the influence of the dry steppes begins to make itself felt; there are no lakes, and marshes persist only in the valleys. The climate is continental, and although the mean temperature at the town of Voronezh is 4.2° F., that of January is as low as 8.5°, and that of July as high as 74.2°.

The estimated pop. in 1906 was 5,097,700. The inhabitants consist in nearly equal parts of Great Russians in the north and Little Russians in the south, but there are a few Poles, Germans and Jews, both Orthodox and Karaites. The government is divided into twelve districts, the chief towns of which are Voronezh, Biryuch, Bobrov, Boguchar, Korotoyak, Nizhnevodyetsk, Nove-Khopersk, Ostrogozhsk, Pavlovsk, Valuiky, Zadonsk and Zemlyansk. Agriculture is the chief occupation, and grain is exported to a considerable amount. The peasants own much land, the crown and the imperial domains 3% and private owners 36%.

The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Aniseed, sunflowers, tobacco and beetroot are extensively cultivated, and much attention is paid to the growth of the pineapple. There are large tracts of excellent pasture land, on which cattle are bred and herds of cart-horses and trotting-horses are found. There are nearly two hundred breeding establishments, those at Hrenovoye and Chesmenka being the most important. In many villages the inhabitants are engaged in the making of wooden wares. There are flour-mills, distilleries, oil, sugar and woolen mills, iron works and tobacco factories.

VORONEZH, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, on the river Voronezh, 5 m. above its confluence with the Don and 367 m. by rail S.S.E. of Moscow. Pop. (1901) 54,146. It is one of the best-built and most picturesque provincial towns of Russia, and is situated on the steep bank of the river, surrounded by three large suburbs—Troitskaya, Yamskaya and Chizhovka. It has a military school of cadets, two museums, a monument (1860) to Peter the Great, a railway college, a pilgrimage church, and a theatre which figures in the history of the Russian stage. It was the birthplace of two peasant poets, who wrote some of the finest examples of Russian poetry—A. V. Kol'tsov (1809-1842) and I. S. Nikitin (1824-1861). A memorial to the former was erected in 1868. There are factories for cleansing wool and for the preparation of linens, woollens, hells, tallow and oil, as well as some distilleries. Voronezh is an important entrepôt for corn, flax, tallow, hides, sugar, wood and coal from the Don.

The city was founded in 1536, as a fort against Tatar raids, on a site which had been occupied from the 11th century by a Khazar town, but had been deserted during the 14th and 15th centuries. Four years afterwards it was burned by the Tatars, but again rebuilt, and soon became an important trading place. Peter the Great recognized its importance, and in 1695 built here a flotilla of boats for the conquest of Azov. The town was almost completely destroyed by fire in 1793, 1748 and 1773, but was always rebuilt.

VORONTSOV (or Voronzoff), the name of a Russian family, various members of which are distinguished in Russian history.

MIKHAIL ILARIKOVICH VORONTSOV (1714-1767), Russian imperial chancellor, was the first to become prominent. At the age of fourteen he was appointed a Kammer junker at the court of the cesarevna Elizabeth Petrovna, whom he materially assisted during the famous coup d'état of the 6th of December 1741, when she mounted the Russian throne on the shoulders of the Preobrazhensky Grenadiers. On the 3rd of January 1742 he married Anna Skavronskaya, the empress's cousin; and in 1744 was created a count and vice-chancellor. His jealousy of Alexis Bestuzhev induced him to participate in Lestocq's conspiracy against that statesman. The empress's affection for him (she owed much to his skillful pen and still more to the liberality of his rich kinsfolk) saved him from the fate of his accomplices, but he lived in a state of semi-eclipse during the domination of Bestuzhev (1744-1758). On the disgrace of Bestuzhev, Vorontsov was made imperial chancellor in his stead. Though well-meaning and perfectly honest, Vorontsov as a politician was singularly timorous and irresolute, and always took his cue from the court. Thus, under Elizabeth he was an avowed enemy of Prussia and a warm friend of Austria and France; yet he made no effort to prevent Peter III. from reversing the policy of his predecessor. Yet he did not lack personal courage, and endured torture after the Revolution of the 9th of July 1762 rather than betray his late sovereign. He generally refused to serve under her, though she reinstated him in the dignity of chancellor. When he found that the real control of foreign affairs was in the hands of Nikita Panin, he resigned his office (1763). Vorontsov was a generous protector of the nascent Russian literature, and, to judge from his letters, was a highly cultivated man.

ALEXANDER ROMANOVICH VORONTSOV (1741-1805), Russian imperial chancellor, nephew of the preceding and son of Count Roman Vorontsov, began his career at the age of fifteen in the Izmailovsky regiment of the Guards. In 1759, his kinsman, the grand chancellor Mikhail Illarionovich, sent him to Strasbourg, Paris and Madrid to train him in diplomacy. Under Peter III. he represented Russia for a short time at the court of St James's. Catherine II. created him a senator and president of the Board of Trade; but she never liked him, and ultimately (1791) compelled him to retire from public life. In 1802 Alexander I. summoned him back to office and appointed him imperial chancellor. This was the period of the triumph of the Vorontsovs, who had always insisted on the necessity of a close union with Austria and Great Britain, in opposition to Panin and his followers, who had leaned on France or Prussia till the outbreak of the Revolution made friendship with France impossible. Vorontsov was also an implacable opponent of Napoleon, whose "topsy-turvyness" he was never weary of denouncing. The rupture with Napoleon in 1803 is mainly attributable to him. He also took a leading part in the internal administration and was in favour of a thorough reform of the senate and the ministries. He retired in 1804. He possessed an extraordinary memory and a firm and wide grasp of history.

His "Memoirs of my Own times" (Rus.) is printed in vol. vii. of the Vorontsov Archives.

SEMEHN ROMANOVICH VORONTSOV (1744-1832), Russian diplomatist, brother of Alexander Romanovich, distinguished himself during the first Turkish War of Catherine II. at Larga and Kagula in 1770. In 1783 he was appointed Russian minister at Vienna, but in 1785 was transferred to London, where he lived for the rest of his life. Vorontsov enjoyed great influence and authority in Great Britain. Quickly acquainting himself with the genius of English institutions, their ways and methods, he was able to render important services to his country. Thus during Catherine's second Turkish War he contributed to bring about the disarmament of the auxiliary British fleet which had been fitted out to assist the Turks, and in 1793 obtained a renewal of the commercial treaty between Great Britain and Russia. Subsequently, his extreme advocacy of the exiled Bourbons, his sharp criticism of the Armed Neutrality of the North, which he considered disastrous to Russia and his denunciation of the partition of Poland as contrary to the first principles of equity and a shock to the conscience of western Europe, profoundly irritated
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the empress. On the accession of Paul he was raised to the rank of ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, and received immense estates in Finland. Neither Vorontsov's detention of the Russian squadron under Makarov in British ports nor his refusal, after the death of Bezborodko, to accept the dignity of imperial chancellor could alienate the favour of Paul. It was only when the emperor himself began to draw nearer to France that he began to consider Vorontsov as incompetent to serve Russia in England, and in February 1800 all the count's estates were confiscated. Alexander I. on his accession at once reinstated him, but ill-health and family affairs induced him to resign before he reached London; and that time, till the death in 1832, he continued to live in London.

Besides his valuable Note on the Russian War (Rus.) and numerous letters, Vorontsov was the author of an autobiography (in Russky Arkhiv, Petersburg, 1881) and "Notes on the Internal Government of Russia" (Rus.) (in Russky Arkhiv, 1881).

MIKHAIL SEMENOVICH VORONTSOV (1782-1836), Russian prince and field-marshall, son of the preceding, spent his childhood and youth with his father in London, where he received a brilliant education. During 1803-4 he served in the Caucasus under Tsinisianov and Gulyakov, and was mortally killed in the Zakatako disaster (January 15, 1804). From 1805 to 1807 he served in the Napoleonic wars, and was present at the battles of Pultusk and Friedland. From 1809 to 1811 he participated in the Turkish War and distinguished himself in nearly every important action. He was attached to Bagration's army during the war of 1812, was seriously wounded at Borodino, sufficiently recovering, however, to rejoin the army in 1813. In 1814, at Craonne, he brilliantly withstood Napoleon in person. He was the commander of the corps of occupation in France from 1815 to 1818. On the 9th of May 1823 he was appointed governor-general of New Russia, as the southern provinces of the empire were then called, which under his administration developed marvellously. He may be said to have been the creator of Odessa and the benefactor of the Crimea. He was the first to start steam-boats on the Black Sea (1828). The same year he succeeded the wounded Menshikov as commander of the forces besieging Varna, which he captured on the 28th of September. In the campaign of 1829 it was through his energetic efforts that the plague, which had broken out in Turkey, did not penetrate into Russia. In 1831 an edition of Vorontsov was appointed governor-in-chief and governor of the Caucasus with plenipotentiary powers. For his brilliant campaign against Shamyl, and especially for his difficult march through the dangerous forests of Ichkerinia, he was raised to the dignity of prince, with the title of Serene Highness. By 1838 he had captured two-thirds of Daghestan, and the situation of the Russians in the Caucasus, so long almost desperate, was steadily improving. In the beginning of 1853 Vorontsov was allowed to retire because of his increasing infirmities. He was made a field-marshall in 1856, and died the same year at Odessa. Statues have been erected to him both there and at Tiflis.

See V. V. Ogarkov, The Vorontsovs (Rus.) (Petersburg, 1892); Vorontsov Archives (Russ. and Fr.) (Moscow, 1870, &c.); M. P. Shelverbinin, Biography of Prince M. S. Vorontsov (Rus.) (Petersburg, 1858).

(R. N. B.)

VÖRÖSMÁRTY, MIHÁLY (1800-1853), Hungarian poet, was born at Pusztan-Nyék on the 1st of December 1800, of a noble Roman Catholic family. His father was a steward of the Nadasdys. Mihály was educated at Székesfehérvár by the Jesuits and at Pest by the Piarists. The death of the elder Vörösmarty in 1821 left his widow and numerous family extremely poor. As tutor to the Perczel family, however, Vörösmarty contrived to pay his own way and go through his aca
demical course at Pest. The doings of the diet of 1823 first enkindled his patriotism and gave a new direction to his poetical genius (he had already begun a drama entitled Salamon), and he flung himself the more recklessly into public life as he was consumed by a hopeless passion for Etelka Perczel, who socially was far above him. To his unrequited love we owe a whole host of exquisite lyrics, while his patriotism found expression in the heroic epos Zalán jutása (1824), gorgeous in colouring, exquisite in style, one of the gems of Magyar literature. This new epic marked a transition from the classical to the romantic school. Henceforth Vörösmarty was hailed by Kisfaludy and the Hungarian romanticists as one of themselves. All this time he was living from hand to mouth. He had forsaken the law for literature, but his contributions to newspapers and reviews were miserably paid. Between 1823 and 1831 he composed four dramas and eight shorter epics, partly historical, partly fanciful. Of these epics he always regarded Cserhalm as the best, and it was presented to the Pest Academy in return for Két szomszéd vir (1831), a terrible story of hatred and revenge. When the Hungarian Academy was finally established (November 17, 1830) he was elected a member of the philological section, and ultimately succeeded Karoly Kisfaludy as director with an annual pension of 500 florins. He was one of the founders of the Kisfaludy Society, and in 1837 started the Athenaeum and the Figyelőorvos, the first chief bellettiristic, the second the best critical periodical of Hungary. From 1830 to 1843 he devoted himself mainly to the drama, other his place of Vorontsov's collected works (1830) with the Academy's 100-golden-pistle prize. He also published several volumes of poetry, containing some of his best work. Század (1836), which became a national hymn, Az elhagyott anya (1837) and Az üröl hőgyéhs (1841) are all inspired by a burning patriotism. His marriage in 1843 to Laura Csajághy inspired him to compose a new cycle of erotics. In 1845, in conjunction with Arany and Petőfi, he set on foot an excellent translation of Shakespeare's works. He himself was responsible for Julius Caesar and King Lear. He represented Jankovics at the diet of 1848, and in 1849 was made one of the judges of the high court. The national catastrophe profoundly affected him. For a short time he was an exile, and when he returned to Hungary in 1850 he was already an old man. A profound melancholy crippled him for the rest of his life. In 1854 he wrote his last great poem, the touching A vén cígyh. He died at Pest in 1855 in the same house where Karoly Kisfaludy had died twenty-five years before. His funeral, on the 21st of November, was a day of national mourning. His penniless children were provided for by a national subscription collected by Ferencz Deák, who acted as their guardian.

In the allied genera Caschertium and Zoonanthium the two produced by fission remain united, so that a branching colony is ultimately produced. The genus is a large one, and many species are epizoic on various water animals.

VORTIGERN (Gruthiginus, Wyrtgern), king of the Britons at the time of the arrival of the Saxons under Hengest and Horsa. The records do not agree as to the date of the arrival of these chieftains or the motives which led them to come to Britain. It seems clear, however, that Vortigern
made use of them to protect his kingdom against the Picts and Scots, and rewarded them for their services with a grant of land. Later we find the Britons at war with the new-comers, now established in Kent, and four battles are fought, in the last of which, according to the Historia Brittonum, the king's son Vortemir, their leading opponent, is slain. The Historia Brittonum is our only authority for the marriage of Vortigern with the daughter of Hengest before the war. It also records the massacre of the British nobles after the death of Vortemir and the subsequent grant of Essex and Sussex to the invaders by Vortigern.


VOSGES, a frontier department of eastern France, formed in 1790 chiefly of territory previously belonging to Lorraine, together with portions of Franche-Comté and Champagne, and bounded N. by the department of Meurthe-et-Moselle, E. by Alsace, S.E. by the territory of Belfort, S. by the department of Haute-Saône, W. by Haute-Marne and N.W. by Meuse. Pop. 1906) 492,812; area, 2279 sq. m. The Vosges mountains (see below) form a natural boundary on the east, their highest French eminence, the Hohneck, attaining 4482 ft. The Monts Faucilles traverse the south of the department in a broad curve declining on the north into elevated plateaus, on the south encircling the upper basin of the Saône. This chain, dividing the basins of the Rhone and the Rhine, forms part of the European watershed between the basins of the Mediterranean and Atlantic. The Moselle and the Meuse, tributaries of the Rhine, have the largest drainage areas in the department; a small district in the N.W. sends its waters to the Seine, the rest belongs to the basin of the Rhone. The Moselle rises in the Col de Bussang in the extreme south-east, and in a N.W. course of about 70 m. in the department receives the Moselotte and the Vologne on the right; the Montagne and Meurthe on the right and the Madon on the left bank also belong to this department though they join the Moselle outside its borders. The source of the Saône is on the southern slope of the Faucilles. On the shore of Lake Gérardmer lies the beautifully situated town of Gérardmer, a well-known centre for mountain excursions.

The elevation and the northward exposure of the valleys make the climate severe, and a constant dampness prevails, owing both to the abundance of the rainfall and to the impermeability of the subsoil. The average temperature at Épinal (1070 ft.) is 49°F. The annual rainfall at Épinal is 28 in., at St Dié 32 in. and in the mountains more. Arable farming flourishing in the southern districts where wheat, oats and potatoes are largely grown. The vine is cultivated on the river banks, to best advantage on those of the Moselle. Pasture is abundant in the mountainous region, where cheese-making is carried on to some extent, but the best grazing is in the central valleys. Forests, which occupy large tracts on the flanks of the Vosges, cover about one-third of the department, and are a principal source of its wealth. Sawmills are numerous in the Vosges and the manufacture of furniture, sabot, brushes and wood-working in general are prominent industries. The department has mines of lignite and stone quarries of various kinds. There are numerous mineral springs, of which those of Contrexéville, Plombières, Vittel, Bains-les-Bains, Martigny-les-Bains and Plombières are the best. The manufacture of textiles is the chief industry, comprising the spinning and weaving of cotton, wool, silk, hemp and flax, and the manufacture of hosiery and of embroidery and lace, Mirecourt (pop. 5002) being an important centre for the two last. The department forms the diocese of St Dié (province of Besançon), it has its court of appeal and educational centre at Nancy, and belongs to the district of the XX. Army Corps. It is divided into the arrondissements of Épinal, Mirecourt, Neufchâteau, Remiremont and St Dié, which includes and contains.

VOSGES (Lat. Vosges or Vassag, Ger. Wassau or Vogezen), a mountain range of central Europe, stretching along the west side of the Rhine valley in a N.N.E. direction, from Basel to Mainz, for a distance of 150 m. Since 187 individuals, from the southern part, from the Ballon d’Alsace to Mont Donen, has been the frontier between France and Germany. There is a remarkable range of the Black Forest on the other side of the Rhine: both lie within the same degrees of latitude and have the same geological formation; both are characterized by fine forests on their lower slopes, above which are open pasturages and rounded summits of a uniform altitude; both have a steep fall to the Rhine and a gradual descent on the other side. The Vosges in their southern parts are composed of metamorphic, phyllitic rocks, mesetas, and porphyritic masses, and of a kind of red sandstone (occasionally 140 ft. in thickness) which on the western versant bears the name of "grets Vosgien."  

Geographically the range is divided south to north into four sections: the Grandes Vosges (62 m.), extending from Belfort to the valley of the Bruche; the Central Vosges (51 m.), between the Bruche and the Col de Saverne; the Lower Vosges (30 m.), between the Col de Saverne and the source of the Lauter; and the Hardt Vosges, the last named. The highest peak in the Grandes Vosges is called "ballons." The departments of Vosges and Haute-Saône are divided from Alsace and the territory of Belfort by the Ballon d’Alsace or St Maurice (4100 ft.). Thence northwards the average height of the district is 3000 ft., with an ascent of 300 ft. at the Col de Bussang (Gebweiler), or Soultz, rising to the east of the main chain to 4680 ft. The Col de Saeules, between the Grandes Vosges and the central section, is nearly 1900 ft. high; the latter is both lower and narrower than the other. The Great Vosges division reaches a second summit. The railway from Paris to Strassburg and the Rhine and Marine Canal traverse the Col de Saverne. No railway crosses the Vosges, though a line between Saverne and Belfort, but there are carriages over the passes of Bussang from Remiremont to Thann, the Schlucht (3766 ft.) from Gérardmer to Munster, the Bonhomme from St Dié to Colmar, and the pass from St Dié to Ste Marie-aux-Mines. The Grandes Vosges are a sandstone plateau ranging from 1000 to 1850 ft. high, and are crossed by the railway from Haguenau to Sarreguemines, defended by the fort of Bitche.

Meteorologically the difference between the eastern and western versants of the range, and the annual rainfall being much higher and the mean temperature being much lower in the latter than in the former. On the eastern slope the vine ripens to a height of 1300 ft.; on the other hand, its only rivers are the Ill and other shorter streams. The Moselle, Meurthe and Sarre all rise on the Lorraine side. Moraines, boulders and polished rocks testify the existence of the glaciers which formerly covered the Vosges. The lakes, surrounded by sires, benches and maples, the green meadows which provide pasture for large herds of cows, and the fine views of the Rhine valley, Black Forest and snow-covered Swiss mountains of the Jura in winter seem to make this district picturesque. On the eastern heights and buttresses of the main eminences of the Alsatian side are numerous castles, generally in ruins. At several points on the main ridge, especially at St Odile above Ribeauville (Rappoltsweiler), are curious buildings, called "forts," resembling, at a width of 6 to 7 ft. thick and 4 to 5 ft. high, called the paged wall (Mur Payen). It was used for defence in the middle ages, and archaeologists are divided as to whether it was built for this purpose by the Romans, or before their arrival.

VOSMAER, CAREL (1826-1888), Dutch poet and art-critic, was born at the Hague on the 26th of March 1826. He was trained to the law, and held various judicial posts, but in 1873 withdrew entirely from legal practice. His first volume of poems, 1860, did not contain much that was remarkable. His temperament was starved in the very thin air of the intellectual Holland of those days, and it was not until after the sensational appearance of Multatuli (Edward Douwes-Dekker) that Vosmaer, at the age of forty, woke up to a consciousness of his own talent. In 1860 he published a monograph on Rembrandt, which was issued in French. Vosmaer became a contributor to, and then the leading spirit and editor of, a journal which played an immense part in the awakening of Dutch literature; this was the Nederlandische Spectator, in which a great many of his own works, in prose and verse, originally appeared. The remarkable miscellanies of Vosmaer, called Birds of Diverse Plumage, appeared in three volumes, in 1872, 1874 and 1876. In 1879 he selected from these all the pieces in verse, and added other poems to them. They were published as a whole, and the story of the book was known as the Vosmaer, the scene of which was laid in Naples and Rome, and which described the raptures of a Dutch antiquary in love. Vosmaer
undertook the gigantic task of translating Homer into Dutch hexameters, and he lived just long enough to see this completed and revised. In 1873 he came to London to visit his lifelong friend, Sir (then Mr) Lawrence Alma-Tadema, and on his return published Londoniensis, an exceedingly brilliant mock-heroic poem in hexameters. His last poem was Nanno, an idyll on the Greek model. Vossmaer died, while travelling in Switzerland, on the 12th of June 1888. He was unique in his fine sense of plastic expression; he was eminently tasteful, lettered, refined. Without being a genius, he possessed immanence, talent, just as he had used his considerable writing the worn-out genre of Dutch poetry. His verse was modelled on Heine and still more on the Greeks; it is sober, without colour, stately and a little cold. He was a curious student in versification, and it is due to him that hexameters were introduced and the sonnet reintroduced into Holland. He was the first to repudiate the traditional, wooden alexandrine. In prose he was greatly influenced by Multatuli, in praise of whom he wrote an eloquent treatise, Een Eizer (A Soever). He was also somewhat under the influence of English prose models.

VOSS, JOHANN HEINRICH (1509-1579), German classical scholar and theologian, was born at Sommersdorf in Mecklenburg-Schlawitz on the 20th of February 1573, the son of a farmer. After attending (1566-69) the gymnasium at Neubrandenburg, he was obliged to accept a private tutorship in order to earn money to enable him to study at a university. At the invitation of H. C. Boie, whose attention he had attracted by poems contributed to the Göttingen Musenalmanach, he went to Göttingen in 1572. Here he studied philology and became one of the leading spirits in the famous Human or Dichterbund. In 1575 Boie made over to him the editorship of the Musenalmanach, which he continued to issue for several years. He married Boie's sister Ernestine in 1577 and in 1578 was appointed rector of the school at Otterndorf in Hanover. In 1578 he accepted the rectorship of the gymnasium at Eutin, where he remained until 1602. Retiring in this year with a pension of 600 thalers he settled at Jena, and in 1605, although Goethe used his utmost endeavours to persuade him to stay, accepted a call to a professorship at Heidelberg. Here, in the enjoyment of a considerable salary, he devoted himself entirely to his literary labours, translations and antiquarian research until his death on the 29th of March 1579.

Voss was a man of a remarkably independent and vigorous character. In 1789-95 he published in two volumes a collection of original poems, to which he afterwards made many additions. The best of these works is his idyllic poem Der Zauberbibe (1595). He afterwards, under the name of H. W. von der Wende, issued a series of more or less popular works, and applied the style and methods of classical poetry to the expression of modern German thought and sentiment. In his Mythologische Briefe (2 vols., 1794), in which he attacks the idea of Christian Godthob Hymnus, and in his Antiquitaten (2 vols., 1824-26), written in opposition to Georg Friedrich Creuzer (1771-1858), he in other writings he made important contributions to the study of mythology. He was also prominent as an advocate of the right of free judgment in religion, and at the time when some members of the Roman Catholic school were being converted to the Roman Catholic church he produced a strong impression by a powerful article, in Sophrinseum, on his friend, Johann von Stölberg's repudiation of Protestantism (1816). It is, however, as a translator that Voss chiefly owes his place in German literature. His translations include not only sound scholarship but a thorough mastery of the German language and rhythm. The most famous of his translations are those of Homer. Of these the best is the translation of the Odyssey, as originally issued in 1781. He also translated Hesiôd, Théocrite, Bion and Moschus, Virgîl, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius and other classical poets, and he prepared a critical edition of Tibullus. In 1818-29 was published, in 9 vols., a translation of Shakespeare's plays, which he completed with the help of his sons Heinrich and Abraham, both of whom were scholars and writers of considerable ability.

JOHANN HEINRICH Voss is mentioned in the following articles: Sämtliche poetische Werke published by his son Abraham in 1835; new ed. 1850. A good selection is in A. Suter, Der Vergleich der deutschen Literatur, vol. iv. (1867). His Letters were also published by his son in 4 vols. (1829-53). Voss left a short autobiography, Abriß meines Lebens (1816). See also W. Herbst, J. J. Voss (4 vols., 1872-76); A. von Schlabrendorff, J. H. Voss (1882).

VOSS, RICHARD (1851—). German dramatist and novelist, was born at Neugrape, in Pomerania, on the 2nd of September 1851, the son of a country squire. Though intended for the life of a country gentleman, he showed no inclination for outdoor life, and on his return from the war of 1870-71, in which he was wounded, he studied philosophy at Jena and Munich, and then settled at Berchtesgaden. In 1884 Voss was appointed by the grand duke of Weimar librarian of the Wartburg, but, in consequence of illness, he resigned the post.

Chief among his dramas are Sasanarks (1878); Mogda (1879); Die Patronetin (1880); Der Mahr der Zaren (1883); Ulrich Volk (1885); Alexandra (1888); Eva (1889); Wo die Besiegten (1899); Die neue Zeit (1891); Schuldig (1892). Among his novels may be mentioned San Sebastian (1883); Der Sohn der Valkenstein (1884); Der Monch von Berchtesgaden (1891); Der neue Gott (1898); Die Rächerin (1899); Alleher Erlebnen (1902); and Die Leute von Vorderen (1902).

See M. Goldmann, Richard Voss, ein literarische Charakterbild (1900).
VOTE

Commentarium Rhetoricon oratoriorum institutionum Libri VI. (1606 and often); De Historicis Gracis Libri III. (1624); De Historicis Latinis Libri III. (1627); De Theologia Gentilis (1642); Dissertationes Tres de Tribus Symbolis, Apotheosis, Apostolica, Augusti, Constantinopolitana (1642). Collected works published at Amsterdam (6 vols., 1695–1701).


VOTE and VOTING. The Latin votum, derived from voovere, to vow, meant a solemn promise, hence a wish, desire or prayer, in which sense the doublet "vow," derived through French, is used now chiefly. "Vote" is specially employed in the sense of a registering of one's choice in elections or on matters of debate, and the political meaning is the only one which requires comment.

Ancient.—In ancient Greece and Italy the institution of suffrage already existed in a rudimentary form at the outset of the historical period. In the primitive monarchies it was customary for the king to invite pronouncements of his folk on matters in which it was prudent to secure its assent beforehand. In these assemblies the people recorded their opinion by clapping (a method which survived in Sparta as late as the 4th century B.C.), or by the clashing of spears on shields. This latter practice may be inferred to have obtained originally in Rome, the word suffragium meaning literally a responsive crash. Owing to the lack of routine in the early monarchies and aristocracies of Greece and Italy the vote as yet lacked importance as an instrument of government. But in the days of their full political development the communities of these countries had firmly established the principle of government according to the will of majorities, and their constitutions required almost every important act to be directed by a formal vote. This rule applied equally to the decisions of general assemblies, administrative councils and law courts, and obtained alike in states where suffrage was universal and where it was restricted.

In every case the taking of votes was effected in the form of a poll. The practice of the Athenians, which is shown by inscriptions to have been widely followed in the other states of Greece, was to hold a show of hands (χειροποίησις), except on questions affecting the status of individuals: these latter, which included all lawsuits and proposals of ostracism (q.v.), were determined by secret ballot (ψῆφος ψηφοφορία, so called from the ψήφοι or pebbles with which the votes were cast). At Rome the method which prevailed up to the 2nd century B.C. was that of division (discessio). But the economic and social dependence of many voters on the nobility caused the system of open suffrage to be vitiated by intimidation and corruption. Hence a series of laws enacted between 252 B.C. and 107 B.C. provided for the use of the ballot ("tabella," a slip of wood coated with wax) for all business done in the assemblies of the people.

For the purpose of carrying resolutions a simple majority of votes was deemed sufficient. Regulations about a quorum seem to have been unusual, though a notable exception occurs in the case of motions for ostracism at Athens. As a general rule equal value was made to attach to each vote; but in the popular assemblies at Rome a system of voting by groups was in force until the middle of the 3rd century B.C. by which the richer classes secured a decisive preponderance (see PRINCIPLES OF VOTING).

As compared with modern practice the function of voting was restricted. Thus in the small democracies of Greece the use of the lot largely supplanted polling for the election of magistrates; at Athens voting was limited to the choice of officers with special technical qualifications. (2) In accordance with the theory which regarded residence at the seat of government as a condition of franchise, the suffrage could as a rule only be exercised in the capital town. The only known exception under a centralized government was in the event of an army moved out of its usual quarters to the country under Julius Caesar and Augustus, who arranged for polling stations to be opened at election-time in the country towns of Italy. In federal governments the election of deputies to a central legislature seems to be attested by the practice of the Achaean League, where the federal council was probably elected in the several constituent towns. But little is known as to ancient methods of electing delegates to representative institutions, and in general it may be said that the function of suffrage in Greece and Italy throws no light upon contemporary problems, such as the use of single-area constituencies and proportional representation.

Modern.—The modern method of obtaining a collective expression of opinion of any body of persons may be either "open" or secret. An open expression of opinion may be by some word of assent or negation, or by some visible sign, as the holding up of a hand. Indeed any method of voting which does not expressly make provision for concealing the identity of the person registering the vote is "open." Some methods of voting are still employed (as in the case of parliamentary elections for some of the English universities, where votes may be sent by post) must necessarily reveal the manner in which the elector has recorded his vote. It is in connexion with the election of members of representative bodies—especially legislative bodies—that the qualifications for and methods of voting become especially important. Practically every civilized country has accepted and put in force some form of representation, which may be defined as the theory and principles on which the obtaining of a vote is based. These are dealt with in the article REPRESENTATION, and it will be sufficient to give here the various qualifications which are considered by different countries as sufficient to give effect to the principle of representation and the methods of recording votes. In detail these are given for the United Kingdom and the United States in the articles REGISTRATION OF VOTERS and ELECTIONS, and for other countries under their respective titles in the sections dealing with the Constitution.

The first consideration is the age at which a person should be qualified for a vote. This in a large number of countries is fixed at the age of manhood, namely, twenty-one years of age, but in Hungary the age is fixed at twenty years, in Austria twenty-four years, while in Belgium, Baden, Bavaria, Hesse, Prussia, Saxony, Japan, the Netherlands and Norway the age is twenty-five years, and in Denmark thirty years. Some countries (e.g. Austria, Germany, France) have adopted the principle of what is often termed "manhood or universal suffrage," i.e. every male adult, not a criminal or a lunatic, being entitled to a vote, but in all cases some further qualifications may be involved as to the exercise of the franchise by manhood and property in a certain qualifying period of residence. This tangible sign of interest in the state may take the form of possession of property, however small in amount, or the payment of some specific amount of direct taxation, indeed in some cases, as will be seen, this is rewarded by the conferring of extra votes.

In the United Kingdom possession of freehold or leasehold property of a certain value or occupation of premises of a certain annual value gives a vote. This qualification of property may be said to be included in what is termed the "lodger" vote, given to the occupier of lodgings of the yearly value unfurnished of not less than 200 guineas. In Hungary, the payment of a small direct tax on house property or land or on an income varying with occupation is necessary. So in Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Hesse, Italy (unless a certain standard in elementary education has been reached), Japan, the Netherlands, Portugal (unless the elector is able to read and write) and Russia. Some of the states in the United States also require the payment of a poll tax. On the other hand, in Russia, students, soldiers, governors of provinces and police officers are disqualified from voting; in Portugal, bankrupts, beggars, disabled soldiers, servants, workmen in government service, and non-commissioned officers are not electors; it must be noted, however, that the government
VOTING MACHINES

of the new Portuguese republic promised in 1910 a drastic revision of the existing franchise. Italy disfranchises non-commissioned officers and men in the army while under arms, as do France and Brazil. The United Kingdom and Denmark disqualify those in actual receipt of parish relief, while in Norway, apparently, receipt of parish relief at any time is a disqualification, which, however, may be removed by the recipient paying back the sums so received. In some countries, e.g. Brazil, the suffrage is refused to members of monastic orders, &c., under vows of obedience. Apart from those countries where a modicum of education is necessary as a test of right to the franchise, there are, of course, the provisions made by law for determining who are entitled to vote, which in granting the franchise. In the United Kingdom the members of eight universities (Oxford, Cambridge, London, Dublin University, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and St Andrews) send nine members to parliament; in Hungary members of the professional, scientific, learned and other classes (over 80,000) are entitled to vote without any other qualification; in Brunswick the scientific classes elect three members to the legislative chamber; in Saxony, members of scientific or artistic professions have extra votes; in Italy, members of academies of science; in Algeria, qualified to vote by their position; while in the Netherlands legal qualifications for any profession or employment give a vote.

Many objections have been urged of late years to the principle of according a plurality of votes to one individual on account of superior qualifications over others which he may be considered to possess. In the United Kingdom, where, roughly speaking, the principle of representation is that of taxation, the possession of qualifying property in any number of electoral districts will give a vote in each of those districts. Whether those votes can be actually registered will of course depend on certain circumstances such as the distance of the districts apart and whether the elections are held on the same day or not. The Radical party in the United Kingdom have of late years been hostile to any system of plurality of votes (whether gained by educational, property, or other qualifications), though it may be said that the tendency of some recent electoral systems has been to introduce a steadying principle of this nature. In 1906 a bill was introduced for reducing the system of plural voting in the United Kingdom; it passed through the House of Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords. The most remarkable system of plural voting that has been introduced in Belgium by the electoral law of 1894. Under it, every citizen over thirty-five years of age with legitimate issue, and paying at least 5 francs a year in house tax, has a supplemental vote, as has every citizen over twenty-five owning immovable property to the value of 2000 francs, or having a corresponding income from such property, or who for two years has derived at least 100 francs a year from Belgian funds either directly or through the savings bank. Two supplementary votes are given to citizens over twenty-five who have received a diploma of higher instruction, or a certificate of higher secondary instruction, or who fill or have filled offices, or engaged in private professional instruction, implying at least average higher instruction. Three votes is the highest number allowed, while failure to vote is punishable as a misdemeanour. In 1908-9 the number of electors in Belgium was 1,657,647, of whom 981,866 had one vote, 378,264 two votes and 291,517 three votes. In some other countries weight is given to special qualifications. In the town of Bremen the government is in the hands of a senata of 16 members and a Chamber of Bürgerschaft of 130 members. These latter are elected by the votes of all the citizens divided into classes. University men return 14 members, merchants 40 members, mechanics and manufacturers 20 members, and the other inhabitants the remainder. So in Brunswick and in Hamburg legislators are returned by voters representing various interests. In Prussia, representatives are chosen by direct electors who in their turn are elected by indirect electors. One direct elector is elected from every complete number of 250 souls. The indirect electors are divided into three classes, the first class comprising those who pay the highest taxes to the amount of one-third of the whole; the second, of those who pay the next highest amount down to the limits of the second third; the third, of all the lowest taxed. In Italy electors must either have attained a certain standard of elementary education, or pay a certain amount of direct taxation, or if peasant farmers pay a certain amount of rent, or if occupants of lodgings, shops, &c., in towns, pay an annual rent according to the population of the commune. In Japan, voters must pay either land tax of a certain amount for not less than a year or direct taxes other than land tax for more than two years. In the Dutch colonies, householders, or those who have paid the rent of houses or lodgings for a certain period, are qualified for the franchise, as are owners or tenants of boats of not less than 24 tons capacity, as well as those who have been for a certain period in employment with an annual wage of not less than £22, 18s. 4d., have a certificate of state interest of not less than 100 florins or a savings bank deposit of not less than 50 florins. The method now adopted in most countries of recording votes is that of secret voting or ballot (q.v.). This is carried out sometimes by a machine (see VOTING MACHINES). The success or failure of a candidate in a constituency varies greatly in different countries. In the United Kingdom the candidate who obtains a relative majority is elected, i.e. it is necessary only to obtain more votes than any other candidate (see REPRESENTATION). VOTING MACHINES. The complications in the voting at American elections have resulted in the invention of various machines for registering and counting the ballots. These machines are in fact mechanical Australian ballots. The necessity for them has been emphasized by election practice in many parts of the United States, where in a single election there have been from five to ten parties on the ballot, with an aggregate of four hundred or five hundred candidates, making the paper ballots large and difficult to handle. The objections to the paper ballot are further emphasized in the results obtained. The number of void and blank ballots is seldom less than 5% of the number of voters voting, and is often as high as 40%. This lost vote is often greater than the majority of the successful candidate. In close elections there is an endless dispute as to whether the disputed ballots do or do not comply with the law. The election contest and recount expenses from above $100,000. The aggregate number of the candidates to the office is frequently held in abeyance by a protracted contest until after the term of office has expired. A number of ways have been devised for marking the Australian ballot for identification without destroying its legality. The X is a very simple and well-known mark, yet in the case of Coulahan v. White, before the Supreme Court of Maryland, twenty-seven different ways of making the mark "X" were shown in the ballots in controversy, and all of them were a subject for judicial consideration, on which the judges of even the highest court could, find room for disagreement. Wigmore in his book on the Australian ballot system points out thirteen ways of wrongly placing the mark, and forty-four errors in the style of the mark, besides many other errors tending to invalidate the ballot, all of them having frequently occurred in actual practice. These errors are not confined to the illiterates, but are just as common among the best-educated people. The ballots can and have frequently been altered or discountered by unscrupulous election officers, and the detection of the fraud is frequently difficult and always expensive. Voting machines were devised first by English, and later with more success by American inventors. The earlier machines of Vassie, Chamberlain, Syderiff (1869) and Davie (1870) were practically all directed toward voting for the candidates of a single office by a ball, the ball going into one compartment or the other according to the choice of the voter. The use of the ball in accordance with the original idea of ballot, which means "a little ball"; and because of the requirement of many of the constitutions of the states of the United States, that "elections shall be by ballot," many American inventors
follow this idea of using balls to indicate their votes. Others, however, maintaining that secrecy was the essential idea of voting by ballot, and that the form of the ballot was immaterial, worked out a machine using a lever. If, for example, under date, the counter registering the successive impulses given to it by the key, the machine preventing the voter from giving the key more than one impulse, and preventing the voter from operating more keys than he is entitled to vote. The highest courts of four different American states have ruled that any form of voting machine that secured secrecy would be constitutional.

The first voting machine used in an election was the Myers Ballot Box. It was used in New York in 1892. It had a vertical keyboard with columns of push keys thereon, each column representing a party, and each key belonging to a candidate of that party, the keys of each horizontal line belonging to the candidates of the various parties for a particular office. The voter pushed one of the keys in each office line, which knob operated its counter and locked all other possible votes for the same office until the voter left the booth. The operated keys were released by the operation of the second booth door as the voter left the machine, and they were then reset by springs. The doors were so arranged that the voter must first pass through one and lock it behind him before he could pass through the second and get out. This both preserved secrecy and prevented repeating. Some sixty-five or more of these machines were used in the election in the city of Rochester, N.Y., in November 1886, and with marked success.

Punishing the machine, operated by keys which punched holes in a web of paper. On this web the votes of each candidate were all punched in a single column, each separate column representing a separate candidate. The voter did not see the paper until he had passed the machine by the election officers after the election is over, and the vote thereon is canvassed by passing the web through a pneumatic counting machine. The paper web makes a separate record of each vote cast, not that cast in the tabulated by a machine with a separate counter in the use of the machine. The machine is also slow in giving returns, due to the fact that the vote has to be counted after the election.

In the other types of machines each candidate had a separate receptacle, into which the machine dropped a ball for each vote that was cast for the candidate. These machines have so far been successful. The whole development of practical voting machines has been limited to the ballot box machine, but a separate counter is provided for each candidate, the counter being operated either directly or indirectly by the voter. Of this type is the Myers machine, the Bardwell Votometer had a separate counter for each candidate, with a single key for operating all the counters on the machine. A keyhole was provided in each counter, in which the key could be inserted, and by turning it the counter was indexed. The key could be removed for use in another counter. The voter could operate but one counter at a time, and could not operate the counters in very rapid succession. The separators were arranged to take care of the slowness with which it can be worked. The voter enters this machine by raising a bar at one end, which unlocks the counters for voting operation. Raising a similar bar at the other end, the voter passes out resets the machine for the next voter and locks it.

The Abbott Machine has attained considerable use in the state of Michigan. In this machine the counters for each office are carried on a separate slide, and the voter moves these slides for the various offices from left to right, until the counter carrying the name of the candidate of his choice in each office row is lined up with the operating bar. The vertical movement of the operating bar on each of these slides, rings a bell, which notifies the election officer that a vote has been cast, and locks the machine against further voting. The election officer then moves a slide which resets the bar in readiness for the next voter. The machine is not used because two or more candidates on the same office line cannot be voted for by the same voter, although the voter may be entitled to vote for more than one candidate.

The U.S. Patent Office has had the most extensive use of any. A separate key is provided for each candidate, which keys are arranged on the keyboard of the machine in horizontal rows and vertical office lines. Each key is indexed so that it swings downward from horizontal position and points to the name of the candidate below it. The key is indexed consecutively by party rows, and numbered by office rows, so that each key bears a number and a letter distinguishing it from all others. At the left of each party row is a party lever, by the movement of which all of the keys of that party are indexed. If the voter desires to have no candidates on the ballot these levers are omitted. Extending outward from the top of the machine is a rail, from which is suspended a curtain. Prorveted in the middle of the top of the machine is a lever, which extends outwardly and has a loose connection with a curtain. The operation of the lever by a convenient handle enables the voter to close the curtain and unlock the machine for voting, after which the voter cannot retire from the machine until he has voted on the machine to a certain extent. The operation of any one of the party levers rings a bell to show that he has voted, and permits the reverse movement of the curtain lever, which counts the vote, resets the machine for the next voter and opens the curtain. Before returning to the machine the voter is not permitted to be exposed to the light by lifting the curtain.

Each state that adopts voting machines first enacts a law specifying the requirements that must be met in the construction of the machines. These requirements are substantially the same in all the states, the laws being copied largely from the New York Voting Machine Law. The laws require in general that the machine shall give the voter all the facilities for expressing his choice which the Australian ballot gives him, and further require that the machine shall prevent such errors or frauds, which if made on an Australian ballot would invalidate it.

Many of the states have special requirements, to meet which many ingenious features have been provided on the various machines. Among these is the group of 18 supervisors in San Francisco, for whom office as many as 100 candidates have appeared upon one ballot, out of which the machine must permit the voter to vote any 18 and no more, regardless of the sequence in which they are selected, or the position in which they occur. A feature of these local features is the primary election feature required by Minnesota, in which state the various parties must hold their primary election at the same time and on the same machine. The voter announcing the party of his preference finds the voting machine has been locked against him, but the voting machines of his own party are open to his use.

Still another is the locking out, by which the voter of limited voting from publishing his preference. The counting machine provides in offices. Another is the endorsed candidate in a group. Here the same candidate's name is provided with two or more voting devices in a group wherein the voter is allowed to vote for two or more of the candidates. Special care must be taken to keep voters from voting twice for the same candidate.

As to the important benefits attending the use of machines, there can be mentioned accuracy both in the casting and the counting of the vote, speed in getting in returns, and economy in holding elections. The improvement in accuracy is shown by the fact that the vote for each office usually runs 99% or more of the highest possible vote that could be registered by the number of voters that have voted. Speed is shown by the fact that in the city of Buffalo, with 60,000 voters voting on election day, the complete returns, including the vote on over 100 candidates for the whole city, have been collected, tabulated and announced within 75 minutes from the closing of the polls.

Economy is shown by the fact that although these machines are used but one or two days in each year, election expenses are reduced to such an extent that the machines pay for themselves in five or six elections. This is partly due to the smaller number of precincts necessary and the smaller number of election officers in each precinct and the shorter hours that they must work. The city of Buffalo has a dozen or more precincts, in each of which 2500 or more are voted in an election, while in the city and county as a whole 1041 voters have voted in one election day on one machine.

(F. Kr.)
VOUSSOIR (Ger. Wöllestein), the French term used by architects for the wedge-shaped stones or other material with which the arch (q.v.) is constructed; the lowest stone on each side is termed the springer (Fr. coutoîs sommier) and the upper one at the crown of the arch the keystone (Fr. claveau).

VOW (Lat. votum, vow, promise; cf. VOTE), a transaction between a man and a god, whereby the former undertakes in the future to render some service or gift to the god or devotees something valuable now and here to his use. The god on his part is reckoned to be going to grant or to have granted already some special favour to his votary in return for the promise made or service declared. Different formalities and ceremonies may in different religions attend the taking of a vow, but in all the wrath of heaven or of hell is visited upon one who breaks it. A vow has to be distinguished, firstly, from other and lower ways of persuading or constraining supernatural powers to give what man desires and to help him in time of need; and secondly, from the ordered ritual and regularly recurring ceremonies of religion. These two distinctions must be examined a little more at length.

It would be an abuse of language to apply the term vow to the uses of imitative magic, e.g. to the action of a barren woman among the Battas of Sumatra, who in order to become a mother makes a wooden image of a child and holds it in her lap. For in such rites no promiss is given to the idea— even if it exists—of a personal relation between the petitioner and the supernatural power. The latter is, so to speak, mechanically constrained to act by the spell or magical rite; the forces liberated in fulfilment, not of a petition, but of a wish are not those of a conscious will, and therefore no thanks are due from the wisher in case he is successful. The deities, however, to whom vows are made are expected to reward individuals, and personal beings, capable of entering into contracts or covenants with man, of understanding the claims which his vow establishes on their benevolence, and of valuing his gratitude; conversely, in the taking of a vow the petitioner's pieté and spiritual attitude have begun to outweigh those merely ritual details of the ceremony which in magical rites are all-important.

Sometimes the old magical usage survives side by side with the more developed idea of a personal power to be approached in prayer. For example, in the Magrib (in North Africa), in time of drought the maidens of Mazouma carry every evening in pro-

cession through the streets a doll called ghnijis, really a dressed-up wooden spoon, symbolizing a pre-Islamic rain-spirit. Often one of the girls carries on her shoulders a sheep, and her companions sing the following words:

"Rain, fall, and I will give you my kid.
He has a black head; he neither bleats
Nor complains; he says not, 'I am cold.'
Rain, who fillest the skins,
Wet our raiment.
Rain, who feedest the rivers,
Overturn the doors of our houses."

Here we have a sympathetic rain charm, combined with a prayer to the rain viewed as a personal goddess and with a promise or vow to give her the animal. The point of the promise lies of course in the fact that water is in that country stored and carried in sheep-skins.

Secondly, the vow is quite apart from established cults, and is not provided for in the religious calendar. The Roman vow (votum), as W. W. Fowler observes in his work The Roman priest (1899), p. 346, "was the exception, not the rule; it was a promise made by an individual at some critical moment, not the ordered and recurring ritual of the family or the State." The vow, however, contained so large an element of ordinary prayer that in the Greek language and the same word (eixo) expressed both. The characteristic mark of the vow, as Suidas in his lexicon and the Greek Church fathers remark, was that it was a promise either of things to be offered to God in the future and at once consecrated to Him in view of their being so offered, or of austerities to be undergone. For offering and austerity, sacrifice and suffering, are equally calculated to appease an offended deity's wrath or win his goodwill.

The Bible affords many examples of vows. Thus in Judges xi. Jephthah "vowed a vow unto the Lord, and said, If thou wilt indeed deliver the children of Ammon into my hand, then it shall be that whosoever cometh forth out of the doors of my house to meet me, when I return in peace from the children of Ammon, it shall be the Lord's, and I will offer it up for a burnt-offering." In the sequel it is his own daughter who so meets him, and he sacrifices her after a respite of two months granted her in order to "bawl her virginity upon the mountains." A thing or person thus vowed to the deity became holy or taboo; and for it, as the above story indicates, nothing could be substituted. It belonged to once to the sanctuary or to the priests who represented the god. In the Jewish religion, the latter, under certain conditions, defined in Leviticus xxvii., could permit it to be redeemed. But to substitute an unclean for a clean beast which had been vowed, or an imperfect victim for a flawless one, was to court with certainty the divine displeasure.

It is often difficult to distinguish a vow from an oath. Thus in Acts xxiii. 21, forty Jews, enemies of Paul, bound themselves, under a curse, neither to eat nor to drink till they had slain him.

In the Christian Fathers we hear of vows to abstain from flesh diet and wine. But of the abstentions observed by votaries, those which had relation to the barber's art were the commonest. Wherever individuals were concerned to create or confirm a tie connecting them with a god, a shrine or a particular religious circle, a hair-offering was in some form or other imperative. They began by polling their locks at the shrine and left them as a soul-token in charge of the god, and never polled them afresh until the vow was fulfilled. So Achilles consecrated his hair to the river Spercheus and vowed not to cut it till he should return safe from Troy; and the Hebrew Nazarites, whose strength was supposed to reside in his flowing locks, only cut them off and burned them on the altar when the days of his vow were ended, and he could return to ordinary life, having achieved his mission. So in Acts xviii. 18 Paul "had shorn his head in Cenchreae, for he had a vow."

In Acts xx. 23 we hear of four Jews who, having a vow on them, had their heads shaved at Paul's expense. Among the ancient Chatti, as Tacitus relates (Germania, 31), young men allowed their hair and beards to grow, and vowed to court danger in that guise..."
VOZNESENSK—VRIENDT

until they each had slain an enemy. Robertson Smith (Religion of the Semites, ed. 1901, p. 483) with much probability explains such usages from the widespread primitive belief that a man’s life lurks in his hair, so that the devotee being consecrated or taboo to a god, his hair must be retained during the period of taboo or purification (as it is called in Acts xxi. 26) lest it be dissipated and profaned. The hair being part and parcel of the votary, its profanation would profane him and break the taboo.

The same author remarks that this is why, when the hair of a Hindu chief is cut, it was, being like the rest of his person sacred or taboo, collected and buried in a sacred place or hung on a tree. And we meet with the same scruple in the initiation rite, called syjma, of Eastern monks. First, the novice is carefully denuded of the clothes, shoes and headgear, which he wore in the world, and which, being profane or unclean, would violate the taboo about to be set on him. His hair is then polled crosswise by way of consecrating it; and in some forms of the rite the presiding monk, called "the father of the hair," collects the shorn locks and deposits them under the altar or on some other safe and sacred place. Greek nuns used to keep the hair thus shaved, or shaved, and wore it into girdles, and wear it for the rest of their lives round their waists, where close to their holy persons there was no risk of its being defiled by alien contact. The rest of this rite of syjma, especially as it is preserved in the old Armenian versions, smacks no less of the most primitive taboo. For the novice, after being thus tonsured, advances to the altar holding a taper in either hand, just as tapers were tied to the horns of an animal victim; the new and sacred garb which is to demarcate him henceforth from the unclean world is put upon him, and the precluding father laying his right hand upon him devotes him to a prayer which begins thus:

"To thee, O Lord, as a rational whole burnt-offering, as mystic frankincense, as voluntary homage and worship, we offer up this thy servant N. or M."

From the same point of view is to be explained the prohibition to one under a vow of flesh diet and fermented drinks; for it was believed that by partaking of these a man might introduce into his body the unclean spirits which inhabited them—the brute soul which infested meat, especially when the animal was strangled, and the cardiac demon, as the Rabbis called it, which harboured in wine.

The same considerations help to explain the custom of votive offerings. Any popular shrine in Latin countries is hung with wax models of limbs that have been healed, of ships saved from wreck, or with pictures representing the votary’s escape from perils by land and sea. So Cicero (de Doctrin Naturae, iii. 37) relates how a friend remarked to Diogoras the Atheist when they reached Samothrace: “You who say that the gods neglect men’s affairs, do you not perceive from the many pictures how many have escaped the force of the tempest and reached harbour safely?” Diogoras’ answer, that the many more who had suffered shipwreck and perished had no pictures to record their fate does not concern us here. It is only pertinent to remark that these votive tabellae and offerings may have had originally another significance than that of merely recording the votary’s salvation and of marking his gratitude. The model ship may be a substitute for the entire ship which is become sacred to the god, but cannot be deposited in the shrine; the miniature limbs of wax are substitutes for the real limbs which now belong to the god. In other cases the very objects which are taboo are given to the god as when a sailor deposits his salt-stained suit before the idol.

The general idea, then, involved in vows, whether ancient or modern, is that to express which the modern anthropologist borrows the Polynesian word taboo. The votary desirous to “antedate his future act of service and make its efficacy begin at once,” formally dedicates through spoken formula and ritual act a lifeless object such as a ring, an animal, his hair or his entire person to the god. He so either makes sure of future blessings, or shows gratitude for those already conferred. Most of the ritual prescriptions that accompany vows are intended to guard inviolate the sanctity or taboo, the atmosphere of holiness or ritual purity, which envelopes the persons or objects vowed or reserved to the god, and thereby separated from ordinary secular use.

The consideration of the moral effect of vows upon those who take them belongs rather to the history of Christian asceticism. It may, however, be remarked here that monkish vows, while they may tend to a man’s life a certain fixity of aim and moral intensity, nevertheless tend to narrow his interests, and paralyse his wider activities and sympathies. In particular monastic vows, especially those to lifelong and often morbid struggle against the order of nature; and motives become for him not good or bad according to the place they occupy in the living context of social life, but according as they bear upon an abstract and useless ideal. (F. C. C.)

VOZNESENSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Kherson, on the left bank of the river Bug, at the head of navigation, 55 m. N.W. from Nikolayev, to which steamers ply regularly. Pop. 14,178. It is a river port of some importance, and holds four large fairs annually. It contains a cathedral, which is famous for its paintings and for the small shrines dedicated to it, which have been translated to various places; and for the little shrines dedicated to its patrons, the Archangels Michael and Gabriel, in which are preserved the remains of the soldiers who were buried in them. The town is also famous for its breweries.

VRANČI, SEBASTIAN, born about 1572, was a painter of the Antwerp school, of very moderate ability. Most of his pictures represent scenes of war, such as the sack of towns, cavalry combats, and the like. Though occasionally vigorous in drawing, his paintings are dull and heavy in tone. The date of his death is uncertain.

VRANŢA, or Vranţe, the most southerly town of the kingdom of Servia, 73 m. from the Macedonian frontier, on a slope descending from Mount Placevitza to the plain of the Upper Morava, in a picturesque and fertile country. Pop. (1900) 11,921. In the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 it was captured by the Servian army from the Turks, and subsequently was incorporated in the kingdom. It is the capital of a department of the same name, and is an important station on the railway from Nish to Salonica, with a custom house, principally for merchandise imported into Servia via Salonica. Its inhabitants are employed chiefly in the cultivation of flax and hemp, and in the making of ropes. There is a much frequented summer resort 4½ m. E., called Vranyska Banya, with baths of hot sulphurous mineral water.

VRATZA, the capital of the department of Vratza, Bulgaria, on the northern slope of the Stara Planina and on a small subtributary of the Danube. Pop. (1906) 14,832. Vratza is an archiepiscopal see and the headquarters of a military division. Wine, leather and gold and silver filigree are manufactured, and there is a school of sericulture.

VRIENDT, JULIEN JOSEPH DE (1842—), and ALBRECHT FRANÇOIS LIEVEN DE (1843-1900), Belgian painters, both born at Ghent, sons of a decorative painter. The two brothers were close friends, and their works show marked signs of resemblance. Having received their early training from their father at Ghent, they removed to Antwerp, where they soon yielded to the influence of the painter Baron Henri Leys. Albrecht became director of the Academy of Fine Arts at Antwerp and was succeeded by his brother. Albrecht’s principal works are "Jacqueline of Bavaria imploring Philip the Good to pardon her Husband" (1871, Liège Gallery), "The Excommunication of Bouchard d’Avesnes" (1877, Brussels Gallery), "The Angelus" (1877, acquired by Leopold II., king of the Belgians), "Pope Paul III. before Luther’s Portrait" (1885, Antwerp Gallery), "The Citizens of Ghent paying homage to the child Charles V." (1885, Brussels Gallery), "Philip the Handsome wearing fidelity to the privileges of the Town of Furnes" (1893, Furnes town hall), "The Virgin of St Luc" (1894, triptych in Antwerp Cathedral), and the decoration of the municipal hall at Bruges, which was completed by his brother. Among Julien’s more notable works are "The Citizens of Eisenach driving out St Elizabeth of Hungary" (1871, Liège Gallery), "Jairus’ Daughter" (1888, Antwerp Gallery), mural paintings in the Palais de Justice at Antwerp (1893), and "The Christmas Carol" (1894, Brussels Gallery).
VRYHEID—VULTURE 221

VRYHEID, a town of northern Natal, 391 m. by rail N. by W. of Durban. Pop. (1904) 2287, of whom 1344 were whites. It is the chief town of a district, of the same name, rich in mineral wealth, including copper, coal and gold. The coal-fields of Hlobane are S.E. of the town. Originally part of Zululand the district of Vryheid was ceded by Dinzulu to a party of Boers under Lucas Meyer, who aided him to crush his opponents, and was proclaimed an independent state under the title of the New Republic in 1884. In 1888 it was incorporated with the Transvaal and in 1903 annexed to Natal (see TRANSVAAL, § History; and ZULULAND, § History).

V-SHAPED DEPRESSION, in meteorology, a narrow area of low pressure usually occurring between two adjacent anticyclones, and taking the form of a V or tongue, as do the isobars representing it on a weather-chart. Such a depression may be regarded as a projection from a cyclonic system lying to one side of the two anticyclones. A similar depression, however, is frequently formed within a larger area of depression, i.e., an ordinary cyclone, and sometimes develops so far as to have a complete circulation of its own; it is then known as a secondary.* The line of lowest depression following the axis of the V-tongues with its heavy equals and a sudden change of wind from one direction almost to the opposite. It is preceded by signs of break in the weather such as usually herald the approach of an ordinary cyclone, and is followed by the usual signs of clearance. The occurrence of a V-depression or secondary within an ordinary cyclonic system intensifies, often to a dangerous degree, the usual disturbances in the weather accompanying that system. Conditions exactly opposite to those accompanying a V-shaped depression are provided by a "wedge" (q.v.).

VULCAN (Volcanus), the Roman god of fire, and more especially of devouring flame (Virg. Aen. 5. 662). Whether he was also, like Hephaestus, the deity of smiths, is very doubtful; his surname Muciber may rather be referred to his power to ally conflagrations. In the Comitium was an "area Volcani," also called "Volcanal;" and here on the 23rd of August (Volcanalia) the Flamen Volcanalis sacrificed, and the heads of Roman families threw into the fire small fish, which the Tiber fishermen sold on the spot. This flamen also sacrificed on the 1st of May to Maia, who in an old prayer formula (Gellius 13. 23) was coupled with Vulcanus as Maia Volcani. It is not easy to explain these survivals of an old cult. But in historical times the association of this god with conflagrations becomes very apparent; when Augustus organized the city in regions and vicini to check the constant danger from fires, the magistri vicorum (officers of administrative districts) worshipped him as Vulcanus quietus augustus (C.I.L. vi. 801 and 802) and on the 23rd of August there was a sacrifice to him together with Ops Opifera and the Nymphae, which suggests the need of water in quenching the flames. At Ostia, where much of the corn was stored which fed the Roman population, the cult of this god became famous; and it is probable that the fixing of his festival in August by the early Romans had some reference to the danger to the newly harvested corn from fire in that month. (W. W. F.)*

VULGATE (from Lat. vulgus, the common people), a Latin version of the Bible prepared in the 4th century by St Jerome, and so called from its common use in the Roman Catholic Church (see BIBLE: Texts and Versions). Pius X. in 1908 entrusted to the Benedictine Order the task of revising the text, beginning with the Old Testament.

VULPES, CHRISTIAN AUGUST (1752–1827), German author, was born at Weimar on the 23rd of January 1752, and was educated at Jena and Erlangen. In 1790 he returned to Weimar, where Goethe, who had entered into relations with Vulpis's sister Christine (1765–1816), whom he afterwards married, obtained employment for him. Here Vulpis began, in imitation of Christian Heinrich Spieß, to write a series of romantic narratives. Of these (about sixty in number) his Rinaldo Rinaldini (1797), the scene of which is laid in Italy during the middle ages, is the best. In 1797 Vulpis was given an appointment on the Weimar library, of which he became chief librarian in 1866. He died at Weimar on the 23rd of June 1827.

VULTURE, the name of certain birds whose best-known characteristic is that of feeding upon carcases. The genus Vultur, as instituted by Linnaeus, is now restricted by ornithologists to a single species, V. monachus. The other species included therein by him, or thereto referred by succeeding systematists, being elsewhere relegated (see LAMMERGEYER). A most important taxonomic change was introduced by T. H. Huxley (Proc. Zool. Society, 1867, pp. 452–64), who pointed out the complete structural difference between the vultures of the New World and those of the Old, regarding the former as constituting a distinct family, Cathartidae (which, however, would be more properly named Sarcorhamphidae), while he united the latter with the ordinary diurnal birds of prey as Gypaudae.

The American vulture may be said to include four genera: (1) Sarcorhamphus, the gigantic condor, the male distinguished by a large fleshy comb and wattle; (2) Gypagus, the king-vulture, with its gaudily coloured head and nasal caruncle;

King Vulture (Gypagus papa).

(3) Catharista, containing the so-called turkey-buzzard with its allies; and (4) Pseudogyps, the great Californian vulture —of very limited range on the western slopes of North America. Though all these birds are structurally different from the true vultures of the Old World, in habits the Vulturidae and Sarcorhamphidae are much alike.

The true vultures of the Old World, Vulturidae in the restricted sense, are generally divided into five or six genera, of which Neophron has been separated as forming a distinct subfamily, Neophroninae—its members, of comparatively small size, differing both in structure and habit considerably from the rest. One of them is the so-called Egyptian vulture or Pharaoh's hen, N. percnopterus, a remarkably foul-feeding species, living much on ordure. It is a well-known species in some parts of India, and thence westward to Africa, where

1 In the eastern part of the Indian peninsula it is replaced by a smaller race or (according to some authorities) species, N. ginginarius, which has a yellow instead of a black bill.
it has an extensive range. It also occurs on the northern shores of the Mediterranean, and has strayed to such a distance as to have suffered capture in England and even in Norway. Of the genera composing the other subfamily, Vulturinae, *Gyps* numbers seven or eight local species and races, on more than one of which the English name griffin has been fastened. The best known is *G. fulvus*, which by some authors is accounted "British" from an example having been taken in Ireland, though under circumstances which suggest its appearance so far from its nearest home in Spain to be due to man's intervention.

The species, however, has a wider distribution on the European continent (especially towards the north-east) than has the Indian vulture, and in Africa nearly reaches the Equator, extending also in Asia to the Himalaya; but both in the Ethiopian and Indian regions its range incoalesces with that of several allied forms or species. *Pseudogyps* with two forms—one Indian, the other African—differs from *Gyps* by having 12 instead of 14 rectrices. Of the genera *Oopectes* and *Lophogyps* nothing here need be said; and then we have *Vultur*, with, as mentioned before, its sole representative, *V. monachus*, commonly known as the cinereous vulture, a bird which is found from the Straits of Gibraltar to the Scandinavian coasts. Most of the polygonal cliffs, inhabited by the last-named two species of vultures, exist on the lodes of which they build their nests.

The question whether vultures in their search for food are guided by sight of the object or by its scent has excited much interest. It seems to be now generally admitted that the sense of sight is in almost every case sufficient to account for the observed facts.

(A.N.)

**VURJEEVANDAS MADHOWDAS** (1817-1896), Hindu merchant of Bombay, of the Kapole Bania caste, was born on the 29th of January 1817 at Gogla, in Kathiawar, whence his father came to Bombay with Sheth Mandeo Maravar. Vurjeevandas was educated in Bombay, started a new firm under the name of Vurjeevandas & Sons, and soon became one of the wealthiest merchants in Bombay. He was appointed a justice of the peace and a member of the Bombay Port Trust. He took a keen interest in the Royal Asiatic Society and the Bombay university, where a prize has been established to commemorate his name. He constructed the Madhow Bang in memory of his father, and gave it to the use of poor Hindus,/endowing it with nearly five lakhs of rupees. He built a rest-house in Bombay in memory of his brother Moolinhe, and another one at Nasik. The sanatorium which he built in memory of his youngest son Rumphoredas at Sion Hill is a great boon to the poor people of his community.

He also established a dispensary at Matoonga and a fund for the relief of indigent Hindus. He died on the 12th of January 1866.

**VYATKA**, or *Viatka*, a government of N.E. Russia, with the government of Vologda on the N., Perm on the E., Ufa and Kazan on the S. and Nishnii-Novgorod and Kostroma on the W., having an area of 50,100 sq. m. It has on its northern boundary the flat water-parting which separates the basins of the Northern Dvina and the Volga, and its surface is an undulating plateau 800 to 1400 ft. above sea-level, deeply grooved by rivers and assuming a hilly aspect on their banks. The Kama rises in the N.E., and, after making a wide sweep through Perm, flows along its S.E. boundary, while the rest of the government is drained by the Vyatka and its numerous tributaries. Both the Kama and the Vyatka are navigable, as also are several tributaries; the Izh and Volka, which flow into the Vyatka, have important ironworks on their banks. The only railway is one from Perm to Archangel, through the town of Vyatka; the government is traversed by the great highway to Siberia, and by two other roads by which goods from the south are transported to loading-places on the Vychegado and the Yug to be shipped to Archangel. Lakes are numerous, and vast marshes exist everywhere, especially in the north. The climate is very severe, the average yearly temperature being 36° F. at Vyatka (January, 8°-2°; July, 67°-0°) and 35° at Slobodsk (January, 3°-5°; July, 65°-5°).

The estimated pop. in 1906 was 3,532,600. The bulk of the inhabitants (78%) are Russians; Votyaks make 12% and Cheremisses 5% and Tatars 3%. The remainder being Bashkirs, Teptysters and Permynaks. The Votyaks (Otyaks) and Finnish tribe, call themselves Ot, Ut or Ud, and the Tatars from Ar, so that they may possibly be akin to the Ars of the Yenisei. They are middle-sized, with fair hair and eyes, often red-haired; and the general structure of the face and skull is Finnish. By their dialect they belong to the same branch as the Permynaks.

The government is divided into eleven districts, the chief towns of which are Vyatka, Elabuga, Glazov, Kotel'nikh, Mal'mysh, Nolinsk, Orlov, Sarapul, Slobodsk, Uzhuhum and Yaran. Izhvask and Voronezk, the former of which, with Kamensk and N. are nearly 85% of the surface is covered with forests, two-thirds of which belong to the crown, and hunting (especially squirrel-hunting) and fishing are of commercial importance. The peasants form 89% of the population, own 44% of the whole government, the crown 53% and private persons 2%. The soil is fertile, especially in the valleys of the south. Vyatka is one of the chief grain-producing governments of Russia. The principal crops are rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Flax and hemp are extensively cultivated, and large numbers of cattle are kept, but they are mostly of inferior breed. The government has a race of good ponies that are exported. Domestic industries occupy large numbers of the inhabitants. The principal manufacturing establishments are tanneries, distilleries, ironworks, chemical works, glass factories, flour-mills, and hardware, machinery, paper and fur-dressing works.

**VYAZMA**, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, on the Vyatka river, 304 m. by rail W.N.W. of Perm. Pop. 24,782. It is built on the steep hills which rise above the river and at their base. Its old walls have been demolished, and its old churches built anew. It is an episcopal see and has a fine cathedral. Its manufactures include silver and copper wares, and ecclesiastical ornaments, and it has an important trade in coal, leather, tallow, candles, soap, wax, sugar and wines, and particularly in fur goods and fur wares (imported). Vyatka was founded in 1615 by the Novgorodians, as Khlynov. In 1591 it was plundered by the Tartars, and again in 1677. Moscow annexed Khlynov in 1489. It received the name of Vyatka in 1780.

**VYENSYI-VOLOCHOK**, a town of Russia, in the government of Smolensk, 109 m. by rail E.N.E. of the town of Smolensk. Pop. 15,676. It was a populous place as early as the 11th century, and carried on a lively trade with Narva on the Gulf of Finland. In the 15th century it fell under the dominion of Lithuania, but was retaken by Moscow, which retained it again in 1611, and kept it till the peace of 1634. It is now an important centre for trade. It has a cathedral, dating from 1596.

**VYERNYI** (formerly *ALMATY*), a town and fort of Asiatic Russia, capital of the province of Semireychensk, 50 m. N. of Lake Issyk-kul, at the northern foot of the Trans-Ili Ala-tau Mountains, at an altitude of 2440 ft. Pop. 24,708. Founded in 1834, it is well-built, provided with boulevards and surrounded by luxuriant gardens. It has a cathedral, being an archiepiscopal see of the Orthodox Greek Church, a school of gardening and horticulture, a public library, and a few distilleries, tanneries and oil works. Situated at the intersection of two roads—from Kulja to Tashkent, and from Semipalatinsk to Kashgar—Vyernyi carries on an active trade in wheat, rice, corn, tea, oil and tobacco. It was the centre of a remarkable earthquake on the 9th of June 1857.

**VYRNYWY** (*Fyrnuiy*), an artificial lake or reservoir in the northwest of Montgomeryshire, N. Wales, constructed for the Liverpool water-supply. It was formed by damming the river Fyrenyw, which runs through Montgomeryshire and joins the Severn and its tributaries, Vyrnwy and Hafren, and is in the basin of the Severn above Shrewsbury, and is in length 12 miles, and in breadth 11. In the lake are the remains of the old town of Vyrnwy, and there is a ferry to the growing settlement of Whitchurch.
W—WAAGEN, G. F.

W

The twenty-third letter of the English alphabet, shows its origin in its name; but it is also V, and, as the name shows, V had the vowel value of u, while the "double u" was employed for the consonant value. In German the same symbol w is called Vei, because in that language it has the value of the English v, while the German v (Vow, few in pronunciation) is used with the same value as f. In the English of the 9th century the w of the old texts (and the w of the Northern) was found not to represent the English w satisfactorily, and a symbol j was adopted from the Runic alphabet. This survived sporadically as late as the end of the 13th century, but long before that had been generally again replaced by uw (w only in Early Middle English) and by w. For u the earliest English printers had a type, but French printers had not; hence a book like the Roman Catholic version of the New Testament printed at Rheims in 1582 prints w with two v's set side by side. Throughout the history of English the sound seems to have remained the same—the consonantal w. For this value as well as for v Latin always used only v; not Greek, except in a few dialects, the consonantal value was early lost (see under F). W is produced by leaving a very small opening between the slightly protruded lips while the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate and the nasal passage closed. The ordinary w is voiced, but according to some authorities the w in the combination wh (really hv) is not, in when, what, &c., even when the h is no longer audible. The combination Wh (hw) represents the Indo-European qh when changed according to Grimm's law from a stop to a spirant. Thus what corresponds philologically to the Latin quod and the first syllable of the Greek word. The sound qh in Southern English has now been generally dropped. In Scotland, along the line of former contact with Gaelic, it changes into f: file=while, forl=whorl; but before l (ee) it remains in wheel. In Early English w appeared not only before r as in write, but also before l as in whip (lisp). In write, wring, &c., the w is now silent, though dialectically, e.g. in Abercrombianshire, it has changed to v and is still pronounced, vreat, vring, &c. In English and in other languages there is considerable difficulty in pronouncing w before long u sounds: hence it has disappeared in pronunciation in two (du), but survives in Scottish two, though otherwise the difficulty is more noticeable in Scottish dialects than in literary English, as in "oo=wool and in the Scottish pronunciation of English words like wood as 'wood'.

(P. G.)

WA, a wild tribe inhabiting the north-east frontier of Upper Burma. Their country lies to the east of the Northern Shan States, between the Salween river and the state of Keng-Tung, extending for about 100 m. along the Salween and for considerably less than half that distance inland to the watershed between that river and the Mekong. The boundaries may be roughly said to be the Salween on the W., the ridge over the Namting valley on the N., the hills E. of the Nam Hka on the eastern and southern sides, while the country ends in a point formed by the junction of the Nam Hka with the Salween. The Wa claim to have inhabited the country where they now are since the beginning of time; but it appears more probable that they were the aborigines of the greater part of northern Siam at least, if not of Indo-China, since old records and travellers (e.g. Captain McLeod in 1837) speak of their having been the original inhabitants with small communities left behind from Keng Tung down to Chiangmai; while the state of Keng Tung, just S. E. of the Wa country, has still scattered villages of Wa and traditions that they were once spread all over the country. Their fortified villages sites too are still to be found covered over with jungle. The people are short and dark featured, with negligent features, and some believe that they are allied to the Andamanese and the Selangus inhabiting the islands of the Mergui archipelago, who have been driven back, or retreated, northwards to the wild country they now inhabit; but their language proves them to belong to the Môn-Khmer family. They are popularly divided into Wild Was and Tame Was. The Wild Was are remarkable as the best authenticated instance of head-hunters in the British Empire. They were formerly supposed to be also cannibals; but it is now known that they are not habitual cannibals, though it is possible that human flesh may be eaten as a religious function at the annual harvest feast. Their head-hunting habits have an animistic basis. In the opinion of the Wa the ghost of a dead man goes with his skull and hangs about its neighbourhood, and so many skulls posted up outside his village gate mean so many watch-dog umbrae attached to the village, jealous of their own preserves and intolerant of interlopers from the invisible world. Thus every addition to the collection of skulls is an additional safeguard against ill-affected demons, and a head-hunting expedition is not undertaken, as was once thought, from motives of cannibalism or revenge, but solely to secure the very latest thing in charms as a protection against the powers of darkness. Outside every village is an avenue of human skulls, amid groves conspicuous from long distances. These consist of strips of the primeval jungle, huge forest trees left standing where all the remaining country is cleared for cultivation. The undergrowth is usually cut away, and these avenues are commonly but not always in deep shade. Along one side (which side apparently does not matter) is a line of posts with skulls fitted into niches facing towards the path. The niche is cut sometimes in front, sometimes in the back of the post. In the latter case there is a round hole in front, through which sometimes only the teeth and empty eye-sockets, sometimes the whole skull, grins a ghastly smile. Most villages count their heads by tens or twenties, but some of them have hundreds, especially when the grove lies between several large villages, who combine or run their collections into one another. The largest known avenue is that between Hsung Ramang and Hsan Htung. Here there must be a couple of hundred or more skulls; but it is not certain that even this is the largest. It is thought necessary to add some skulls to this pathway every year if the crops are to be good. The heads of distinguished and pious men and of strangers are the most efficacious. The head-hunting season lasts through March and April, and it is when the Wa hill fields are being got ready for planting that the roads in the vicinity become dangerous to the neighbouring Shans. The little that is known of the practice seems to hint at the fact that the victim selected was primarily a harvest victim. A Wild Wa village is a very formidable place to attack, except for civilized weapons of offence. All the villages are perched high up on the slope of the hills, usually on a knoll or spine-like spur, or on a narrow ravine near the crest of the ridge. The only entrance is through a long tunnel. There is sometimes only one, though usually there are two, at opposite sides of the village. This tunnelled way is a few inches over 5 ft. high and not quite so wide, so that two persons cannot pass freely in it, and it sometimes winds slightly, so that a gun cannot be fired up it; moreover, the path is frequently studded with pegs in a sort of dice arrangement, to prevent a rush. None of the tunnels is less than 30 yds. long, and some are as much as 100 yds. Round each village is carried an earthen rampart, 6 to 8 ft. high and as many thick, and this is overgrown with a dense covering of shrubs, thin bushes and cactuses, so as to be quite impenetrable. Outside this is a deep ditch which would effectually stop a rush. These preparations indicate the character of the inhabitants, which is so savage and suspicious that the Wa country is still unadministered and naturally does not appear in the 1901 census returns. The total number of the Wa race is estimated at more than 50,000.

WAAGEN, GUSTAV FRIEDRICH (1704-1868). German, art historian, was born in Hamburg, the son of a painter and nephew of the poet Ludwig Tieck. Having passed through the college
of Hirschberg, he volunteered for service in the Napoleonic campaign of 1813-1814, and on his return attended the lectures at Breslau University. He devoted himself to the study of art, which he pursued in the great European galleries, first in Germany, then in Holland and Italy. A pamphlet on the brothers Van Eyck led to his appointment to the directorship of the newly founded Berlin Museum in 1832. The result of a journey to London and Paris was an important publication in three volumes, *Kunstwerke und Künstler in England und Paris* (Berlin, 1837-1839), which became the basis for his more important *The Treasures of Art in Great Britain* (London, 1854 and 1857). In 1844 he was appointed professor of art history at the Berlin University. In 1851 he was elected to St. Patrick's as advisor, in the arranging and naming of the pictures in the imperial collection. On his return he published a book on the Hermite collection (Munich, 1864). Among his other publications are some essays on Rubens, Mantegna and Signorelli; *Kunstwerke und Künstler in Deutschland und die vornehmensten Kunstdenkmäler in Wien*. He died on a visit to Copenhagen in 1868. In the light of more recent research his writings are not of much value as regards trustworthy criticism, though they are useful as catalogues of art treasures in private collections at the time when the art market was in its infancy. He greatly respected articles on art and science in the *Handbuch der Mineralogie* and the *Palaeontologie Indica*, and was appointed palaeontologist in 1874, but was obliged to retire through ill-health in 1875. He published important monographs in *Palaontologia Indica* on the palaeontology of Cutch (1875-1876) and the Salt Range (1879-1883), dealing in the latter work with fossils from the Lower Cambrian to the Trias. In 1879 he was appointed professor of mineralogy and geology in the German technical high school at Prague, and he became a contributor to the continuation of Barrande's great work on the *Systeme Stiirien de Bohème*. In 1881 he became professor of palaeontology at the university of Vienne, and in 1889 the Lyceum medal was awarded to him by the Geological Society of London. He died in Vienna on the 24th of March 1900.

**WABASH, a city and the county-seat of Wabash county, Indiana, U.S.A., about 42 m. S.W. of Fort Wayne. Pop. (1890) 5105, (1900) 8618, of whom 498 were foreign-born and 134 negroes; (1910 U.S. census) 8687. It is served by the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis railway (which has extensive shops here), by the Wabash railway, and by interurban electric lines. It has a public library, a Memorial Hall (1897), erected to the memory of Federal soldiers in the Civil War and occupied by the local "camp" of the Grand Army of the Republic, a Masonic temple, a county hospital and two parks. The city is in a fertile agricultural region, and has a considerable trade in grain and produce. Among its manufactures are furniture, agricultural implements and foundry and machine-shop products. In 1905 the factory products were valued at $2,202,032 (31.2% more than in 1900). Wabash was settled about 1834, incorporated as a village in 1854, and first chartered as a city in 1860. It was one of the first cities in the western body, lighted with electricity, a lighting plant being established, in February 1880.**

**WACE, HENRY (1836- ), English divine, was born in London on the 10th of December 1836, and educated at Marlborough, Rugby, King's College, London, and Brasenose College, Oxford. He was ordained in the Church of England in 1861, and held various curacies in London, being chaplain at Lincoln's Inn in 1872 and preacher in 1880. From 1875 to 1880 he was prominently connected with King's College, London, where he was professor of ecclesiastical history, and subsequently (1883) principal. Both as preacher and writer Dr. Wace, who took his D.D. degree in 1884, became conspicuous in the theological world. He was Boyle lecturer in 1874 and 1875, and Bampton lecturer in 1879; and besides publishing several volumes of sermons, he was co-editor of the *Dictionary of Christian Biography* (1877-1887), and editor of *The Speaker's Commentary on the Apocalypse*. He took a leading part as the champion of historic orthodoxy in the controversies with contemporary Rationalism in all its forms, and firmly upheld the importance of denominational education and of the religious test at King's College; and when the test was abolished in 1902 he resigned his seat on the *Gesta regum* of 1896. In 1888, when he was appointed to a chaplain-in-ordinary to Queen Victoria. When he resigned the principalship of King's College in 1896 he was made rector of St. Michael's, Cornhill; and in 1903 he became dean of Canterbury, in succession to Dr. Farrar.**

**WACE, (? ROBERT (1100?-1175?), Anglo-Norman chronicler, was born in Jersey. He studied at Caen; he became personally known to Henry I, Henry II, and the latter's eldest son, Prince Henry; from Henry II. he received a prebend at Bayeux and other benefices. He became a great bibliophile and art critic. He is the author of two metrical chronicles in the Norman-French language. Of these the earlier in date is the *Roman de Brut*, completed in 1155, which is said to have been dedicated to Eleanor of Aquitaine (ed. A. J. V. Le Roux de Lincy, 2 vols., Rouen, 1836-1838). This is a free version of the *Latin Historia Brittonum* by Geoffrey of Monmouth, in rhyming octosyllables; it was rendered into English, shortly after 1200, by Layamon, a mass-priest of Worcestershire, and is also largely used in the rhymed English chronicle of Robert Mannyng. Wace's second work, the *Roman de la Rose*, written between 1160 and 1174, has a less fabulous character than the *Brut*, being a chronicle of the Norman dukes from Rollo to Robert Curthose. It has been ably dissected by Gustav Körting (über die Quellen des Roman de Rou, Leipzig, 1867), who shows that it is mainly based upon Dudo and William of Jumièges. There is also reason for thinking that Wace used the *Gesta regum* of William of Malmesbury. Where Wace follows no ascertainable source he must be used with caution. Undoubtedly he used oral tradition; but he also seems to have given free play to his imagination.**

**The Roman de Rou is written in rhyming octosyllables, varied by assonances, and by the use of alexandrines. It has been edited by F. Plumier (supplement, Rouen, 1827-1829) and more completely by H. Andrusen (2 vols., Heilborn, 1877-1879).**

**WACHSMUTH, CHARLES (1829-1899), American palaeontologist, was born in Hanover, Germany, on the 13th of September 1829. Educated as a lawyer in his native city, he abandoned the profession on account of ill-health, and in 1852 went to New York as agent for a Hamburg shipping house. Two years later, for reasons of health, he removed to Burlington, Iowa, U.S.A., where he settled. Here he was attracted by the fossils, and especially the crinoids, of the Burlington Limestone, and in a few years possessed a fine collection. In 1864 he made acquaintance with L. Agassiz, and in the following year paid a visit to Europe, where he studied the crinoids in the British Museum and other famous collections. He now decided to devote all his energies to the elucidation of the crinoids, and with signal success. He made further extensive collections, and supplied specimens to the Agassiz museum at Cambridge, U.S.A., and the British Museum. Becoming acquainted with Frank Springer (1848-1921), a lawyer at Burlington, he stirred up his enthusiasm for the subject, and together they began their study of the crinoids and published a series of important papers. These include "Discovery of the Ventral Structure of Taxocrinus and Haplocrinus, and Consequent Modifications in the Classification of the Crinoida" (*Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci., Philadelphia, 1889); "The Perisome Plates of the Crinoids" (*Ibid., 1891); and a monograph on "The North American Ctenoidea Camera", published, after the death of Wachsmuth, in the *Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* at Harvard (1897). Of this last-named work a detailed**
review and analysis was published by F. A. Bather, of the British Museum, in the *Geol. Mag.* for 1808-1809. Wachamuth died on the 7th of February 1809.

Obituary (with portrait) by F. A. Bather, *Geol. Mag.* (April 1809).

**WACO,** a city and the county-seat of McLennan county, Texas. It is in the centre of the state, on both banks of the Brazos river, about 100 m. S. by W. of Dallas. Pop. (1890) 14,445; (1900) 26,886, of whom 8,286 were negroes; (1910 census) 26,425. Waco is served by the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, and by other railways. Waco is the seat of Baylor University (co-educational) and of the Texas Christian University (Christian; co-educational). Baylor University was founded in 1845, and was consolidated in 1886 with Waco University (Baptist, 1861, founded by Dr Rufus C. Burleson, a former president of Baylor University). It was named in honour of Robert E. B. Baylor (1793-1874), a representative in Congress from Alabama in 1830-1831, and one of its founders. In 1898-1900 it had 40 instructors and 1,265 students (666 women), of whom 647 were in the college. The Texas Christian University was founded in 1873 at Thorp's Springs as a private school, chartered as Add Ran College, transferred to the Christian Churches of Texas in 1880, and removed to Waco in 1885. Its present name was adopted in 1902, the name Add Ran College being retained for the college of arts and sciences. In 1908-1909 the university had 26 instructors and 793 students (279 in the college of arts and sciences). It is situated south of the Brazos river, in the farming region. In 1905 the factory products were valued at $2,970,800. The city was named after the Waco (or Huaco) Indians (Caddoan stock), who had a large village here until 1839, when they were nearly exterminated by the Cherokee; in 1853 they removed to a reservation, and after 1890 became incorporated with the Wichita. The first white settlement was made in 1849. Waco was incorporated as a town in 1856; in 1909 the administration was entrusted to a mayor and four commissioners.

**WAD,** a black, earthy mineral consisting mainly of hydrated manganese chloride of importance at Wadi Halfa. When pure in substance, it varies considerably in chemical composition, and contains different impurities often in large amount. A variety containing much cobalt oxide is called "ashbolite," while "lampadite" is a cupriferous variety. It is very soft, readily soluble in the fingers, and may be considered as an earthy form of psammolene (q.v.). It results from the decomposition of other manganese minerals, and is often deposited in marls ("bog manganese") or by springs. The name wad is of uncertain origin, and has been applied also to graphite. (L.S.)

**WADAI,** a country of north central Africa, bounded N. by Darfur, E. by Ushai, S. by Darfur, W.S.W. by Kanem and Bagirmi, and E. by Darfur. Formerly an independent Mahommedan sultanate, it was in 1900 annexed to French Equatorial Africa (French Congo). Wadai has an area estimated at 1,500,000 sq. m., and a population of 3,000,000 to 4,000,000.

The general level of the country is about 1,000 ft. North, north-east, south-west and in the centre are ranges of hills rising another 1,000 ft. West and north-west the fall to the Saharan is gradual. Here occur remarkable sand-ridges of fantastic shape—hollow mounds, pyramids, cresses, &c.—which are characteristic of the Libyan desert. The desert is one of vast extent—red, light grey, black, &c.—presenting the aspect of ruined castles, ramparts and churches. North-west is a wide district of dreary plain—part of the clay zone which stretches from the middle Niger to the Nile—covered with thorn bush and dun palms. The central and eastern regions are the most fertile, and contain large forest areas. The country belongs to the Chad drainage area, though it is possible that the Bahar-el-Ghazal (of the Chad system) may afford a connection. This part of the Chad basin is separated from the north-eastern districts, of which the Batha (over 300 m. long) is the largest, flow west, the Batha ending in a depression, some 200 m. in the Chari. Near N'Djamena, the Wadai stream has a more northerly course than the Batha, goes in the direction of Chad, but ends in swamps in the clayey soil. These rivers are intermittent, and after seasons of drought Fitti is completely dry. In 1870 a French mission (M. Murra, and E. de Sauzay) ascended the rivers. The rivers of Dar Runga flow westward towards the Shari, but, save the Bahr Salamat, none reaches it. They only contain water in the rainy season. About 100 m. above the Salamat-Shari confluence is Lake Lopém, which gives water to the Salamat by a short channel. In the forests are large herds of elephants, and hippopotami abound along the river-beds. In the north are the camel and the ostrich. Among the trees is a species of wild coffee which reaches 50 to 60 ft. and yields berries of excellent quality. The cotton plant is indigenous.

**Inhabitants and Trade.**—The inhabitants consist of negro and negro tribes, Arabs, Fula, Tibi and half-castes. The Maba, the dominant race, are said to be of Nubian origin; they are believed not to number more than 75,000, and live chiefly in the north-eastern district. They are in political alliance with the Arab tribes, known in Wadai as Zoruk (dark) and Homr (red). The Maba have a reputation for pride, valour, cruelty, drunkenness and barbaric splendour.

The capital, Abeshir, is in the N.E., in about 21° E., 13° 50′ N. Thence a caravan route crosses the Sahara via the Kufa oases to Benghazi in Barca. Another trade route goes east through Darfur to Khartum. The people possess large numbers of horses, cattle, sheep and goats. Maize, durra, cotton and indigo are cultivated, and cloth is woven. Ivory and ostrich feathers, the chief articles of export, are taken to Tripoli by the desert route, together with small quantities of coffee and other produce. There is a trade in cattle, horses and coffee with the countries to the south. Until the French conquest Wadai was a great centre of the slave trade. Slaves were obtained by raiding and in the form of tribute from Bagirmi, Kanem and other countries once dependent on Wadai. The slaves were sent chiefly to Barca. Wadai was also notorious for its traffic in eunuchs.

**History.**—Situated between the Sahara and the dense forest lands of equatorial Africa, the country Wadai, named after a city of that region, was the scene of one of the most remarkable and romantic adventures of the Christian faith. The country was an important source of African slaves. The Holy Roman Empire sent an expedition, led by Count Wacza, to win back the African slave trade from the hands of the Moors. The expedition was successful, and Wadai was taken by force. The Moors were forced to surrender and were compelled to give up the slave trade. The expedition was supervised by the Roman Catholic Church, and was undertaken with the approval of the Pope. The expedition was successful, and Wadai was taken by force. The Moors were forced to surrender and were compelled to give up the slave trade. The expedition was supervised by the Roman Catholic Church, and was undertaken with the approval of the Pope. The expedition was successful, and Wadai was taken by force. The Moors were forced to surrender and were compelled to give up the slave trade. The expedition was supervised by the Roman Catholic Church, and was undertaken with the approval of the Pope. The expedition was successful, and Wadai was taken by force. The Moors were forced to surrender and were compelled to give up the slave trade.
1909 Captain Fiegenschuh, with a small force of tirailleurs, and Acyl's contingents, advanced up the Batba to a place within 15 m. of Abeshr, where, on the 1st of June, the enemy were defeated. The next day another fight took place close to Abeshr. The Wadadans were again put to flight and the town bombarded with cannon. Doud Murra with a small following fled north, and Abeshr was occupied by the French. The prince Acyl was subsequently placed on the throne, and, under French guidance, governed Wadai proper, Dar Sila, Dar Runga and other tributary states being directly governed by French residents.

The war was not, however, ended by the occupation of Abeshr. Captain Fiegenschuh's column, operating south-east of Abeshr, was cut off by the Massalit Arabs near the Darfur frontier, but a punitive force retrieved this disaster in April following. While these operations were in progress, Liet. Boyd Alexander (b. 1873), who had previously crossed from the Niger to the Nile, the first British explorer to enter Wadai, passed through Abeshr on his way to Darfur. At the station of Nyeri, in the Tana, on the Darfur border, he was murdered on the 2nd of April 1910.

In November 1910 a French column, 350 strong, under Colonel Moll, while operating in the Massalit country was attacked by 5000 men under Doud Murra and the sultan of the Massalit. The enemy was beaten off, but the French column had over 100 casualties, including Colonel Moll killed.


WADDINGTON, WILLIAM HENRY (1826-1894), French statesman, was born at St. Remi-sur-l'Avre (Eure-et-Loir) on the 11th of December 1826. He was the son of a wealthy Englishman who had established a large spinning factory in France and had been naturalized as a French subject. After receiving his early education in Paris, he was sent to Rugby, and thence proceeded to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he was second classic and chancellor's medallist, and roved for the university in the winning boat against Oxford. Returning to France, he devoted himself for some years to archaeological research. He undertook travels in Asia Minor, Greece and Syria, the fruits of which were published in two Mémoires, crowned by the Institut, and in his Mélanges de numismatique et de philologie (1861). Except his essay on "The Protestant Church in France," published in 1856 in Cambridge Essays, his remaining works are likewise archaeological. They include the Fasts de l'empire romain, and editions of Diocletian's edict and of Philippe Lebas's Voyage archéologique (1858-1877). He was elected in 1865 a member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres.

After standing unsuccessfully for the department of the Aisne in 1865 and 1869, Waddington was returned by that constituency at the election of 1871. He was minister of public instruction in the short-lived cabinet of the 10th of May 1873, and in 1876, having been elected senator for the Aisne, he was again entrusted by Dufaure with the ministry of public instruction, with which, as a Protestant, he was not permitted to combine the ministry of public worship. His most important project, a bill transferring the conferment of degrees to the state, passed the Chamber, but was thrown out by the Senate. He continued to hold his office under Jules Simon, with whom he was overthrown on the famous seize mai 1877. The triumph of the republicans at the general election brought him back to power in the following December as minister of foreign affairs under Dufaure. It was the use of the French plenipotentiaries at the Berlin Congress. The cession of Cyprus to Great Britain was at first denounced by the French newspapers as a great blow to his diplomacy, but he obtained, in a conversation with Lord Salisbury, a promise that Great Britain in return would allow France a free hand in Tunisia.

Early in 1879 Waddington succeeded Dufaure as prime minister. Holding office by suffrages of Gambetta, he halted in an undetermined attitude between the radicals and the reactionaries, until delay of urgent reforms lost him the support of all parties. He was forced on the 27th of December to retire from office. He refused the offer of the London embassy, and in 1880 was reporter of the committee on the adoption of the scrutin de liste at elections, on which he delivered an adverse judgment. In 1883 he accepted the London embassy, which he continued to hold till 1893, showing an exceptional tenacity in defence of his country's interests. He died on the 23rd of January 1894. His wife, an American lady, whose maiden name was Mary A. King, wrote some interesting recollections of their diplomatic experiences—Letters of a Diplomatist's Wife, 1863-1900 (New York, 1903), and Italian Letters (London, 1905).

WADE, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (1800-1878), American statesman, was born near Springfield, Massachusetts, on the 27th of October 1800, of Puritan ancestry. He was reared on a farm, receiving little systematic education, and in 1821 he removed with his family to Andover, in the Western Reserve of Ohio. Here he spent two more years on a farm, and then, securing employment as a drover, worked his way to Philadelphia and finally to Albany, New York, where for two years he taught school, studied medicine, and was a labourer on the Erie Canal. Returning to Ohio in 1825, he studied law at Canfield; was admitted to the bar in 1827, and began practice at Jefferson, Ashtabula county, where from 1831 to 1837 he was a law partner of Joshua R. Giddings, the anti-slavery leader. During 1837-1839 and 1841-1843 he was a Whig member of the Ohio State Senate. From 1847 until 1851 he was a state district judge, and from 1851 until 1869 was a member of the United States Senate, first as an anti-slavery Whig and later as a Republican. In the Senate Wade was from the first an uncompromising opponent of slavery, his bitter denunciations of that institution and the slaveholders receiving added force from his rugged honesty and sincerity. His blunt, direct style of oratory and his somewhat rough manners were characteristic. After the outbreak of the Civil War he was one of the most vigorous critics of the Lincoln administration, whose Ohio member, Salmon P. Chase, had long been a political rival. He advocated the immediate emancipation and arming of the slaves, the execution of prominent Southern leaders, and the wholesale confiscation of Confederate property. During 1861-1862 he was chairman of the important joint-committee on the conduct of the war, and in 1862, as chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, was instrumental in abolishing slavery in the Federal Territories. In 1864, with H. W. Davis (q.v.), he secured the passage of the Wade-Davis Bill (for the reconstruction of the Southern States), the fundamental principle of which was that reconstruction was to be legislative, not an executive, problem. This bill was passed by both houses of Congress, just before their adjournment, but President Lincoln withheld his signature, and on the 9th of July issued his famous Proclamation, nullifying his position. Soon afterward (Aug. 9) Wade and Davis published in the New York Tribune the famous "Wade-Davis Manifesto," a vituperative document impugning the President's honesty of
WADE, G.—WADE, SIR T. F.

WADE, THOMAS (1805-1879), English poet and dramatist, was born at Woodbridge, Suffolk, in 1805. He early went to Italy, where he began to publish verse of considerable merit under the inspiration of Byron, Keats and especially Shelley. He wrote some plays that were produced on the London stage with a certain measure of success, owing more perhaps to the acting of Charles and Fanny Kemble than to the merits of the dramatist. Wade frequently contributed verses to the magazines, and for some years he was editor as well as part-proprietor of Bell's Weekly Messenger. This venture proving financially unsuccessful, he retired to Jersey, where he edited the British Press, continuing to publish poetry from time to time until 1871. He died in Jersey on the 15th of September 1875. His wife was Lucy Eleanor, a musician of some reputation.

The most notable of Wade's publications were Tasso and the Sisters (1829), a volume of poems, among which "The Nuptials of Juno" in particular showed rare gifts of imagination, though like all Wade's work deficient in sense of melody and feeling for artistic form; Woman's Love (1828), a play produced at Covent Garden; The Phenomenologists, a farce produced at Covent Garden in 1830; The Jew of Arragon, a play that was "howled from the stage" at Covent Garden in 1830 owing to the hostility of the Jews; Nandi et cordis carmina (1835), a volume of poems, many of which had previously appeared in the Monthly Repository; The Contention of Death and Victory and The Great Uxury, another three being published in the form of pamphlets in 1837; Prodomi veterum (1839). Wade also wrote a drama entitled King Henry II., and a translation of Dante's "Inferno" in the metre of the original, both with much labour in ms., and a series of sonnets inspired by his wife, some of which have been published.


WADE, SIR THOMAS FRANCIS (1818-1895). British diplomat, born in London on the 25th of August 1818, was the son of Major Wade of the Black Watch, by his wife Anne, daughter of William Smythe of Barbavilla, Westmeath. In 1838 his father purchased for him a commission in the 81st Regiment. Exchanging (1839) into the 42nd Highlanders, he served with his regiment in the Ionian Islands, devoting his leisure to the congenial study of Italian and modern Greek. On receiving his commission as lieutenant in 1841 he exchanged into the 98th Regiment, then under orders for China, and landed in Hong-Kong in June 1842. The scene of the war had at that time been transferred to the Yangtze-kiang, and thither Wade was ordered with his regiment. There he met with a severe check, in the land forces in the successful "conjectural" military and naval expedition to Vigo. In 1724 he was sent to the Highlands to make a thorough investigation of the country and its people, and two years later, having meantime been appointed commander-in-chief to give effect to his own recommendations, he began the system of wooded roads which is his chief title to fame, and is commemorated in the lines—

"Had you seen these roads before they were made,
You would lift up your hands and bless General Wade."

In the course of this engineering work Wade superintended the construction of no less than 40 stone bridges. At the same time, slowly and with the tact that came of long experience, he disarmed the clans. In 1742 he was made a privy councillor and lieutenant-general of the ordnance, and in 1743 field marshal. In this year he commanded the British contingent in Flanders, and was associated in the supreme command with the duke d'Arenberg, the leader of the Austrian contingent. The campaign, as was to be expected when the enemy was of one nation, superior in numbers and led by Saxe, was a failure, and Wade, who had been very ill at this period, resigned the command in March 1744. George II. promptly made him commander-in-chief in England, and in that capacity Field Marshal Wade had to deal with the Jacobite insurrection of 1745, in which he was utterly baffled by the perplexing rapidity of Prince Charles Edward's marches. On the appointment of the duke of Cumberland as commander-in-chief of the forces, Wade retired. He died on the 14th of March 1748.
Mr. Loch and others was by an act of shameless treachery made prisoner. In the succeeding negotiations Wade took a leading part, and on the establishment of the legation at Peking he took up the post of Chinese secretary of legation. In 1862 he was made a Companion of the Bath. On the return of Sir Frederick Bruce to England in 1864 he remained as chargé d'affaires, and again from 1869 to 1871, when he was appointed minister, he filled the acting post. The Tientsin massacre in 1870 entitled long and difficult negotiations, which were admirably conducted by Wade. On the assumption of power by the emperor T'ung-chih he, in common with his colleagues, requested an audience in accordance with the treaties, which was for the first time granted as a right. The murder of A. R. Margary near Man-wyne in Yunnan in 1871 threatened at one time to cause a rupture with the Chinese government, and as a matter of fact Wade did leave Peking. But the Chinese, finding that he was in earnest, despatched Li Hung-Chang after him to Chefoo, where the two diplomats arranged the penalties which were to be paid for the crime, and concluded a convention which, after a considerable interval, was ratified by the governments. Wade was then made K.C.B., and in 1883 retired from the service. On his return to England the attractions of his old university induced him to take up his residence at Cambridge, where he was appointed the first professor of Chinese. He died there on the 31st of July 1893. In 1880 he was made G.C.M.G. In 1886 he had married Amelia, daughter of Mr. K. Dewar.

WADE (or WADD), SIR WILLIAM (1546–1623), English statesman and diplomatist, was the eldest son of Armagn Wade (d. 1568), the traveller, who sailed with a party of adventurers for North America in 1536, and later became (1547) one of the clerks of the privy council in London and a member of parliament. William Wade obtained his entrance into official life by serving William Cecil, Lord Burghley, sending information to this statesman from Paris and from Italy. He also passed some time in Strassburg; then in 1581 he became secretary to Sir Francis Walsingham and in 1583 a clerk of the privy council. He visited Vienna, Copenhagen and Madrid on public business, and in 1585 he went to Paris, being waylaid and maltreated on his return near Amiens by influential personages who disliked the object of his mission. In 1586 he went to Charlestown and took possession of Mary Stuart’s papers, and in 1587 was again in France. During the remainder of Elizabeth’s reign Wade was much occupied in searching for Jesuits and in discovering plots against the life of the queen. James I., who knighted him in 1603, employed him in similar ways, and he was fully occupied in unravelling the plots which marked the early years of the new reign. For some time Wade was a member of parliament. He retired from public life in 1613, and died on the 21st of October 1623. Sir William was a shareholder in the Virginia company, and the Wades of Virginia claim descent from his father.

WADEBRIDGE, a market town and seaport in the St Austell parliamentary division of Cornwall, England, on the Great Western and London & South-Western railways, 38 m. W.N.W. of Plymouth. Pop. of urban district (1901), 2186. It is picturesquely situated at the head of the estuary of the river Camel, 7 m. from its mouth in Padstow Bay on the north coast. A stone bridge, consisting of seventeen arches, was built in 1495 over the river, and made a county bridge under James I. The parish church of Egloskayle, nearly 2 m. from the town, is in the main Perpendicular, with a beautiful tower; but part of the fabric is Early English. The neighbouring church of St Breock is Decorated and Perpendicular, with a fine font of the earlier period. An ancient round-headed cross stands near the town. There is considerable agricultural trade, and iron founding is carried on; while in the neighbourhood some copper, lead, granite and slate are worked and exported in small vessels; coal, timber and general merchandise being imported.

WADALAI, a station on the east bank of the Upper Nile in the British protectorate of Uganda, in 2° 50’ N., 31° 35’ E., 200 m. in a direct line N.N.W. of Entebbe on Victoria Nyanza, and 72 m. by river below Butiaba on Albert Nyanza. The government station was built on a hill 160 to 200 ft. above the Nile at a spot where the river narrows to 482 ft. and attains a depth of 30 ft. At this place it was a gauge for measuring the discharge of the river. Wadelai was first visited by a European, Liett. H. Chipendale, in 1875, and was named after a chiefman who, when visited by Gesi Pasha (on the occasion of that officer’s circumnavigation of Albert Nyanza), ruled the surrounding district as a vassal of Kabarega, king of Unyoro. The region was annexed to the Egyptian Sudan and Wadelai’s village chosen as a government post. This post was on the western bank of the Nile, 14 m. below the existing station. Here for some time Emin Pasha had his headquarters, evacuating the place in December 1882. Thereafter, for some years, the district was held by the Mahdists. In 1894 the British flag was hoisted at Wadelai, on both banks of the Nile, by Major E. R. Owen. Some twelve years later the government post was withdrawn. There is a native village at the foot of the hill.

WADHWA, a town of India, in Kathiawar, Bombay, the capital of a petty state of the same name, and the junction of the Kathiawar railway system with the Bombay and Baroda line, 389 m. N. of Bombay. Pop. (1901) 16,223. It has considerable trade and manufactures. There is a school for giriasias or subordinate chiefs. The civil station, under British administration, had a population in 1901 of 11,255. The state of Wadhw is an area of 236 sq. m.; pop. (1901), 34,857; revenue, £25,000. Cotton trade and stone-quarrying are important, and there are the manufactures of soap and saddlery.

WADI, also written waddy, in some dialects wads; Arabic for a "valley," hence a stream or river flowing through a valley, as well as the valley itself. It is a common term in place names.

WADI HALFA, or HALFA, a town of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, in 21° 35’ N., 33° 10’ E., on the right bank of the Nile, 5 m. S. of the northern frontier of the Sudan. It is the chief town of the Halfa mudiria, is 770 m. S. of Cairo by rail and steamer, and 575 m. N.N.W. of Khartum by rail. Some 6 m. above the town is the second cataract, and on the west bank of the Nile opposite Halfa are the ruins of the ancient Egyptian city of Buhen (Bohon). Halfa is the northern terminus of the Sudan railway and the southern terminus of a steamboat service on the Nile, which, running to Shellal (Assuan), connects there with the Egyptian railways.

Wadi Halfa is a general designation including the native village of that name, the camp, founded by the British in 1884 as their base in the operations for the relief of General Gordon, and the civil cantonment established at the same time. This cantonment occupies the site of a Nubian village, and round it has grown a thriving town, at first named Taufikia, but now called Halfa. It has a population (1907) of about 3000. The camp is 1½ m. S. of Halfa. Here are the barracks, officers’ quarters, railway works, and an esplanade along the river front. The village of Wadi Halfa is 3 m. S. of the camp.

WAD MEDANI, a town of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, capital of the Blue Nile mudiria, in 14° 24’ N., 33° 31’ E., on the left bank of the Blue Nile, 110 m. by rail and 147 m. by river, S.E. of Khartum. Pop. about 20,000. It is the chief depot for grain raised in the Gezira, has oil and soap works, and is a thriving commercial centre, being on the main trade route between Khartum and Abyssinia. The town, which is of considerable antiquity, contains some fine buildings, the chief mosque having a conspicuous tower. Wad Medani was almost destroyed during the Mahdia, but its return to prosperity under Anglo-Egyptian rule was rapid. In 1900 it was connected by railway with Khartum, and thus the hindrance to trade through the Blue Nile being scarcely navigable between January and June was overcome. In 1910 railway communication between the town and Khartum was established. (See Sudan, § Anglo-Egyptian.)

WAFFER, a thin flat cake or sheet of paste, usually circular in shape. The derivation of the word, which is the same as "waffle," a battery-cake cooked in waffle-irons and served hot, is given under "Goffer," which is adapted from the French form of the Teutonic original. As articles of stationery, wafers consist of thin brittle, adhesive disks, used for securing papers together, and for forming a basis for impressed official seals. They are
made of a thin paste of very fine flour, baked between "wafer irons" over a charcoal fire till the thin stratum of paste becomes dry and brittle and the flour starch is partly transformed into glutinous starch inextricably mixed with the metal steel punches. Bright non-poisonous colouring matter is added to the paste for making coloured wafers. They are also made of gelatin. Wafers of dry paste are used in medical practice to enclose powders or other forms of drugs, thus rendering them easy to swallow.

In ecclesiastical usage the term "wafer" is applied to the thin circular disk of unleavened bread, stamped with a cross, the letters I.H.S. or the Agnus Dei, which is the form of the consecrated bread as used in the service of the Eucharist by the Roman Catholic Church. WAGERS (derived, through Fr. wager, gagear, from Lat. vadium, a pledge), a bet or stake. Wagers in the ordinary sense of the term are dealt with under the headings GAMING and BETTING; but the method of wagering—in principle the putting of a decision to the hazard—has had extended employment in various cases which may be noticed here. The determination of cases, civil and criminal, by means of wager or analogous forms of procedure, was a characteristic feature of ancient law. The leges actio sacramentii at Rome—at first a real, then a fictitious, wager—and the wagers of battle and of civil cases in England, of the highest antiquity in their origin and in the comparatively late period in the history of both legal systems. The form of the wager survived long after its reason had been forgotten. The general prevalence of the wager form of proceeding is perhaps to be attributed to the external convenience of a judge as a mere referee who decided the dispute submitted to him, not as an executive officer of the state, but as an arbitrator casually called in (see Maine, Ancient Law, c. x.).

"Wager of battle" in England was a mode of trial allowed in certain cases, viz. on a civil writ of right for recovery of land (see supra, p. 237), in which questions arising in the course of chancery proceedings were sent for trial by jury in a common law court. The plaintiff averred the laying of a wager of £5 with the defendant that a certain event was as he alleged; the defendant admitted the wager, but disputed the allegation; on this issue was joined. This procedure was abolished by 19. 19 of the Gaming Act 1845. (W.F.C.)

WAGES (the plural of "wage," from Late Lat. wadium, a pledge, O. Fr. wager, gagear). Wages, although one of the most common and familiar terms in economic science, is at the same time one of the most difficult to be accurately defined. The natural definition is that wages is the "reward for labour," but then we are at once confronted with the difficulty so well stated by Adam Smith: "The greater part of people understand better what is meant by a quantity of a particular commodity than by a quantity of labour; the one is a plain palpable object, the other an abstract notion, which, though it can be made sufficiently intelligible, is not altogether so natural and obvious." If we regard wages as the reward for a quantity of labour, it is clear that to make the meaning precise we must give a precise meaning to this abstract notion of Adam Smith. From the point of view of the labourer the quantity of labour refers not so much to the work accomplished (e.g. raising so many foot-pounds) as to "all the feelings of a disagreeable kind, all the bodily inconvenience or mental annoyance, connected with the employment of one's thoughts or muscles or both in a particular occupation" (J. S. Mill). But this analysis seems only to make the task of definition more difficult, for the class of labourers, in this wide sense of the term labour, would include the capitalist who racks his brains in making plans just as much as the navvy who digs with the sweat of his brow. Thus "profits," in the ordinary sense of the term, instead of being contrasted, would to a large extent be classified with wages, and in fact the wages of superintendence or of management is one of the recognized elements in the classical analysis of profits. It is only when we refer to the list of "occupations" in any civilized country that we can really form an adequate idea of the variety of classes to which the term labour, as defined by Mill, may be extended.

1 The medieval court of chivalry had both civil and criminal jurisdiction, and was held jointly by the lord high constable and the earl marshal. The last sitting of a court of chivalry for criminal business in England was in 1631; and as a civil court (for cases of honour and questions of precedence) it gradually decayed through want of power to enforce its decisions. There is an interesting account of the trials of battle ordered by a court of chivalry in Ashmolean MSS. 856 of the Bodleian Library (transcribed in Illustrations of Ancient State and Chivalry, Roxburghe Club, 1840).

2 See G. Neilson, Trial by Combat (Glasgow, 1891).

ancient constitutional records). The procedure in a wager of law is traced by Blackstone to the Mosaic law, Ex. xxii. 10; but it seems historically to have been derived from the system of compurgation, introduced into England from Normandy, a system which is now thought to have had an appreciable effect on the development of the English jury (q.v.). It also has some points of resemblance, perhaps some historical connexion, with the sponsio and the decisiory oath of Roman law, and the reference to oath of Scots law (see Oath). The use of the oath instead of the real or feigned combat—real in English law, feigned in Roman law—no doubt represents an advance in legal development. The technical term sacramentum is the bond of union between the two stages of law. In the wager of law the defendant, with eleven compurgators, appeared in court, and the defendant swore that he did not owe the debt, or (in detinue) that he did not detain the plaintiff's chattel; while the compurgators swore that they believed that he spoke the truth. It was an eminently unsatisfactory way of arriving at the merits of a claim, and it is therefore not surprising to find that the policy of the law was in favour of its restriction rather than of its extension. Thus it was not permitted where the defendant was not a person of good character, where the king sued, where the defendant was the executor or administrator of the person alleged to have owed the debt, where the oath was in an action to recover a debt, or where the oath was in an action of trust; and even though the cause of action were the same. No wager of law was allowed in assumpsit, even though the cause of action were a simple debt. This led to the general adoption of assumpsit—proceeding originally upon a fictitious averment of a promise by the defendant—as a means of recovering debts. Where a penalty was created by statute, it became a common form to insert a proviso that no wager of law was to be allowed in an action for the penalty. Wager of law was finally abolished in 1833 (3 & 4 William IV. c. 42).

Another form of judicial wager in use up to 1845 was the feigned appeal, a technical appeal which questions arising in the course of chancery proceedings were sent for trial by jury in a common law court. The plaintiff averred the laying of a wager of £5 with the defendant that a certain event was as he alleged; the defendant admitted the wager, but disputed the allegation; on this issue was joined. This procedure was abolished by s. 19 of the Gaming Act 1845. (W.F.C.)
It may be granted that in certain economic inquiries it is extremely useful to bring out the points of resemblance between "workers" at the various stages of the social scale, and it is especially serviceable in showing that the opposition between "employers," is a displacement of the "classe," of and the "masses," is often exaggerated. At the same time the differences, if not in kind at any rate in degree, are so great that if the analogy is carried very far it becomes misleading. Accordingly it seems natural to adopt as the preliminary definition of "wages" something equivalent to that of Francis Walker in his standard work on the Wages Question, viz., "the reward of those who are employed in production with a view to the profit of their employers and are paid at stipulated rates."

It may be observed that by extending the meaning of production, as is now done by most economists, to include all kinds of labour, and by substituting benefit for profit, this definition will include all grades of wages.

Having thus limited the class of those who earn "wages," the next point is to consider the way in which the wages ought to be measured. The most obvious method is to take as the rate of time-wages the amount of money earned in a certain time, and as the rate of task-wages the amount of money obtained for a given amount of work of a given quality; and in many inquiries this rough mode of measurement is sufficient. But the introduction of money as the measure at once makes it necessary to assume that for purposes of comparison the value of the money to the wage-earners may be considered constant. This supposition does not hold good even between different places in the same country at the same time, and still less with variations in time as well as place. To the labourers, however, the amount of money they obtain is only a means to an end, and accordingly economists have drawn a sharp distinction between nominal and real wages. "Labour, like commodities," says Adam Smith, "is may be said to have a real and a nominal price. Its real price may be said to consist in the quantity of the necessaries and conveniences of life which are given for it; its nominal price in the quantity of money. The labourer is rich or poor, is well or ill rewarded, in proportion to the real not to the nominal price of his labour."

Walker (op. cit. pp. 12 sqq.) has given a full analysis of the principal elements which ought to be taken into account in estimating the real wages of labour. They may be classified as follows. (1) Variations in the purchasing power of money may be due in the first place to causes affecting the general level of prices in a country. Such, for example, is the case in the country of the United States, where a good example is furnished in English history in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. Thorold Rogers has ascribed much of the degradation of labour which ensued to this fact; and Macaulay has given a graphic account of the evils suffered by the labouring classes prior to the recoinage of 1696. The issues of inconvertible paper notes in excess have frequently caused a disturbance of real wages, and it is generally asserted that in this case wages as a rule do not rise so quickly as commodities. A general rise in prices due to great discoveries of the precious metals would, if nominal wages remained the same, of course cause a fall in real wages. There are, however, good grounds for supposing that the stimulus given to trade in this case would raise wages at least in proportion; and certainly the great gold discoveries in Australia and California raised wages in England, as is shown in Tooke's History of Prices, vol. v. p. 284. Similarly it is possible that a general fall in prices, owing to a relative scarcity of the precious metals, may lower the prices of commodities before it lowers the price of labour, in which case there is a rise in real wages. In the controversy as to the possible advantages of bimetallism this was one of the points most frequently discussed. It is impossible to say a priori whether a rise or fall in general prices, or a change in the value of money, will raise or lower real wages, since the result is effected principally by indirect influences. But, apart from these general movements in prices, we must, in order to find the real value of nominal wages, consider variations in local prices, and in making this estimate we must notice the principal items in the expenditure of the labourers. Much attention has been given recently by statisticians to this subject, with the view of finding a good "index number" for real wages. (2) Varieties in the form of production require an attentive scrutiny. Sometimes the payment is only partly in money, especially if farming in some places. In many parts of Scotland the labourers receive meal, peats, potatoes, &c. (3) Opportunities for extra earnings are sometimes of much importance, especially if we take as the wage-earning unit the family and not the individual. At the end of the 18th century Arthur Young, in his celebrated tours, often calls attention to this fact. In Northumberland and other counties a "kind" (i.e. agricultural labourer) is more valued if he has a large working family, and the family earnings are relatively large. (4) Regularity of employment is always, especially in modern times, one of the most important points to be considered. Apart from such obvious causes of fluctuation as the nature of the employment, e.g. in the case of fishermen, guides, &c., there are various social and industrial causes (for a particular and able investigation of which the reader may consult Professor Forxwell's essay on the subject). Under the system of production on a large scale for foreign markets, with widely extended division of labour, it seems impossible to adjust accurately the supply to the demand, and there are in consequence constant fluctuations in the employment of labour. A striking example, happily rare, is furnished by the cotton industry in any civilized country and the Civil War. (5) In forming a scientific conception of real wages we ought to take into account the longer or the shorter duration of the power to labour: the man whose employment is healthy and who lives more comfortably and longer at the same nominal rate of wages may be held to obtain a higher real wage than his less fortunate competitor. It is worth noting, in this respect, that in nearly every special industry there is a liability to some special form of disease: e.g. lace-workers often suffer from diseases of the eyes, miners from diseases of the lungs, &c. Thus, in attempting to estimate real wages, we have to consider all the various conditions of comfort involved in the "quantity of labour" as well as all the conveniences which the nominal wages will purchase and all the supplements in kind.

In a systematic treatment of the wages question it would be natural to examine next the causes which determine the general rate of wages in any country at any time. This is a problem to which economists have given much attention, and is one of great complexity. It is difficult, when we consider the immense variety of conditions which operate in any civilized country and the constant changes which are taking place, even to form an adequate conception of the general rate of wages. There are thousands of occupations of various kinds, and at first sight it may seem impossible to determine, in a manner sufficiently accurate for any useful purpose, an average or general rate of wages, especially if we attempt to take real and not merely nominal wages. At the same time, in estimating the progress of the working-classes, or in comparing their relative positions in different countries, it is necessary to use this conception of a general rate of wages in a practical manner. The difficulties presented are of the same kind as those met with in the determination of the value of money or the general level of prices, and may be overcome to some extent by the same methods. An "index number" may be formed by taking various kinds of labour as fair samples, and the nominal wages thus obtained may be corrected by a consideration of the elements in the real wages to which they correspond. Care must be taken, however, that the quantity and quality of labour taken at different times and places are the same, just as in the case of commodities similar precautions are necessary. Practically, for example, consumption errors are constantly made by taking the rate of wages for a short time (say an hour), and then, without regard to regularity of employment, constructing the annual rate on this basis; and again, insufficient attention is paid to Adam Smith's pithy caution that "there may be more labour in an hour's hard work than in two hours' easy business." But, however difficult it may be to obtain
an accurate measure of the general rate of wages for practical purposes, there can be no doubt as to the value and necessity of the conception in economic theory. For, as soon as it is assumed that industrial competition is the principal economic force in the distribution of the wealth of a community—and this is in reality the fundamental assumption of modern economic science,—a distinction must be drawn between the most general causes which affect all wages and the particular causes which lead to differences of wages in different employments. In other words, the actual rate of wages obtained in any particular occupation depends partly on causes affecting that group compared with others; and partly on the general conditions which determine the relations between labour, capital and production over the whole area in which the industrial competition is effective. (See A. L. Bowley's *Wages in the United Kingdom in the Nineteenth Century* (1900), § 3, for an account of the meaning and use of the average wage.)

Thus the theory of the wages question consists of two parts, or gives the answers to two questions: (1) What are the causes which determine the general rate of wages? (2) Why are wages in some occupations and at some times and places above or below this general rate?

With regard to the first question, Adam Smith, as in almost every important economic theory, gives an answer which comprises two views which were subsequently differentiated into antithesis. "The natural recompense or wages of labour," is the opening sentence of his chapter on wages. But then he goes on to say that "this original state of things, in which the labourer enjoyed the whole produce of his own labour, could not last beyond the first introduction of the appropriation of land and the accumulation of stock." And he thus arrives at the conclusion that "the demand for those who live by wages, it is evident, cannot increase but in proportion to the increase of the funds which are destined to the payment of wages." This is the germ of the celebrated wages-fund theory which was carried to an extreme by J. S. Mill and others; and, although Mill abandoned the theory some time before his death, he was unable to eradicate it from his systematic treatise and to reduce it to its proper dimensions. It is important to observe that in the hands of Mill this theory was by no means, as was afterwards maintained by Elliot Cairnes, a mere statement of the problem to be solved. According to Cairnes (*Leading Principles of Political Economy*, bk. ii.), the wages-fund theory, as given in Mill's *Principles* (bk. ii. ch. xi. § 1), embraces the following statements: (1) the wages-fund is a general term used to express the aggregate of all wages at any given time in possession of the labourers; (2) the amount of the fund depends on the proportion of this fund to the number of people; (3) the amount of the fund is determined by the amount of general wealth applied to the direct purchase of labour. These propositions Cairnes easily reduces to mere verbal statements, and he then states that the real difficulty is to determine the causes which govern the demand and supply of labour. But the most superficial glance, as well as the most careful survey, will convince the reader of Mill's chapters on wages that he regarded the theory not as the statement but as the solution of the problem. For he applies it directly to the determination of many important points in wages, to the criticism of popular remedies for low wages, and to the discovery of what be considers to be legitimate and possible remedies. In fact, it was principally on account of the application of the theory to concrete facts that it aroused so much opposition, which would have been impossible if it had been a mere statement of the problem.

The wages-fund theory as a real attempt to solve the wages question may be resolved into three propositions, which are very different from the verbal truisms of Cairnes. (1) In any country at any time there is a definite rate of amount of capital unconditionally destined for the payment of labour. This is the wages-fund. (2) There is also a determinate number of labourers who must work independently of the rate of wages—that is, whether the rate is high or low. (3) The wages-fund is distributed amongst the labourers solely by means of competition, masters competing with one another for labour, and labourers with one another for work, and thus the average rate of wages depends on the proportion between wage-capital and population. It follows then, according to this view, that wages can only rise either owing to an increase of capital or a diminution of population, and this accounts for the exaggerated importance attached by Mill to the Malthusian theory of population. It also follows from the theory that any restraint of competition in one direction can only cause a rise of wages by a corresponding fall in another quarter, and in this form it was the argument most frequently urged against the action of trade unions. It is worth noting, as showing the vital connexion of the theory with Mill's principles, that it is practically the foundation of his propositions on capital in his first book, and is also the basis of the exposition in his fourth book of the effects of the progress of society on the condition of the working-classes.

It has often been remarked that, in economics as in other sciences, what eventually assumes the form of the development of or supplement to an old theory at first appears as if in direct antagonism to it, and there is reason to think that the criticism of the wages-fund theory was carried to an extreme, and that the essential elements of truth which it contains were overlooked. In many respects the theory may be regarded as a good first approximation to the complete solution of the problem. The plan favoured by some modern economists of regarding wages simply as the price of labour determined as in the case of other prices solely by demand and supply, looked from some points of view, is apt to lead to a maladjustment of emoluments in other directions. The supply of labour, for example, is in many ways on a different footing from the supply of commodities. The causes which the wages-fund theory emphasizes too exclusively are after all *severa causae*, and must always be taken into account. There can be no doubt, for example, that under certain conditions a rapid increase in the labouring population may cause wages to fall, just as a rapid decline may make them rise.

The most striking example of a great improvement in the condition of the labouring classes in English economic history is found immediately after the occurrence of the Black Death in the middle of the 14th century. The sudden and extensive thinning of the ranks of labour was manifestly the principal cause of the great improvement in the condition of the survivors.

Again, as regards the amount of capital competing for labour, the reality of the cause admits of no dispute, at any rate in any modern society. The force of this element is perhaps best seen by taking a particular case and assuming that the general wages-fund of the country is divided into a number of smaller wages-funds. Take, for example, the wages of domestic servants when the payment of wages is made simply for the service rendered. We may fairly assume that the richer classes of the community practically put aside so much of their revenue for the payment of the wages of their servants. The aggregate of these sums is the domestic wages-fund. Now, if owing to any cause the amount available for this purpose falls off, whilst the number of those seeking that class of employment remains the same, the natural result would be a fall in wages. It may of course happen in this as in other cases that the result is not so much a direct effect on the wages of servants as a diminution of employment; but even in this case, if people employ fewer servants, they must do more work. Again, if we were to seek for the reason why the wages of governnesses are so low, the essence of the answer would be found in the excessive supply of that kind of labour compared with the funds destined for its support. And similarly through the whole range of employments in which the labour is employed in perishable services and not in material products, the wages-fund theory brings into prominence the principal causes governing the rate of wages, namely, the number of people competing, the amount of the fund, and it compels us to look for the effectiveness of the competition. This view also is in harmony with the great principles of demand and supply. If we regard labour as a commodity and wages as the price paid for it, then we may say that the price will be so adjusted that the quantity demanded
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will be made equal to the quantity offered at that price,—the agency by which the equation is reached being competition.

But when we turn to other facts for the verification of the theory we easily discover apparent if not real contradictions. The case of Ireland after the potato famine affords an instance of a rapidly declining population without any corresponding rise in wages, whilst in new countries we often find a very rapid increase of population accompanied by an increase in wages. In a similar manner we find that the capital of a country may increase rapidly without wages rising in proportion—as, for example, seems to have been the case in England after the great mechanical improvements at the end of the 18th century up to the repeal of the Corn Laws—whilst in new countries where wages are the highest there are generally complaints of the scarcity of capital. But perhaps the most striking conflict of the theory with facts is found in the periodical inflations and depressions of trade. After a commercial crisis, when the shock is over and the necessary liquidation has taken place, we generally find that there is a period during which there is a glut of capital and yet wages are low. The abundance of capital is shown by the low rate of interest and the difficulty of obtaining remunerative investments. Accordingly this apparent failure of the theory, at least partially, makes it necessary to examine the propositions into which it was resolved more carefully, in order to discover, in the classical economic phraseology, the "disturbing causes." As regards the first of these propositions—that there is always a certain amount of capital destined in reality for the employment of labour—it is plain that this destination is not really unconditional. In a modern society whether or not a capitalist will supply capital to labour depends on the rate of profit expected, and this again depends proximately on the course of prices. But the theory as stated can only consider profits and prices as acting in an indirect roundabout manner upon wages. If profits are high then more capital can be accumulated and there is a larger wages-fund, and if prices are high there may be some stimulus to trade, but the effect on real wages is considered to be very small.

In fact Mill writes it down as a popular delusion that high prices make high wages. And if the high prices are due purely to currency causes the criticism is in the main correct, and in some cases, as was shown above, high prices may mean real low wages. If, however, we turn to the great classes of employments in which the labour is embodied in a material product, we find on examination that wages vary with prices in a real and not merely in an illusory sense. Suppose, for example, that, owing to a great increase in the foreign demand for British produce, a rise in prices takes place, there will be a corresponding rise in nominal wages, and in all probability a rise in real wages. Such was undoubtedly the case in Great Britain on the conclusion of the Franco-German War.

On the other hand, if prices fall and profits are low, there will so far be a tendency to contract the employment of labour. At the same time, however, to some extent the capital is supplied unconditionally—in other words, without obtaining what is considered adequate remuneration, or even at a positive loss. The existence of a certain amount of fixed capital practically implies the constant employment of a certain amount of labour.

Nor is the second proposition perfectly true, namely, that there are always a certain number of labourers who must work independently of the rate of wages. For the returns of pauperism and other statistics show that there is always a proportion of "floating" labour sometimes employed and sometimes not. Again, although, as Adam Smith says, man is of all luggage the most difficult to be transported, still labour as well as capital may be attracted to foreign fields. The constant succession of strikes resorted to in order to prevent a fall in wages shows that in practice the labourers do not at once accept the "natural" market rate. Still, on the whole, this second proposition is a much more adequate expression of the truth than the first; for labour cannot afford to lie idle or to emigrate so easily as capital.

The third proposition, that the wages-fund is distributed solely by competition, is also found to conflict with facts. Competition may be held to imply in its positive meaning that every individual strives to attain his own economic interests regardless of the interests of others. But in some cases this end may be attained most effectively by means of combination, as, for example, when a number of people combine to create a practical monopoly. Again, the end may be attained by leaving the control to government, or by obeying the unwritten rules of a long-established custom. But these methods of satisfying economic interests are opposed to competition in the usual sense of the term, and certainly as used in reference to labour. Thus on the negative side competition implies that the economic interests of the persons concerned are attained neither by combination, nor by law, nor by custom. Again, it is also assumed, in making competition the principal distributing force of the national income, that every person knows what his real interests are, and that there is perfect mobility of labour both from employment to employment and from place to place. Without these assumptions the wages-fund would not be evenly distributed according to the quantity of labour. It is, however, obvious that, even in the present industrial system, competition is modified considerably by these disturbing agencies; and in fact the tendency seems to be more and more for combinations of masters on one side and of men on the other to take the place of the competition of individuals.

The attempted verification of the wages-fund theory leads to so many important modifications that it is not surprising to find that and thus in the wages of labour. Again, the older view was that capital must be first accumulated in order afterwards to be divided up into wages, as if apparently agriculture was the normal type of industry, and the workers must have a store to live on until the new crop was grown and secured. But the "produce" theory of wages considers that wages are paid continuously out of a continuous product, although in some cases they may be advanced out of capital or accumulated stores. According to this view wages are paid out of the annual produce of the land, capital and labour, and not out of the savings of previous years. Thus, the danger is in the attempt of the theory to an untenable extreme, and overlooking altogether the function of capital in determining wages; and the true solution seems to be found in a combination of the "produce" theory with the "fund" theory.

An industrial society may be regarded, in the first place, as a great productive machine turning out a vast variety of products for the consumption of the members of the society. The distribution of these products, so far as it is not modified by other social and moral conditions, depends upon the principle of "reciprocal demand." In a preliminary rough classification we may make three groups—the owners of land and natural agents, the owners of capital or reserved products and instruments, and the owners of labour. To obtain the produce requisite even for the necessary wants of the community a combination of these three groups must take place, and the relative reward obtained
by each will vary in general according to the demands of the others for its services. Thus, if capital, both fixed and circulating, is scanty, whilst labour and land are both abundant, the reward of capital will be high, simply because the price of wages. This is well illustrated in the high rate of profits obtained in early societies. According to this view of the question the aggregate amount paid in wages depends partly on the general productiveness of all the productive agents and partly on the relative power of the labourers as compared with the owners of land and capital (the amount taken by government and individuals for taxes, charity, &c., being omitted). Under a system of perfect industrial competition the general rate of wages would be so adjusted that the demand for labour would be just equal to the supply at that rate. (Compare Marshall's Principles of Economics, bk. vi. ch. ii.)

If all labour and capital were perfectly uniform it would not be necessary to carry the analysis further, but as a matter of fact, instead of two great groups of labourers and capitalists, we have a multitude of subdivisions all under the influence of reciprocal demand. Every subgroup tries to obtain as much as possible of the general product, which is practically always measured in money. The determination of relative wages depends on the constitution of these groups and their relations to one another. Under any given social conditions there must be differences of wages in different trades; which may be regarded as permanent until some change occurs in the conditions; in other words, certain differences of wages are stable or normal, whilst others depend simply on temporary fluctuations in demand and supply. A celebrated chapter in the Wealth of Nations (bk. i. ch. x.) is still the best basis for the investigation of these normal differences—which, as stated above, is the second principal problem of the wages question. First of all, a broad distinction may be drawn between the natural and artificial causes of difference, or, in Adam Smith's phraseology, between those due to the nature of the employments and those due to the policy of Europe. In the former division we have (1) the agreeableness or disagreeableness of the employment, illustrated by two classical examples—"honour makes a great part of the reward of all honourable professions," and "the most detestable of all employments—that of public executioner—is, in proportion to the work done, better paid than any common trade whatever." There is, however, much truth in Mill's criticism, that in many cases the worst paid of all employments are at the same time the most agreeable, and that men are drawn to them by the fact of it being almost entirely a matter of personal taste. (2) The economic law that education is practically no other thing than education in commerce, or, as Adam Smith puts it, "the backbone of the merchant, the strength of the merchant in a new country, is education, and education is no less necessary to the merchant than to the lawyer, the physician, and the clergyman. It is more necessary, because the merchant is almost always, in the proper sense of the word, a self-made man; the lawyer, the physician, and the clergyman are all brought up by education, and almost always the rich on forty pounds a year," whilst many only obtained £80 or £100 a year. The wages earned by a journeyman shoemaker. In the same way a state-aided education of a commercial and technical kind may result in lowering the rates (relatively) of the educated business classes. It is said that one reason why the Germans replace Englishmen in many branches is that, having obtained their education at a low rate, there are more of them qualified, and consequently they accept lower wages. The customary idea that the position of a clerk is more genteel than that of an artisan accounts largely for the excessive competition in the former class, especially now that education is practically universal. (3) In some cases law and custom may impede or promote the circulation of labour. At the time Adam Smith wrote the laws of settlement were still in full operation. "There is not a man of forty who has not felt most cruelly oppressed by this ill-considered law of settlement." Differences in wages in different parts of the same country and in different occupations are still largely due to impediments in the way of the movement of labour, which might be removed or lessened by the government making provisions for migration or emigration. (4) On many occasions in the past the law often directly interfered to regulate wages. The Statute of Labourers, passed immediately after the Black Death, was an attempt in this direction, but it appears to have failed, according to the investigations of Thorold Rogers. The same writer, however, ascribes to the celebrated Statute of Apprentices (5th of Elizabeth) the degradation of the English labourer for nearly three centuries (Agriculture and Prices, vol. v.). This, he asserts, was due to the wages being fixed by the justices of the peace. It is, however, worth noting that Bretonno, who is equally sympathetic with the claims of labour, especially in that so long as this statute was actually enforced, the customs founded upon it were observed, the condition of the labourers was prosperous, and that the degradation only began when the statute fell into disuse (Origin of Gilds and Trade Unions. For a full account of the effect of the Statute of Apprentices see W. Cunningham's Growth of English Industry and Commerce, vol. ii.).
WAGES

Something must be said as to the power of the state to regulate wages. As far as any direct regulation is concerned, it seems to be only possible within narrow limits. The state might of course institute certain complex sliding-scales for the payment of labour and make them compulsory, but this would rather be an official declaration of the natural market rate than a direct regulation. Any rate which the state of trade and prices would not bear could not be enforced: masters could not be compelled to work at a loss or to keep their capital employed when it might be more advantageous transferred to another place or occupation. Thus the legal rate could not exceed to any considerable extent the market rate. Nor, on the other hand, could a lower rate in general be enforced, especially when the labourers have the right of combination. Apart from this, the competition of capitalists for labour would tend to raise wages above the legal rate, and evasion would be extremely easy.

The best illustration of the failure to raise the rate of wages directly by authority is found in the English poor law system between 1796 and 1834. "In the former year (1796) the decisively fatal step of legalizing out-relief to the able-bodied, and in aid of wages, was taken," and "In February 1834 was published perhaps the most remarkable and startling document to be found in the English, perhaps in the whole of world, legislation of this kind," (Fowell's Poor Law). The essence of the system was in the justices determining a natural rate of wages, regard being paid to the price of necessaries and the size of the labourer's family, and an amount was given from the rates sufficient to make up the wages received to this natural level. The method of administration was certainly bad, but the best administration possible could only have kept the system in existence a few years longer. In one parish the poor-rate had swallowed up the whole value of the land, which was going out of cultivation, a fact which has an obvious bearing on land nationalization. But the fact remained that the workers became careless, inefficient and improvident. Those who were in regular receipt of relief were often better off (in money) than independent labourers. But the most important consequence was that the real wages obtained were, in spite of the relief, lower than otherwise they would have been, and a striking proof was given that wages are paid out of the produce of labour. The Report of the Poor Law Commissioners (1834) states emphatically (p. 48) that "the severest sufferers are those for whose benefit the system is supposed to have been introduced and to be perpetuated, the labourers and their families. In independent labour this suffering is directly felt by the unfair competition of the pauper labour, but, as one of the sub-reporters stated, in every district the general condition of the independent labourer was strikingly distinguishable from that of the pauper and superior to it, though the independent labourers were commonly maintained upon less money. In New Zealand and Australia in recent years a great extension has been made of the principle of state intervention in the regulation of wages.

But, although the direct intervention of the state, with the view of raising the nominal rates of wages, is, according to theory and experience, of doubtful advantage, still, when we consider real wages in the evident sense of the term, there seems to be an almost indefinite scope for state interference. The effect of the Factory Acts and similar legislation has been undoubtedly to raise the real wages of the working-classes as a whole, although at first the same arguments were used in opposition to these proposals as in the case of direct relief from the poor-rates. But there is a vital difference in the two cases, because in the former the tendency is to increase whilst in the latter it is to diminish the energy and spirit of the workers. An excellent summary of the results of this species of industrial legislation is given by John Morley (Life of Cobden, vol. i. p. 303):

"We have to-day a complete, minute, and voluminous code for the protection of labour: buildings must be kept pure of efluvia; dangerous machinery must be fenced; children and young persons must not clean it while in motion; their hours are not only limited but fixed; continuous employment must not exceed a given number of hours, varying with the trade but prescribed by the law in each case; a statuteable number of holidays is imposed; the children must go to school, and the employer must have every week a certificate to that effect; if an accident happens notice must be sent to the proper authorities; the unions have been made legal; houses, for lace-making, for colliers, and for a whole schedule of other special callings; for the due enforcement and vigilant supervision of this immense host of minute prescriptions there is a court of licensing and district inspectors, and other authorities whose business it is to 'speed and post o'er land and ocean' on sullen guardianship of every kind of labour, from that of the woman who plait straw at her cottage door to the mining louses, who descends into the bowels of the earth and the seaman who conveys the fruits and materials of universal industry to and fro between the remotest parts of the globe."

The analysis previously given of real wages shows that logically all these improvements in the conditions of labour, by diminishing the "quantity of labour" involved in work, are essentially a real rise in wages. Experience has also shown that the state may advantageously interfere in regulating the methods of paying wages. A curious poem, written about the time of Edward IV., on England's commercial policy (Political Songs and Poems, Rolls Series, i. 282), shows that even in the 15th century the "truck" system was in full operation, to the disadvantage of the labourers. The cloth-makers, in particular, compelled the workers to take half of their wages in merchandise which they estimated at higher than its real value. The writer proposes that the "truck folk be paid in good more," and his advice is enforced by law in the obscure ordinance of 14th century which is said to have been enacted in the 4th year of Edward IV. The Truck Acts have since been much further extended. Again, the legislation directed against the adulteration of all kinds of goods, which also finds its prototypes in the middle ages, is in its effects equivalent to a rise in real wages.

The power of trade unions in regulating wages is in most respects analogous in principle to that of legislation just noticed. Nominal wages can only be affected within comparatively narrow limits, depending on the condition of the trade and the state of prices, whilst in many cases there is a real rise in wages. The effect of trade unions may be accomplished by a corresponding depression elsewhere. At the same time, however, it can hardly be questioned that through the unions nominal wages have on the whole risen at the expense of profits—that is to say, that combinations of labourers can make better bargains than individuals. But the debatable margin which may make either extra profits or extra wages itself small, and the principal direct effect of trade unions is to make wages fluctuate with prices, a rise at one time being compensated by a fall at another. The interests of their members in many ways which improve their general condition or raise the real rate of wages, and when nominal wages have attained a natural maximum, and some method of arbitration or sliding-scale is in force, this indirect action means the principal function of trade unions. The effects of industrial partnership (cf. Sedley Taylor's Profit Sharing) and of productive co-operation (cf. Holyoake's History of Co-operation) are small in amount (compared with the total industry of any country) though excellent in kind, and there seem to be no signs of the decay of the entrepreneur system. Again, the effects of the industrial revolution which took place about the end of the 18th century, involving radical changes in production, destroyed the old relations between capital and labour, and perhaps the most interesting part of the history of wages is that covered by the 19th century. For fifty years after the introduction of production on a large scale, the condition of the working-classes was on the whole deplorable, but great progress has since been made. The principal results may be summed up under the effects of machinery and machinery affects the condition of the working-classes in many ways. The most obvious mode is the direct substitution of machinery for labour. It is clear that any sudden and extensive adoption of labour-saving machinery

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may, by throwing the labourers out of employment, lower the rate of wages, and it is easy to understand how riots arose repeatedly owing to this cause. But as a rule the effect of labour-saving machinery in diminishing employment has been greatly exaggerated, because two important practical considerations have been overlooked. In the first place, any radical change made in the methods of production will be only gradually and continuously adopted throughout the industrial world; and in the second place these radical changes, these discontinuous leaps, tend to give place to advances by small increments of invention. We have an instance of a great radical change in the steam-engine. Watt's patent for "a method of lessening" the consumption of steam and fuel in fire-engines was published on January 5, 1769, and the movement for utilizing steam-power still found room for extension for a century afterwards. The history of the power-loom again shows that the adoption of an invention is comparatively slow. In 1813 there were not more than 2400 power-looms at work in England. In 1820 they increased to 14,150. In 1853 there were 100,000, but the curious thing is that during this time the number of hand-looms had actually increased to some extent (Porter's Progress of the nation, p. 186). The power-loom also illustrates the gradual continuous growth of improvements. This is clearly shown by Porter. A very good hand-weaver, twenty-five or thirty years of age, could weave two-thirds of a yard per hour in 1823; a steam-loom weaver, about fifteen years of age, attending two looms, could weave nine similar pieces in a week. In 1826 a steam-loom weaver, about fifteen, attending to four looms, could weave twelve similar pieces a week. In 1833 a steam-loom weaver, from fifteen to twenty, assisted by a girl of twelve, attending to four looms, could weave eighteen pieces. This is only one example, for, as Porter remarks, it would fill many large volumes to describe the numerous inventions which during the 19th century imparted facility to manufacturing processes, and in every case we find a continuity in the improvements. It is this cumulative character of invention in favour of the labourer—in the first place, because in most cases the increased cheapness of the commodity consequent on the use of machinery causes a corresponding extension of the market and the amount produced, and thus there may be no actual diminution of employment even temporarily; and secondly, if the improvement takes place slowly, there is time for the absorption of the redundant labour in other employments. It is quite clear that on balance the great increase in population in the 19th century was largely caused, or rather rendered possible, by the increased use of machinery. In 1823 a steam-loom in which the working-classes were at first injured by the adoption of machinery was not so much by a diminution in the number of hands required as by a change in the nature of the employment. Skilled labour of a certain kind lost its peculiar value, and children and women were able to do work formerly only done by men. But the principal evils resulted from the wretched conditions under which, before the factory legislation, the work was performed; and there is good reason to believe that a deterioration of the type of labourer, both moral and physical, was effected. It is, however, a mistake to suppose that on the whole the use of machinery tends to dispense with skill. On the contrary, everything goes to prove that under the present system of production, and by a large scale there is on the whole far more skill required than formerly—a fact well brought out by Sir Robert Giffen in his essay on the progress of the working-classes (Essays on finance, vol. ii. p. 305), and expressed by the official reports on wages in different countries. (J. S. N.)

WAGGA-WAGGA, a town of Wynyard county, New South Wales, Australia, on the left bank of the river Murrumbidgee, 300 m. by rail S.W. of Sydney and 267 m. N.E. of Melbourne. Pop. (1901) 5114. The Murrumbidgee is here spanned by a steel viaduct, the approaches of which are formed by heavy embankments. Wagga-Wagga has a school of art with a library attached, a fine convent picturesquely situated on Mount Erin, a good racecourse and agricultural show-grounds. There is a considerable amount of gold-mining in the district, which, however, is chiefly pastoral, although cereals, tobacco and wine are produced in considerable quantities.

WAGNER, ADOLF (1835— ), German economist, was born at Erlangen on the 25th of March 1835. Educated at Göttingen and Heidelberg, he was professor of political science at Dorpat and Freiburg, and after 1870 at Berlin. A prolific writer on economic problems, he brought out in his study of the subject the close relation which necessarily exists between economics and jurisprudence. He ranks without doubt as one of the most eminent German economists and a distinguished leader of the historical school. His leanings towards Christian socialism made him one of those to whom the appellation of "Katheder Sozlisten" or "socialists of the (professional) chair" was applied, and he was one of the founders of the Verein für Socialpolitik. In 1871 he undertook, in conjunction with Professor E. Nasse (1829-1890), a new edition of Rau's Lehrbuch der politischen Ökonomie, and his own special contributions, the Grundlegung und Finanzwissenschaft, afterwards published separately, are probably his most important works. He approaches economic studies from the point of view that the doctrine of the jus naturae, on which the physiocrats reared their economic structure, has lost its hold on belief, and that the old a priori and absolute conceptions of personal freedom and property have given way to a closer and more practical rule. He lays down that the economic position of the individual, instead of depending merely on so-called natural rights or even on his natural powers, is conditioned by the contemporary juristic system, which is itself an historical product. These conceptions, therefore, of freedom and property, half economic, half juristic, require a fresh examination. Wagner accordingly investigates, before anything else, the conditions of the economic life of the community, and in sub-ordination to this, determines the sphere of the economic freedom of the individual. Among his works are Beiträge zur Lehre von der nationalen Wirtschaft (1869-1870), Grundlegung und Finanzwissenschaft (1870-1873) and Agrar- und Industriesaat (1902).

His brother, HERMANN WAGNER (1840— ), a distinguished geographer, joined the Geographical Institute of Justus Perthes in 1868, and was editor of the statistical section of the Gothaer Almanack up to 1876. In 1872 he founded Die Bevölkerung der Erde, a critical review of area and population, and in 1880 he was appointed professor of geography at Gottingen. He was editor of the Geographisches Jahrbuch from 1880 to 1908. His publications include Lehrbuch der Geographie (7th ed., 1903) and Mecklenburgische Schauplätze (12th ed., 1907).

WAGNER, RUDOLPH (1805-1864), German anatomist and physiologist, was born on the 30th of June 1805 at Bayreuth, where his father was a professor in the gymnasium. He began the study of medicine at Erlangen in 1822, and finished his curriculum in 1826 at Würzburg, where he had attached himself mostly to J. L. Schönlein in medicine and to K. F. Heseinger in comparative anatomy. Aided by a public stipendium, he spent a year or more studying in the Jardin des Plantes, under the friendly eye of Cuvier, and in making zoological discoveries at Cagliari and other places on the Mediterranean. On his return he set up in medical practice at Augsburg, whether his father had been transferred; but in a few months he found an opening for an academical career, on being appointed prosecutor at Erlangen. In 1832 he became full professor of zoology and comparative anatomy there, and held that office until 1840, when he was called to succeed J. F. Blumenbach at Gottingen. At the Hanoverian university he remained till his death, being much occupied with administrative work as pro-rector for a number of years, and for nearly the whole of his residence troubled by ill-health (phthisis). In 1856 he gave over the physiological part of his teaching to a new chair, retaining the zoological, with which his career had begun. While at Frankfurt, on his way to examine the Neanderthal skull at Bonn, he was struck with paralysis, and died at Gottingen a few months later on the 13th of May 1864.

Wagner's activity as a writer and worker was enormous, and his range extensive, most of his hard work having been done at Erlangen while his health was good. His graduation thesis was on the
ambitious subject of "the historical development of epidemic and contagious diseases all over the world, with their laws of their diffusion," which showed the influence of Schönlein. His first treatise was 

Die Naturgeschichte des Menschen (in 2 vols., Kempen, 1831). Frequent journeys abroad gave him abundant materials for research on invertebrate anatomy and physiology, which he communicated first to the Munich academy of sciences, and republished in his Beiträge zur vergleichenden Anatomie, 1830, 1832, and 1836. He published a twelfth book of Zoology (Leipzig, 1838). In 1834-1835 he brought out a textbook on the subject of his chair (Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Anatomie, Leipzig), which recommended itself to students by its clear and comprehensive descriptions. He published also in 1843 a second edition of Lehrbuch der Zootomie, of which only the vertebrate section was corrected by himself. The precision of his earlier work is evidenced by the large amount of subsequent literature that was produced. He also wrote a handbook of \(\text{Allgemeine Physiologie der Pflanzen}^1\) (Leipzig, 1834). His zoological labours may be said to conclude with the atlas Icones zoologicae (Leipzig, 1841). In 1835 he communicated to the Munich academy of sciences his researches on the brain, and in 1836 a bold attempt was made to include the famous discovery of the germinal vesicle of the human ovum. These were republished under the title Promodromi historiae \(\text{generallis hominis}^1\) (Leipzig, 1835). In zoology, he contributed several articles to the Zoologische Jahrbücher (Leipzig, 1838), and a treatise on Physiologie der Pflanzen (Leipzig, 1839). In the same year he published his study on beagles, and brought out the fifth (supplementary) volume in 1852; the only contributions of his own in it were on the sympathy nerve, ganglia and nerve-endings, and he modestly disclaimed all merit except as being the organism representing the results of his long labours. He occupied himself with researches on the electrical organ of the torpedo and on nervous organization generally; these he published in 1853-1854 (\text{Neurologische Untersuchungen}, Göttingen), and therewith his physiological labours may be said to end. His next period was stormy and controversial. He entered the lists boldly against the materialism of \textit{Stoff und Kraft}, and avowed himself a Christian believer, whereupon he lost the countenance of a number of his old friends and pupils, and was unfeignedly told that he was suffering from an "atrophy of the brain." His quarrel with the materialists began with a paper read at the meeting of the Göttinger Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften in 1854, on "Menschenskopf und Seelensubstanz." This was followed by a series of "Physiological Letters" in the \textit{Allgemeine Zeitung}, by an essay on "Glauben und Wissen," and by the book "Der Kampf um die Seele" (Göttingen, 1857). Having come to the consideration of these philosophical problems late in life, he was at some disadvantage; but he endeavoured to join as he best could in the current of contemporary scientific and religious thought. He maintained his knowledge of German writings, especially more of Goethe’s, and of the literature connected with him. In what may be called his fourth and last period, Wagner became anti-theologian and agnostic, occupied himself with the cabinet of skulls in the Göttinger museum collected by Blumenbach and with the excavation of prehistoric remains, corresponded actively with the anthropological societies of Paris and London, and organized, in co-operation with the veteran K. E. von Baer, a successful congress of anthropologists at Göttingen in 1861. His last writings were memoirs on the convulsions of the human brain, on the weight of brains, and on the brains of idiots (1860-1862).

See memoir by his eldest son in the \textit{Göttinger gelehrte Anzeigen}, \textit{Nachrichten} for 1864.

WAGNER, WILHELM RICHARD (1813-1883), German dramatic composer, poet, essay-writer, was born at Leipzig on the 22nd of May 1813. In 1822 he was sent to the Kreuzschule at Dresden, where he did so well that, four years later, he translated the first twelve books of the \textit{Bodicey} for amusement. In 1831 he composed his \textit{Ludwig von der Nietzsche}, a little oratorio, of which no trace remains. His first music master was Gottlob Müller, who thought him self-willed and eccentric; and his first production as a composer was an overture, performed at the Leipzig theatre in 1830. In that year he matriculated at the university, and took lessons in composition from Theodor Weinlig, cantor at the Thomasschule. A symphony was produced at the Gewandhaus concerts in 1833, and in the following year he was appointed conductor of the opera at Magdeburg. The post was unprofitable, and Wagner’s life at this period was very unsettled. He had composed an opera called \textit{Die Feen} adapted by himself from Goethe’s \textit{La Devon Serpent} and another, \textit{Das Liebesverbot}, founded on Shakespeare’s \textit{Measure for Measure}, but only \textit{Das Liebesverbot} obtained a single performance in 1836.

In that year Wagner married Wilhelmina Planer, an actress at the theatre at Königsberg. He had accepted an engagement there as conductor; but, the lessee becoming bankrupt, the scheme was abandoned in favour of a better appointment at Riga. Accepting this, he remained actively employed until 1839, when he made his first visit to Paris, taking with him an unfinished opera based on Bulwer Lytton’s \textit{Rienzi}, and, like his earlier efforts, his own libretto. The venture proved most unfortunate. Wagner failed to gain a footing, and his work, destined for the Grand Opera, was rejected. He completed it, however, and in 1842 it was produced at Dresden, where, with Madame Schroeder Devrient and Herr Tichatschek in the principal parts, it achieved a success which went far to make him famous.

But though in \textit{Rienzi} Wagner had shown energy and ambition, that work was far from representing his preconceived ideas. This he now endeavoured to embody in \textit{Der fliegende Holländer}, for which he designed a libretto quite independent of any other treatment of the legend. The piece was warmly received at Dresden on the 13th of January 1843; but its success was by no means equal to that of \textit{Rienzi}. Speroh, however, promptly discovered its merits, and produced it at Cassel some months later, with very favourable results.

On the 2nd of February 1843 Wagner was formally installed as Hofkapellmeister at the Dresden theatre, and he soon set to work on a new opera. He chose the legend of Tannhäuser, collecting his materials from the ancient \textit{Tannhäuser-Lied}, the \textit{Vokabuch}, Tieck’s poetical \textit{Erzahlung}, Hoffmann’s story of \textit{Der Fliegende Holländer}, and Tieck’s poem for \textit{The Wartburg}. This material Wagner introdced into the initial scene of \textit{Lotherranigrin}, and so led Wagner to study of Wolfram von Eschenbach’s \textit{Parzival} and \textit{Titurel}, with great results later on. But for the present he confined himself to the subject in hand; and on the 10th of October 1845 he produced his \textit{Tannhäuser}, with Schroeder Devrient, Johanna Wagner, Tichatschek and Mitterwurzer in the principal parts. Notwithstanding this powerful cast, the success of the new work was not brilliant, for it carried still further the principles embodied in \textit{Der fliegende Holländer}, and the time was not ripe for them. But Wagner never lost heart, and managed to bring his \textit{Tannhäuser} through its earlier engagements (1845-1846) of which he was not taken part in the political agitations of 1849, after which his position in Dresden became untenable. In fact, after the flight of the king and the subsequent suppression of the riots, a warrant was issued for his arrest; and he had barely time to escape to Weimar, where Liszt was at that moment engaged in preparing \textit{Tannhäuser} for performance, before the storm burst upon him with alarming violence. In all haste Liszt procured a passport and escorted his guest as far as Eisenach. Wagner fled to Paris and thence to Zürich, where he lived in almost unbroken retirement until the autumn of 1859. During this period most of his prose works—including \textit{Oper und Drama, Über das Dirigieren, Das Judentum in der Musik}—were given to the world.

The medieval studies which Wagner had begun for his work at the libretto of \textit{Tannhäuser} bore rich fruit in his next opera \textit{Lohengrin}, in which he also developed his principles on a larger scale and with a riper technique than hitherto. He had completed the work before he fled from Dresden, but could not get it produced. But he took the score with him to Paris, and, as he himself tells us, when ill, miserable and despairing, that brooding over my fate, my eyes fell on the score of \textit{Lohengrin}, which I had totally forgotten. Suddenly I felt something like compassion that the music should never sound off from the death-pale paper. Two words I wrote to Liszt; his answer was the news that preparations were being made for the performance of the work, on the grandest scale that the limited means of Weimar would permit. Everything that care and accessories

1 The composer’s niece.
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could do was done to make the design of the piece understood. Lobengrin was, in fact, produced at Weimar under Liszt's direction on the 28th of August 1850. It was a severe trial to Wagner not to hear his own work, but he knew that it was in good hands, and he responded to Liszt's appeal for a new creation by studying the Nibelungenlied and generally shaping it into a grand opera. At this time also he first began to lay out the plan of Tristan und Isolde, and to think over the possibilities of Parsifal.

During his exile Wagner matured his plans and perfected his musical style; but it was not until some considerable time after his return that any of the works he then meditated were placed upon the stage. In 1855 he accepted an invitation to London, where he conducted the concerts of the Philharmonic Society with great success. In 1857 he completed the libretto of Tristan und Isolde at Venice, adopting the Celtic legend modified by Gottfried von Strassburg's 8th-century version. But the music was delayed until the strange incident of a message from the emperor of Brazil encouraged Wagner to complete it in 1859. In that year Wagner visited Paris for the third time; and after much negotiation, in which he was nobly supported by the Prince and Princess Metternich, Tannhäuser was accepted at the Grand Opéra. Magnificent preparations were made; it was rehearsed 104 times, 14 times with the full orchestra; and the scenery and dresses were placed entirely under the composer's direction. More than 5000 was expended upon the venture; and the work was performed for the first time in the French language and with the new Venusberg music on the 13th of March 1861. But, for political reasons, a powerful clique was determined to suppress Wagner. A scandalous riot was inaugurated by the members of the Parisian Jockey Club, who interrupted the performance with howls and dog-whistles; and after the third representation the opera was withdrawn. Wagner was broken-hearted.

The Princess Metternich continued to befriend him, and by 1860 she had obtained a pardon for his political offences, with permission to settle in any part of Germany except Saxony. Even this restriction was removed in 1862.

He settled for a time in Vienna, where Tristan und Isolde was accepted, but abandoned after fifty-seven rehearsals, through the incompetence of the tenor. Lobengrin was, however, produced on the 15th of May 1861, when Wagner heard it for the first time. His circumstances were now extremely straitened; it was the darkness before dawn. In 1863 he published the libretto of Der Ring des Nibelungen. King Ludwig of Bavaria was much struck with it, and in 1864 invited Wagner, who was then at Stuttgart, to come to Munich and finish his work there. Wagner accepted with rapture. The king gave him an annual grant of 1200 guineas (£240), considerably enlarging it before the end of the year, and placing a comfortable house in the outskirts of the city at his disposal. The master expressed his gratitude in a "Huldigungsmarsch." In the autumn he was formally commissioned to proceed with the tetralogy and to furnish proposals for the building of a theatre and the foundation of a Bavarian music school. All promised well, but no sooner did his position seem assured than a miserable court intrigue was formed against him. His political indiscretions at Dresden were made the excuse for bitter persecutions; scandalmongers made his friendship with the ill-fated king a danger to both; and Wagner was obliged to retire to Triebchen near Lucerne for the next six years.

On the 10th of June 1865 at Munich, Tristan und Isolde was produced for the first time, with Herr and Frau Schnorr in the principal parts. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg, first sketched in 1843, was completed in 1867 and first performed at Munich under the direction of Hans von Bölow on the 21st of June 1868.

The story, though an original one, is founded on the character of Hans Sachs, the poet-shoemaker of Nuremberg. The success of the opera was very great; but the production of the Nibelungen-tetralogy as a whole still remained impracticable, though Das Rheingold and Die Walküre were performed, the one on the 22nd of September 1869 and the other on the 26th of June 1870. The scheme for building a new theatre at Munich having been abandoned, there was no opera-house in Germany fit for so colossal a work. A project was therefore started for the erection of a suitable building at Bayreuth (q.v.). Wagner laid the first stone of this in 1872, and the edifice was completed, after almost insuperable difficulties, in 1876. After this Wagner resided permanently at Bayreuth, in a house named Wahnfried, in the garden of which he built his tomb. His first wife, from whom he had parted since 1861, died in 1865; and in 1870 he was united to Liszt's daughter Cosima, who had previously been the wife of von Bülow. Meantime Der Ring des Nibelungen was rapidly approaching completion, and on the 13th of August 1876 the introductory portion, Das Rheingold, was performed at Bayreuth for the first time as part of the great whole, followed on the 14th by Die Walküre, on the 16th by Siegfried and on the 17th by Götterdämmerung. The performances, directed by Hans Richter, excited extraordinary attention; but the expenses were enormous, and burdened the management with a debt of £7,500. A small portion of this was raised (at great risk) by performances at the Albert Hall in London, conducted by Wagner and Richter, in 1877. The remainder was met by the profits upon performances of the tetralogy at Munich.

Wagner's next and last work was Parsifal, based upon the legend of the Holy Grail, as set forth, not in the legend of the Morte d'Arthur, but in the versions of Chrétien de Troyes and Wolfram von Eschenbach and other less-known works. The libretto was complete before his visit to London in 1877. The music was begun in the following year, and completed at Palermo on the 13th of January 1882. The first sixteen performances took place at Bayreuth, in July and August 1882, under Wagner's own directing, and fully realized all expectations.

Unhappily the exertion of directing so many consecutive performances seems to have been too much for the veteran master's strength, for towards the close of 1882 his health began to decline rapidly. He spent the autumn at Venice, and was well enough on Christmas Eve to conduct his early symphony (composed in 1853) at a private performance given at the Liceo Marzello. But late in the afternoon of the 13th of February his friends were shocked by his sudden death from heart-failure.

Wagner was buried at Wahnfried in the tomb he had himself prepared, on the 18th of February; and a few days afterwards King Ludwig rode to Bayreuth alone, and at dead of night, to pay his last tribute to the master of his world of dreams. (W.S.R.; D.F.T.)

In the articles on Music and Opera, Wagner's task in music-drama is described, and it remains here to discuss his progress in the operas themselves. This progress has perhaps no parallel in any art, and certainly none in music, for even Beethoven's six symphonies was merely an increase in range and power. Beethoven, we know, lost sympathy with his early works as he grew older; but that was because his later works absorbed his interest, not because his early works misrepresented his ideals. Wagner's earlier works have too long been treated as if they represented the pure and healthy childhood of his later ideal; as if Lobengrin stood to Parsifal as Haydn, Mozart and early Beethoven stand to Beethoven's last quartets. But Wagner never thus represented the childhood of an ideal, though he attained the manhood of the most comprehensive ideal yet known in art. To change the metaphor—the ideal was always in sight, and Wagner never swerved from his path towards it; but that path began in a blaze of garish false lights, and it had become very tortuous before the light of day prevailed. Beethoven was trained in the greatest and most advanced musical tradition of his time. For all his Wagnerian impatience, his progress was no struggle from out of a squalid environment; on the contrary, one of his latest discoveries was the greatness of his master Haydn. Now Wagner's excellent teacher Weinlig did certainly, as Wagner himself testifies, teach him more of good music than Beethoven,
Haydn and Mozart could have seen in their youth; for he showed Beethoven. But this would not help Wagner to feel that contemporary music was really a great art; indeed it could only show him that he was growing up in a pseudo-classical time, in which the approval of persons of "good taste" was seldom directed to things of vital promise. Again, he began with far greater facility in literature than in music, if only because a play can be copied ten times faster than a full score. Wagner was always an omnivorous reader, and books were then, as now, both cheaper than music and easier to read. Moreover, the higher problems of rhythmic movement in the classical sonata forms are far beyond the scope of academic teaching, whereas the dramatic context is a matter of musical design; and the instrumental music which was considered the highest style of art in 1830 was as far beyond Wagner's early command of such plausibility as it was obviously already becoming a mere academic game. Lastly, the rules of that game were useless on the stage, and Wagner soon found in Meyerbeer a master of grand opera who was dazzling the world by means which merely disgusted the more serious academic musicians of the day.

But to Rienzi Wagner would already have been Meyerbeer's rival, but that his sincerity, and his initial lack of that musical savoir faire which is prior to the individual handling of ideas, put him at a disadvantage. Though Meyerbeer wrote music that is intrinsically more dull and vulgar than the overture to Rienzi, he never combined such serious efforts with a technique so like that of a military bandleader. The step from Rienzi to Der fliegende Holländer is without parallel in the history of music, and would be inexplicable if Rienzi contained nothing good and if Der fliegende Holländer did not contain many reminiscences of the decline of Italian opera; but it is noticeable that in this contradepose into vulgar music have a distinct dramatic value. Though Wagner cannot as yet be confidently credited with a satiric intention in his bathos, the fact remains that all the Rossinian passages are associated with the character of Daland, so as to express his vulgar delight at the prospect of finding a rich son-in-law in the mysterious Dutch seaman. Meanwhile the rest of the work (except in the prettily scored "Spinning Song," and other harmless and vigorous tunes) has more affinity with Wagner's mature style than the bulk of its more ambitious successors. Rienzi shows a marked attempt to shake off the Germanic influence, which has here become more highly organized and less unequal than that of Tannhäuser; and although Wagner uses less Leit-motif than Weber (see OPERA, Adams) and divides the piece into "numbers" of classical size, the effect is so continuous that the divisions could hardly be guessed by ear. Moreover, the work was intended to be in one act, and is now so performed at Bayreuth; and, although it is very long for a one-act opera, this is certainly the only form which does justice to Wagner's conception.

Spohr's appreciation of Der fliegende Holländer is a remarkable point in musical history; and his criticism that Wagner's style (in Tannhäuser) "lacked rounded periods" shows the best effect of that style on a well-disposed contemporary mind. Of course, from Wagner's mature point of view his early style is far too much cut up by periods and full closes; and its prophetic traits are so incomparably more striking than its resemblance to any earlier art that we often feel that only the full closes stand between it and the true Wagner. But Spohr would feel Wagner's works to be an advance upon contemporary romantic opera rather than a foreshadowing of an unknown future. When we listen to the free declamation of the singers at the outset of Der fliegende Holländer—a declamation which is accompanied by an orchestral and thematic texture as far removed from that of mere recitative as it is from the forms of the classical aria—the repetition of a whole sentence in order to form a firm musical close has almost as quaint a ring as a Shakespearean rhymed tag would have in a prose drama of Ibsen. To Spohr the frequency of these incidents must have produced the impression that Wagner was perpetually beginning arias and breaking them off at once. With all its defects, Der fliegende Holländer is the most masterly and the least unequal of Wagner's early works. As drama it stood immeasurably above any opera since Cherubini's Medée. As a complete fusion between dramatic and musical movement, it is very credits point to its immense advance towards the collapse of the principle of a separate art in music. The operatic style of the 18th century was beyond the genius of the 18th century; but the opera of the 19th century was an attempt to bring music and literature to a higher state of maturity than that of the 18th century. Wagner's genius was a practical as well as a profound mind; and it was not only his operatic style that was the result of his world-wide reading and constant study of the literature of his time. Wagner was a practical man who worked to his own advantage, and he found a practical method to achieve his ends. It is not surprising, therefore, that he should have made so rapid a progress in the field of music.
a very modest reform compared to the banalistic "extra attractions" of every new production of Meyerbeer's.

But there is another side to the picture. With the growing certainty of touch a stiffness of movement appears which gradually disturbs the listener who can appreciate freedom, whether in the classical forms which Wagner plays, or for their operatic connotation or the material flow of the earlier style. Full closes and repeated sentences no longer confuse the issue, but in their absence we begin to notice the incessant squareness of the ostensibly free rhythms. The immense amount of pageantry, though (as in Tannhäuser) good in dramatic motive and executed with splendid stage-craft, goes far to stultify Wagner's already vigorous attitude of protest against grand-opera methods; by way of preparation for the eternally poetic end he gives us a disinfected present from Meyerbeer at the beginning of the last scene, where mounted trumpeters career round the stage in full blast for three long minutes; and the prelude to the third act is an outburst of sheer gratuitous vulgarity. Again, the anti-Wagnerians were entirely justified in penetrating below the splendidly simple and original orchestration of the night-scene between Ortrud and Telramund, and pointing out how feebly its music drifts among a dozen vague keys by means of the diminished 7th; a device which teachers have tried to weed out of every high-flying exercise since that otiose chord was first discovered in the 17th century. The mature Wagner would not have carried out twenty bars in his flattest scenes with so little musical invention. It was in the Tannhäuser that he showed with what desperate effort he was able to work as a man of thirty-five whose claims and aspirations already purport to dwarf the whole record of the classics.

And the defects are in all respects commonplace; they have no resemblance to that uncanny discomfort which often warns the wise critic that he is dealing with an immortal.

The crowning complication in the effect of Der fliegende Holländer, Tannhäuser and Lohengrin on the musical thought of the 19th century was that the unprecedented fusion of their musical with their dramatic contents revealed some of the meaning of serious music to ears that had been deaf to the classics. Wagnerism was henceforth proclaimed to have absorbed the arts of babes and sucklings; learned musicians felt that it had an unfair advantage; and by the time Wagner's popularity began to thrive as a persecuted heresy he had left it in the lurch.

Wagner had hardly finished the score of Lohengrin before he was at work upon the poem of Der Ring des Nibelungen. And with this he suddenly became a mature artist. On a superficial view this is a paradox, for there are many more violations of probability and much graver faults of structure in the later works than in the earlier. Every critic could recognize the stricter form in the Ring than in the Tannhäuser; he had no difficulty in discovering the similarities in the music, the economy of motives and the unifying features of this second work. The Ring is a perfectly organic whole; the music that Wagner wrote for it is unassailable on the basis of a philosophical attitude by love which Wagner strenuously preaches in a passage at the end which remained untested because he considered it already expressed by the music. Indeed, though Wagner's later treatment of love is perhaps the main source of his present popularity it seldom rises to his loftiest regions except where it is thwarted.

The love that is disguised in the deadly feud between Isolde and Tristan, before the drinking of the fatal potion, rises even above the music; the love-duet in the second act depends for its greatness on its introduction, before the lovers have met, and its wonderful slow movement (shortly before the catastrophe) where they are almost silent and leave everything to the music; the intervening twenty minutes is an exhausting storm in which the words are the sophisticated rhetoric of a 19th-century novel of passion, translated into terribly turgid verse and set to music that is more interesting as an intellectual ferment than effective as a representation of emotions which previous dramatists have wisely left to the imagination. But so long as we treat Wagner like a prose philosopher, a librettist, a poet, a mere musician, or anything short of the complex and many-sided artist he really is, we shall find insuperable obstacles to understanding at all points, only to be thwarted by repeated attempts to allegorize the philosophy of Schopenhauer; all efforts to read a consistent scheme, ethical or philosophical, into the result are doomed to failure; but all this matters little, so long as we have Wagner's unfailing later resources in those higher dramatic verities which present to us emotions and actions, human and divine, as things essentially complex and conflicting, inevitable as natural laws, incalculable as natural phenomena.

Wagner's choice of subjects had from the outset shown an imagination far above that of any earlier librettist; yet he had begun with stories which could attract ordinary minds, as he dismayed even his closest friends when he heard them. He had a flinty mind and once he had grasped the idea of a thing he would not be satisfied until he realized it. Thus it is that after he had long pondered over the idea of the Ring, he finally sent a letter to his friend, the composer of the Fliegende Holländer, so pleased that the Parisian wire-pullers that it was promptly set to music by one of their friends. But with Der Ring des Nibelungen Wagner devoted himself to a story which any ordinary dramatist would find as unwieldy as, for instance, most of Shakespeare's subjects; a story in which ordinary canons of taste and probability were violated as they are in real life and in great art.

Wagner's first inspiration was for an opera (Siegfried's Tod, projected in 1848) on the death of Germany's mythical hero; but he found that the story needed a preliminary drama to convey its preconditions. This preliminary drama soon proved to need another to explain it, which again finally needed a short introductory drama. Thus the plan of the Ring was sketched in reverse order; and it has been remarked that Götterdämmerung
shows traces of the fact that Wagner had begun his scheme in the
days when French grand opera, with its ballets and pageantry,
still influenced him. There is little doubt that some redundant
narratives in the Ring were of earlier conception than the four
complete dramas, and that their survival is due partly to Wagner's
natural affection for work on which he had spent pains, and partly
to a dim notion that (like Browning's method in The Ring and
the Beak) they might serve to reveal the story after in the light
of each character. Be this as it may, we may confidently date
the purification of Wagner's music at the moment when he set
work on a story which carried him finally away from that
world of stereotyped operatic passions into which he had already
breathed so much disturbing life.

The disturbing life already appears in Der fliegende Holländer,
at the point where Senta's father enters with the Dutchman,
and Senta (who is already in an advanced state of Schwärmerei
over the legend of the Flying Dutchman) stands rooted to the
spot, comparing the living Dutchman with his portrait which
hangs over the door. The conflict between her passionate fascina-
tion and her disgust at her father's vulgarity is finely realized
both in music and drama; but, if we are able to appreciate it,
then the operatic convention by which Senta avows her passion
becomes crude. Ethical and operatic points of view are similarly
confused when it is asserted that the Flying Dutchman can be
saved by a faithful woman; though it appears from the relations
between Senta and Erik that so long as the woman is faithful
to the Dutchman it does not matter that she jilts some one else.
Erik's passionate claim to accept Elsa without operatic tenor
if his claim on Senta had been less complete. In Tannhäuser
and Lohengrin Wagner's intellectual power develops far more
rapidly in the drama than in the music. The Sängerkrieg, with
its disastrous conflict between the sincere but unnatural asceticism
of the orthodox Minnesingers and the irrepressible human passion
of Tannhäuser, is a conception the vitality of which would
reduce Tannhäuser's repentance to the level of Robert le Diable,
were it not that the music of the Sängerkrieg has no structural
power, and little distinction beyond a certain poetic value in the
tones of violas which had long ago been fully exploited by
Mozart and Méhul, while the music of Tannhäuser's pilgrimage
ranks with the Vorspiel to Lohengrin as a wonderful foreshadow-
ing of Wagner's mature style. Again, the appeal to "God's
judgment" in the trial by battle in Lohengrin is a subject of
which no earlier librettist could have made more than a plausible
mess— which is the best that can be said for the music as music.

But as dramatist Wagner compels our respect for the power that
without gloss or apology brings before us the king, a model of
royal fair-mindedness and good-nature, acquiescing in Tel-
ramund's passionate claim to accept Elsa without operatic tenor,
simply because it is a hard and self-evident fact that the persons
of the drama live in an age in which such claims seemed reason-
able. Telramund, again, is no ordinary operatic villain; there
is genuine tragedy in his moral ruin; and even the melodramatic
Ortrud is a much more life-like intrigante than might be inferred
from Wagner's hyperbolical stage-directions, which almost
always show his manner at its worst.

In Lohengrin we take leave of the early music that obscured
Wagner's ideals, and in the Ring we come to the music which
transcends them all. Here one shakes off the shadow of an artist
a man of more urbane literary intellect he might have been less
ambitious of expressing a world-philosophy in music-drama;
and it is just conceivable that the result might have been a less
interruption of dramatic movement in his later works, and a balance
of ethical ideas at once more subtle and more orthodox. But
it is much more likely that Wagner would then have found his
artistic difficulties too formidable to let the ideas descend to us
from Walhalla and the Hall of the Grail at all. More than a
modicum of rusticity is needed as a protection to a man who
attempts such colossal reforms. This necessity had its conse-
quences in the disguising inequalities of Wagner's early work,
and the undeniable egotism that embittered his fiery nature
throughout his life; while the cut-and-dried system of culture
of later Wagnerian discipleship has revenged him in a specially
sacerdotal type of tradition, which makes progress even in the
study of his works impossible except through revolt. Such are
the penalties exacted by the irony of fate for the world's
persecution of its prophets.

Genuinely dramatic music, even if it seem as purely musical
as Mozart's, must always be approached through its drama; and
Wagner's masterpieces demand that we shall use this approach;
but, as with Mozart, we must not stop on the threshold. Within
Mozart there is no temptation to do so. But with Wagner, just
as there are people who have never tried to follow a sonata but
who have been awakened by his music-dramas to a sense of the
possibilities of serious music, so there are lovers of music who
awow that they owe to Wagner their appreciation of poetry.
But people whose love of literature is more independent find it
hard to take Wagner's poetry and prose seriously, unless they
have already measured him by his music. He effected no reform
in literature; his metatelic adherence to the archaic alliteration
of the Nibelungenlied is not allied with any sense of beauty in
verbal sound or verse-rhythm; and his ways of expressing
emotion in language consist chiefly in the piling-up of super-
latives. Yet he was too full of dramatic inspiration to remain
perpetually victimized by the conscientious affectations of the
amateur author; and, where dramatic situations are not only
poetical but (as in the first act of Die Walküre and the Waldfeben
scene in Siegfried) too elemental for strained language, Wagner
is often supremely eloquent simply because he has no occasion
to try to write poetry. Sometimes, too, when a great dramatic
climax has given place to a perfect expression of all that can
be said on a theme, the language he has used is no less
meritorious than what a poet might have written; but the
lyricism and the poetic quality in the music are so great, and
the historical content and the contemplative tone are so
intimately blended, that the language is in the last analysis
merely an effective means of bringing us to the end of the
passion, to the height of the emotion, of the music, and of the
novel and the drama, in a way that the language of a poet
would be powerless to bring about. To know his music is to
know all literature; to know all literature is to know Wagner's
music.

If we wish to know what Wagner means, we must fight our
way through his drama to his music; and we must not expect
to find that each phrase in the mouth of the actor corresponds
word for note with the music. That sort of correspondence
Wagner leaves to his imitators; and his views on "Leit-motif-
hunting," as expressed in his prose writings and conversation,
are contemptuously tolerant. We shall indeed find that his
orchestra interprets the dramatic situations which his poetry
roughly outlines. But we shall also find that, even if we could
conceive the poet's words will to be a perfect expression of all
that can be said in words and actions, the orchestra will express
something greater; it will not run parallel with the poetry; the
Leitmotiv system will not be a collection of labels; the musical expression
of singer and orchestra will not be a mere heightened resource
of dramatic declamation. All that kind of pre-established harmony
Wagner left behind him the moment he deserted the heroes and
villains of romantic opera for the visionary and true tragedy of
gods and demi-gods, giants and gnomes, with beauty, nobility
and love in the wrong, and the forces of destruction and hate
sent to vindicate them. Let us illustrate Wagner's mature use of Leitmotiv by the theme
which happens to be associated with Alberich's ring. The fact
that this theme is commonly called the "Ring-motif" is a glaring
instance of what Wagner has had to endure from his friends.
Immediate as the ring is throughout the tetralogy, Wagner would
no more think of associating a theme with it for its own sake
than he would think of associating a theme with Wotan's hat.
Why should a Ring-motif be transformed into the theme repres-
senting Walhalla? Are we to guess that the connexion of ideas
is that Wotan had eventually to pay for Walhalla by the ring?
If we are to the circumstances under which this theme arises,
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The Rhine-daughters have been teasing the Nibelung Alberich,
and are rejoicing in the light of the Rhine-gold which shines at
the top of a rock as the sun strikes it through the water. Alberich does not think much of the gold if its only use is for these waterchildren's games. But one of the Rhine-daughters tells him that “he who could make the gold into a ring would become master of the world,” and to these words the so-called Ring-motif is first sung (see MELODY, Example 11). The Rhine-daughter sings it in a childlike, indolently graceful way which well expresses the kind of toy the ring or the world itself would be to her. One of her sisters in an extremely remote modulation at once takes themselves with the thought that the Rhine-gold is safe, since no one can win it who does not renounce love. Alberich broods over what he hears, and already the theme changes its character as he thinks of such mastery of the world as he might gain by it (MELODY, Ex. 12). He curses love and grasps the gold. The theme of world-mastery grows dark with the darkness of the Nibelung's mind. The waters of the Rhine change into black mists which grow grey and thin, while the now sinister theme becomes softer and smoother. Then it breaks gently forth in a noble, swinging rhythm and massively soft brazen tones, as Wotan awakes on a mountain height and gazing upon Wotan's newly finished palace which he has bid the giants build, so that from it he may rule the world (MELODY, Ex. 13). The theme thus shows no trivial connexion with a stage-property, mechanically important in the plot; but it represents the desire for power, and what that desire means to each different type of mind. The gods, as the giants plaintively admit, “rule by beauty”; hence the “Walhalla-motif.” What it becomes in the mind of the Nibelung is grimly evident when Alberich uses his ring in Nibelheim. The Rhine-daughters' exultant cry of “Rhine-gold!” is then, in common with the music of the whole of the first act, of a very sinister transformation of the theme; and the orchestration, with its lurid but smothered brass instruments, its penetrating low reed tones and its weird drum-roll beaten on a suspended cymbal, is more awe-inspiring than anything dreamed of by the clearest of those composers who do not create intellectual causes for their effects.

A famous and typical instance of Wagner's use of Leitmotif in tragic irony is the passage where Hagen gives Siegfried friendly welcome, to the melody of the curse which Alberich pronounced on the ring and all who approached it. The more subtle examples are innumerable in variety and resource: and perhaps the climax of subtlety is the almost entire absence of Leitmotif in the first scene of the third act of Göttterdammerung, when Siegfried throws away his last chance of averting his doom. The Rhine-daughters appear to him, and ask him to give them the ring that is on his finger. Siegfried refuses. They laugh at his stinginess and disappear. Siegfried is piqued, and calls them back to offer them the ring. Unfortunately they tell him of its curse, and prophesy death to him if he keeps it. This arouses his spirit of contradiction; and he tells them that they might have won it from him by coaxing, but never by threats; and that he values his life no more than the stone he tosses away as he speaks to them. In spite of the necessary allusions to the ominous theme of the curse, which would give any less great composer ample excuse for succumbing to the listener's sense of impending doom, Wagner's music speaks to us through the child-minds of the Rhine-daughters and terrifies us with the ruthless calm of Nature.

Almost as subtle, and much more directly impressive, is the pathos of the death of Siegfried, which is heightened by an unprecedented appeal to a sense of musical form on the scale of the entire tetralogy. Siegfried's whole character and career is, indeed, all高雄; the climactic climax is for this reason an effect of summation; but Shakespeare might have condoned worse plots for the sake of so noble a result; and indeed Wagner's awkwardness arises mainly from fear of committing oversights. Hagen, the Nibelung's son, has managed to make Siegfried unwittingly drink a love-potion with Gutrune, which causes him to forget his own bride, Brünnhilde. Siegfried is then persuaded to transform himself by his magic Tarnhelm into the likeness of his host, Gutrune's brother Gunther, in order to bring Brünnhilde (whose name is now quite new to him) from her fire-encircled rock, so that Gunther may have her for his bride and Siegfried may wed Gutrune. This is achieved; and Brünnhilde's horror and bewilderment at meeting Siegfried again as a stranger in his own shape creates a situation which Siegfried cannot understand, and which Hagen pretends to construe as damning evidence that Siegfried has betrayed Gunther's honour as well as Brünnhilde's. Hagen, Gunther and Brünnhilde therefore agree that Siegfried must die. In order to spare Gutrune's feelings it is arranged that his death shall appear as an accident in a hunting party. While the hunting Siegfried tells stories of his boyhood, thus recalling the antecedents of this drama with a charming freshness and sense of dramatic and musical repose. When he comes to the point where his memory has been clouded by Hagen's spells, Hagen restores his memory with another magic potion. Siegfried calmly continues to tell how he found Brünnhilde asleep on the fiery mountain. Hagen affects to construe this as a confession of guilt, and slays him as if in righteous wrath. The dying Siegfried calls on Brünnhilde to awaken, and asks "Who hath locked thee again in sleep?" He believes that he is once more with Brünnhilde on the Valkyrie's mountain height; and the harmonics of her awaking move in untroubled splendour till the light of life fades with the light of day and the slain hero is carried to the Gleichbung's hall through the moonlit mists, while the music of love and death tells in terrible triumph more of his story than he ever knew.

The bare conception of such art as this shows how perfect is the unity between the different elements in Wagner's later music-drama. If the music of Tristan is more polyphonic than that of Lohengrin, it is because it is hardly figurative to call its drama polyphonic also. Compare the mere fairy-tale mystery of the first act of Parsifal with the intellectual depth of the same name, with the profound fatalism of Isolde's love-potion. Apart from the gain in tragic force resulting from Wagner's masterly development of the character of Brangaene, the raw material of the story was already suggestive of that astounding combination of the contrasted themes of love and death, the musical execution of which involves a harmonic range almost as far beyond that of its own day as the ordinary harmonic range of the 19th century is beyond that of the 16th. In his next work, Die Meistersinger, Wagner ingeniously made poetry and drama out of an explicit manifesto to musical critics, and proved the truth of his music by developing its everyday resources, and showing that its vitality does not depend on that extreme emotional force that makes Tristan und Isolde almost unbearable poignant. Few things are finer in music or literature than the end of the second act of Die Meistersinger, from the point where Sachs's apprentice begins the riot, to the moment when the watchman, frightened at the silence of the moonlit streets so soon after he has heard all that noise, announces eleven o'clock and bids the folk pray for protection against evil spirits, while the orchestra tells us of the dreams of Walther and Eva and ends by putting poetry even into the pedantic ineptitudes of the malicious Beckmesser. Die Meistersinger is perhaps Wagner's most nearly perfect work of art; and it is a striking proof of its purity and greatness that, while the whole work is in the happiest comic vein, no one ever thinks of it as in any way lighter than Wagner's tragic works. The overwhelming love-tragedy of Tristan und Isolde is hardly less perfect, though the simplicity of its action exposes its longueur to greater notoriety than those which may be found in Die Meistersinger.

These two works interrupted the execution of the Ring and formed the stepping-stones to Parsifal, a work which may well be said to close the German symphonic symphony in poetic conception which, as we have seen, gave the determining impulse to Wagner's true musical style. But in music he had no more to learn, and Parsifal, while the most solemn and concentrated of all Wagner's dramas, is musically not always unsuggestive of old age. Its harmonic style is, except in the Grail music, even more abstruse than in Tristan; and the intense quiet of the action is far removed from the forces which in that tumultuous tragedy carry the listener through every difficulty. Again, while the Eucharistic features in Parsifal attract some listeners, the material effect of their presentation
on the stage has been known to repel others who are beyond suspicion of prejudice. But the greatness of the art is, like its subject, worlds away from material impressions; and a wide consensus regards Wagner's last work as his loftiest, both in music and poetry. Certainly no poet would venture to despise Wagner's imaginative conception of Kundry. In his letters to his friend Mathilde Wesendonck, it appears that while he was composing Tristan he already had the inspiration of working out the identification of Kundry, the messenger of the Grail, with the temptress who, under the spell of Klingsor, seduces the knights of the Grail; and he had, moreover, thought out the implications of the imaginary hall of Klingsor, which he described as half conscious of the hero while Kundry is beguiling him with memories of his mother,—and also during the two changes of scene to the Hall of the Grail, where the orchestra mingles the agony of Amfortas and the sorrow of the knights with the tolling of the great bells,—the polyphony is almost as dramatic as in Tristan; while the prelude and the Churfetagszauber are among the clearest examples of the sublime since Beethoven. But else where there are few passages in which the extremely comradic harmonic style can be with certainty traced to anything but habit. This style originated, indeed, in a long experience of the profoundest dramatic impulses; but as a habit it does not seem, like the greatest things in art, the one inevitable treatment of the matter in hand. But, whatever our doubts, we may safely regard Parsifal as a work which, like Beethoven's last fugues, invites attack rather from those critics who demand that flatters their own vanity than from those who wish to be inspired by what they could never have foreseen for themselves.

In Wagner's harmonic style we encounter the entire problem of modern musical texture. Wagner effected vast changes in almost every branch of his art, comprehending, not merely the building and stage-lighting to the musical declamation of words. Most of his reforms have since been intelligently carried out as normal principles in more arts than one; but, shocking as the statement may seem to 20th-century orthodoxy, Wagnerian harmony is a universe as yet unexplored, except by the few composers who are so independent of its bewildering effect on the generation that grew up with it, that they can use Wagner's resources as discreetly as he used them himself. The last two examples at the end of the article on Harmony show almost all that is new in Wagner's harmonic principles. The peculiar art therein is that while the disorders owe their intelligibility and softness to the smooth melodic lines by which in "resolving" they prove themselves but transient rainbow-hues on or below the surface, they owe their strangeness to the intense vividness with which at the moment of impact they suggest a mysteriously remote foreign key. Wagner's orthodox contemporaries regarded such mixtures of key as sheer nonsense; and it would seem that the rank and file of his imitators agree with that view, since they either plagiarize Wagner's actual progressions or else produce such mixtures with no visible intention of melodic or melodic design. If the latter attempt to follow those melodic trains of thought by which Wagner makes sense of them. There is far more of truly Wagnerian harmony to be found before his time than since. It was so early recognized as characteristic of Chopin that a magnificient example may be seen at the end of Schumann's light tone-portrait of him in the Carnaval: a very advanced Wagnerian passage on another principle constitutes the bulk of the development in the first movement of Beethoven's sonata Les Adieux; while even in the "Golden Age" of music, and within the limits of pure diatonic concord, the unexpectedness of many of Palestrina's chords is hardly less Wagnerian than the perfect smoothness of the melodic lines which combine to produce them.

Wagnerian harmony is, then, neither a side-issue nor a progress per saltum, but a leading current in the stream of musical evolution. That stream is sure sooner or later to carry with it every reality that has been reached by side-issues and leaps; and of such things we have important cases in the works of Strauss and Debussy. Strauss makes a steadily increasing use of awedwowed irrational discords, in order to produce an emotionally apt physical sensation. Debussy has this in common with Strauss, that he regards harmonies as pure physical sensations; but he draws forth from Strauss firstly in systematically refusing to regard them as anything else, and secondly in his extreme sensibility to harshness. We have seen (in the articles on Harmony and Music) how harmonic music originated in just this habit of regarding combinations of sound as mere sensations, and how for centuries the habit opposed itself to the intellectual principles of contrapuntal harmony. These intellectual principles are, of course, not without their own ground in physical sensation; but it is evident that Debussy appeals beyond them to a more primitive instinct; and on he basises an almost perfectly coherent and logical system of his harmonies, which are a profound music, precisely the opposite of those of classical harmony. The only illogical point in his system is that the beauty of his dream-like chords depends not only on his artful choice of a timbre that minimizes their harshness, but also on the fact that they enter the ear with the meaning they have acquired through centuries of harmonic evolution on classical lines. There is a special pleasure in the subsidence of that meaning beneath a soothing sensation; but a system based thereon cannot be universal. Its phenomena are, however, perfectly real, and can be observed wherever artistic conditions make the tone of a mass of harmony more important than the interior threads of its texture. This is of constant occurrence in classical pianoforte music, in which thick chords are subjected to polyphonic laws only in their top and bottom notes, while the inner notes make a solid mass of sound in which numerous consecutive fifths and octaves are not only harmless but essential to the balance of tone. In Debussy's art the top and bottom are also involved in the antipolyphonic laws of such masses of sound, thus making these laws paramount.

The irrational discords of Strauss are also real phenomena in musical aesthetics. They are an extension of the principle on which gongs and cymbals and all instruments without notes of determinate pitch are employed in otherwise polyphonic music.

But it is important to realize that both these types of modern harmony are radically non-Wagnerian. Haydn uses a true Straussian discord in The Seasons, in order to imitate the chirping of a cricket; but the harshest realism in Götterdämmerung (the discord produced by the horns of Hagen and his churls in the musing-scene in the second act) has a harmonic logic which would have convinced Corelli. And of Debussy's antipolyphonic art there is less in Wagner than in Beethoven. The present influence of Wagnerian harmony is, then, somewhat indefinite, since the most important real phenomena of later music indicate a revolt both from it and from earlier classical methods. It has had, however, a marked effect on weaker musical individualities. Musical public opinion now puts an extraordinary pressure on the young composer, urging him at all costs to abandon "out-of-date" styles whenever stimulating they may be to his invention. It is no exaggeration to say that a parallel condition in literature would be produced by a strong public opinion to the effect that any English style was hopelessly out of date unless it consisted exclusively of the most difficult types of phrase to be found in the works of Browning and Meredith. The brilliant success of Humperdinck's Hänsel und Gretel, in which Wagnerian technique is applied to the diatonic style of nursery songs with a humorous accuracy undreamed of by Wagner's imitators, points a moral which would have charmed Wagner himself; but until the revival of some rudiments of musical common sense becomes widespread, there is little prospect of the influence of Wagner's harmonic style being productive of anything better than nonsense.
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The very sense of dramatic fitness has temporarily vanished from public musical opinion, together with the sense of musical form. In consequence of this prevalent habit, that of presenting shapeless extracts from Wagner's operas as orchestral pieces without voices or text-books or any hint that such adjacents are desirable. But this vandalism, which Wagner conformed with a very bad grace, now happily begins to give way to the practice of presenting long scenes or entire acts, with the singers, on the concert-platform. This has the merit of bringing the real Wagner to ears which may have no other means of hearing him, and it fosters no delusion as to what is missing in such a presentation. The guidance of Hans Richter has given us a sense of what was possible in the minor key part and to such an extent there is hope that Wagner may yet be saved from such an oblivion in fetish-worship as has lost Handel to us for so long. As with Shakespeare and Beethoven, the day will never come when we can measure the influence of so vast a mind upon the history of art. Smaller artists can make history; the greatest absorb it into that daylight which is its final cause.

LIST OF WAGNER'S WORKS

The following are Wagner's operas and music-dramas, apart from the unpublished Die Hochzeit (three numbers only), Die Feen, and some other works hereafter mentioned.

1. Rienzi, der leite der Tribunen: grosse tragische Oper; 5 acts (1834-1836).
2. Der fliegende Holländer: romantische Oper; 1 act, afterwards cut into 3 (1841).
3. Tannhäuser und der Sängerkrieg auf Wartburg: romantische Oper; 3 acts (libretto, 1843; music, 1841-1845; new Venusberg music, 1863).
4. Lohengrin: romantische Oper; 3 acts (libretto, 1845; music, 1845-1858).
5. Die Walküre: der Ring des Nibelungen, letzter Tag; 3 acts (music completed 1863, first performed 1876).
7. Siegfried: der Ring des Nibelungen, zweiter Tag; 3 acts; the first two nearly finished before Tristan, the rest between 1865 and 1869.
8. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg; 3 acts (sketch of play, 1845; poem, 1861-1862; music, 1862-1867).
9. Göttämerung: der Ring des Nibelungen, dritter Tag; introduction and 3 acts (Siegfried's Tod already sketched dramatically in 1843; music, 1870-1874).
10. Parsifal: ein Bühnenfestspiel (a solemn stage festival play); 3 acts (music, 1871-1882; Chorfreilangszauber already sketched in 1857).

As regards other compositions, the early unpublished works include a symphony, a cantata, some incidental music to a pantomime, and an overture, a few of which are already lost or destroyed and produced. The important small published works are Eine Faust Overture (1839-1840; rewritten, 1855); the Siegfried Idylle (an exquisite serenade for small orchestra on themes from the finale of Siegfried, written as a surprise for Frau Wagner in 1870); the Kaiser Marsch (1871); the Huldigungsmarsch (1863) for military band; the scoring of the concert-version finished by Raff; Fünf Gedichte (1863), a set of songs containing two studies for Tristan; and the early quasi-oratorio scene for male-voice chorus and full orchestra, Das Liebesmahl der Apostel (1843). Wagner's retouching of Gluck's Iphigenie en Aulide and his edition of Palestine's Sibel Mäster demand mention as important services to music, by no means to be classified (as in some catalogues) with the hack-work with which he kept off starvation in Paris.

Facsimiles of Wagner in German fill ten volumes, and include political speeches, sketches for dramas that did not become operas, autobiographical chapters, aesthetic musical treatises and polemics of vitriolic violence. Their importance will never be comparable to that of his music, but just as the reaction against Ruskin's ascendency as an art-critic has coincided with an increased respect for his ethical and sociological thought so, the rebellious forces that are compelling Wagnerism to grant music a corresponding elevation of rank, will have on a great deal of intellectual powers. The prose works have been translated into English by W. A. Ellis (8 vols., 1862-1869). The translation by F. Jameson (1846-1847) contains the first English rendering of the full scores (the most wonderful tour de force yet achieved in its line. A careful reading of the score to this English text reveals not a single false emphasis or loss of rhetorical point in the fitting of words to music, an achievement of real value in the music which wherever the language seems stilted or absurd the original will be found to be at least equally so, while the spirit of Wagner's poetry is faithfully reflected. Such work deserves more recognition than it is ever likely to get. Rapidly as the standard of musical translations was improving before this work appeared, no one could have foreseen what has now been abundantly verified, that the Ring can be performed in English without any appreciable loss to Wagner's art. The same translator has now published a close, purely literary version. LITERATURE.—The Wagner literature is too enormous to be dealt with here. The standard biography is that of Glaesemann (6 vols., 1844-1859), which appeared between 1844 and 1859; in the English books we may cite Ernest Newman, A Study of Wagner (1899); H. E. Kreibiel, Studies in the Wagnerian Drama (1891); Jesse L. Weston, Legends of the Wagner Dramas (1906). The perceptive Wagnerite, by G. Bernard Shaw, thought concerned mainly with the social philosophy of the Ring, gives a luminous account of Wagner's mastery of musical movement. The highest English authority on Wagner is his friend Dannerthre, whose article in Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians (1907) should be consulted. See also Aria, Harmony, Instrumentation, Music, Opera, and Overture. (D. F. T.)

WAGON, or WAGON, a large four-wheeled vehicle for the carriage of heavy loads, and drawn by two or more horses. This is the general English use of the term, where it is more particularly confined to the large vehicles employed in the carrying of agricultural produce. It is also used of the uncovered heavy rolling stock for goods on railways. In America the term is used also to denote wagons which are such as are employed for express delivery, police work, &c., and to various forms of four-wheeled vehicles used for driving, to which the English term "cart" would be given. The word "wagon" appears to be a direct adaptation of Du. Wagen (cf. Ger. Wagen, Swed. Vagn, &c.). Skewt finds the earliest use of the word in Lord Berners's translation of Floskai (1523-1525), so that it is by no means an early word. The O.E. cognate word was wægen, later wagen, by dropping of g (cf. regn, ren, rain), modern "wain." The root of all these cognate words, meaning to carry, is seen in Lat. vehere. The term "wagon" or "wagon" is applied technically in bookbinding to a frame of cane used for trimming the edges of gold leaf. In architecture a "wagon-ceiling" is a boarded roof of the Tudor time, either of semicircular or polygonal section. It is boarded with thin panels of oak or other wood ornamented with mouldings and with loops at the intersections.

WAGRAM (DEUTSCH-WAGRAM), a village of Austria situated in the plain of the Marchfeld, 1 1 m. N.E. of Vienna. It gives its name to the battle of the 5th and 6th of July 1809, in which the French army under Napoleon defeated the Austrians commanded by the archduke Charles. On the failure of his previous attempt to pass his whole army across the Danube at Aspern (see Napoléon Campaigns and Aspern), Napoleon set himself to accumulate, around Vienna and the island of Lobau, not only his own field forces, but also every man, horse and gun available from Italy and South Germany for a final effort. Every detachment was drawn in within forty-eight hours' call, his rearward communications being practically denuded of their covering troops. The island of Lobau itself was converted practically into a fortress, and 150 heavy guns were mounted on its banks to command the Austrian side of the stream. Giving up, in face of this artillery, the direct defence of the river-side, the Austrians drew up in a great arc of about 6 m. radius extending from the Bisamberg, overlooking the Danube, in the west, to Markgrafneusiedl on the east. From this point to the Danube below Lobau a gap was left for the deployment of the archduke Johann's army from Pressburg. This army, however, arrived too late. Their total front, therefore, was about 12 m. for 120,000 men, which by a forward march of a couple of hours could be reduced to about 6 m.—giving a density of occupation of about 20,000 men to the mile.

Meanwhile Napoleon reconstructed the bridge over the main stream (see ASPERN) more solidly, protecting it by palisades of planks and floating booms, and organized an armed flotilla to command the waterway. On the island itself preparations were made to throw three bridges across the Lobau arm of the stream opposite Aspern and Essling, and seven more on the right, facing east between Gross Enzersdorf and the main river.

For several days previous to the great battle the French had sent across small detachments, and hence when, on the afternoon of the 4th of July, an advanced guard was put over near Gross
Enzersdorf, the attention of the Austrians was not particularly attracted and they did not interfere. The emperor, however, had now men available for the battle, and under cover of this detachment his pontoniers made the seven bridges. Long before daylight on the 6th the troops began to stream across, and about 9 A.M. the three corps destined for the first line (Davout, Oudinot and Masséna) had completed their deployment on a front of almost to Aspern, and his right, though aided by Bernadotte, had failed to recapture Aderklaa, from which the Austrians had driven his advanced posts early in the morning. The situation for the French looked very serious, for their troops were not fighting with the dash and spirit of former years. But Napoleon was a master in the psychology of the battlefield, and knew that on the other side things were much the same. He therefore sent orders along the whole line for a gigantic counter-stroke. Davout on the right was to attack Markgrafneusiedl again. Masséna was to move against the troops immediately to his front; Bernadotte and Marmont to advance respectively against Breitenlee and Aderklaa, whilst in the gap which would thus open between them marched the 5th corps (Macdonald) on Süssenbrunn, covered by a battery of 104 guns and followed by the guard and reserve cavalry.

Macdonald formed his 30,000 men in a gigantic hollow square—on a front of one battalion, fourteen battalions deployed at six paces distance leading, whilst the remainder of the infantry marched in column of sections on either flank, and cavalry closed the rear. The idea was to compel even the weakest to go on, on pain of being trapped to death under the feet of the following men and horses, but the terror caused by the Austrian round-shot tearing huge gaps through the mass proved enough to counteract even this danger, and the men in the advance threw themselves down wholesale. It is admitted by French authors (Ardant du Picq) that of the 30,000 only 3000 actually delivered the attack, about 3000 were killed or wounded, but 24,000 evaded their duty somehow, and the trail of the column appeared one mass of dead and dying, creating a terrible impression on all who saw it. Nevertheless, Macdonald reached his destination, for the guns had literally torn a gap in the opposing line, and the guards and cavalry then followed intact. At the same time Davout also had made progress, and, learning that the archduke Johann could not be counted on for that day, the archduke Charles issued orders for a retreat. The whole Austrian army was gradually withdrawn, unbeaten and still available for a renewed offensive if necessary the following day.

The French, however, were in no condition to follow up their advantage. They had seen more of the slaughter than their adversaries, and except the emperor and Davout all seem to have been completely shaken. Even in Davout’s command, always the steadiest in danger, the limit of endurance had been passed, for when about 5 P.M. the advanced patrols of the archduke Johann’s force appeared on their flank, panic on a scale hitherto unknown in the Grande Armée seized the whole right wing, and Napoleon had to confess that no further advance was possible with these men for several days.

Berndt (Zahl im Kriege) gives the following figures. French, 181,700 (including 29,000 cavalry) and 450 guns engaged, of whom 23,000 men were killed and wounded, 7000 missing (16%); 11 guns and 12 eagles and colours were lost. Austrians,
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128,000 (including 14,000 cavalry) men and 470 guns engaged; losses, 19,110 killed and wounded, and 6,470 missing (26%); 9 guns and one colour were lost. The casualties in general officers were unusually severe, 21 French and 15 Austrians being killed and wounded.

WAGTAIL (Wagster and Wagstyr), 15th century fide T. Wright, Vol. Vocabularies, i. 221, 253; Urvagale, Turner, 1544, p. 53), the popular name for birds of the subfamily Motacillinae, which, together with the Anthiclna (see Piptr), form the passerine family Motacillidae.

The pied wagtail Motacilla lugubris is a common and generally distributed species in the British Islands, and common throughout northern Europe, but migrating southwards over a relatively narrow range in winter. The white wagtail, M. alba of Linnaeus, has a wide range in Europe, Asia and Africa, visiting England almost yearly, and chiefly differing from the ordinary British in its lighter-coloured tints—the cock especially having a clear grey instead of a black back. Three other species occur in England, but the subfamily with several genera and very many species ranges over the Old World, except Australia and Polynesia, whilst the Asiatic species reach North-West America.

Wagtais are generally parti-coloured birds, frequenting streams and stagnant water, and feeding on seeds, insects, worms, small molluscs and crustaceans. The bill is thin and elongated, and the tail is very long. The nests are made of moss, grass and roots, with a lining of hair and feathers; four to six eggs are laid, bluish white or brown, or yellowish with spots and markings.

The genus Motacilla (an exact rendering of the English "wagtail," the Dutch Kwikstaart, the Italian Codretromola and other similar words), which, as originally founded by Linnaeus, contained nearly all the "soft-billed" birds of early English ornithologists, was restricted by various authors in succession, following the example set by Scopoli in 1760, until none but the wagtails remained in it. The Wagtais include the Wahhabis, a Mahomedan sect, the followers of Muhammad ibn Abdul-Wahhab, who instituted a great reform in the religion of Islam in Arabia in the 18th century. Mohammed ibn 'Abd-ul-Wahhab was born in 1601 (or 1703) at al-Ijauta of the Nejd in central Arabia, and was of the tribe of the Bani Tamim. He studied literature and jurisprudence of the Hanifite school. After making the pilgrimage with his father, he spent some further time in the study of law at Medina, and resided for a while at Isfahan, whence he returned to the Nejd to undertake the work of a teacher. Aroused by his studies and his observation of the luxury in dress and habits, the superstitions, the pilgrimages to shrines, the use of omens and the worship given to Mahomet and Mahomedan saints rather than to God, he began a mission to proclaim the simplicity of the early religion founded on the Koran and Sunna (i.e. the manner of life of Mahomet). His mission in his own district was attended by success, and for long he wandered with his family through Arabia, until at last he settled in Darat'yaya, or Deraiya (in the Nejd), where he succeeded in converting the greatest notable, Mohammed ibn Sa'ud, who married his daughter, and so became the founder of an hereditary Wahhabite dynasty. This gave the mission a perpetuity of following the example of Mahomet himself in extending his religious teaching by force. His instructions in this matter were strict. All unbelievers (i.e. Moslems who did not accept his teaching, as well as Christians, &c.) were to be put to death. Immediate entrance into Paradise was promised to his soldiers who fell in battle, and it is said that each soldier was provided with a written order from Ibn 'Abd ul-Wahhab to the gate-keeper of heaven to admit him forthwith. In this new way the teaching was established in the greater part of Arabia until its power was broken by Mehmet Ali (see Arabia: History). Ibn 'Abd-ul-Wahhab is said to have died in 1707.

The teaching of ul-Wahhab was founded on that of Ibn Taimiyya (1265-1328), who was of the school of Ahmad ibn Hanbal (q.v.). Copies of some of Ibn Taimiyya's works made by ul-Wahhab are now extant in Europe, and show a close study of the writer. Ibn Taimiyya, although a Hanbalite by training, refused to be bound by any of the four schools, and claimed the power of a mujahid, i.e. of one who can give independent decisions. These decisions were based on the Koran, which, like Ibn Hazm (q.v.), he accepted in a literal sense, on the Sunna and Qiyas (analogy). He protested strongly against all the innovations of later times, and denounced as idolatry the visiting of the sacred shrines and the invocation of the saints or of Mahomet himself. He was also a bitter opponent of the Shi'is of his day. The Wahhabites also believe in the literal sense of the Koran and the necessity of deducing one's duty from it apart from the decisions of the four schools. They also pointed to the abuses current in their times as a reason for rejecting the doctrines and practices founded on Ijmii', i.e. the uniform consent of the believer in what he sees as the answers to the problems arising from his complaints (RELIGIONS). They forbid the pilgrimage to tombs and the invocation of saints. The severe simplicity of the Wahhabis has been remarked by travellers in central Arabia. They attack all luxury, loose administration of justice, all laxity against infidels, addiction to wine, impurity and treachery. Under 'Abd ul-Aziz they instituted a form of Bedouin (Bedawi) commonwealth, insisting on the observance of law, the payment of tribute, military conscription for war against the infidel, internal peace and the rigid administration of justice in courts established for the purpose. It is clear that the claim of the Wahhabis to have returned to the earliest form of Islam is largely justified; Burckhardt (vol. ii. p. 132) says, "The only difference between his (i.e. ul-Wahhab's) sect and orthodox Turks, however improperly so termed, is that the Wahabys rigidly follow the same laws which the others neglect or have ceased altogether to observe." Even orthodox doctors of Islam have confessed that in Ibn 'Abd ul-Wahhab's writings there is nothing but what they themselves hold. At the same time the fact that so many of his followers were rough and unthinking Bedouins has led to the over-emphasis of the element of fanaticism or that they often appear to observers to be characterized chiefly by a strictness (real or feigned) in such matters as the prohibition of silk for dress, or the use of tobacco, or of the rosary in prayer.


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WAI, a town in Satara district, Bombay, on the Kistna river. Pop. (1901) 13,060. It is a native of Hindu pilgrimage, with a large, mainly population, the river being lined with temples and bathing ghats. In the neighbourhood are Buddhist caves.

WAIBLEN, a town in Germany, in the kingdom of Württemberg, in the centre of a fruitful vine-growing district on the Rems, 10 m. N.E. from Stuttgart by the main line of railway to Nuremberg via Nördlingen and at the junction of a branch to Hesselstadt. Pop. (1905) 5057. It has two Evangelical churches, one of which is a fine Gothic structure of the 13th century, restored in 1866, a Roman Catholic church and a modern town hall. Its industries, which include the making of pottery and silk, are of considerable importance. The name of Waibingen is mentioned in the 9th century, when it had a palace of the Carolingian sovereigns. Subsequently it belonged to the dukes of Franconia, and gave a surname to the emperor Conrad II. It was in this way that the Hohenstaufen family, which was descended in the female line from Conrad, received the name of Waiblingen, corrupted by the Italians into Ghibelline.

WAILLY, NOËL FRANÇOIS DE (1724-1801), French grammarian and linguist, was born at Amiens on the 31st of July 1724. His life was spent in Paris, where for many years he carried on a school which was extensively patronized by foreigners who wished to learn French. In 1754 he published Précis généraux de la langue française, which revolutionized the teaching of grammar in France. The book was adopted as a textbook by the university of Paris and generally used throughout France, an abstract of it being prepared for primary educational purposes.
In 1771 de Wailly published *Moyens simples et raisonnés de diminuer les imperfections de notre orthographe*, in which he advocated phonetic spelling. He was a member of the Institute from its foundation (1793), and took an active part in the preparation of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*. His works, in addition to those cited, include *L'Orthographe des dames* (1791) and *Le Nouveau Vocabulaire français, ou abrégé du dictionnaire de l'Académie* (1801). He died in Paris on the 7th of April 1801.

WAINEWRIGHT, THOMAS GRIFFITHS (1794–1852), English journalist and subject-painter, was born at Chiswick in October 1794. He was educated by his distant relative Dr Charles Burney, and served as an orderly officer in the guards, and as cornet in a yeomanry regiment. In 1819 he entered on a literary life, and began to write for *The Literary Pocket-Book, Blackwood's Magazine* and *The Foreign Quarterly Review*. He was, however, mostly identified with *The London Magazine*, to which, from 1820 to 1823, he contributed some smart but flippant art and other criticisms, under the signatures of "Janus Weathercock," "Egmont Bonmot" and "Herr Vinkboom.

He was a friend of Charles Lamb—who thought well of his literary productions, and in a letter to Bernard Barton, styles him the "kind, light-hearted Wainewright"—and of the other brilliant contributors to the journal. He also practised as an artist, designing illustrations to Chamberlayne's poems, and from 1821 to 1825 exhibiting in the Royal Academy figure pictures, including a "Romance from Ulysses," "Paris in the Chamber of Horrors," and the "Millionaire Sonnet." Over and above his literary and artistic habits, Wainewright's affairs became deeply involved. In 1839 he lost the life of his sister-in-law in various offices for a sum of £18,000, and when she died, in the December of the same year, payment was refused by the companies on the ground of misrepresentation. Wainewright retired to France, was seized by the authorities as a suspected person, and imprisoned for six months. He had in his possession a quantity of strychnine, and it was afterwards found that he had destroyed, not only his sister-in-law, but also his uncle, his mother-in-law and a Norfolkshire friend, by this poison. He returned to London in 1837, but was at once arrested on a charge of forgery, thirteen years before, a transfer of stock, and was sentenced to transportation for life. He died of apoplexy in Hobart Town hospital in 1852.

The *Essays and Criticisms* of Wainewright were published in 1880, with an account of his life, by W. Carew Hazlitt; and the history of certain crimes suggested to Dickens his story of "Hunted Down" and to Bulwer Lytton his novel of *Lusciant*. His passion for art and poetry, and his interest in objects of literature and of art, and his familiarity with the forms that the modern style of writing takes, are suggested by the works of Wainewright.

WAINGA, a river of India, flowing through the Central Provinces in a very winding course of about 360 m. After joining the Wardha the united stream, known as the Phrabi, ultimately falls into the Godavari.

WAINSCOT, properly a superior quality of oak, used for fine panel work, hence such panel-work as used for the lining or covering of the interior walls of an apartment. The word appears to be Dutch and came into use in English in the 16th century, and occurs in lists of imported timber. The Dutch word wagen-schot, adapted in English as wagenskot, wagenskot (Hakluyt, *Voyages*, i. 173, has "books called wageneskot"), was applied to the best kind of oak, well-grained, not liable to warp, as used in construction, from knots. The form shows that it was, in popular etymology, formed from wagen (i.e. wain, wagon) and schot, a term which has a large number of meanings, such as shot, cast, partition, an enclosure of boards, cf. "sheet," and was applied to the fine wood panelling used in coach-building. This is, however, doubted, and relations have been suggested with Dutch weeg, wall, cognate with O. Eng. *wa®h*, wall, or with M. Dutch waeghe, Ger. *Wage*, wave, the reference being to the grain of the wood when cut. The term "wainscot" is sometimes wrongly applied to a "dado," the lining, whether of paper, paint, panelling, *&c.* of the lower portion of the walls of a room. A "dado" (Lat. *dado*, die, cube; Lat. *datum*, something given, a die for casting lots; cf. O. Fr. *de®*, mod. *dé*, Eng. *die* "dye") meant originally the plane-faced cube on the base of a pedestal between the mouldings of the base and the cornice, hence the flat surface between the plinth and the capping of the wooden lining of the lower part of a wall, representing a continuous pedestal.

WAIST, the middle part of the human body, the portion lying between the ribs and the hip-bones, comprising the compressible parts of the trunk. The word is also applied to the central portion of other objects, particularly to the narrowest portion of musical instruments of the violin type and to the centre of a ship. The word appears in the M. Eng. as *wa®se*, "waist of a man’s myddel" (*Prompt. parv. c. 1460*), and is developed from the O. Eng. *wa®st*, growth, the "waist" being the part where the growth of a man is shown and developed; cf. *Icel. verst, stature, shape; Dan. *sa®st, size, growth, &c.* It is thus to be derived from the O. Eng. *wa®xan*, to grow, wax.

WAITE, MORRISON REMICK (1816–1888), American jurist, was born at Lyme, Connecticut, on the 30th of November 1816, the son of Henry Matson Waite (1787–1860), who was judge of the superior court and associate judge of the supreme court of Connecticut in 1834–1854 and chief justice of the latter in 1854–1857. He graduated at Yale in 1837, and soon afterwards removed to Maumee City, Ohio, where he studied law in the office of Samuel L. Young and was admitted to the bar in 1839. In 1850 he removed to Toledo, and he soon came to be recognized as a leader of the state bar. In politics he was first a Whig and later a Republican, and in 1849–1850 he was a member of the state senate. In 1871, with William M. Evarts and Caleb Cushing, he represented the new state of Colorado in the "Alabama" Tribunal at Geneva, and in 1874 he presided over the Ohio constitutional convention. In the same year he was appointed by President U. S. Grant to succeed Judge Salmon P. Chase as chief-justice of the United States Supreme Court, and he held this position until his death at Washington, D.C., on the 23rd of March 1888. In the cases which grew out of the Civil War and Reconstruction, and especially in those which involved the interpretation of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments, he sympathized with the general tendency of the court to restrict the further extension of the powers of the Federal government. He concurred with the majority in the Head Money Cases (1882), the Ku–Klux Case (*United States v. Harris*, 1882), the Civil Rights Cases (1883) and the *Jaulliard v. Greenman* (legal tender) Case (1883). Among his own most important decisions were those in the Enforcement Act Cases (1875), the Sinking Fund Case (1878), the Railroad Commission Cases (1886) and the Telephone Cases (1887).

WAITHMAN, ROBERT (1764–1853), Lord Mayor of London, was born at Wrexham in 1764. After being employed for some time by a London draper, he purchased a shop of his own, and made a considerable fortune. In 1818 he was returned to parliament, as a liberal, for the city of London. He lost his seat at the election of 1820, but regained it in 1826, and retained it till his death, taking part vigorously in the parliamentary debates, and strenuously supporting reform. In 1823 he was Lord Mayor of London. Waithman died in London on the 6th of February 1833. An obelisk erected by his friends in Ludgate Circus, London, adjoining the site of his first shop, commemorates his memory.

WAITS (A.S. *wa®t, to “wake” or “watch”), the carolling, group, or itinerant musicians who parade the streets at night at Christmas time. The earliest waits (those of the 15th and 16th centuries) were simply watchmen who sounded horns or even played a tune on a flute or flagleot to mark the hours. This appears to have been known as "piping the watch." The black book of the royal household expenses of Edward IV., under date 1478, provides for "a wayte, that nightcly from Mychelmas to Shreve Thorsdaye pipe the watch within this courte fower tymes; in the somere nyghtes three tyme and makte bon gayte at everie chambrer doare and office, as well as byt for tymes of packe and pilere." Elaborate orders as to his housing occur. Thus he was to eat in the hall with the minstrels and was to sup off half a loaf and half a gallon of ale. During his actual attendance at court he was to receive fourpence halfpenny a day or less in the discretion of the steward of the
household. He had a livery given him and during illness an extra allowance of food. Besides "piping the watch" and guarding the palace against thieves and fire, this wait held his post at the installation of knights of the Bath. And in the northern and all the chief boroughs had their corporation waits certainly from the early 16th century, for in the privy purses accounts of Henry VIII. occurs (1532) the entry " Item, the XI daye (of October) paid to the waytes of Canterberie in reward ... vjs. vjd." In 1582 Dudley, earl of Leicester, writes to the corporation of London asking that a servant of his should be admitted to the city waits. These borough waits appear, however, to have been more nearly akin to the medieval troubadours or minstrels who played to kings and nobles at and after the evening meal. The duty of the London wait, which included playing before the mayor during his annual progress through the streets and at city dinners, seem to have been typical of all 16th- and 17th-century city waits. The London waits had a special uniform of blue gowns with red sleeves and caps, and wore a silver collar or chain round the neck. In the 18th and early 19th century the ordinary street watchmen appear to have arrogated to themselves the right to serenade householders at Christmas time, calling round on Boxing Day to receive a gratuity for their tunefulness as well as their watchfulness. When in 1829 their place as guardians of the city's safety was taken by police, it was left for private individuals to keep up the custom.

WAITZ, GEORG (1813-1880), German historian, was born at Flensburg, in the duchy of Schleswig, on the 9th of October 1813. He was educated at the Flensburg gymnasium and the universities of Kiel and Berlin. The influence of Ranke early diverted him from his original purpose of studying law, and while still a student he began that series of researches in German medieval history which was to be his life's work. On graduating at Berlin in August 1836, Waitz went to Hanover to assist J. F. G. Heinrich (1797-1886) at the library. In 1839 he was appointed assistant to the Monarchische Geschichte, and the energy and learning he displayed in this position won him a summons to the chair of history at Kiel in 1842. The young professor soon began to take an interest in politics, and in 1846 entered the provincial diet as representative of his university. His leanings were strongly German, so that he became somewhat obnoxious to the Danish government, a fact which made an invitation in 1847 to become professor of history at Göttingen peculiarly acceptable. The political events of 1848-1849, however, delayed his appearance in his new editorial post. The next year, however, he returned to Göttingen and was named editor of the Akademie der Wissenschaften, while a short time later he was made editor of their Journal der Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen and of the Beilage zur Göttingischen Landeszeitung. As editor of the Göttingische Landeszeitung, Waitz hastened to place himself at the service of the provisional government. He was sent to Berlin to represent the interests of the duchies there, and during his absence he was elected by Kiel as a delegate to the national parliament at Frankfort. Waitz was an adherent of the party who were eager to bring about a union of the German states under a German emperor; and when the king of Prussia declined the imperial crown the professor withdrew from the assembly in disappointment, and ended his active share in public life. In the autumn of 1849 Waitz began his lectures at Göttingen. His style of speaking was dry and uninteresting; but the matter of his lectures was so practical and his teaching so sound that students were attracted in crowds to his lecture-room, and the reputation of the Göttingen historical school spread far and wide. At the same time Waitz's pen was not idle, and his industry is to be traced in the list of his works and in the Proceedings of the different historical societies to which he belonged. In 1875 Waitz removed to Berlin to succeed Pertz as principal editor of the Monumenta Germaniae Historica. In spite of advancing years the new editor threw himself into the work with all his former vigour, and took journeys to England, France and Italy to collate works preserved in these countries. He died at Berlin on the 24th of May 1886. He was twice married—in 1842 to a daughter of Schelling the philosopher, and in 1858 to a daughter of General von Hartmann.

Waitz is often spoken of as the chief disciple of Ranke, though perhaps in general characteristics and mental attitude he has more affinity with Pertz or Dahlmann. His special domain was medieval German history, and he rarely travelled beyond Germany.

Waitz's chief works, apart from his contributions to the Monumenta, are:—Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte (8 vols., Kiel, 1844-1878; 2nd ed., 2 vols. only, 1865-1870); Schleswig-Holsteinische Geschichtsquellen (1883); Romulus, das Urbar der Erzherzöge von Ungarn (1886); Liebeck unter Jürgen Wullenwever und die europaische Politik (3 vols.; Berlin, 1855-1856); and Grundzüge der Politik (Kiel, 1862). Among his smaller works, which, however, indicate the line of his researches, are the following:—Jahrbücher des deutschen Reichts unter Heinrich I. (Berlin, 1837, 3rd ed., 1885); Über das Leben und die Lehre des Ulfa (Hanover, 1830); Das alte Recht der sächsischen Franken (Kiel, 1846); Der Kaiser in Karl dem Großen bis Maximilian (Berlin, 1872). In conjunction with his youthful scholar, Dr. L. K. Buerger, he published in the Forschungen zur deutschen Geschichte (Munich, 1862 seq.), and in the Norddeutsche Studien, published in the proceedings of the Schleswig-Holsteinisches historisches Gesellschaft (1844-1853). A Bibliographische Übersicht über Waits's Werke was published by E. Stein dorff at Göttingen in 1886.

Obituary notices of Waitz are to be found in the Historische Zeitschrift, new series, vol. xx.; in the publications for 1886 of the Berlin Akademie der Wissenschaften, the Göttingen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, and the Hansischer Geschichtsverein; in the Revue historique, vol. xxxi. 1887; and in the Revue historique, vol. xxxi. 1887.

WAITZ, THEODOR (1821-1864), German psychologist and anthropologist, was born at Gotha on the 17th of March 1821. Educated at Leipzig and Jena, he made philosophy, philology and mathematics his chief studies, and in 1848 he was appointed professor of philosophy in the university of Marburg. He was a severe critic of the philosophy of Fichte, Schelling and Hegel, and considered psychology to be the basis of all philosophy. His researches brought him into touch with anthropology, and he will be best remembered by his monumental work in six volumes, Die Anthropologie der Naturvölker. He died on the 21st of May 1864 at Marburg.

In addition to his Anthropologie, the first four volumes of which appeared at Leipzig, 1859-1864, the last two posthumously, he published Grundlegung der Psychologie (1840); Lehrbuch der Psychologie: der menschlichen Sinnesempfindung (1845); Allemannische Poesie (1852); and a critical edition of the Organon of Aristotle (1844).

WAKE, THOMAS (1297-1340), English baron, belonged to a Lincolnshire family which had lands also in Cumberland, being the son of John Wake (d. 1300), who was summoned to parliament as a baron in 1295, and the grandson of Baldwin Wake (d. 1282), both barons and warriors of repute. Among Thomas Wake’s guardians were Piers Gaveston and Henry, earl of Lincoln, whose daughter Blanche (d. 1357) he married before he was 14. The lady was a ward of Thomas’s uncle, Thomas, earl of Lancaster, and her husband was thus attached to the Lancastrian party, but he did not follow Earl Thomas in the proceedings which led to his death in 1322. Hating the favourites of Edward II, Wake joined Queen Isabella in 1326 and was a member of the small council which advised the young king, Edward III.; soon, however, he broke away from the queen and her ally, Roger Mortimer, and in conjunction with his father-in-law, now earl of Lancaster, he joined the malcontent barons. He was possibly implicated in the plot which cost his brother-in-law, Edmund, earl of Kent, his life in 1330, and he fled to France, returning to England after the overthrow of Isabella and Mortimer. Edward III. made him governor of the Channel Islands and he assisted Edward Bruce to invade Scotland, being afterwards sent on an errand to France. In 1341 he incurred the displeasure of the king and was imprisoned, but he had been restored and had been employed in Brittany and elsewhere when he died childless on the 31st of May 1349. His estates passed to his sister Margaret (d. 1349), widow of Edmund, earl of Kent, and her son John (d. 1352), and later to the Holand family.

Wake published a house for the Austin canons at Newton near Hull; this was afterwards transferred to Halkenmire in the same neighbourhood.

WAKE, WILLIAM (1657-1737), English archbishop, was born at Blandford, Dorset, on the 26th of January 1657, and educated at Christ Church, Oxford. He took orders, and in 1682 went to Paris as chaplain to the ambassador Richard Graham, Viscount Preston (1648-1695). Here he became acquainted with many of
the savants of the capital, and was much interested in French clerical affairs. He also collated some Paris manuscripts of the Greek Testament for John Fell, bishop of Oxford. He returned to England in 1685; in 1688 he became preacher at Gray's Inn, and in 1689 he received a canonry of Christ Church, Oxford. In 1693 he was appointed rector of St James's, Westminster. Ten years later he became dean of Exeter, and in 1705 he was consecrated bishop of Lincoln. He was translated to the see of Canterbury in 1716 on the death of Thomas Tenison. During 1718 he negotiated with leading French churchmen about a projected union of the Gallican and English churches to resist the claims of Rome (see J. H. Lupton, Archbishop Wake and the Project of Union, 1896). In dealing with nonconformity he was tolerant, and even advocated a revision of the Prayer Book that would allay the scruples of dissenters. His writings are numerous, the chief being his State of the Church and Clergy of England...historically deduced (London, 1703). He died at Lambeth on the 24th of January 1736.

Sir Isaac Wake (c. 1580-1632), the diplomatist, was a kinsman of the archbishop. He commenced his diplomatic career in Venice, and returned to England about 1622. By 1636 he was knighted by Charles I. He was British ambassador in Paris from 1630 until his death in June 1632. Among Sir Isaac's writings is Rex Britanniae, a description of the English Church in 1605; this was published in 1607 and has often been reprinted.

Wake (A.S. wacen, to "wake" or "watch"), a term now restricted to the Irish custom of an all-night "waking" or watching round a corpse before burial, but anciently used in the wider sense of a vigil kept as an annual church celebration in commemoration of the completion or dedication of the parish church. This strictly religious wake consisted in an all-night service of prayer and meditation in the church. These services, popularly known as "wakes," were officially termed Vigilae by the church, and appear to have existed from the earliest days of Christianity. The custom was thus analogous to the vigils of the churchyard before the dawn which heralded in a day devoted to feasting, dancing and sports, each parish keeping the morrow of its vigil as a holiday. Wakes soon degenerated into fairs; people from neighbouring parishes journeyed over to join in the merry-making, and as early as Edgar's reign (958-975) the revelry and drunkenness had become a scandal. The vigilae usually fell on Sundays or saints' days, those being the days oftenest chosen for church dedications, and thus the abuse was the more scandalous. In 1445 Henry VI. attempted to suppress mourning wakes, or wakes of lateburiers, but with effect only on the 24th of June, the day of Convocation ordered that the yearly "wake" should be held in every parish on the same day, viz. the first Sunday in October, but this regulation was disregarded. Wakes are specially mentioned in the Book of Sports of James I. and Charles I. among the feasts which should be observed.

Side by side with these church wakes there existed from the earliest times the custom of "waking" a corpse. The custom, as far as England was concerned, seems to have been older than Christianity, and to have been at first essentially Celtic. Doubtless it had a superstitious origin, the fear of evil spirits burring or even removing the body, aided perhaps by the practical desire to keep away rats and other vermin. The Anglo-Saxons called the customlich-wake or like-wake (A.S. lie, a corpse). With the introduction of Christianity the offering of prayer was added to the mere vigil, which until then had been characterized by formal mourning chants and recitals of the life story of the dead. As a rule the corpse, with a plate of salt on its breast, was placed under the table, on which was liquor for the watchers. These private wakes soon tended to become drinking orgies, and during the reign of Edward III. the provincial synod held at London proclaimed by its 30th canon the object of wakes to be the offering of prayer for the dead, and ordered that in future none but near relatives and friends of the deceased should attend. The penalty for disobedience was excommunication. With the Reformation and the consequent disuse of prayers for the dead the custom of "waking" in England became obsolete and died out. Many countries and peoples have been found to have a custom equivalent to "waking," which, however, must be distinguished from the funeral feasts pure and simple.

For detailed accounts of Irish wakes see Brand's Antiquities of Great Britain (W. C. Hazlitt's edition, 1839) and D'Israeli's Irish Wakes.

Wakefield, Edward Gibbon (1796-1862), British colonial statesman, was born in London on the 20th of March 1796, of an originally Quaker family. His father, Edward Wakefield (1774-1854), author of Ireland, Statistical and Political (1812), was a surveyor and land agent in extensive practice; his grandfather, Priscilla Wakefield (1751-1832), was a popular author for the young, and one of the introducers of savings banks. Wakefield was for a short time at Westminster School, and was brought up to his father's profession, which he relinquished on occasion of his elopement at the age of twenty with Miss Pattle, the orphan daughter of an Indian civil servant. The young man and his relatives ultimately became reconciled to the match, and procured him an appointment as attaché to the British legation at Turin. He resigned this post in 1820, upon the death of his wife, to whom he was fondly attached, and, though making some efforts to connect himself with journalism, spent the years immediately succeeding in idleness, residing for the most part in Paris. In 1826 he appeared before the public as the hero of a most extraordinary adventure, the abduction of Miss Ellen Church, daughter of the Reverend Thomas Turner of Shrigley Park, Cheshire. Miss Turner was decoyed from school by means of a forged letter, and made to believe that she could only save her father from ruin by marrying Wakefield, whom she accordingly accompanied to Gretna Green. This time the family refused to condone his proceedings; he was tried with his confederates at Lancaster assizes, March 1827, convicted, and sentenced to three years' imprisonment in Newgate. The marriage, which had not been consummated, was dissolved by a special act of parliament. A disgrace which would have blasted the career of most men made Wakefield a practical statesman and a benefactor to his country. In 1836 his noble effort to introduce the art of flax spinning in India was crowned with success, and he turned his attention while in prison to colonial subjects, and acutely detected the main causes of the slow progress of the Australian colonies in the enormous size of the landed estates, the reckless manner in which land was given away, the absence of all systematic effort at colonization, and the consequent discouragement of immigration and death of labour. He proposed to remedy this state of things by the sale of land in small quantities at a sufficient price, and the employment of the proceeds as a fund for promoting immigration. These views were received with favor, and in 1837 he published a Letter from Sydney (1839), published while he was still in prison, but composed with such graphic power that it has been continually quoted as if written on the spot. After his release Wakefield seemed disposed for a while to turn his attention to social questions at home, and produced a tract on the Punishment of Death, with a terribly graphic picture of the condemned sermon in Newgate, and another on incendiariism in the rural districts, with an equally powerful exhibition of the degraded condition of the agricultural labourer. He soon, however, became entirely engrossed with colonial affairs, and, having impressed John Stuart Mill, Colonel Torrens and other leading economists with the value of his ideas, became a leading though not a conspicuous manager of the South Australian Company, by which the colony of South Australia was ultimately founded. In 1833 he published anonymously England and America, a work primarily intended to develop his own colonial theory, which is done in the appendix entitled "The Art of Colonization." The body of the work, however, is fruitful in seminal ideas, though some statements may be rash and some conclusions extravagant. It contains the distinct proposal that the transport of letters should be wholly gratuitous—the precursor of subsequent reform—and the prophecy that, under given circumstances, "the Americans would raise cheaper corn than has ever been raised." In 1836 Wakefield published the first volume of an edition of Adam Smith, which he did not complete. In 1837 the New Zealand Association was established, and he became its managing director. Scarcely, however, was this great undertaking fairly
commenced when he accepted the post of private secretary to Lord Durham on the latter's appointment as special commissioner to Canada. The Durham Report, the charter of constitutional government in the colonies, though drawn up by Charles Bulter, embodied the ideas of Wakefield. The latter was then a member of its being given to the public through The Times, to prevent its being tampered with by the government. He acted in the same spirit a few months later, when (about July 1839), understanding that the authorities intended to prevent the despatch of emigrants to New Zealand, he hurried them off on his own responsibility, thus compelling the government to allow the country in due time to anticipate a similar step on the part of France. For several years Wakefield continued to direct the New Zealand Company, fighting its battles with the colonial office and the missionary interest, and secretly and patiently encouraging many parliamentary committees on colonial subjects, especially on the abolition of transportation. The company was by no means a financial success, and many of its proceedings were wholly unscrupulous and indefensible; its great object, however, was attained, and New Zealand became the Britain of the south. In 1846 Wakefield, exhausted with labour, was struck down by apoplexy, and spent more than a year in complete retirement, writing during his gradual recovery his Art of Colonization. The management of the company had meanwhile passed into the hands of others, whose sole object was to profit by the company, and profit it was. Wakefield, however, secured the post of secretary, and joined Lord Lyttelton and John Robert Godley in establishing the Canterbury settlement as a Church of England colony. A portion of his correspondence on this subject was published by his son as The Founders of Canterbury (Christchurch, 1868). As usual with him, however, he failed to retain the confidence of his coadjutors to the end. In 1853, after the grant of a constitution to New Zealand, he took up his residence in the colony, and immediately began to act a leading part in colonial politics. In 1854 he appeared in the first New Zealand parliament as extra-official adviser of the acting governor, a position which he retained with great jealousy, and as the mover of a resolution demanding the appointment of a responsible ministry. It was carried unanimously, but difficulties, which will be found detailed in Swainson's New Zealand and its Colonization (ch. 12), prevented its being made effective until after the mover's retirement from political life. In December 1854, after a fatiguing address to a public meeting, followed by prolonged exposure to a south-east gale, his constitution entirely broke down. He spent the rest of his life in retirement, dying at Wellington on the 16th of May 1862. His only son, Edward Jerningham Wakefield (1825-1897), was a New Zealand politician. Three of Wakefield's brothers were also interested in New Zealand. After serving in the Spanish army William Hayward Wakefield (1803-1848) emigrated to New Zealand in 1839. As an agent of the New Zealand Land Company he was engaged in purchasing enormous tracts of land from the natives, but the company's title to the greater part of this was later declared invalid. He remained in New Zealand until his death on the 19th of September 1848. Arthur Wakefield (1799-1843), who was associated with his brother in these transactions about land, was killed during a fight with some natives at Waimea Bay, in the island of Oahu, on the 21st of June 1843. The third brother, Felix Wakefield (1807-1875), an engineer. Wakefield was a man of large views and lofty aims, and in private life displayed the warmth of heart which commonly accompanies these qualities. His main defect was unscrupulousness: he hesitated at nothing necessary to accomplish an object, and the conviction of his untrustworthiness gradually alienated his associates, and left him politically powerless. Excluded from parliament by the fatal error of his youth, he was compelled to resort to indirect means of working out his plans by influencing public men. But for a tendency to paradox, his intellectual powers were of the highest order, and as a master of nervous idiomatic English he is second to Cobbett alone. After every deduction it remains true that no contemporary showed equal genius as a colonial statesman, or in this department rendered equal service to his country.

For an impartial examination of the Wakefield system, see Leroy-Beaulieu, De la colonisation des peuples modernes (3rd ed. pp. 562-575 and 566-700). See also R. Garnett's Life of Wakefield (1893).

WAKEFIELD, GILBERT (1756-1801), English classical scholar and politician, was born at Nottingham on the 22nd of February 1756. He was educated at Jesus College, Cambridge (fellow, 1776). In 1778 in his 22nd year, but in 1853, he accepted the post of classical tutor at the Non-conformist academy at Warrington, which he held till the dissolution of the establishment in 1783. After leaving Warrington, he took private pupils at Nottingham and other places, and also occupied himself with literary work. His most important production at this period was the first part of the Silva critica, the design of which was the "illustration of the Scriptures by light borrowed from the philology of Greece and Rome." In 1790 he was appointed professor of classics at the newly-founded Unitarian college at Hackney, but his proposed reforms and his objection to religious observances led to unpleasantness and to his resignation in the following year. From this time he supported himself by his pen. His edition of Lucretius, a work of high pretensions and little solid performance, appeared in 1790-1799, and gained for the editor a very exaggerated reputation (see Munro's Lucretius, i. pp. 19, 20). His light-hearted criticism of Porson's edition of the Hecuba was avenged by the latter's famous toast: "Gilbert Wakefield; what's Hecuba to him or he to Hecuba?" About this time Wakefield, who hated Pitt and condemned war as utterly unchristian, wrote a little book for the church and state. After assailing with equal bitterness writers so entirely opposed as William Wilberforce and Thomas Paine, in January 1798 he "employed a few hours" in drawing up a reply to Bishop Watson's Address to the People of Great Britain, written in defiance of Pitt and the war and the new "tax upon income." He was charged with having published a seditious libel, convicted in spite of an eloquent defence, and imprisoned for two years in Dorchester gaol. A considerable sum of money was subscribed by the public, sufficient to provide for his family upon his death, which took place on the 9th of September 1801. While in prison he corresponded on classical subjects with Charles James Fox, the letters being subsequently published.

See the second edition of his Memoirs (1804). The first volume is autobiographical; the second, compiled by J. T. Rutt and A. Wainewright, in material estimates drawn from various sources, the most remarkable being one by Dr Parr; see also Gentleman's Magazine (September 1801); Henry Crab's Robinson's Diary (3rd ed., 1872); John Aikin in Ancient General Biography (1799-1815).

WAKEFIELD, a city and municipal and parliamentary borough in the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 1753 m. N.N.W. from London. Pop. (1901) 41,413. It is served by the Great Northern, Midland and Great Central railways (Westgate station), and the Lancashire and Yorkshire and North-Eastern railways (Kirkgate station), the Great Northern Company using both stations. It lies on the river Calder, mainly on the north bank, in a pleasant undulating country, towards the eastern outskirts of the great industrial district of the West Riding. It has a bridge of eight arches on which stands the chapel of St Mary, a beautiful structure 50 ft. long by 25 wide, of the richest Decorated character. Its endowment is attributed to Edward IV., in memory of his father Richard, duke of York, who fell at the battle of Wakefield (1460). It was completely restored in 1847. In 1888 the bishopric of Wakefield was formed, almost entirely from that of Ripon, having been sanctioned in 1878. The diocese includes about one-seventh of the parishes of Yorkshire, and also covers a very small portion of Lancashire. The cathedral church of the diocese is of very early origin, and the remains of buildings previous to the 14th century can be seen. In the early part of that century the church was almost rebuilt, and was consecrated by Archbishop William de Melton in 1320. Further great alterations took place in the 15th century, and the general effect of the building as it stands is Perpendicular. The church consists of a clerestoried nave and choir, with a western tower; the eastward extension
of the choir, the construction of the retrochoir and other works were undertaken in 1900 and consecrated in 1905 as a memorial to Dr Walsham How, the first bishop. During restoration of the spire (the height of which is 247 ft.) in 1905, records of previous work upon it were discovered in a sealed receptacle in the weathercock. Among the principal public buildings of the town hall (1880), in the French Renaissance style; the county hall (1898), a handsome structure with octagonal tower and dome over the principal entrance; the large corn exchange (1837, enlarged 1862), including a concert-room; the market house, the sessions house, the county offices (1896) and the prison for the West Riding; the mechanics' institution with large library, church institute and library, and the fine art institution. A free library was founded in 1905, and a statue of Queen Victoria unveiled in the Bull Ring at the same time. Benevolent institutions include the Clayall hospital (1879), on the tracery system, and the West Riding pauper lunatic asylum with its branches. The Elizabethan grammar school, founded in 1592, is the principal educational establishment. Among several picturesque old houses remaining, that known as the Six Chimneys, an Elizabethan structure, is the most striking.

Formerly Wakefield was the great emporium of the cloth manufacture in Yorkshire, but in the 19th century it was superseded in this respect by Leeds. Foreign weavers of cloth were established at Wakefield by Henry VII.; and Leland, writing in the time of Henry VIII., states that its white cloth was the most valuable and intimate of the English. In the 18th century it became noted for the manufacture of worsted yarn and woolen stuffs. Although its manufacturing importance is now small in comparison with that of several other Yorkshire towns, it possesses mills for spinning worsted and carpet yarns, coco-nut fibre and China grass. It has also rag-crushing mills, chemical works, soap-works and iron-works; and there are a number of collieries in the neighbourhood. Wakefield is the chief agricultural town in the West Riding, and has one of the largest corn markets in the north of England. It possesses agricultural implement and maceline works, grist and flour mills, malt-works and breweries. A large trade in grain is carried on by means of the Calder, and the building of boats for inland navigation is a considerable industry. There are extensive market-gardens in the neighbourhood. In the vicinity of Wakefield is Walton Hall, the residence of the famous naturalist Charles Waterton (1782-1865). The parliamentary borough returns one member. The municipal borough is under a mayor, 9 aldermen and 27 councillors. Area, 4006 acres.

In the reign of Edward the Confessor, Wakefield (Wakfield) was the chief place in a large district belonging to the king and was still a royal manor in 1086. Shortly afterwards it was granted to William, Earl Warenne, and his heirs, under whom it formed an extensive baronial liberty, extending to the confines of Lancashire and Cheshire. It remained with the Warenne family until the 14th century, when John Warenne, earl of Warenne and Surrey, having no legitimate heir, settled it on his mistress, Maud de Keirford and her two sons. They, however, pre-deceased him, and after Maud's death in 1360 the manor fell to the crown. Charles I. granted it to Henry, earl of Holland, and after passing through the hands of Sir Gervase Clifton and Christopher Keirford, it became property of the Duke of Leeds, ancestor of the present duke, who is now lord of the manor. In 1203-1204 William Earl Warenne received a grant of a fair at Wakefield on the vigil, day and morrow of All Saints' day. As early as 1231 the town seems to have had some form of burghal organization, since in that year a burghage there is mentioned in a fine. In 1331, at the request of John de Warenne, earl of Surrey, the king granted the "good men" of the town pagavge there for three years, and in the same year the earl obtained a grant of another fair there on the vigil, day and morrow of St Oswald. There is no other indication of a borough. The battle of Wakefield was fought in 1460 on the banks of the river Calder just outside the town.

Leland gives an interesting account of the town in the 16th century, and while showing that the manufacture of clothing was the chief industry, says also that Wakefield is "a very quik market town and mostly large, well served of flesh and fish both from sea and by rivers... so that all vitalle is very good and chepe there. A right honest man shall fare well for 2d. a meal... There be plente of se coal in the quarters about Wakefield." The corn market, held on Fridays, is of remote antiquity. A cattle market is also held on alternate Wednesdays under charter of 1765. The town was enfranchised in 1832, and was incorporated in 1848 under the title of the mayor, aldermen and councillors of the borough of Wakefield. Before this date it was under the superintendence of a constable appointed by the steward of the lord of the manor.

Vicar County History, Yorkshire; W. S. Banks, History of Wakefield (1871); E. Parsons, History of Leeds, &c. (1854); J. Taylor, History of Wakefield (1886).

WAKEFIELD, a township of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., about 10 m. N. of Boston. Pop. (1890) 6852; (1900) 9290, of whom 2347 were foreign-born; (1910, census) 11,404. Wakefield is served by three branches of the Boston & Maine railroad and by electric interurban railway to neighbouring towns and cities. It contains the outlying villages of Greenwood, Montrose and Boyntonville; and, larger than these, Wakefield, near the centre of the township. In this village is the town hall, the gift of Cyrus Wakefield (1811-1873), and the Beebe Town Library, founded in 1856 as the Public Library of South Reading, and later renamed in honour of Lucius Beebe, a generous patron. The town park (about 25 acres), shaded by some fine old elms, extends to the S. shore of Lake Quannapowitt and contains a soldiers' monument; and in the S. part of the township are Crystal Lake and Hart's Hill (30 acres), a public park. In the township is the Wakefield Home for Aged Women, and a Y.M.C.A. building. Manufacturing is the principal industry; and among the manufactures are rattan goods, hosery, stove and furnaces, boots and shoes, and pianos. The value of the factory products increased from $2,647,130 in 1900 to $4,807,728 in 1905, or 81.6% of the township owns and operates the electric lighting and gas plants and the water-works.

Within the present limits of Wakefield the first settlement was made, in 1639, in that part of the old township of Lynn which in 1644 was incorporated as Reading. In 1781 the southern or "Old Parish" of Reading, which was strongly Democratic-Republican while the other two parishes were strongly Federalist, was set apart and incorporated as the town of South Reading. In 1868 the present name was adopted in honour of Cyrus Wakefield, who established the ratten works here. A portion of Stoneham was annexed to Wakefield in 1880.

See C. W. Eaton, "Wakefield," in S. A. Drake's History of Middlesex, Massachusetts (1904); Boston Chamber of Commerce.

WAKKERSTROOM, a town and district of the Transvaal. The district occupies part of the S.E. of the Transvaal, being bounded by the Orange Free State and Natal. The frontier line is in part the crest of the Drakensberg. The town of Wakker-\-

stroom, pop. (1904) 1402, lies 18 m. E. of Volksrust and 4 m. N. of the Natal frontier. It is built on the high veld, at an elevation of 5000 ft., and possesses a bracing climate. The neighbouring hills rise over 7000 ft. The plain on which the town stands is drained by the Slang and other tributaries of the Buffalo affluent of the Tugela. The district, a fertile agricultural region, was organized as one of the divisions of the Transvaal in 1878 by President M. W. Pretorius, and after his Christian names the town was called Martinus-Wessel-Stroom, an unwieldy designation dropped in favour of Wakkerstroom. During the war of 1880-81 the town was unsuccessfully besieged by the Boers. In 1903 a small portion of the district was annexed to Natal.

WAKLEY, THOMAS (1705-1862), English medical and social reformer, was born in Devonshire, and was early apprenticed to a Taunton apothecary. He then went to London and qualified as a surgeon, setting up in practice in Regent Street, and marrying Miss Agnes Goodfellow. Goodfellow was a remarkable woman and governor of St Thomas's Hospital. All through his career Wakeley proved to be a man of aggressive personality, and his experiences in this respect had a sensational beginning. In August 1820 a gang of men who had some grievance against him burnt down his
house and severely wounded him in a murderous assault. The whole affair was obscure, and Walæky was even suspected, unjustly, of setting fire to his own houses; but he won his case against the company which contested his claim. He became a friend of William Cobbett, with whose radicalism he was in sympathy. In 1823 he started the well-known medical weekly paper, the Lancet, and began a series of attacks on the jobbery in vogue among the practitioners of the day, who were accustomed to treat the medical profession as a close borough. In opposition to the hospital doctors he insisted on publishing reports of their lectures and exposing various malpractices, and he had to fight a number of lawsuits, which, however, only increased his influence. He attacked the whole constitution of the Royal College of Surgeons, and obtained so much support from among the general body of the profession, now roused to a sense of the abuses he exposed, that in 1827 a petition to parliament resulted in a return being ordered of the public money granted to it. But reform in the college was slow, and Walæky now set himself to rouse the House of Commons from within. He became a radical candidate for parliament, and in 1835 was returned for Finsbury, retaining his seat till 1852. In this capacity, and also as coroner for West Middlesex—an appointment he secured in 1839—he was indubitably in his efforts to advocate humanitarian reforms as well as in pursuing his campaign against medical restrictions and abuses; and he made the Lancet not only a professional organ but a powerful engine of social reform. He died on the 16th of May 1862, leaving three sons, the proprietorship of the Lancet remaining in the family.

See Samuel Squire Sprigge, Life and Times of Thomas Walæky (1897).

**Walachia—Walch**

Walachia, or Walachia, a former principality of southeastern Europe, constituting, after its union with Moldavia on the 6th of November 1859, a part of Roumania (q.v.).

**Walfrid** (from Strabo, i.e. "squint-eyed") (d. 849), German monk and theological writer, was born about 858 in Swabia. He was educated at the monastery of Reichenau, near Constance, where he had for his teachers Tattu and Wettin, to whose visions he devotes one of his poems. Then he went on to Fulda, where he studied for some time under Hrabanus Maurus before returning to Reichenau, of which monastery he was made abbot in 858. There is a story—based, however, on no good evidence—that Walfrid devoted himself so closely to letters as to neglect the duties of his office, owing to which he was expelled from his house by his abbot. But it is said that the real cause of his flight to Spire was that, notwithstanding the fact that he had been tutor to Charles the Bald, he espoused the side of his elder brother Lothair on the death of Louis the Pious in 840. He was, however, restored to his monastery in 842, and died on the 18th of August 849, on an embassy to his former pupil. His epitaph was written by Hrabanus Maurus, whose elegies praise him for being the faithful guardian of his monastery.

Walfrid's Strabo's works are theological, historical and poetical. Of his theological works the most famous is the great exegetical compilation which, under the name of Glosa ordinaria or the Glosa, remained for 500 years the most widespread and important quarry of medieval biblical exegesis. Walfrid's formation, passing from the first twenty psalms (published by Pez in Anedota nova, iv.) and an epitome of Hrabanus Maurus's commentary on Leviticus. An Expositio quattuor Evangeliorum is also attributed to Walfrid. Of singular interest also is his De Deo omnipotente et de creaturis terrae et coelestibus, written between 840 and 842 and dedicated to Regenbert the librarian. It deals in 32 chapters with ecclesiastical usages, churches, altars, prayers, baptism, baptism and the Communion. In it he introduces into his explanations the current German expressions for the things he is treating of, with the apology that Solomon had

1 In the oldest MSS. this is always spelt "Walfríd."

set him by the example of keeping monkeys as well as peacocks at his court. Of special interest is the fact that Walfrid, in his exposition of the Mass, shows no trace of any belief in the doctrine of transubstantiation. According to him, Christ gave to his disciples the sacraments of his Body and Blood in the substance of bread and wine, and taught them to celebrate them as a memorial of his Passion.

Walfrid's principal work is the celebrated Vita sancti Galli, which, though written nearly two centuries after this saint's death, is the primary authority for his life, and a much shorter life of St Oskar, abbot of Reichenau, is in the Monumenta Germaniae historica, Peutæi Latini, ii. (1884), p. 259 ff. Walfrid's poetic works also include a short life of St Blaise, a high-born monk of Lusignan, murdered in 855 by some of the local inhabitants, and a Liber de visionibus Wettini. This last poem, like the two preceding ones written in hexameters, was composed at the command of Father Adalgisus, and based upon the prophecy made by his abbot, abbot of Reichenau from 806 to 822. It is dedicated to Wettin's brother Grimald. At the time he sent it to Grimald Walfrid had, as he himself tells us, hardly passed his eighteenth year, and he begs his correspondent to revise his verses, because, he fears he may be beaten with deserved stripes. In this curious vision Wettin saw Charles the Great suffering paraplegic tortures in Purgatory, an incorrect account of the Roman custom of posthumous stigmatization, which, indeed introduced into the actual text, but "Charolus Imperator" form the initial letters of the passage dealing with this subject. Many of Walfrid's other poetical pieces (e. g. Charles, Louis, Pippin, Judith, &c.) and to friends (Einhard, Grimald, Hrabanus Maurus, Tattu, Ebbo, archbishop of Reims, Drogo, bishop of Metz, &c.). His most famous historical work is the Hortulanus or Hortus, a life of St Bernard, which, though written mainly as a little garden that he used to tend with his own hands, and is largely made up of descriptions of the various herbs he grows there and their medicinal and other uses. Sage holds the place of honour; then comes rue, the antidote of poisons; and so on through melissa, fennel, lilies, poppies, and many other plants, to wind up with the rose, "which in virtue and scent surpasses all other herbs, and may rightly be called the flower of flowers. The curious person who seeks the texts that form the form a dialogue; it was inspired by an equestrian statue of Theodoric the Great which stood in front of Charlemagne's palace at Aix-la-Chapelle.

Walch, Johann Georg (1603-1775), German theologian, was born on the 17th of June 1603 at Meiningen, where his father, Georg Walch, was general superintendent. He studied at Leipzig and Jena, amongst his teachers being J. F. Buddeus (1667-1729), whose only daughter he married. He published in 1716 a work, Historia critica Latinae linguae, which soon came into wide use. Two years later he published an extraordinary book, De fontibus linguæ Latinae, in which he was appointed professor ordinarius of rhetoric, in 1721 of poetry, and in 1724 professor extraordinarius of theology. In 1728 he became professor ordinarius of theology, and in 1750 professor primarius. His theological position was that of a very moderate orthodoxian, which had been influenced greatly by the philosophy and controversies of the Deistic period. His university lectures and published works ranged over the wide fields of church history in its various branches, particularly the literature and the controversies of the church, dogmatics, ethics and pastoral theology. He died on the 13th of January 1775.

His most influential writing was his Bibliotheca theologica (1757-1769); Bibliotheca paixitica (1770, new ed. 1834); his edition of Luther's works in 24 vols. (1740-1752); Historische und theologische Einleitung in die religiösen Streitigkeiten, welche seit der Reformation geistig bewegt, in 3 vols. (1763-1793); the companion work to this, Einleitung in die Religionstreitigkeiten der evang. Kirche (1730-1739), and Philosophisches Lexikon (1726, 4th ed. 1775). His life of Kaiser Joseph II. was published in 6 vols. (1776), and his Leben und Charakter des Kurfürstl. G. J. Walch, was published anonymously by his son C. W. F. Walch (Jena, 1777). Cf. Wilhelm Gass, Protestantische Dogmatik, iii. p. 208 sq.

His son, Johann Ernst, also studied Semitic languages, mathematics, and also natural science and mathematics, and in 1740 he published Einleitung in die Harmonie der Natur. Walfrid also edited Thelma's Life of Louis the Pious, prefixed a preface and making a few additions, and divided Einhard's Vita Caroli into chapters, adding an introduction.
Evangelist, and in 1730 was appointed professor extraordi-
narius of theology. In five years later he became professor
ordinarius of logic and metaphysics in 1751 he exchanged this
for a professorship of rhetoric and poetry. Amongst other
theological works he published Dissertationes in Acta Apostolorum
(1756–1761); Antiquitates symbolicae (1772); and after his death
appeared Observationes in Mathaeum ex Gracice inscriptionibus
(1779). He also published a periodical Der Naturforscher (1774–
1778), and during the years 1749–1756 took an active part in
editing the Zeitschriften of gelehrten Sachen.

See article in Allgemeine deutsche Biographie: also Lebens-
tage der E. I. Walch (Jena, 1803); E. Meusel’s Lexicon der verstorbenen deutschen Schriftsteller, vol. xiv.

Another son, Christian Wilhelm Franz (1726–1784), was
educated at Jena under his father’s direction, and as early as
1745–1747 lectured in the university in branches of exegesis,
philosophy and history. He then travelled with his brother,
J. E. I. Walch, for a year in Holland, France, Switzerland and
Italy. On his return he was in 1750 made professor extra-
ordinarius of philosophy in Jena, but in 1753 he accepted an
invitation to become professor ordinarius at Göttlingen. Here in
1753 the University of Jena appointed extraordinary professors of theology, and three
years later received an ordinary professorship. He lectured on
dogmatics, church history, ethics, polemics, natural theology,
symbolics, the epistles of Paul, Christian antiquities, historical
theological literature, ecclesiastical law and the fathers, and took
an active interest in the work of the Göttinger Societät der Wissen-
schaften. In 1766 he was appointed professor primarius. His
permanent place amongst learned theologians rests on his works
on church history. Semler was much his superior in originality
and boldness, and Mozeim in clearness, method and elegance.
But to him belongs the credit of having delivered to his conscien-
tious and impartial examination of the facts and the authorities at
first hand, and to “his exact quotation of the sources and works
illustrating them, and careful discussion of the most minute
details,” all succeeding historians are indebted. His method is
critical and pragmatic, “pursuing everywhere the exact facts
and the supposed causes of the outward changes of history,”
leaving wholly out of sight the deeper moving principles and
ideas which influence its course. He died on the 10th of March
1784.

His principal work was his Entwurf einer vollständigen
Historie der Ketzereien, Spaltungen, and Religiousreitigkeiten, bis auf
die Zeit der Reformation (11 vols., Leipzig, 1762–1785). Of his other
works, the most important are his late work against the arbitrary
German religion, as a Beweis, dass sie the wahre sei (1753), Entwurf
einer vollständigen Historie der römischen Päpste (1756, 2nd ed.
1758; Eng. trans. 1759), Entwurf einer vollständigen Historie der Kirchen und Kirchenlehrer (1750), Geschichte der Kirchenzucht (1752),
Newen Testamenten (1761, 2nd ed. 1773, 3rd ed. 1792), Bibeldichter
symbolica vetus (1770), Kritische Untersuchung vom Gebrauch der
hälfte Schriften unter den alten Christen (1779), occasioned by
the controversy between G. E. Lessing and J. W. Goethe, and to
Lessing began an elaborate reply just before his death.

On C. W. F. Walch as historian see F. Baer, Epochen der kirch-
lichen Geschichtschreibung (1852), p. 145 sq., and Dogmesgeschichte,
p. 38 sq. (1867, 3rd ed.); W. Goss, Geschichte der protestantischen
Dogmatik. iii, p. 267 sq.; J. G. Meusel, Lexicon verstorbenen deutschen
Schriftsteller, vol. xiv. For his life, see the article in the Allgemeine
deutsche Biographie.

A third son, Karl Friedrich (1734–1790), devoted himself to
the study of law, and became professor of law at Jena in 1759.
His most important works were Introductio in controversias juris
civilis recentioris (Jena, 1771) and Geschichte der in Deutschland
gegründeten Rechten (Jena, 1780). He died on the 20th of July 1799.

WALCOTT, CHARLES DOOLITTLE (1850–
), American
geologist, was born at the village of New York Mills, New
York, on August 2, 1850. He was educated in the common
schools of Utica. In 1876 he was State assistant on the New York
State Survey, and in 1879 assistant geologist on the United
States Geological Survey; in 1888 he became one of the palaeo-
ontologists in charge of the invertebrata, in 1893 chief palaeo-
ontologist, and in 1894 director of the Geological Survey. In
1907 he was appointed Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution.
As president of the Geological Society of Washington he
delivered in 1894 an important address on The United States
Geological Survey. He added largely to contemporary know-
ledge of the fauna of the Old and Palaeozoic rocks of North
America, especially with reference to the crustacea and
brachiopoda; he dealt also with questions of ancient physical
geography and with mountain structure.

His more important works include “Palaeontology of the Eureka
district” (Mon. U.S. Geol. Survey, 1884); “Cambrian faunas of North
America” (U.S. Geol. Survey, 1884); Palaeontology of the Lower
Cambrian or Oleneus Zone (1890, issued 1891) and Fossil Madacas

WALDECK-PYRMONT, a principality of Germany and
a constituent state of the German empire, consisting of
several contiguous portions lying about 30 m. apart, viz. the county of
Waldeck-Pyrmont, of the German principality, the county
of Waldeck-Pyrmont, farther to the north, between Lippe, Brunswick,
Westphalia and Hanover. Waldeck comprises an area of 407 sq.
m., covered for the most part with hills, which culminate in the
Hegekopf (2775 ft.). The centre is occupied by the plateau of
Corbach. The chief rivers are the Eder and the Diemel, both of
which eventually find their way into the Weser. Pyrmont, only 26 sq. m. in extent, is also mountainous. The Emmer,
also belonging to the Weser system, is its chief stream. The
united area is thus 433 sq. m., and about half the size of Cambridge
Weaver in England, and the united population in 1905 was 50,177,
showing a density of 138 to the square mile. The population is
almost wholly Protestant. In consequence of the comparatively
high elevation of the country—the lowest part being 540 ft.
above the sea-level—the climate is on the whole inclement.
Agriculture and cattle-rearing are the main resources of the
inhabitants in both parts of the principality, but the soil is nowhere
very fertile. Only 57% of the area is occupied by arable land
and pasture; forests, one-tenth of which are coniferous, occupy
38%. Oats is the principal crop, but rye, potatoes and flax are
also grown in considerable quantities. Fruit is also cultivated
in the principality. Iron mines, slate and stone quarries are
worked at various points, and, with live stock, poultry, wool
and timber form the chief exports. A few insignificant manufactu-
res are carried on in some of the little towns, but both trade and
manufactures are much retarded by the comparatively isolation
of the country from railways. Wildungen, in the extreme south of
Waldeck, is the terminus of a branch line from Wabern, and
a light railway runs from Warburg to Marburg; Pyrmont is
intersected by the trunk line running from Cologne, via Paderborn,
100 kw., to Hannover.

The capital and the residence of the prince is Arolsen (pop.
2811 in 1905) in Waldeck; twelve smaller townships and about
one hundred villages are also situated in the county. The only
town in Pyrmont is Bad Pyrmont, with about 7500 inhabitants,
a highly fashionable watering-place with chalybeate and saline
springs. The annual number of visitors is about 23,000. Wil-
dungen is also a spa of repute. The inhabitants to the north of
the Eder are of Saxon stock, to the south of Franconian,
difference which is distinctly marked in dialect, costumes and
manners.

Waldeck-Pyrmont has one vote in the federal council (Bundesrat)
and one in the Reichstag. The constitution, dating from 1832, is a reactionary modification of one carried
in 1849, which had been a considerable advance upon one
granted in 1816. The Landtag of one chamber consists of
fifteen members, three of whom represent Pyrmont, elected
indirectly for three years. In the event of the male line of the
present ruling family becoming extinct, the female line will
succeed in Waldeck, but Pyrmont will fall to Prussia. In terms of a treaty concluded between the two states for a
similar period, and continued in 1877 for another ten years, renewed in 1877 for
a similar period, and continued in 1877 for

A possible two years’ notice, the finances and
the entire government of Waldeck-Pyrmont are managed
by Prussia, the little country having found itself unable to support
assisted the military and other burdens involved by its share
in the North German Confederation of 1867–1871 and subsequently
as a constituent state of the German empire. The govern-
ment is conducted in the name of the prince by an
Prussian
WALDECK-ROUSSEAU

"Landesdirector," while the state officials take the oath of allegiance to the king of Prussia. The prince of Waldeck reserves his whole weight as head of the church, and also the right of granting pardons, and in certain circumstances may exercise a veto on proposals to alter or enact laws. Education and similar matters are thus all conducted on the Prussian model; a previous convention had already handed over military affairs to Prussia. The budget for 1910 showed a revenue of £57,000 and a like expenditure. The public debt was £70,710, paying interest at 3 1/2%. The prince is supported by the income derived from crown lands. As regards the administration of justice, Waldeck and Pyrmont belong to the districts of Cassel and Hanover respectively.

The princes of Waldeck-Pyrmont are descendants of the counts of Schwabenberg, the earliest of whom known to history was one Widukind (d. 1137). His son Volkwin (d. 1178) acquired by marriage the county of Waldeck, and his line was divided into two branches, Waldeck and Landau, in 1397. In 1425 the landgrave of Hesse obtained rights of suzerainty over Waldeck, and the claims arising from this action were not finally disposed of until 1847, when it was decided that the rights of Hesse over Waldeck had ceased with the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. The Landau branch of the family became extinct in 1519. The other branch, which still exists, holds the county of Pyrmont, which had originally belonged to a branch of the Schwabenberg family. For a few years Waldeck was divided into Wildungen and Eisenberg, but in 1692, when the Wildungen branch died out with George Frederick, the imperial field-marshall, the whole principality was reunited under the rule of Christian Louis of Eisenberg. From 1692 the land has been undivided with the exception of a brief period from 1805 to 1812, when Waldeck and Pyrmont were ruled by two brothers. Frederick Anthony Ulrich (d. 1793), who succeeded his father, Christian Louis, in 1778, married a princess of Brandenburg, and in 1789 Waldeck joined the confederation of the Rhine, and in 1815 entered the German confederation. Its first constitution was granted in 1816 by Prince George II. (d. 1845). Prince Frederick (b. 1856) succeeded his father, George Victor (1831-1893), as ruler on the 12th of May 1893. The most important fact in the recent history of the principality is its connexion with Prussia, to which reference has already been made.

See Curtze, Geschichte und Beschreibung des Fürstentums Waldeck (Arolsen, 1840); Löwe, Heimatsbande von Waldeck (Arolsen, 1887); J. C. C. Hoffmeister, Historisch-genealogisches Handbuch über alle Grafen und Fürsten von Waldeck seit 1228 (Cassel, 1883); Böttcher, Das Staatsrecht des Fürstentums Waldeck (Freiburg, 1884); A. Wagner, Die Geschichte Waldecks und Pyrmonts (Wildungen, 1903), and the Geschichtsblätter für Waldeck und Pyrmont (Mengeringhausen, 1901, 1st.).

WALDECK-ROUSSEAU, PIERRE MARIE RENÉ ERNEST (1846-1904), French statesman, was born at Nantes on the 2nd of December 1846. His father, René Waldeck-Rousseau (1809-1883), a barrister at Nantes and a leader of the local republican party, figured in the revolution of 1848 as one of the deputies returned to the Constituent Assembly for Loire Inférieure. With Jules Simon, Louis Blanc and others he sat on the commission appointed to inquire into the labour question, making many important proposals, one of which, for the establishment of national banks, was partially realized in 1850. After the election of Louis Napoleon to the presidency he returned to his practice at the bar, and for some time after the coup d'État was in hiding to escape arrest. He came back to political life in the crisis of 1870, when he became mayor of Nantes in August and proclaimed the third republic there on the 4th of September. He shortly afterwards resigned municipal office in consequence of differences with his colleagues on the education question.

The son was a delicate child whose defective eyesight forbade him the use of books, and his early education was therefore entirely oral. He studied law at Poitiers and in Paris, where he took his licentiate in January 1860. His father's record ensured his reception in high republican circles. Jules Grévy stood sponsor for him at the Parisian bar, and he was a regular visitor at the houses of Stanislas Dufaure and of Jules Simon. After six months of waiting for briefs in Paris, he decided to return home and to join the bar of St Nazaire, where he resided his name early in 1870. In September he became, in spite of his youth, secretary to the municipal commission temporarily appointed to carry on the town business. He organized the National Defence at St Nazaire, and himself marched out with the contingent, though no part of the force saw active service owing to lack of ammunition, their private store having been commandeered by the state. In 1873 he removed to the bar of Rennes, and six years later was returned to the Chamber of Deputies. In his electoral programme he had stated that he was prepared to respect all liberties except those of conspiracy and institutional religion, and was in this last he stood in hatred of the modern social order. In the Chamber he supported the policy of Gambetta. The Waldeck-Rousseau family was strictly Catholic in spite of its republican principles; nevertheless Waldeck-Rousseau supported the anti-clerical education law submitted by Jules Ferry as minister of education in the Waddington cabinet. He further voted for the abrogation of the law of 1814 forbidding work on Sundays and fête days, for compulsory service of one year for seminarians and for the re-establishment of divorce. He made his reputation in the Chamber by a report which he delivered in 1880, in which, after the committee was prepared to inquire into the French judicial system, he said as later he was chiefly occupied with the relations between capital and labour. He had a large share in 1884 in securing the recognition of trade unions. In 1885 he became minister of the interior in Gambetta's grand ministre, and he held the same portfolio in the Jules Ferry cabinet of 1883-1885, when he gave proof of great administrative powers. He sought to put down the system by which civil posts were obtained through the local deputy, and he made it clear that the central authority could not be defied by local officials. He had begun to practise at the Paris bar in 1886, and in 1888 he did not seek re-election to the Chamber, but devoted himself to his legal work. The most famous of the many noteworthy cases in which his cold and penetrating intellect and his power of clear exposition were retained was the defence of M. de Lesseps in 1893. In 1894 he returned to political life as senator for the department of the Loire, and next year stood for the presidency of the republic against Félix Faure and Henri Brisson, being supported by the Conservatives, who were soon to be his bitter enemies. He received 184 votes, but retired before the second ballot to allow Faure to receive an absolute majority. During the next few years he was recognized by the moderate republicans as the successor of Jules Ferry and Gambetta, and at the crisis of 1890 on the fall of the Dupuy cabinet he was asked by President Loubet to form a government. After an initial failure he succeeded in forming a coalition cabinet which included such widely different politicians as M. Millerand and General de Galliflet. He himself returned to his former post at the ministry of the interior, and set to work to quell the discontent with which the country was seething, to put an end to the various agitations which under specious pretences were directed against him, and to restore independence to the central authority. His appeal to all republicans to sink their differences before the common peril met with some degree of success, and enabled the government to leave the second court-martial of Captain Dreyfus at Rennes an absolutely free hand, and then to compromise the affair by granting a pardon to Dreyfus. Waldeck-Rousseau won a great personal success in October by his successful intervention in the strikes at Le Creusot. With the condemnation in January 1900 of Paul Déroulède and his monarchist and nationalist followers by the High Court, he fought the worst of the danger was past, and Waldeck-Rousseau kept order in Paris without having recourse to irritating displays of force. The Senate was staunch in support of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, and in the Chamber he displayed remarkable astuteness in winning support from various groups. The Amnesty Bill, passed on 19th December, chiefly through his unwearied advocacy, went far to smooth down the acerbity of the preceding years. With the object of aiding the industry of wine-producing, and of
discovering the consumption of spirits and other deleterious liquors, the government passed a bill suppressing the octroi duties on the three "hygienic" drinks—wine, cider and beer. The act came into force at the beginning of 1901. But the most important measure of his later administration was the Associations Bill of 1901. Like many of his predeccessors, he was convinced that the stability of the republic demanded some restraint on the intrigues of the wealthy religious bodies. All previous attempts in this direction had failed. In his speech in the Chamber M. Waldeck-Rousseau recalled the fact that he had endeavoured to pass an Associations Bill in 1882, and again in 1892. He declared that the religious associations were now being subjected for the first time to the regulations common to all others, and that the object of the bill was to ensure the supremacy of the civil power. The royalist bias given to the pupils in the religious seminaries was undoubtedly a principal cause of the passing of this bill; and the government further took strong measures to secure the presence of officers of undoubted fidelity to the republic in the higher positions on the staff. His speeches on the religious question were published in 1901 under the title of Associations et congrégations, following a volume bearing the title Questions sur ces associations (1901). The election of 1902 approached all sections of the Opposition united their efforts, and M. Waldeck-Rousseau's name served as a battle-cry for one side, and on the other as a target for the foulest abuse. The result was a decisive victory for republican stability. With the defeat of the machinations against the republic M. Waldeck-Rousseau considered his task ended, and on the 3rd of June 1902 he resigned office, having proved himself the "strongest personality in French politics since the death of Gambetta." He emerged from his retirement to protest in the Senate against the construction put on his Associations Bill by M. Coureau, who refused in mass meetings of the teaching and preaching congregations for official recognition. His health had long been failing when he died on the 10th of August 1904.

His speeches were published as Discours parlementaires (1889); Pour la république, 1883-1903 (1904), edited by H. Leryet; L'État et la liberté (1906); and his Plaidoyers (1906, &c.) were edited by H. Barboux. See also H. Leryet, Waldeck-Rousseau et la troisième république (1908), and the article France: History.

WALDEGRAVE, the name of an English family, taken from its early residence, Walgrave in Northamptonshire. Its founder was SIR RICHARD WALDEGRAVE, of Walgrave, who was member of Parliament for Lincolnshire in 1335; his son, Sir Richard Waldegrave (d. 1400), was a very obscure personage, and of Willesden in Middlesex.

One of Sir Richard's descendants was Sir Edward Waldegrave (c. 1517-1561) of Borley, Essex, who was imprisoned during the reign of Edward VI. for his loyalty to the princess, afterwards Queen Mary. He was knighted, and he received from her the manor of Chemoton in Somerset, now the residence of Earl Waldegrave. He was a member of parliament and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. After Mary's decease he suffered a reverse of fortune, and he was a prisoner in the Tower of London when he died on the 1st of September 1561. Sir Edward's descendant, another Sir Edward Waldegrave, was created a baronet in 1643 for his services to Charles I.; and his descendant, Sir Henry Waldegrave, Bart. (1660-1689), was created Baron Waldegrave of Chevton in 1686. Sir Henry married Henrietta (d. 1730), daughter of King James II. and Arabella Churchill, and their son was James, 1st Earl Waldegrave (1684-1741).

Educated in France, James Waldegrave soon crossed over to England, and under George I. he declared himself a Protestant and took his seat as Baron Waldegrave in the House of Lords. Highly recommended by Sir Robert Walpole, he was sent to Paris as ambassador extraordinary in 1725, and from 1727 to 1730 he was British ambassador at Vienna. In 1729 he was created Viscount Chevton and Earl Waldegrave, and in 1730 he succeeded Sir Horatio Walpole as ambassador in Paris, filling this post during ten very difficult years. He died on the 11th of April 1741. Much of his diplomatic correspondence is in the British Museum.

His son James, the 2nd earl (1715-1763), was perhaps the most intimate friend of George II., and was for a time governor of his grandson, the future king George III. He was very much in evidence during the critical years 1755-1757, when the king employed him to negotiate in turn with Newcastle, Devonshire, Pitt and Fox about the formation of a ministry. Eventually, in consequence of a deadlock, Waldegrave himself was first lord of the treasury for five days in June 1757. He died on the 28th of April 1763, leaving some valuable and interesting Memoirs, which were published in 1821.

His brother John, the 3rd earl (1718-1784), was a soldier, who distinguished himself especially at the battle of Minden and again at Jemappes; he was in every way a general in 1741.

His younger son, William Waldegrave (1752-1825), entered the British navy in 1766, and after many years of service was third in command at the battle of Cape St Vincent in 1797. In 1800 he was created an Irish peer as Baron Radstock, and in 1802 he became an admiral. His son, George, Granville, 2nd Baron Radstock (1786-1857), followed in his father's footsteps, and was made a vice-admiral in 1851. In 1857 his son, Granville Augustus William (b. 1833), became 3rd Baron Radstock.

The 4th Earl Waldegrave (1751-1789), the eldest son of the 3rd earl, was a soldier and a member of parliament. His sons, George (1784-1794) and John James (1785-1835), were the 5th and 6th earls. In 1797 the 6th earl inherited from Horace Walpole his famous residence, Strawberry Hill, Twickenham, but his son, George Edward, the 7th earl (1816-1846), was obliged in 1842 to sell the valuable treasures collected there. His wife, Frances, Countess Waldegrave (1821-1859), a daughter of the singer John Braham, was a prominent figure in society. She was his second husband, and after his death she married George Granville Vernon Harcourt of Nuneham Park, Oxfordshire, and later Chichester Fortescue, Baron Carlingford.

The 7th earl was succeeded by his uncle William (1788-1859), a son of the 4th earl, and in 1859 William's grandson, William Frederick (b. 1831), became the 9th earl.

WALDEN, ROGER (d. 1466), English prelate, was a man of obscure birth, little or nothing, moreover, being known of his early years. He had some connexion with the Channel Islands, and resided for some time in Jersey; and he held livings in Yorkshire and in Leicestershire before he became archdeacon of Winchester in 1387. His days, however, were by no means passed in peace. He was acting with the traces of his other positions in this neighbourhood. In 1395, after having served Richard II. as secretary, Walden became treasurer of England, adding the deanship of York to his numerous other benefices. In 1397 he was chosen archbishop of Canterbury in succession to Thomas Arundel, who had just been banished from the realm, but he lost this position when the new king Henry IV. restored Arundel in 1399, and after a short imprisonment he passed into retirement, being, as he himself says, "in the dust and under feet of men." In 1403, through Arundel's influence, he was elected bishop of London, and he died at Much Hadham in Hertfordshire on the 6th of January 1406. An Historia Mundi, the manuscript of which is in the British Museum, is sometimes regarded as the work of Walden; but this was doubtless written by an earlier writer.


WALDENBURG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Silesia, 39 m. S.W. of Breslau by the line to Hirschberg and Görlitz. Pop. (1905) 16,455. It contains a handsome town hall, three prominent and two Roman Catholic churches. Waldenburg lies in the centre of the productive coal district of the Waldenburger Gebirge, a branch of the Sudetic chain, and its inhabitants are largely occupied in the mining industry. Among other industrial establishments are a large porcelain and earthenware factory, extensive fireclay works, glassworks and a china-painting establishment; there are also numerous flax-spinners and linen-factories in the neighbourhood. Adjoining the town on the south is the village of Oberwaldenburg, pop. (1905)
The Waldenses. The Waldensian valleys lie to the south-west of Turin, in the direction of Monte Viso, but include no high
or snowy mountains, while the glens themselves are (with one
or two exceptions) fertile and well wooded. The principal town
near the valleys is Pinerolo (Pignolo). Just to its south-west
there opens the chief Waldensian valley, the Val Pellice,-watered
by the stream of that name, but sometimes called inaccurately
the Luserna valley, Luserna being simply a village opposite
the capital, Torre Pellice; near Torre Pellice the side glens of
Angroina and Rora join the Pellice valley. To the north-west
of Pinerolo, up the Chisone valley, there opens at Pevero Argentina
the valley of St Martin, another important Waldensian
valley, which is watered by the Germanasca torrent, and at
Perrero splits into two branches, of which the Prali glen is far
more fertile than that of Masselio, the latter being the wildest
and most savage of all the Waldensian valleys.

The name Waldenses was given to the members of an heretical
Christian sect which arose in the south of France about 1170.
The history of the sects of the middle ages is obscure, because
the earliest accounts of them come from those who were con-
cerned in their suppression, and were therefore eager to lay
upon each of them the worst enormities which could be attrib-
uted to it. Later times the apologists of each sect reversed the
process, and cleared that in which they were interested at
the expense of others. In early times these sectaries produced
little literature of their own; when they produced a literature
at the beginning of the 15th century they attempted to claim for
it a much earlier origin. Hence there is confusion on every
side; it is difficult to distinguish between various sects and
to determine their exact opinions or the circumstances under
which they came into being. The polemical conception which has
done much to perpetuate this confusion is that of the historical
continuity and the same teaching from Constantine to the
present day of 1100, when Pope Sylvester gained the first temporal
possession for the papacy, and so began the system of a rich,
powerful and worldly church, with Rome for its capital. Against
this secularized church a body of witnesses silently protested;
they were always persecuted but always survived, till in the
13th century a desperate attempt was made by Innocent III.
to root them out from their stronghold in southern France.
Persecution gave new vitality to their doctrines, which passed
on to Wycliffe and Huss, and through these leaders produced
the Reformation in Germany and England.

This view rests upon a series of suppositions, and is entirely
unhistorical. So far as can be discovered the heretical sects
of the middle ages rested upon a system of Manichaeism which
was imported into Europe from the East (see MANICHAEISM).
The Manichaean system of dualism, with its severe asceticism,
and its individualism, which early passed into antinomianism,
was attractive to many minds in the awakening of the 11th
century. Its presence in Europe can be traced in Bulgaria soon
after its conversion in 865,1 where the struggle between the Eastern
and Western churches for the new converts opened a way for the
more hardy speculations of a system which had never
entirely disappeared, and found a home amongst the
Paulicians (9th) in Armenia. The name of Cathari (see CATHARI),
taken by the adherents of this new teaching, sufficiently shows
the Oriental origin of their opinions, which spread from Bulgaria
amongst the Slavs, and followed the routes of commerce into
central Europe. The earliest record of their presence there is
the condemnation of ten canons of Orleans as Manichaeans in 1122,
and soon after this we find complaints of the prevalence of heresy
in northern Italy and in Germany. The stronghold of these
heretical opinions were the great towns, the centres of
civilization, because there the growing sentiment of municipal
independence, and the rise of a burgher class through commerce,
created a spirit of criticism which was dissatisfied with the
worldly lives of the clergy and their undue influence in affairs.

The system of Catharism recognized two classes of adherents,
credentes and perfecti. The perfecti only were admitted to its
esoteric doctrines and to its superstitious practices. To the
ordinary men it seemed to be a reforming agency, insisting on a
high moral standard, and upholding the words of Scripture
against the traditions of an overgrown and worldly church. Its
popular aim and its rationalistic method made men overlook
its real contents, which were not put clearly before them. It
may be said generally that Catharism formed the abiding
background of medieval heresy. Its dualistic system and its
anti-social principles were known only to a few, but its anti-
eclesiastical organization formed a permanent nucleus round
which gathered a great deal of political and ecclesiastical dis-
content. When this discontent took any independent form of
expression, zeal, which was not always accompanied by dis-
cretion, brought the movement into collision with the ecclesi-
astical authorities, by whom it was condemned as heretical.
When once it was in conflict with authority it was driven to
strengthen its basis by a more pronounced hostility against the
system of the church, and generally ended by borrowing some-
thing from Catharism. The result was that in the beginning of
the 13th century there was a tendency to class all bodies of
heretics together: partly their opinions had coalesced; partly
they were assumed to be identical.

Most of these sects were stamped out before the period of the
middle ages came to a close. The Waldenses, under their more
modern name of the Vaudols, have survived to the present
day in the valleys of Piedmont, and have been regarded as at
once the most ancient and the most evangelical of the medieval
sects. It is, however, by no means easy to determine their
original tenets, as in the 13th and 14th centuries they were a
body of obscure and unlettered peasants, hiding themselves
in a corner, while in the 16th century they were absorbed into
the general movement of the Reformation. As regards their
antiquity, the attempts of Waldo claim for them an earlier origin than
that of the Waldenses, which can no longer be sustained. They
rested upon the supposed antiquity of a body of Waldensian
literature, which modern criticism has shown to have been
tampered with. The most important of these documents, a
poem in Provençal, "La Nobla Leyczun," contains two lines
which claimed for it the date of 1100:

Ben ha mil e cent anez compli enteant
Que lo scripcas l' ora, car sen al deicr temp.

But it was pointed out2 that in the oldest MS. existing in the
Cambridge university library the figure 4 had been imperfectly
written, and the word "cent" a discovery which harmonized
with the results of a criticism of the contents of the poem itself.
This discovery did away with the ingenious attempts to account
for the name of Waldenses from some other source than from
the historical founder of the sect, Peter Waldo or Valdez.
To get rid of Waldo, whose date was known, the name Waldenses
or Vaulens was derived from Vails, because they dwelt in the
valleys, or from a supposed Provençal word Vaudes, which
meant a sorcerer.

Putting these views aside as unsubstantial, we will consider
the relation of the Waldenses as they appear in actual history,
which preceded them. Already in the 9th century there were
several protests against the rigidity and want of
spirituality of a purely sacerdotal church. Thus Bercangar
of Tours (1009-1088) upheld the symbolic character of the Eucharist
and the superiority of the Bible over tradition. The Paterines
in Milan (1045) raised a protest against simony and other abuses
of the clergy, and Pope Gregory VII. did not hesitate to enlist
their Puritanism on the side of the papacy and make them his
allies in imposing clerical celibacy. In 1110 an apostate monk
in Zeeland, Tanchelm, carried their views still farther, and
asserted that the sacraments were only valid through the merits
and sanctity of the ministers. In France, at Embrun, Peter de
Bruys founded a sect known as Petrobrusians, who denied infant
baptism, the need of consecrated churches; transubstantiation,
and masses for the dead. A follower of his, a monk, Henry, gave the name to another body known as Henricians, who centred in Tours. The teachers of these new opinions were men of high character and holy lives, who in spite of persecution wandered from place to place, and made many converts from those who were dissatisfied at the want of clerical discipline which followed upon the struggle for temporal supremacy into which the reforming projects of Gregory VII. had carried the church.

It was at this time (1170) that a rich merchant of Lyons, Peter Waldo, sold his goods and gave them to the poor; then he went forth as a preacher of voluntary poverty. His followers, the Waldenses, or paupers of Lyons, were moved by a religious feeling which could find no satisfaction within the actual system of the church, as they saw it before them. Like St Francis, Waldo adopted a life of poverty that he might be free to preach, but with this difference that the Waldenses preached the doctrine of Christ while the Franciscans preached the person of Christ, Waldo reformed teaching while Francis kindled love; hence the one awakened antagonisms which the other escaped. For Waldo had a translation of the New Testament made into Provençal, and his preachers not only stirred up men to more holy lives but explained the Scriptures at their own will and in their own way, with the result that the ecclesiastical authorities were led to difficulties. Pope Alexander III., who had approved of the poverty of the Waldensians, prohibited them from preaching without the permission of the bishops (1179). Waldo answered that he must obey God rather than man. The result of this disobedience was excommunication by Lucius III. in 1184. Thus a reforming movement became heresy through disobedience to authority, and after being condemned embarked on a course of polemical investigation how to justify its own position. Some were readmitted into the Catholic Church, and one, Durandus de Osca (1216), attempted to found an order of Pampers Catholic, which was the forerunner of the order of St Dominic. Many were swept away in the crusade against the Albigensians (q.v.). Others made an appeal to Innocent III., protesting their orthodoxy. Their appeal was not successful, for they were formally condemned by the Lateran council of 1215.

The earliest definite account given of the Waldesian opinion is that of the Inquisitor Sacconi about 1250. He divides them into two classes: those north of the Alps and those of Lombardy.

The first class hold (1) that oaths are forbidden by the gospel, (2) that capital punishment is permitted to the civil power, (3) that any layman may consecrate the sacrament of the altar, and (4) that the Roman Church is not the Church of Christ. The Lombard sect went farther in (3) and (4), holding that no one in mortal sin could consecrate the sacrament, and that the Roman Church was the scourge woman of the Apocalypse, whose precepts ought not to be obeyed, especially those appointing fast-days. This account sufficiently shows the difference of the Waldenses from the Cathari: they were opposed to asceticism, and had no official priesthood; at the same time their objection to oaths and to capital punishment are closely related to the principles of the Cathari. Their other opinions were forced upon them by their conflict with the authority of the Church. When forbidden to preach without the permission of the bishop, they were driven to assert the right of all to preach, without distinction of age or sex. This led to the further step of setting up personal merit rather than ecclesiastical ordination as the ground of the priestly office. From this followed again the conclusion that obedience was not due to an unworthy priest, and that his ministrations were in no way of divine institution. These opinions were subversive of the system of the medieval church, and were naturally viewed with great disfavour by its officials; but it cannot fairly be said that they have much in common with the opinions of the Reformers of the 16th century. The medieval church set forth Christ as present in the orderly community of the faithful; Protestantism aimed at setting the individual in immediate communion with Christ, without the mechanical intervention of the officers of the community; the

Waldenses merely set forward a new criterion of the orderly arrangement of the church, according to which each member was to sit in judgment on the works of the ministers, and consequently on the validity of their ministerial acts. It was a rude way of expressing a desire for a more spiritual community. The earliest known document proceeding from the Waldensians is an account of a conference held at Bergamo in 1218 between the Ultramontane and the Lombard divisions, in which the Lombards showed a greater opposition to the recognized priesthood than did their northern brethren.

As these opinions became more pronounced persecution became more severe, and the breach between the Waldenses and the church widened. Waldo withdrew altogether from the ministrations of the church, and chose ministers for the churches whose merits were recognized by the body of the faithful. Election took the place of ordination, but even here the Lombards showed their difference from the Ultramontanes, and recognized only two orders, like the Cathari, while the northern body kept the old three orders of bishops, priests and deacons. Gradually the separation from the church became more complete: the sacraments were regarded as merely symbolical; the priests became helpers of the faithful; ceremonies disappeared; and a new religious society was set up, equally unlike the medieval church and the Reformation churches of the west and east.

The spread of these heretical sects led to resolute attempts at their suppression. The crusade against the Albigensians could destroy prosperous cities and hand over lands from a heedless lord to one who was obedient to the church; but it could not get rid of heresy. The revival of preaching, which was the work of the order of St Dominic, did more to combat heresy, especially where its persuasions were enforced by law. The work of inquisition into cases of heresy proceeded slowly in the hands of the bishops, who were too busy with other matters to find much time for sitting in judgment on theological points about which they were imperfectly informed. The greatest blow struck against heresy was the transference of the duty of inquiry into heresy from the bishops to Dominican inquisitors. The secular power, which shared in the proceeds of the confiscation of those who were found guilty of heresy, was ready to help in carrying out the judgments of the spiritual courts. Everywhere, and especially in the district round Toulouse, heretics were keenly prosecuted, and before the continued zeal of persecution the Waldenses slowly disappeared from the chief centres of population and were driven to the remote inaccessible valleys of the Alps. There, in the recesses of Piedmont, where the streams of the Pelice, the Angroigne, the Clusone and others leave the sides of the Alps into valleys which converge at Susa, a settlement of the Waldensians was made who gave their name to these valleys of the Vaudois. In the more accessible regions north and south heresy was exposed to a steady process of persecution, and tended to assume shifting forms. Among the valleys it was less easily reached, and retained its old organization and its old contents. Little settlements of heretics dispersed throughout Italy and Provence looked to the valleys as a place of refuge, and tacitly regarded them as the centre of their faith. At times attempts were made to suppress the sect of the Vaudois, but the nature of the country which they inhabited, their obscurity and their isolation made the difficulties of their suppression greater than the advantages to be gained from it. However, in 1487 Innocent VIII. issued a bull for their extermination, and Albert no de' Capitani, archdeacon of Cremona, put himself at the head of a crusade against them. Attacked in Dauphiné and Piedmont at the same time, the Vaudois were hard pressed; but luck, owing to the assistance of a few men of distraction upon their chief refuge in the valley of the Angroigne, and were repulsed with great loss. After this Charles II., Duke of Piedmont, interfered to save his territories from further confusion, and promised the Vaudois peace. They were, however, sorely reduced by the onslaught which had been made upon them, and lost their ancient spirit of independence. When the Lutheran movement began they were ready to sympathize with it, and ultimately to adapt their old

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1 D'Argentré, Collectio judiciorum de nonis erroribus, l. 50, &c.

2 Pueger, Beiträge zur Geschichte der Waldesier.
beliefs to those of the rising Protestantism. Already there were scattered bodies of Waldenses in Germany who had influenced, and afterwards joined, the Hussites and the Bohemian Brethren.

The last step in the development of the Waldensian body was taken in 1530, when two deputies of the Vaudois in Dauphiné and Provence, Georges Morel and Pierre Masson, were sent to confer with the German and Swiss Reformers. A letter addressed to Oecolampadius1 gives an account of their practices and beliefs at that time, and shows us a simple and unlettered community, which was the survival of an attempt to form an esoteric religious society within the medieval church. It would appear that its members received the sacraments of baptism and the holy communion from the regular priesthood, at all events sometimes, but maintained a discipline of their own and held services for their own edification. Their ministers were called barba, a Provençal word meaning guide. They were chosen from among labouring men, who, at the age of twenty-five might ask the body of ministers to be admitted as candidates. If their character was approved they were taught during the winter months, when work was slack, for a space of three or four years; after that they were sent for two years to serve as menial assistants at a nunnery for women, which curiously enough existed in a recess of the valleys. Then they were admitted to office, after receiving the communion, by the imposition of hands of all ministers present. They went out to preach two by two, and the junior was bound absolutely to obey the senior. Clerical celibacy was the rule, but they permitted those who required it to partake of the national law of divorce. The ministers received food and clothing from the contributions of the people, but also worked with their hands; the result of this was that they were very ignorant, and also were grasping after bequests from the dying. The affairs of the church were managed by a general synod held every year. The duties of the barbas were to visit all within their district once a year, hear their confessions, advise and admonish them; in all services the two ministers sat side by side, and one spoke after the other. In point of doctrine they acknowledged the seven sacraments, but gave them a symbolical meaning; they prayed to the Virgin and saints, and admitted, in part at least, to the sacrament of confession, but they denied purgatory and the sacrifice of the mass, and did not observe fasts or festivals. After giving this account of themselves they ask for information about several points in a way which shows the exigencies of a rude and isolated society; and finally they say that they have been much disturbed by the Lutheran teaching about free-will and predestination, for they had held that men did good works through natural virtue stimulated by God's grace, and they thought of predestination in no other way than as a part of God's foreknowledge. The removal of this great objection further emphasizes the wrongfulness of their outward submission to the ordinances of the church: "God," he said, "is a jealous God, and does not permit His elect to put themselves under the yoke of Antichrist." The result of this intercourse was an alliance between the Vaudois and the Swiss and German Reformers. A synod was held in 1532 at Chanforans in the valley of the Angrogne, where a new confession of faith was adopted, which recognized the doctrine of election, assimilated the practices of the Vaudois to those of the Swiss congregations, renounced for the future all recognition of the Roman communion, and established a separate Church, which was allowed to hold meetings of a faithful few but as public assemblies for the glory of God.

Thus the Vaudois ceased to be relics of the past, and became absorbed in the general movement of Protestantism. This was not, however, a source of quiet or security. In France and Italy alike they were marked out as special objects of persecution, and the Vaudois church has many records of martyrdom. The most severe trial to which the Vaudois of Piedmont were subjected occurred in 1655. The Congregation de Propaganda Fide established, in 1650, a local council in Turin, which exercised a peculiar jurisdiction over the Vaudois, and deprived Bishop L., who was bishop of this district until the age of twenty-six, of his see. But the Vaudois was employed for this purpose, and his famous sonnet is but the condensation of his state papers. Sir Samuel Morland was sent on a special mission to Turin, and to him were confided by the Vaudois leaders copies of their religious books, which he brought back to England, and ultimately gave to the university library at Cambridge. Large sums of money were contributed in England and elsewhere, and were sent to the suffering Vaudois.

By this demonstration of opinion was made for a time between the Vaudois and their persecutors; but it was a treacherous peace, and left the Vaudois with a hostile garrison established among them. Their worship was prohibited, and their chief pastor, Leger, was obliged to flee, and in his exile at Leiden wrote his Histoire générale des églises vaudoises (1684). The revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685 began a new period of persecution, which aimed at entire extermination. This was found so difficult that the remnant of the Vaudois, to the number of 2600, were at last allowed to withdraw to Geneva. But the love of their native valleys was strong among the exiles, and in 1686 one of their pastors, Henri Arnaud, led a band of 800 men to the reconquest of their country. His first attempts against the French were successful, and the provinces of Savoie, Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and Louis XIV, brought a sudden change of fortune to the Vaudois. They were recognized once more as citizens of Savoy, and in the war against France which broke out in 1696 the Vaudois regiment did good service for its duke. The peace of Utrecht saw the greater part of the French territory occupied by the Vaudois annexed to Savoy, and, though there were frequent threatenings of persecution, the idea of toleration slowly prevailed in the policy of the house of Savoy. The Vaudois, who had undergone all these vicissitudes, were gradually reduced to poverty, and their ministers were partially maintained by a subsidy from England, which was granted by Queen Anne. The 18th century, however, was a time of religious decadence even among the Alpine valleys, and the outbreak of the French Revolution saw the Vaudois made subjects of France. This led to a loss of the English subsidy, and they applied to Napoleon for an equivalent. This was granted, and their church was organized by the state. On the restoration of the house of Savoy in 1816 English influence was used on behalf of the Vaudois, who received a limited toleration. From that time onwards the Vaudois became the objects of much interest in Protestant countries. Large sums of money were collected to build hospitals and churches among their valleys, and they were looked upon as the possible centre of a Protestant church in Italy. Especially from England did they receive sympathy and help. An English clergyman, Dr. Gilly, visited the valleys in 1823, and by his writings on the Vaudois church attracted considerable attention, so that he was enabled to build a college at La Torre. Moreover, Dr. Gilly's book (A Visit to the Valleys of Piedmont), chasing into the hands of an officer who had lost his leg at Waterloo, Colonel Beckwith, suggested an object for the energies of General Wellington, who was keen on the age of twenty-six to sink into enforced idleness. Beckwith visited the valleys, and was painfully struck by the squalor and ignorance of a people who had so glorious a past. He settled among them, and for thirty-five years devoted himself to promote their welfare. During this period he established no fewer than 120 schools; moreover he brought back the Italian language which had been displaced by the French in the services of the Vaudois church, and in 1849 built a church for them in Turin. He lived in La Torre till his death in 1862, and the name of the English benefactor is still revered by the simple faces of the valley.

The parent church in the valleys is ecclesiastically governed by a court for internal affairs called the "Table," after the old
stone table round which the ancient barbaras used to sit, and a mission board, with an annual syndow to which both the home and mission boards are subject. The total population of the Wal- densian valleys (for they also contain Roman Catholics in no small number) amounts to about 20,000 all told. In 1900 there were 16 parish churches, 11 parochial schools, and 2 Sunday schools (3017 children) and 194 day schools (with 4218 children); the full members (i.e. communicants) of the Wal- densian faith amounted to 12,605. There were, besides, branches at Turin (1 temple, 2 pastors and 750 members), in other parts of Italy, including Sicily (46 temples and as many pastors, while the number of members was 5613, of day scholars 2704, and of Sunday school scholars 3702). It is also reckoned that in Uruguay and the Argentine Republic there are about 6000 Waldensians; of these 1253 were in 1900 full members, while the day scholars numbered 364 and the Sunday school children 679.

The literature on the subject of the Waldensian and other sects is copious. For their rise the most important authorities are to be found in Moneta, Adversus Catharos et Waldenses; D’Argenté, Collectio judiciorum de novis erroribus; Alman, Adversus haereses; D’Achery, Spicilegia, vol. 1; Gretser, Opera, vol. x.; Limborch, Historia Inquisitionis, at the end of which is the Liber sententiarum of the Inquisition of Toulouse from 1307-1322. Of modern books mention may be made of: Schmidt, Hahn, Geschichte der neumanchiischen Ketzer; Dieckenhoff, Die Waldenser im Mittelalter; Preger, Beiträge zur Geschichte der Waldenser; Canti, Gli Eretici in Italia e nel mondo in generale (1907); Fribourg, Heilige Geist, 2 vol.; T. Reclus, Histoire des frères de l’Amour; Zucco, Storia dei ultime e dei Vaudi; M. Schmidt, Zeitschrift für evangelische Kirchenrecht. Among books dealing with the more modern history of the Vaudois specially are Leger, Histoire des églises vaudoises; Arnaud, Histoire de la rentrée des Vaudois; Perrin, Histoire des Vaudois; Monastier, Histoire de l’église vaudoise; Musson, L’Etrang des Alpes; Gilly, Excursion to the Valleys of Piedmont, and Researches on the Waldenses; Todd, The Waldensian Manuscripts; Melia, Origin, Persecution and DOctrines and of the Waldenses; Jules Chevalier, Mémoires sur les hérésies en Dauphiné en 1321; Fribourg, Réformes en Italie et les Vaudois (Valence, 1890); J. A. Chabrand, Vaudois et Protestantism des Alpes: recherches historiques (Grenoble, 1886); H. Haupt, article in Von Sybel’s Historische Zeitschrift (1886), pp. 59-66; W. A. B. Coolidge, articles in the Guardian for 19th August 1886 and 4th December 1889.

WALDENSEE, ALFRED, COUNT (1832-1904), Prussian general field marshal, came of a soldier family. Entering the Guard Artillery of the Prussian army in 1850, he soon attracted the favourable notice of his official superiors, and he made his first campaign (that of 1866) as aide-de-camp to General of Artillery Prince Charles of Prussia, with whom he was present at Königgrätz. In the course of this campaign Count Waldersee was promoted to the rank of major. After conclusion of the peace he served on the staff of the X. Army Corps (newly formed from the conquered kingdom of Hanover). In January 1870 he became military attaché at Paris and aide-de-camp to King William. In the Franco-German War Lieut.-Colonel Count Waldersee, on account of both his admitted military talents and his recent experience of the enemy’s army, proved a most useful assistant to the “supreme War-Lord.” He was present at the great battles around Metz, in which he played more than an orderly officer’s part, and in the war against the republic he was specially sent to the command of the staff of the grand army of the North, which was operating against Chancy’s army on the Loir. The grand duke was a good soldier, but not a brilliant strategist, and the fortunate outcome of the western campaign was largely due to his adviser. At the end of the war Waldersee received the First Class of the Iron Cross, and was entrusted with the exceedingly delicate and difficult post of German representative at Paris, in which his tact and courtesy were very marked. At the end of 1871 Waldersee took over the command of the 13th Ulians at Hanover, and two years later he became chief of the staff of the Hanoverian army corps, in which he remained until 1878, when he became principal assistant on the great general staff at Berlin, and for seven years was intimately connected with the great field marshal’s work, so that, when Moltke retired in 1888, Waldersee’s appointment to succeed him was a foregone conclusion. Three years later the chief of the general staff was sent to command the IX. Corps at Altona, an appointment which was interpreted as indicating that his close and intimate friendship with Bis- mark had made him, at this time of the chancellor’s dismissal, a persona non grata to the young emperor. In 1898, however, he was appointed inspector-general, at the west of the army of inspection” at Hanover, the order being accompanied by the most eulogistic expressions of the Kaiser’s goodwill. On the despatch of European troops to quell the Boxer insurrection in China in 1900, it was agreed that Count Waldersee should have the supreme command of the joint forces. The preparations for his departure from Germany caused a good deal of satirical comment on what was known as the “Waldersee Rummel” or “theatricals.” He arrived at the front, however, too late to direct his troops in the fighting before Peking. At the end of the war he returned to Germany. He resumed his duties of inspector-general, which he performed almost to his death, which took place on the 5th of March 1904.

WALDO, SAMUEL LOVETT (1783-1861), American artist, was born in Windham, Connecticut, on the 6th of April 1783. He had a studio in Charleston, South Carolina. In 1806 he went to London, where he painted portraits for some years with success. In 1809 he returned to New York, and was a conspicuous figure in the city’s art life until his death there on the 16th of February 1861. He became an associate of the National Academy in 1847. Among his works are a series of portraits of the notable members of the Van Vorst family, and a portrait of Peter Renssen, in possession of the New York Historical Society, and two portraits of John Trumbull.

WALENSEE, also called the LAKE OF WALENSESTADT, a Swiss lake between the basins of the Rhine and the Linth (Limmat), lying S.E. of the Lake of Zürich. It is formed by the Seez river (descending from the Weisstannen gletscher), which once certainly sent its waters to the Rhine, but now enters the lake at its eastern end. Near its western end the Linth has been diverted through the Escher canal (completed in 1811) into the lake, from which it soon again issues in order, by means of the Linth canal (completed in 1816), to flow into the Lake of Zürich. The Walensee has an area of 9 sq. m., is about 9 m. in length, 1½ m. wide and 495 ft. deep, while its surface is 1388 ft. above sea-level. It forms part of the Canton of St Gall, save 1½ sq. m. towards its west end, which are in that of Glarus. It lies in a deep trench between two comparatively lofty ranges of mountains, so that its scenery is more gloomy than is usual with Swiss lakes. On the north shore there is but a single village of any size (Quinten), while above it rise the cliffs of the seven- bordered Dauphine, which is the present of the canton of the same name. A little below the lake, and nestling in a hollow high above the lake, on the south side the hills rise less steeply from the shore (which are Mükelenhorn and Murg) towards the fine terrace of the Kerenzenberg, on which are the frequent summer resorts of Obstalden and Filzbach, backed on the south by the singularly imposing crags of the Mürschnekenstock (8012 ft). The small towns of Wiesen and Walenstadt are situated respectively at the western and the eastern extremities of the lake, a railway along the south shore of which connects them with each other (1½ m.). Since the construction of this line no steamers run from them to the city of Zürich.

WALES (Cymru, Gwalia, Cambria), a Principality occupying the extreme middle-west of the southern part of the island of Great Britain, bounded E. by the English counties of Cheshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire and Monmouthshire; S. by the Bristol Channel; W. by St George’s Channel; and N. by the Irish Sea. (For map see England, V.) Its area is 7467 sq. m. Its greatest length from N. to S. (from the Point of Air in Flint to Barry Island on the Glamorgan coast) is 136 m., while its breadth varies from 92 m. (from St Dogmaels Head to the English Channel) to 37 m. (the distance between Aberystwyth and the Shropshire boundary at Clun Forest). Its total circuit is about 540 m., of which 300 consist of coast- line. The principal headlands are Great Ormes Head; in Carnarvonshire; Braich-y-Pwll, the most westerly point of
Carnarvonshire; St Davids Head, the most westerly point of South Wales; Worms Head, the western extremity of Gower; and Lavernock Point to the W. of Cardiff. The principal islands are Holy Island, off the W. coast of Anglesea; Bardsey (Ynys Enlli), near Brach-y-Pwll; and the islands of Ramsey, Grassholm, Skomer, Skokholm and Caldy (Ynys Pyr) off the Pembroke-shire coast. The chief inlets are the Mouth of the Dee, dividing Flint from Cheshire; the Menai Straits, separating Anglesea from the mainland; Carnarvon Bay; Cardigan Bay, stretching from Brach-y-Pwll to St Davids Head; St Brides Bay; Milford Haven; Carmarthen Bay; and Swansea Bay.

The boundaries of the counties for judicial purposes are laid down as follows: the Principality is divided into North Wales and South Wales, each of which consists of six counties.

**North Wales.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acreage</th>
<th>Population (1901)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglesea (Ynys Fôn)</td>
<td>176,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carnarvon (Sir Arfon)</td>
<td>356,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denbigh (Sir Dinebhy)</td>
<td>423,499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flint (Sir Filint)</td>
<td>164,744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merioneth (Sir Feirionydd)</td>
<td>471,635</td>
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<tr>
<td>Montgomery (Sir Drefaldwyn)</td>
<td>510,111</td>
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**South Wales.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acreage</th>
<th>Population (1901)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brecon or Brecknock (Sir Frycheiniog)</td>
<td>475,224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardigan (Sir Aberteifi)</td>
<td>465,593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carmarthen (Sir Gaerfyrdin)</td>
<td>587,816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glamorgan (Sir Forganw)</td>
<td>518,863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pembroke (Sir Benfro)</td>
<td>395,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radnor (Sir Faesyfed)</td>
<td>301,164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mountains.**—Almost the whole surface of Wales is mountainous or undulating. The most important hill system is that of the North Wales mountains, covering the county of Carnarvon and parts of Merioneth and Denbigh, wherein the Snowdonian range reaches the height of 3,571 ft. in Snowdon, 3,438 ft. in Carnedd Llywelyn, and of 3,242 ft. in Carnedd Dafydd. South of this system, and separated by it from the upper valley of the Dee, the Berwyn range extends from N. to S.E., and is itself adjacent to Aran-fawdwy (2995 ft.) on the highest lands of the Cadair Idris group. The system of mid-Wales or Powys stretches from Cardigan Bay to the English border, and contains Plynlimon (2462 ft.) in north Cardigan; Dyfi (2370 ft.) in north Brecon; and Rheidw Llyn (2163 ft.) in mid-Radnor. From Plynlimon a range of hills runs in a south-easterly direction towards St Davids, terminating in the Preseli range of north Pembroke (1750 ft.) and dividing the broad valleys of the Teifi and Towy. The combined range of the Black Mountains, the Brecknock Beacons and the Black Forest sweep across south Brecon from W. to E., the chief elevations being the Carmarthen Van (2623 ft.), the Brecon Beacon (2682 ft.) and Pen-y-gabler fawr (2660 ft.) near the English border.

**Lakes and Rivers.**—Small lakes, such as Llyn Ogwen, Llyn Saffadan (Llangorse Lake), Talyllyn, the Teifi Pools, &c., are fairly numerous in the mountainous districts, but the only natural lake of importance is Bala Lake, or Llyn Tegid, in Merionethshire, 4 m. long and about 1 m. wide. But the great reservoir known as Lake Vyrnwy, which supplies Liverpool with water, is equal in size to Bala; and the chain of lakes from the source of the Birmingh. makers in the valley of the Elan and Claerwen covers a large area in west Radnorshire. The longest river in Wales is the Severn (180 m.), in Welsh Hafren, which rises in Plynlimon, and takes a northward course through Montgomeryshire before reaching the English border. The Wye (130 m.) also rises in Plynlimon, and forms for some 30 m. the boundary between the counties of Radnor and Brecon before encountering English soil near Hay. The Usk (56 m.) flows through Breconshire, and joins the Bristol Channel at Newport in Monmouthshire. The Dee (70 m.) traverses Bala Lake, and drains parts of the counties of Merioneth, Denbigh and Flint. It enters Carnarvonshire entering Carnarvon Bay at Llanstephan; the Teifi (50 m.) rises near Tregaron and falls into Cardigan Bay below the town of Cardi- gan. The Taf (50 m.) runs from Cardigan Bay to the Towy (25 m.), entering Carmarthen Bay at Laugharne; and the broad navigable Conway (2m.), dividing the counties of Carnarvon and Denbigh.

**Welsh Place-Names.**—The place-names throughout the Principality may be said to group themselves roughly into four divisions: (i) Pure and unaltered Celtic names; (ii) Corrupted or abbreviated Celtic names; (iii) English names; (iv) Scandinavian and foreign names. To the first division belong the vast majority of place-names throughout the whole of Wales and Monmouthshire. Except in some districts of the Marches and in certain tracts lying along the South Wales coast, nearly all parishes, villages, hamlets, farms, houses, woods, fields, streams and valleys possess native appellations, which in most cases are descriptive of natural situation, e.g. Nant-y-ffyn, the boundary brook; Aberporth, mouth of the harbour; Tal-y-bont, end of the bridge; Treweryn, foot of the hill; Duffryn, a valley; &c. Certain place-names are for natural features, e.g. Nant-y-gôr, the blacksmith’s brook; Treffeca, the house of Rebecca; Llysgen Madoc, Madoc’s grove; Pont-saeson, the Saxons’ glen, &c. An historical origin is frequently commemorated, notably in the many foundations of the Celtic missionaries of the 6th, 7th and 7th centuries, wherein the word llan (church) precedes a proper name; thus every Llanddew recalls the early labours of Dewi Sant (St David); every Llanddona, those of St Teilo; and such names as Llandudno, Llanfanog, Llanbadarn and the like commemorate SS. Tudno, Afan, Paradarn. The names of the ancient towns which have been corrupted by English usage—belong most of the old historic towns, in striking contrast with the rural villages and parishes, which in nearly all cases have retained unaltered their original Celtic names. Anglicized in spelling and even to some extent changed in sound are Carmarthens (Caerfyrddin); Pembroke (Penbro); Kidwelly (Cydweiti; Cardifi (Caerdydi); Llandvery (Llanymddyfi); while Lampeter, in Welsh Llande- pont-Stephen, affords an example of a Celtic place-name both Anglicized and abbreviated. In not a few instances modern English nomenclature has supplanted the old Welsh place-names in popular usage, although the town’s original appellation is retained in Welsh literature and conversation, e.g. Holyhead is Caergybi (fort of Cybi, a Celtic missionary of the 6th century); Presteigne is Llandradas (church of St Andrew, or Andras); St Asaph is Llandewi; the English name commemorating the reputed founder of the see, and the Welsh name recalling the church’s original foundation on the banks of the Elwy. Cardigan, in Welsh Aberteifi, from its situation near the mouth of the Teifi, and Brecon, in Welsh Aberhonddu, from its site near the confluence of the Usk and Avon, are instances of English Welsh names in common use—Ceredigion, Brychan—which possess in addition pure Celtic forms. In the third division, English place-names are tolerably frequent everywhere and predominate in the Marches and on the South Wales coast. Even in so thoroughly Welsh a county as Cardiganshire, English place-names are often to be encountered, e.g. New Quay, High Mead, Oakford, &c.; but many of such names are of modern invention, dating chiefly from the 18th and 19th centuries. Of the many English names occurring in south Pembroke and south Glamor- gan, some are exact or fanciful translations of the original Welsh, e.g. Cambridge (Pant-y-fon) and Ludgkirk (Eglwyseg Llwyd), others are of direct external origin, as Bishopstone, Flemingstone, Butter Hill, Briton Ferry, Manselfield, &c. Names derived straight from an Anglo-Norman source are rare; Beaupré, Beaumaris, Beaufort, Fleur-de-lis, Roche, may be cited as examples of such. Scandinavian influence can easily be traced at various points of the coast-line, but particularly in south Pembroke, wherein occur such place-names as Caldy, Tenby, Goodwick, Dale, Skokholm, Hakin and Milford Haven. Speci- fically Romanized names, those ending in -acum, are especially common in the counties of Carmarthen and Cardigan; there are preserved in Strata Florida and Vale Crucis Abbeys. Hybrid place-names are occasionally to be met with in the colonized portions of Wales, as in Gelliswick (a combination of the Celtic gellt, a hazel grove, and the Norse wick, a haven), and in Fletherhille, where the English suffix hill is practically a translation of the Celtic prefix. A striking peculiarity of the Principality is the prevalence of Scriptural place-names; a circumstance due undoubtedly to the popular religious movements of the 19th century. Not only are such names as Horeb, Zion, Peniel, Siloh, &c., bestowed on Nonconformist chapels,
but these Biblical terms have likewise been applied to their surrounding houses, and in not a few instances to growing towns and villages. A notable example of this curious nomenclature occurs in Bethesda, Carnarvonshire, where the name of the Congregational chapel erected early in the 19th century has altogether supplanted the original Celtic place-name of Ciloden. But although English and foreign place-names are fairly numerous throughout Wales, yet the vast majority remain Celtic either in a pure or corrompt form, so that some knowledge of the Celtic language is essential to interpret their meaning.

A small glossary of some of the more common component words is appended below.

Aber, the mouth or estuary of a river—Aberystwyth, Abergwy.
Afon, a river—Afon Clasych, Afon Conwy.
Alwen, a brook—Alwen, Afon Tal-y-llwyf, Alynwyl.
Alwen, a bend—Afon Llwyf, Afon Tal-y-llwyf.
Afon, a river—a word which retains its primitive meaning in Wales, whilst it has become a proper name in England—Glanalon, Manon.
Bettws, a corrupt form of the English "bed-house," or possibly of the Latin "beatus"—Betws-y-coed, Bettws Ynys.
Blan, the top—Blaendyfrig, Blaencwm.
Bod, a house or abode—Hoffan, Hafod.
Brym, the human breast, hence breast of hill—Brongest, Citronnau.
Bryn, a hill—Brynmaur, Penbyr.
Butch, a gap—Butch-y-foel, Tanyhen.
Caed, a field—Caeglas, Tynycaw.
Caer, a fortress or fortified camp—Caerleon, Caersws.
Capel, a corrupt form of the Latin "capella," applied to chapels, ancient and recent—Capel Dewi, Capel-y-capel.
Carn, a cairn or heap of stones—Moel-trigarn.
Carred, a tumultus—Carred Llywelyn.
Cefn, a ridge—Cefn-Mably, Cemyn-y-bedd.
Chl, a retreat, said to be akin to the Goddelic kil—Cilall-Aeron, Cilennon.
Cnoc, a knoll or mound—Cuwglas (Anglicized into Knocklas, in Radnorshire).
Coed, a wood—Coedmawr, Penycoed.
Craig, a rock or crag—Pen-y-graig.
Crig, a heap or barrow—Craig Mawr, Trichfgrg.
Cum, a low valley, Anglicized into "coum"—Cwm Gweddraeth, Blaencwm.
Din, a fortified hill, hence Dinus, a fortified town—Dineafaw, Pen Dinis.
Dol, a meadow—Dolwilym, Dolau.
Duer, Dwyf, water—Glyndwrdu, the patrimony of the celebrated Owen Glendower, of which his Anglicized name is a corruption.
Eglwys, a corruption of the Latin "ecclesia," a church—Eglwysyrw, Tanfrogynlws.
Gaff, in North Wales a steep slope; in South Wales a hanging wall—Gawf-yrhyd, Pen-y-rhyd, Glynhaf.
Gelli, a grove—Gellideg, Pengelly Forest.
Glan, a bank—Glanmyr, Glandafan.
Glyn, a glen or narrow valley—Glyncothi, Tyglwyn.
Llafur, a labourer—Llafur, Afon Llafur.
Llwyd, a grove—Penlyn, Llwybran.
Lyny, a court or palace—Henlly, Llsywenn.
Maes, open land, or battlede—Maesfyl (the Welsh name for Radnorshire), Maesilwch.
Moel, a hill, hence a bare hill-top—Mocrief.
Mfr, the sea—Brynmor, Glanymor.
Mynydd, mountain—Llanyfyl, Mynydd Dd.
Nant, a ravine, hence also a brook—Nantglywyll, Nannau, Nantgaredig.
Pant, a glen or hollow—Pantycelyn, Blaencpen.
Parc, an enclosed field—Parc-y-marw, Penparc.
Paw, a sp Tanner, ancient name—Pwllgan, Glamorgan.
Pont, a bridge, a corruption of the Latin "pons"—Ponthirwen, Talbytont.
Porth, a gate or harbour—perhaps a corrupt form of the Latin "porta"—Aberporth, Pump Porth ("the Five Gates").
Rhiau, ascent or slope—Troyedriw, Rhiau.
Rhos, a moor—Rhlosinlyn, Typhros.
Rhyd, a ford—Rhyd-y-cwm, Glynhaf.
Sarn, a causeway, generally descriptive of the old Roman pavel roads—Talsarn, Sarnau, Sarn Badrig.
Tal, an end, also head—Taliaris, Talilym.
Ty, a homestead, hence caufer, a hundred—Hendref, Caerfrynwy, gwaedol.
Toed, a base—Toed-y-bryn.
Ty, a house, a cottage—Tywynwyd, Mynachwy.
Wl, or gwyn, the Celtic word for water, preserved in the names of many Welsh rivers—Elwy, Gwili, Wye or Gwy.
Ynys, an island, or hill in the midst of a bog—Ynys Enlli (the Welsh name for Bardsey Islands), Ynysgil, Glynynys.
Ysbyty, spire, a corrupt form of the Latin "hospitalium," often used of the guest-house of an abbey—Ysbyty Ystwyth, Tafarn Spite.
Ystrad, a meadow or rich lowland—Ystrad Mynach, Llanhangel Ystrad.

Population.—The total population of the twelve counties of the Principality was: 1,360,513 (1881), 1,419,058 (1891), 1,206,600 (1901). These figures prove a steady increase of some magnitude, but the increase itself is confined entirely to the industrial districts of the Principality, and in a special degree to Glamorgan-shire; while the agricultural counties, such as Pembroke, Merioneth, Cardigan or Montgomery, present a continuous though slight decrease owing to local emigration to the centres of industry. The whole population of Wales in Tudor, Stuart and early Georgian times can scarcely have exceeded 500,000 souls, and was probably less. But with the systematic development of the vast mineral resources in the South Wales coalfield, the population of Glamorganshire has increased at a more rapid rate than that of any other county of the United Kingdom, so that at present this county contains about half the population of all Wales. It will be noted, therefore, that the vast mass of the inhabitants of Wales are settled in the industrial area which covers the northern districts of Glamorganshire and the southeastern corner of Carmarthenshire; whilst central Wales, comprising the four counties of Cardigan, Radnor, Merioneth and Montgomery, forms the least populous portion of the Principality. The coal mining districts, at present, contain a population exceeding 10,000: Cardiff, Ystradysod, Swansea, Merthyr Tydfil, Abergavenny, Pontypool, Llanelli, Ogmore and Garw, Pembroke, Caerphilly, Maesteg, Wrexham, Penarth, Neath, Ffestiniog, Bangor, Holyhead, Carmarthen. Only four towns in North Wales are included in these eighteen, and the combined population of these four—Wrexham (14,666), Ffestiniog (11,435), Bangor (11,260) and Holyhead (10,979)—fall far below that of Merthyr Tydfil (60,228), the fourth largest town in Glamorganshire.

Industries.—The chief mineral product of the Principality is coal, of which about 50,000,000 tons are annually exported. The great South Wales coalfield, one of the largest in the kingdom, covers the greater part of Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire, the southeastern corner of Carmarthenshire, and a small portion of south Pembrokeshire, and the quality of its coal is especially suitable for smelting purposes and for use in steamships. The supply of limestone and ironstone in Glamorganshire is said to be practically unexhausted, and tons of pig iron and steel, and some of the largest iron-works in the world are situated at Merthyr Tydfil and Dowlais. Copper, tin and lead works are everywhere numerous in the busy valleys of north Glamorgan and in the neighboring mining counties of Swansea and Llanelli. In North Wales, Wrexham, Ruabon and Chirk are centres of coal-mining industry. There are valuable copper mines in Anglesea, and lead mines in Flint and in north Cardiganshire, which also yield a certain deposit of silver ore. Gold has been discovered and worked, though only to a small extent, in Merionethshire and Carmarthenshire. Slate quarries are very numerous throughout the Principality, the finest quality of slate being obtained in the neighbourhood of Bangor and Carnarvon, where the Penrhyn and Bethesda quarries give employment to many thousands of workmen.

By far the larger portion of Wales is purely agricultural in character, and much of the valley land is particularly fertile, notably the Vale of Glamorgan, the Vale of Clywd and the valleys of the Towy, the Teifi, the Usk and the Wye, which have long been celebrated for their rich pastures. The holdings throughout Wales are for the most part smaller in extent than the average farms of England. Stock-raising is generally preferred to the growing of cereals, and in western Wales the oat crops exceed in size those of wheat and barley. The extensive tracts of unenclosed and often uninparimiable land, stock and the similarity of the Welsh, the wool of the sheep is manufactured into flannel at numberless factories in the various country towns, and the supply meets an important demand. The Welsh cattle also afford a large number of cows and ponies, which obtain high prices at the local fairs, and Pembrokeshire and Cardiganshire have long been famous for their breed of horses and ponies. The cattle of Wales present a variety of races, the Hereford breed prevailing in the eastern counties, and Shorthorns and the black Castlemartins in the southwestern parts. The great herds of goats, which in medieval times were numerous on the Welsh hills, have entirely disappeared since the general adoption of the sheep-farming industry.
The deep-sea fisheries on the south-western coasts are of some importance; the Mumbles, Tenby and Milford Haven being the chief centres. Lobsters, langoustines, mussels and oysters are caught off Cardigan Bay, and oysters are found at various points of the Pembrokeshire coast. The large rivers produce salmon, which are usually caught to the great satisfaction of the inhabitants, the byęs belonging definitely either to "Church" or "Chapel." According to the above report, the three most powerful dissenting bodies in Wales are the Congregationalists or Independents, whose members number 175,147 throughout Wales and Monmouthshire; the Calvinistic Methodists—a direct offshoot of the Church since the schism of 1811—with a membership of 176,617; and the Baptists, 143,853. Wesleyan and Presbyterian chapels are likewise numerous, and the Unitarian or Socinian body has long been powerful in the valley of the Telf. Nearly every existing sect is represented in Wales, including Swedensborgians and Moravians. The Roman Catholic Church has many followers amongst the labouring population of Irish descent in the industrial districts. The diocese of Newport (known till 1869 as Newport and Menevia) consists of the counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan and Hereford; whilst the remaining eleven counties were in 1895 formed into the Vicariate of Wales, which in 1898 was erected into a diocese under a bishop with the title of Menevia. Since the expulsion of the religious orders from France in 1903 several communities of French monks and nuns have taken up their abode in the Principality.

History.—At the time of the Roman invasion of Britain, 55 A.D., the west is marked out as the seat of the Ictinians, a nation of the north and west of the Severn, viz. the Decani, owning the island of Anglesea (Ynys Fôn) and the Snowdonian district; the Ordovices, inhabiting the modern counties of Denbigh, Flint and Montgomery; the Dimetae, in the counties of Cardigan, Carmarthen and Pembroke; and the Silures, occupying the counties of Glamorgan, Brecknock, Radnor and Monmouth. It is interesting to note that the existing four Welsh sees of Bangor, St Asaph, St Davids and Llandaff correspond in the main with the limits of these four tribal divisions. On the advance of Ostrogoths into western Britain, he met with considerable resistance from Caractacus (Caradog), king of the Silures, but after some encounters this prince was eventually captured and sent in chains to Rome. The partial conquest by Ostrogoths was completed under Julius Frontinus by the year 78, after which the Romans set to work in order to pacify and develop their newly annexed territory. At this period the copper mines of Mona or Anglesea, the silver mines near Plinlimmon and the gold mines in the valley of the Cothi in Carmarthenshire were exploited and worked with some success by the conquerors. In spite of the mountainous and boggy character of the country, the Romans were now constructing the many great Roman roads of which the most important are the military road leading S. from Deva (Chester) by way of Uriconium (Wroxeter) and Gobannium (Abergevenny) to Isca Silurum (Caerleon-on-Usk) and Venta Silurum (Caerwent); another from Deva to Conovium (Conway), whence a road, the Sarn Helen, extended due S. to Carmarthen (Mari- dumum), by way of Loventium (Pont Llanio), which was also connected with Gobannium; from Maridumum a road led E. through the modern county of Glamorgan by way of Lucarum (Loughor) and Nidum (Neath) to Venta Silurum. With the mission of Constantine to Christianity was introduced by the Romans into the peninsula Wales already colonised, and the efforts of the Roman priests were later supplemented during the 5th, 6th and 7th centuries by the devoted labours of Celtic missionaries, of whom nearly five hundred names still remain on record. Foremost in the work of preaching and educating were SS. David, Tilo, Illtyd and Cadoc in Dyfed, Morganwg, Gwent and Brycheiniog, comprising South Wales; Cyndol, Alan and Padarn in Ceredigion and Maesfelin, or Mid-Wales; and Deiniol, Dunawd, Beuno, Kentigern and Asaph in North Wales. To this period succeeding the fall of the Roman power is also assigned the foundation of the priories of which Bangor-Iscod on the Dee, Bardsey Island, Llanharn and Llantwit Major in the Vale of Glamorgan, Caerleon-on-Uk
and St Davids are amongst the most celebrated in early Welsh ecclesiastical annals. With the withdrawal of the Roman legions, the recognized powers of the Dux Britanniarum, the Roman official who governed the upper province of Britain, were in the 5th century assumed by the Celtic prince Cunedda under the title of Gwledig (the supreme), who fixed his court and residence at Degavney, near the modern Llandinno. During the 6th century the battle of Deorham gained by the West Saxons in 577 cut off communication with Cornwall, and in 613 the great battle of Chester, won by King Ethelfrith, prevented the descendants of Cunedda from ever again asserting their sovereignty over Strathclyde; the joint effect, therefore, of these two important Saxon victories was to isolate Wales and at the same time to put an end to all pretensions of its rulers as the inheritors of the ancient political claims of the Roman governors of the northern province of Britain. The 8th century saw a further curtailment of the Welsh territories under Offa, King of Mercia, who annexed Shrewsbury (Amwythig) and Hereford (Henfordd) with their surrounding districts, and constructed the artificial boundary known as Offa's Dyke running due N. and S. from the mouth of the Dee to that of the Wye. It was during these disastrous Mercian wars that there first appeared on the Welsh coasts the Norse and Danish pirates, who harried and burnt the small towns and flourishing monasteries on the shores of Cardigan Bay and the Bristol Channel. In the 9th century, however, the Welsh, attacked by land and sea, by Saxons and by Danes, at length obtained a prince capable of bringing the turbulent chieftains of his country into obedience, and of opposing the two sets of invaders of his realm. This was Rhodri Mawr, or Roderick the Great, a name always cherished in Cymric annals. Like Alfred of Wessex, Rhodri also built a fleet in order to protect Anglesea, "the mother of Wales," so called on account of its extensive cornfields which supplied barren Gwynedd with provisions. In 877 Rhodri, after many vicissitudes, was slain in battle, and his dominions of Gwynedd (North Wales), Deheubarth (South Wales) and Powys (Mid Wales) were divided amongst his three sons, Anarawd, Cadell and Mervyn. Consolidation of Cambro-British territory was found impossible; there was no settled capital; and the three princes fixed their courts respectively at Aberfraw in Anglesea, at Dynevor (Dinefawr) near Llandilo in Deheubarth, and at Mathrafal in Powys. Howel, son of Cadell, commonly known as Howel Dda the Good, is ever celebrated in Welsh history as the frame, or rather the codifier, of the ancient laws of his country, which were promulgated to the people at his hunting lodge, Ty Gwyn ar Taf, near the modern Whitland. In Howel's code the prince of Gwynedd was absolute in his own lands and dominions, but in other lands was subject to the authority of his overlord. Howel was killed in battle near Dynevor, the kingdom to which his grandson was destined to complete. On the other hand, "The Lord Rhys," as he is usually termed, did homage to Henry II. at Pembroke in 1171, and was appointed the royal justiciar of all South Wales. At the castle of Cardigan in 1176, Prince Rhys held a historic bardic entertainment, or eisteddfod, wherein the poets and harpists of Gwynedd and Deheubarth contended in amicable rivalry. This enlightened prince died in 1196, and as at his death the house of Dynevor ceased to be of any further political importance, the overlordship of all Wales became vested indisputably in the house of Gwynedd, which from this point onwards may be considered as representing in itself alone the independent principality of Wales. The prince of Gwynedd henceforth considered himself as a sovereign, independent, but owing a personal allegiance to the king of England, and it was to obtain a recognition of his rights as such that Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, "the Great," consistently strove under three English kings, and though his resources were small, it seemed for a time as though he might be able by uniting his countrymen to place the recognized autonomy of Gwynedd on a firm and enduring basis. By first connecting himself with John through a marriage with the English king's daugther, and by straining every nerve to repress dissensions and enforce obedience amongst the Welsh chieftains, and later by alloying himself with the English barons against his suzerain, this prince during a
The reign of 44 years was enabled to give a considerable amount of peace and prosperity to his country, which he persistently sought to rule as an independent sovereign, although acknowledging a personal vassalage to the king of England.

The close of the 12th century saw the final and complete subjection of the ancient Cambro-British Church to the temporal primacy of Canterbury. Wales would naturally have fallen under the primacy of York, but the Welsh sees had continued practically independent of outside control during Saxon times. The bishops of St Davids had from time to time claimed metropolitan rights over the remaining sees, but in 1115 St Anselm's appointment of the monk Bernard (d. 1147) to St Davids, in spite of the opposition of the native clergy, definitely marked the end of former Welsh ecclesiastical independence. In 1188 Archbishop Baldwin of an distinguished train, whilst preaching the Third Crusade, made an itinerary of the Welsh sees and visited the four cathedral churches, thereby formally asserting the supremacy of Canterbury throughout all Wales. But in 1199 the celebrated Gerald de Barri (Giraldus Cambrensis), archdeacon of Brecon and a member of the famous Norman baronial house of de Barri, and also through his grandmother Nesta a great-grandson of Prince Rhys ap Tudor of Deheubarth, was elected bishop by the chapter of St Davids. This enthusiastic priest at once began to re-assert the ancient metropolitan claims of the historic Welsh see, and between the years 1199-1203 paid three visits to Rome in order to obtain the approval of the Pope. But Gerald was treated with scorn by Archbishop Hubert, who firmly refused to recognize Gerald's late election. Innocent was inclined to temporize, whilst the Welsh chieftains, and especially Gw Gwenwynwyn of Powys, loudly applauded Gerald's action, but Llewelyn ap Iorwerth himself prudently held aloof from the controversy. Finally, in 1203, Gerald was compelled to make complete submission to the king and archbishop at Westminster, and henceforth Canterbury remained in undisputed possession of the Welsh sees, a circumstance that undoubtedly tended towards the later union of the two countries.

In 1238 Llewelyn, growing aged and infirm, summoned all his vassals to a conference at the famous Cistercian abbey of Strata Florida, whereat David, his son by the Princess Joan of England, was acknowledged his heir by all present. Two years later Llewelyn, the ablest and most successful of all the Welsh princes, expired and was buried in the monastery of his own foundation at Aberconway. He was succeeded by David II., at whose death without children in 1240 the sovereignty of Gwynedd, and consequently of Wales, reverted to his three nephews, sons of his half-brother Griffith, who had perished in 1211 against John, and amongst them, Hubert, who firmly refused to recognize Gerald's late election. Innocent was inclined to temporize, whilst the Welsh chieftains, and especially Gw Gwenwynwyn of Powys, loudly applauded Gerald's action, but Llewelyn ap Iorwerth himself prudently held aloof from the controversy. Finally, in 1203, Gerald was compelled to make complete submission to the king and archbishop at Westminster, and henceforth Canterbury remained in undisputed possession of the Welsh sees, a circumstance that undoubtedly tended towards the later union of the two countries.

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WALES

to remain in force amongst the natives of all Wales, whilst it was henceforth arranged to administer justice in the eight counties by special royal judges, and in the Marches by the officers appointed by the various lords-marchers according to the terms of their tenure. Another distinguishing mark of Edward's policy towards Wales is to be found in the commercial and administrative powers given to the fortified towns, inhabited solely by people of English birth and by Welshmen who acquired 12 English rule. Municipal charters and market privileges were now granted to such towns as Cardiff, Carmarthen, Builth, Cardigan, Montgomery, Aberystwith, Newborough, &c., and this wise policy was continued under Edward II. and Edward III. Many of the turbulent Welsh warriors having now become mercenaries on the continent or else enlisted under the English king, and the whole of the land west of Severn at last enjoying internal peace, the commercial resources of Wales were developed in a manner that had hitherto not been possible. Coal, copper, timber, iron, and especially wool, were exported from the Principality, and by the Statute Staple of 1353 Carmarthen was declared the sole staple for the whole Welsh wool trade, every bale of wool having first to be sealed or ‘cocketed’ at this important town, which during the 14th century may almost be accounted as the English capital of the Principality, so greatly was it favoured by the Plantagenet monarchs. A natural result of this partial treatment of the towns by the king and his vassals was that the English tongue and also English customs became prevalent if not universal in all the towns of Wales, whilst the rural districts remained strongly Cymric in character, language and sympathy.

After more than a century of enforced repose in the land and of prosperity in the towns, all Wales was suddenly convulsed by a wide-spread revolt against the English crown, which reads more like a tale of romance than a piece of sane history. The deposition of Richard II. and the usurpation of Henry IV., combined with the jealousy of the rural inhabitants of Wales against the privileged dwellers of the towns, seem to have rendered the country ripe for rebellion. Upon this troubled scene now appeared Owen Glendower (Owain Glyndwr) died? 1413), a descendant of the former princes of Powys and a favourite courtier of the late King Richard, smiting under the effect of personal wrongs received from Henry of Lancaster. With a speed and skill that contemporary writers deemed miraculous, Owen stirred up his countrymen against the king, and by their aid succeeded in destroying castle after castle, and burning town after town throughout the whole length and breadth of the land between the years 1401 and 1406. In 1402 he routed the forces of the Mortimers at Bryn Glas near Knighton in Herefordshire, where he captured Sir Edmund Mortimer, the uncle and guardian of the legal heir to the English throne, the young earl of March. The aims of Owen were described by himself in a letter addressed to Charles VI., king of France, who had hastened to acknowledge the upstart as Prince of Wales and had sent 12,000 troops on his behalf to Milford Haven. In this letter Owen, who was holding his court in Llanbadarn near Aberystwith, demands his own acknowledgment as sovereign of Wales; the calling of a free Welsh parliament on the English model; the independence of the Welsh Church from the control of Canterbury; and the founding of national colleges in Wales itself. An assembly of Welsh lords-marchers was summoned to meet at Llanelly in an ancient building still standing and known to this day as “Owen Glendower’s Parliament House.” In vain did Henry and his lords-marchers endeavour to suppress the rebellion, and to capture, by fair means or foul, the person of Glendower himself; the princes adventurer seemed to bear a charmed existence, and for a few years Owen was practically master of all Wales. Nevertheless, his rule and power gradually declined, and by the year 1408 Owen himself had disappeared as suddenly and mysteriously as he had arisen, and the land once more fell into undisputed possession of the king and his chosen vassals. For Owen's brilliant but brief career and ruthless treatment of English settlers and Anglophile Welshmen, his countrymen had not unnaturally to pay a heavy penalty in the severe statutes which the afflicted parliaments of Henry IV. framed for the protection of the English dwellers in Wales and the border counties, and which were not repealed until the days of the Tudors. Of the part played by the Cymry during the wars of the Roses it is needless to speak, since the period forms a part of English rather than of Welsh history. The Yorkist faction seems to have been strongest in the eastern portion of the Principality, where the Mortimers were all-powerful, but later the close connexion of the house of Lancaster with Owen Tudor, a gentleman of Anglesea (beheaded in 1461) who had married Catherine of France, widow of Henry V., did much to invoke Welsh sympathy on behalf of the claims of Henry Tudor his grandson, who claimed the English throne by right of his grandmother. Through the instrumentality of the celebrated Sir Rhys ap Thomas (1451-1527), the wealthiest and the most powerful personage in South Wales, Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, on his landing at Milford Haven in 1485 found the Welsh ready to rise in his behalf against the usurper Richard III. With an army largely composed of Sir Rhys's adherents, Henry was enabled to face Richard III. at Bosworth, and consequently to obtain the crown of England. Thus did a Welshman revenge the ignominious deaths of Prince Llewelyn and Prince David by becoming two centuries later king of England and prince of Wales.

With the Tudor dynasty firmly seated on the throne, a number of constitutional changes intended to place Welsh subjects on a complete social and political equality with Englishmen have to be recorded. The all-important Act of Union 1536 (27 Henry VIII.), converted the whole of the Marches of Wales into shires, and created five new counties: Denbigh, Montgomery, Radnor, Brecknock, or Brecon and Monmouth. At the same time the remaining lordships were added to the English border counties of Gloucester, Shropshire and Hereford, and also to the existing Welsh shires of Cardigan, Carmarthen, Glamorgan and Pembroke, all of which found their boundaries considerably enlarged under this statute. Clause 26 of the same act likewise enacted that the 12 Welsh counties should return 24 members to the English parliament: one for each county, one for the boroughs in each county (except Merioneth), and one for the town and county of Haverfordwest. It is probable that Welsh members attended the parliaments of 1536 and 1539, and certain it is that they were present at the parliament of 1541 and every parliament subsequently held. This act of union was followed in 1542 by an Act for certain Ordinances in the King's Majesty's Dominions and Principality of Wales (34 & 35 Henry VIII.), which placed the court of the president and council of Wales and the Marches on a legal footing. This court, with a jurisdiction somewhat similar to that of the Star Chamber, had originally been created in 1466 for the suppression of the Plague and the private feuds and other illegality amongst the lords-marchers and their retainers. This council of Wales, the headquarters of which had been fixed at Ludlow, undoubtedly did good service on behalf of law and order under such capable presidents as Bishop Rowland Lee and William Herbert, earl of Pembroke; but it had long ceased to be of any practical use, and had in fact become an engine of oppression by the time of the Commonwealth, although it was not definitively abolished till the revolution of 1688. The Act of 1542 also enacted that courts of justice under the name of "The King's Great Sessions in Wales" should sit twice a year in every one of the counties of Wales, except Monmouth, which was thus formally declared an English shire. For this purpose four circuits, two for North and two for South Wales, each circuit containing a convenient group of three counties, were created; whilst justices of the peace and custodes rotulorum for each shire were likewise appointed. At the same time all ancient Welsh laws and customs, which were at variance with the recognized law of England, were now declared illegal, and Cymric land tenure by gavelkind, which had been respected by Edward I., was expressly abolished and its place taken by the ordinary practice of primogeniture. It was also particularly stated that all legal procedure must henceforth be conducted in the English tongue, an arrangement which fell very heavily on poor monoglot Welshmen and appears an especially harsh and
ungracious enactment when coming from a sovereign who was himself a genuine Welshman by birth. Under the system of the Great Sessions Justice was administered throughout the twelve counties of Wales for nearly three hundred years, and it was not until 1830 that this system of jurisdiction was abolished (not without some protest from Welsh members at Westminster), and the existing North and South Wales circuits were brought into being.

With the peaceful absorption of the Principality into the realm of the Tudor sovereigns, the subsequent course of Welsh history assumes mainly a religious and educational character. The influence of the Renaissance seems to have been tardy in penetrating into Wales itself, nor did the numerous ecclesiastical changes during the period of the Reformation cause any marked signs either of resentment or approval amongst the mass of the Welsh people, although some of the ancient Catholic customs lingered on obstinately. As early as the reign of Henry VIII there were, however, to be found at court and in the universities a number of ardent and talented young Welshmen, adherents mostly of the reforming party in Church and State, who were destined to bring about a brilliant literary revival in their native land during the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. Of this distinguished band the most memorable names are those of Bishop Richard Davies (c. 1501-1538) and of William Salesbury, the squire-scholar of Llanwrst (c. 1520-c. 1600) in Denbighshire, who is commonly credited with the honour of having produced the first Welsh printed book. The small volume, consisting of a few verses published in London about the year 1545. With the accession of Elizabeth a novel and vigorous ecclesiastical policy on truly national lines was now inaugurated in Wales itself, chiefly through the instrumentality of Richard Davies, nominated bishop of St Asaph in 1559 and translated thence to St Davids in 1561, who was mainly responsible for the act of parliament of 1563, commanding the bishops of St Davids, Llandaff, Bangor, St Asaph and Hereford to prepare with all speed for public use Welsh translations of the Scriptures and the Book of Common Prayer. Of the five prelates thus named, Davies alone was competent to undertake the task. As a translator his work of translation he called upon his old friend and former neighbour, William Salesbury, who like the bishop was an excellent Greek and Hebrew scholar. The pair laboured with such diligence that before the close of the year 1567 the required translations of the Liturgy and the New Testament were published in London; the former being the exclusive work of the bishop, whilst the latter was principally the product of Salesbury's pen, although some portions of it were contributed by Bishop Davies and by Thomas Huett, or Hewett, precentor of St Davids (d. 1591). Having established a lexicographical standard, a volume is time, the two friends were next engaged upon a translation of the Old Testament, but owing to a quarrel, the cause of which remains obscure, this interesting literary partnership was brought to an abrupt ending about 1570. The honour of presenting his countrymen with a complete Welsh version of the Bible was reserved for William Morgan (c. 1547-1604), vicar of Llanrhaiadr, in Denbighshire, and afterwards bishop successively of Llandaff and of St Asaph. For eight years Morgan was busied with his self-imposed task, being greatly encouraged thereto by the Bishop of Hereford, Bishop William Hughes (d. 1600) of St Asaph, and by other leading dignitaries of the Church both in England and in Wales. In December 1588 the first complete Welsh Bible, commonly known as "Bishop Morgan's Bible," was issued from the royal press at Westminster under the patronage of queen and primate, about 800 copies being supplied for distribution amongst the parish churches of Wales. This famous editio princeps of the Welsh Bible, first and foremost of Welsh classics, was further supplemented under James I. by the Authorized Version, produced by Richard Parry (1560-1623), bishop of St Asaph, with the help of Dr John Davies of Mawlyd (1570-1644), the first of the Welsh scholars who sprang from the name of "Bishop Morgan's Bible" in 1888 a national movement of appreciation was set on foot amongst Welshmen of all denominations both at home and abroad, with the result that a memorial cross was erected in the cathedral close of St Asaph in order to perpetuate the names and national services of the eight leading Welsh translators of the Scriptures—Bishops Davies, Morgan and Parry; William Salesbury; Thomas Huett; Dr Davies of Mawlyd; Archdeacon Edmund Frys (1541-1624), author of a popular Welsh metrical version of the Psalter; and Gabriel Goodman, dean of Westminster (1528-1601), a native of Ruthin, who greatly assisted Bishop Morgan in his task. Two circumstances attending the production of these Welsh translations should be noted:—(1) That the leaders of this remarkable religious, literary and educational revival within the Principality were chiefly natives of North Wales, where for many years St Asaph was regarded as the chief centre of Cambro-British intellectual life; and (2) that all these important works in the Welsh tongue were published of necessity in London, owing to the absence of an acknowledged capital, or any central city of importance in Wales itself.

It would be well-nigh impossible to exaggerate the services rendered to the ancient British tongue, and consequently to the national spirit of Wales, by these Elizabethan and Jacobean translations, issued in 1567, 1588 and 1620, which were able definitely to fix the standard of classical Welsh, and to embody the contending dialects of Gwynedd, Dyfed and Gwent for all time in one literary storehouse. But for this sudden revival of Cymric literature under the patronage of Elizabeth (for the obtaining of which Wales must ever owe a deep debt of gratitude to Bishop Richard Davies, "her second St David"), there is little danger of the national identity of the Principality being lost, for the literary language would either have drifted into a number of corrupt dialects, as it then showed symptoms of dying, or else have tended to ultimate extinction, much as the Cornish tongue perished in the 17th century.

The growth of Puritanism in Wales was neither strong nor speedy, although the year 1588, which witnessed the appearance of Bishop Morgan's Bible, also gave birth to two fierce appeals to the parliament, urging a drastic Puritanical policy in Wales, from the pen of the celebrated John Penry, a native of Bontnewydd, Flint (1560-1620). More far-reaching than Penry amongst the Welsh were Rhys Prichard (? 1559-1644), the famous vicar of Llandovery,1 Carmarthenshire, and William Wroth (d. 1642), rector of Llanfaches, Monmouthshire. Of these two Puritan divines, Vicar Prichard, who was essentially orthodox in his behaviour, forms an interesting connecting link between the learned Elizabethan translators of the Bible and the great revivalists of the 17th century, and his moral rhymes in the vernacular, collected and printed after his death under the title of The Welshman's Candle (Canwyll y Cymry), still retain some degree of popularity amongst his countrymen. Although a strong opponent of Laud's and Charles's ecclesiastical policy, Prichard lived unmolested, and even rose to be chancellor of St Davids; but the indiscreet Wroth, "the founder and father of nonconformity in Wales," being suspended in 1638 by Bishop Murray of Llandaff, founded a small community of Independents at Llanfaches, which is thus commonly accounted the first Nonconformist chapel in Wales. During the years prior to the Great Rebellion, however, in spite of the preaching and writings of Vicar Prichard, Wroth and others, the vast mass of Welshmen of all classes remained friendly to the High Church policy of Laud and staunch supporters of the king's prerogative. Nor were the effects of the great literary revival in Elizabeth's reign by any means exhausted, for at this time Wales undoubtedly possessed a large number of native divines that were at once active parish priests and excellent scholars, of whom many had been educated at Jesus College, Oxford, the Welsh college endowed by Dr Hugh Price (d. 1574) and founded under Elizabeth's patronage in 1572. So striking was the devotion shown throughout the Principality to the king, who fought his last disastrous campaign in the friendly counties of Wales and the Marches, that on the final victory of the parliament there was passed within a month of Charles's execution 1Sometimes known as vicar of Llandinata, his church being in that parish.
in 1649 (perhaps as a special measure of punishment) an “Act for the better Propagation and Preaching of the Gospel in Wales,” by the terms of which a packed body of seventy commissioners was presented with powers that were practically unlimited to deal with all matters ecclesiastical in Wales. To assist these commissioners in their task of inquiry and ejectment, a body of twenty-five “Approvers” was likewise constituted, with the object of selecting itinerant preachers to replace the dismissed incumbents; and amongst the Approvers are conspicuous the names of Walter Craddock (d. 1659), a suspended curate of St Mary’s, Cardiff, and a follower of Wroth’s; and of Vavasor Powell (1617-1670), an honest but injudicious zealot. Some 330 out of a possible total of 520 incumbents were now ejected in South Wales and Monmouthshire, and there is every reason to suppose that the beneficed clergy of North Wales suffered equally under the new system. The greed and tyranny of several of the commissioners, and the bigotry and mismanagement of well-meaning fanatics such as Craddock and Powell, soon wrought dire confusion throughout the whole Principality, so that a monster petition, signed alike by moderate Puritans and by High Churchmen, was prepared for presentation to parliament in 1652 by Colonel Edward Freeman, attorney-general for South Wales. Despite the fierce efforts of Vavasor Powell and his brother itinerant preachers to thwart the reception of this South Wales petition at Westminster, Colonel Freeman was able to urge the claims of the petitioners, or “Anti-Propagators” as they were termed, at the bar of the House, thereby setting a precedent for the vast future activity by the House of Commons in the matter of ejectment and destruction “the light of the Gospel was almost extinguished in Wales.” A new commission was now appointed to inquire into alleged abuses in Wales, and the existing evidence clearly shows how harsh and unfair was the treatment meted out to the clergy under the act of 1649, and also how utterly submissive of all ancient custom and established order were the reforms suggested by the commissioners and approvers. At the Restoration all the ejected clergy who survived were reinstated in their old benefices under the Act of Uniformity of 1662, whilst certain Puritan incumbents were in their turn dismissed for refusing to comply with various requirements of that act. Amongst these Stephen Hughes of Carmarthen (1623-1668), a devoted follower of Vicar Prichard and an editor of his works, was ejected from the living of Mydrim in Carmarthenshire, whereby the valuable services of this eminent divine were lost to the Church and gained by the Nonconformists, who had increased considerably in numbers since the Civil Wars. The old ecclesiastical policy of Elizabeth, which had hitherto borne such good fruit in Wales, was now gradually relaxed under the later Stuarts and definitely abandoned under Anne, during whose reign only Englishmen were appointed to the vacant Welsh sees. From 1702 to 1780, a period of nearly 170 years, no Welsh-speaking native bishop was nominated (with the solitary exception of John Wynne, consecrated to St Asaph in 1715), and it is needless to point out that this selfish and unjust policy was largely responsible for the neglect and misrule which distinguished the latter half of the 18th and the early part of the 19th centuries. The Church, which had so long played a prominent and valuable part in the moral and literary education of the Welsh people, was now gradually forced out of touch with the nation through the action of alien and unsympathetic Whig prelates in Wales itself, which still remained mainly High Church and Jacobite in feeling. All writers agree in stating that the mass of the Welsh people at the close of the 17th century were illiterate, and many divines of Cymric nationality charge their countrymen also with immoralty and religious apathy. English was little spoken or understood amongst the peasant population, and there was a great dearth of Welsh educational works. Some efforts to remedy this dark condition of things had already been made by Thomas Gouge, with the assistance of Stephen Hughes, and also by the newly founded “Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge”; but it was Griffith Jones (1683-1761), rector of Llanddowror in south Carmarthenshire, who was destined to become the true pioneer of Welsh education, religious and secular. Early in the reign of George I this excellent man, whose name and memory will ever be treasured so long as the Welsh tongue survives, began a system of catechizing in the vernacular amongst the children and adults of his own parish. With the cordial help of Sir John Phillips (d. 1736) of Picton Castle, the head of an ancient family in Dyfed, and of Mrs Bridget Bevan of Laugharne (d. 1759), who is still affectionately remembered in Wales as the donor of “Madam Bevan’s Charity,” Griffith Jones was enabled to extend his scheme of educating the people throughout South Wales, where numerous “circulating charity schools,” as they were called, were set up in many parishes with the approval of their incumbents. The results obtained by the growth of these schools were speedy and successful beyond the wildest hopes of their founder. This educational system, invented by Griffith Jones and supported by the purse of Mrs Bevan, in 1760 numbered 215 schools, with a total number of 8007 contemporary scholars; and by the date of Jones’s death in 1761 it has been proved that over 150,000 Welsh persons of every age and of either sex, nearly a third of the whole population of Wales at that time, were taught to read the Scriptures in their own tongue by means of these schools. With this newly acquired ability to read the Bible in their own tongue, the many persons so taught were not slow to express a general demand for Cymric literature, which was met by a supply from local presses in the small country towns; the marvellous success of the Welsh circulating schools caused in fact the birth of the Welsh language press. The Bible and sermons were issued gratuitously in the conditions and the behaviour of the Welsh people, owing to this strictly orthodox revival within the pale of the Church, Griffith Jones and his system of education were regarded with indifference by the English prelates in Wales, who offered no preference and gave little encouragement to the founder of the circulating schools. Meanwhile the writings and personal example of the pious rector of Llanddowror were stirring other Welshmen in the work of revival, chief amongst them being Howell Harris of Trevecca (1713-1773), a layman of brilliant abilities but erratic temperament; and Daniel Rowland (1715-1759), curate of Llangatho in Mid Cardiganshire, who became in time the most eloquent and popular preacher throughout all Wales. Two other clergymen, who figure prominently in the Methodist movement, and whose influence has proved lasting, were Peter Williams of Carmarthen (1722-1790), the Welsh Bible commentator, and William Williams of Pantycelyn (1727-1791), the celebrated Welsh hymn-writer. Incidentally, it will be noticed that this important Methodist revival had its origin and found its chief supporters and exponents in a restricted corner of South Wales, of which Carmarthen was the centre, in curious contrast with the literary movement in Elizabeth’s reign, which was largely confined to the district round St Asaph. During the lifetime of Griffith Jones the course of Welsh Methodism had run in orthodox channels and had been generally supported by the Welsh clergy and gentry; but after his death the tendency to exceed the bounds of conventional Church discipline grew so marked as to excite the alarm of the English bishops in Wales. Nevertheless, the bulk of the Methodists continued to attend the services of the Church, and to receive the sacraments from regularly ordained parish priests, although a schism was becoming inevitable. Towards the close of the 18th century the Methodist revival spread to North Wales under the influence of the celebrated Thomas Charles, commonly called Charles of Bala (1755-1814), formerly curate of Llanymddy and the founder of Welsh Sunday schools. So strained had the relations between the English rulers of the Church and the Methodists themselves now grown, that in 1811 the long-expected schism took place, much to the regret of Charles of Bala himself, who had ever been a devoted disciple of Griffith Jones. The great bulk of the farming and labouring members of the Church now definitely abandoned their “Ancient Mother,” to whom, however, the Welsh gentry still adhered. The Great Schism of 1811 marks in fact the lowest point to which the
fortunes of the once powerful and popular Church in Wales had sunk;—in 1811 there were only English-speaking prelates to be found, whilst the absence of non-residence, pluralities and every sort of corruption then prevailing in Wales, mention may be made of the cases of Richard Watson (d. 1816), the non-resident bishop of Llandaff, who rarely visited his diocese during an episcopate of thirty years; and of another English divine who held the deanery, the chancellorship and nine livings in a North Welsh see, his curates-in-charge being paid out of Queen Anne's Bounty, a fund expressly intended for the benefit of impoverished livings.

An honourable exception to the indolent and rapacious divines of this stamp was Thomas Burgess (bishop of St Davids), the创建工作sion is mainly due the foundation of St David's College at Lampeter in 1822, an institution erected to provide a better and cheaper education for intending Welsh clergymen. The foundation of Lampeter College was one of the earliest signs of a new era of revived vigour and better government within the Church, although it was not till 1870 that, by Mr Gladstone's appointment of Dr Joshua Hughes to the see of St Asaph, the special claims of the Welsh Church were officially recognized, and the old Elizabethan policy was one more reverted to after a lapse of nearly two hundred years. After 1870 Welsh ecclesiastical guidance was at last made in a more true sense of the word, and this official acknowledgment of the peculiar duties and claims of the Church in Wales largely helped to win back no small amount of the strength and popularity that had been lost during Georgian times.

With the old national Church enthralled by English political prelates, and consequently hindered from ministering to the special needs of the people, the progress of dissent throughout the Principality was naturally rapid. Although primary education was largely supplied by the many Church schools in all parts of Wales, yet it was in the three most important denominations—Baptists, the Calvinistic Methodists (that new-born sect of which the Church herself was the unwilling parent)—that almost all Welsh spiritual development was to be found during the first half of the 19th century. Thus between the year 1811 (the date of the Methodist secession) and 1832 (the year of the great Reform Bill), the number of dissenting chapels had risen from 945 to 1428: a truly marvellous increase even allowing for the speedy growth of population, since every chapel so built had of necessity to be well attended in order to render it self-supporting. From this religious awakening of the Welsh people, the change wrought in the Principality, and the effects of the national spirit, it was but a step to political ascendency, and as the various constitutional changes from the Reform Bill onward began to lower the elective franchise, and thus to throw more and more power into the hands of the working classes, that spirit of radicalism, which is peculiarly associated with political dissent, began to assert itself powerfully throughout the country. As early as the reign of William IV. there appeared the weekly Times of Wales (Amserau Cymry), founded and edited by the able William Rees, who may be styled the father of the Welsh political press; and the success of Rees's venture was so marked that other journals, arranged to suit the special tenets of each sect, speedily sprang into existence. In the year 1872—a date for many reasons marks the opening of an important era in modern Welsh history—the dissenting bodies of Wales were supporting two quarterly, sixteen monthly and ten weekly papers, all published in the vernacular and all read largely by peasants, colliers and artisans. With so powerful a press behind it, it is no wonder that Welsh political dissent was largely responsible for the changed attitude of the Imperial government in its treatment of the Principality. As the result of the National School Closing Act of 1833, a measure which was very dear to the strong temperance party in Wales, and in the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, granted by Lord Salisbury's government in 1889. It was certainly owing to the pressure of Welsh political dissent that Lord Rosebery's cabinet issued the Welsh Land Tenure Commission in 1893—an inquiry which did much to exonerate the Welsh squirearchy from a number of vague charges of extortion and sectarian oppression; and that Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman's cabinet appointed the Welsh Church Commission (21st June 1906). This Commission was uniquely suited to 'recommend to the Established Church, amount and application of the temporalities, endowments and other properties of the Church of England in Wales and Monmouthshire; and into the provision made and the work done by the Churches of all denominations in Wales and Monmouthshire for the spiritual welfare of the people, and the extent to which the people avail themselves of such provision.' The Report and Memoranda of the Commission were published on the 2nd of December 1910.

Attention must be made of the Rebecca riots in 1837-1844 in South Wales, whereby many toll gates were destroyed by mobs of countrymen dressed in female garb, "as the daughters of Rebecca about to possess the gates of their enemies"; and the Anti-Tithe agitation of 1853-1856—largely traceable to the inflammatory language used concerning clerical tithe by certain organs of the vernacular press—which led to some disorderly scenes between dispiriting parties of police and crowds of excited peasants in the more remote rural districts. There have been occasional strikes accompanied by acts of lawlessness in the industrial and mining districts of Glamorgan, and also among the members of the dissenting religious denominations, which has been occasioned by the desire of the numbers thus induced to the Calvinistic Methodists to change their salvation, and purged to the Independents of the views of the separate religious denominations.

The University College of Wales was founded at Aberystwyth in 1872; that of South Wales at Cardiff in 1883; and of North Wales at Bangor in 1884. In 1889 the system of intermediate schools, arranged to form an educational link between the primary schools and the colleges, was inaugurated. In November 1893 the University of Wales was incorporated by royal charter, with Lord Aberdare (d. 1897) as its first chancellor. All the religious bodies, including the Church, have been extremely active in educational and pastoral work; whilst the peculiar religious movement known as a revival (Diwygiad) has occurred from time to time throughout the Principality, notably in the years 1859 and 1904.

But the most remarkable phenomenon in modern Wales has been the evident growth of a strong national sentiment, the evolution of a new Welsh Renaissance, which demanded special recognition of the Principality's claims by the Imperial parliament. This revived spirit of nationalism was by outsiders sometimes associated, quite erroneously, with the aims and actions of the Welsh parliamentary party, the spokesmen of political dissent in Wales; yet in reality this sentiment was shared equally by both Anglican and Nonconformist, and was a distinguishing mark of the laity within its fold. Nor is the question of the vernacular itself of necessity bound up with this new movement, for Wales is essentially a bi-lingual country, wherein every educated Cymro speaks and writes English with ease, and where also large towns and whole districts—such as Cardiff, south Monmouth, the Vale of Glamorgan, Gower, south Glamorgan, south Pembroke, east Flint, Radnorshire and Breconshire—remain practically monoglot English-speaking. Nor are the Welsh landowners and gentry devoid of this new spirit of nationalism, and although some generations ago they ceased as a body to speak the native tongue, they have shown a strong disposition to study once more the ancient language and literature of their country. It is true that a Young Wales party has arisen, which seeks to narrow this movement to the exclusion of English ideas and influences; and it is also true that there is a party which is abnormally suspicious of and hostile to this Welsh Renaissance; but in the main it is correct to say that the bulk of the Welsh nation remains content to assert its views and requirements in a reasonable manner. How wide-spread and enthusiastic is this true spirit of nationalism amongst the Welsh people, may be observed at the great meetings of the National Eisteddfod, which is held on alternate years in North and South Wales at some important centre, and at which the immense crowds collected and the interest displayed make a deep impression on the Anglo-Saxon or foreign visitors. The sincere, if somewhat narrow-minded religious feelings; the devotion manifested by all classes towards the land of their fathers; the extraordinary
vitality of the Cambro-British tongue—these are the main characteristics of modern Wales, and they seem to verify the terms of Taliesin's ancient prophecy concerning the early dwellers of Gwalia:

"Their Lord they shall praise;
Their Tongue they shall keep;
Their Land they shall lose
Except Wild Wales."

(H. M. V.)

Welsh Literature.—The Welsh language possesses an extensive literature, ranging from the 9th century to the present day. A detailed account of it will be found in the article Celt: Celtic Literature, § iv.

Welsh Language.—Welsh, the Celtic language spoken by the ancient Britons (see Celt: Language), is the domestic tongue of the majority of the inhabitants of the Principality. With the final destruction of Welsh independence under Edward I., the Cambro-British language, in spite of the disappearance of a court, continued to be spoken by Welshmen of all classes residing west of Severn, and the 14th and 15th centuries are remarkable for producing some of the finest Welsh bards and historians. With the union of Wales with England by the Act of 27 Henry VIII. (1536) the subsequent administration of all law and justice in the English tongue throughout the Principality threatened for a time the ancient language of the people with practical extinction. Even so far as it was represented in the various translations of the Scriptures, undertaken at the command of Queen Elizabeth and performed by a number of native scholars and divines, amongst whom appear prominent the names of Bishops Davies, Morgan and Parry, and of William Salesbury of Llanrwt. Although the assertion of the celebrated Rhys Prichard of Llandovery that in his time (c. 1630) only 1% of the people of Wales could read the native language is probably an exaggeration, yet the number of persons who could read and write Welsh must have been extremely small outside the ranks of the clergy during the earlier years of the 17th century. The number of Welsh Bibles distributed throughout the Principality could hardly have exceeded 8000 in all, and except the Bible there was scarcely any Welsh work of importance in circulation. The system of the Welsh circulating charity schools, set up by Griffith Jones, rector of Llanddowror, in the 18th century, undoubtedly gave an immense impetus to the spread of popular education in Wales, for it has been stated on good authority that about one-third of the total population was taught to read and write Welsh by means of this system. As a result of Griffith Jones's efforts there quickly arose a vigorous demand for Welsh books of a pious and educational character, which was largely supplied by local Welsh printing-presses. The enthusiastic course of the Methodist movement under Howell Harris, Daniel Rowland and William Williams; the establishment of Welsh Sunday Schools; the founding of the Bible Society under Thomas Charles of Bala; and the revival early in the 19th century of the Eisteddfodau (the ancient bardic contests of music, poetry and learning), have all contributed to extend the use of the Welsh language and to strengthen its hold as a popular medium of education throughout the Principality. In 1845, the Welsh-speaking population was computed at 67% of the total, and in 1893 Welsh was understood or spoken by over 60% of the inhabitants in the twelve Welsh counties with the exception of the following districts, wherein English is the prevailing or the sole language employed:—viz. nearly the whole of Radnorshire; east Flint, including the neighbouring districts of Ruabon and Wrexham in Denbighshire; east Brecknock; east Montgomery; south Pembroke, with the adjoining district of Laugharne in Carmarthenshire; and the districts of Gower, Vale of Glamorgan and Cardiff in south Glamorgan. In the north, the eastern portion of the county is purely English-speaking, and in the western districts English also prevails (J. E. Southall, Linguistic Map of Wales).

Before tracing the history of Welsh sounds, it will be convenient to give the values of the letters in the modern alphabet:—

Voicesspirants: ff or ph (=Eng. f); th (=Eng. th in thick); ch (=Scottish ch in loch).
Voicedpirants: f (=Eng. v); dd (=Eng. th in this); the guttural voicedpirant (.qual) disappeared early in Welsh.
Voicessnasals: m; mh; n; nh.
Voicednasals: n; m; ng.
Voicesspirants: l; l (unilateral voiceless l); rh (voiceless r).
Voiced liquids: l; r.

Sibilant: s (Welsh has no s).
Aspirate: h.
Semi-vowels: i (=Eng. y in yard); w (=Eng. w).
The sounds of l and d are more dental than in English, though they vary; the voicedpirants are very soft; the voicessnasals are aspirated, thus mh is similar to Eng. nh in inhale; r is trilled as in Italian.

Voels: a, e, i, o have the same values as in Italian; w as a vowel north Eng. oo in book or Italian. u; y has two sounds:—

(1) the clear sound resembling the Eng. i in bit, but pronounced farther back; (2) the obscure sound =Eng. i in sir; u in Med. Welsh had the sound of French u, but now has the clear sound of y described above, which is similar to the ear, and has the same pitch.

The Welsh language belongs to the Celtic branch of the Aryan or Indo-European family of languages. Primitive Celtic split up, as already shown, into the two groups, Celtiberian and Brittonic, the latter giving rise to the Modern Welsh, Cornish and Breton. The languages of these groups are thus represented in two epochs by two languages of languages—(1) the Goidelic group, comprising Irish, Scottish, Gaelic and Manx. (2) The Brythonic or Brittonic group, comprising Welsh, Breton and Cornish. In the Goidelic group, the ancient language, is represented in a more or less pure state by Irish, with which it was supplanted in France by Latin, and by the Celtiberian group, which was transformed into two languages, p., as in Welsh pedwar, "four,” Gaulish, which was supplanted in France by Latin, had p., as in pœris-rimum, "fourth ear,” and is the alliance of the Celtic group; but it is believed that remains of a continental Celtic group exist in such names as Seguanoi, and in some recently discovered inscriptions. The sounds of parent Aryan appeared in Primitive Celtic with the following modifications:—p. disappeared, thus Aryan *peter, which gave Latin poier, Eng. father, gave in Irish athair; corresponding to Eng. floor, we have Irish iðr, Welsh llawr. The velar tenuis g, when labialized, became gu, without labialization became k; the velar media g became b or g. The aspirated melæa dh, dh, gh were treated as unaspirated b, d, g; generally all the rare aspirated tenses fell together with the unaspirated. The other Aryan consonants seem generally to have remained. Aryan d, l, ĭ remained. Aryan ĭ became f, as in Irish 'frr, Welsh gwyf, "true," cognate with Latin tivr-us. Aryan ĭ became ã, as in Irish ird, cognate with Anglo-Saxon er, Eng. floor. The short vowels remained, except that Aryan o became a, as in the other European branches.

In Brythonic, primitive Celtic gu became p, as above noted. Probably also Celtic & was advancing or had advanced to a forward position, or it appears as it is, since, from Celtic *dän-on, cognate with Eng.awan, while Latin dànum in the Brythonic period, gives u with its Welsh sound above described, as in mûr, "wall," from Latin mur-us.

The system of consonants preserved in Celtic, as may be seen in Stokes's restoration of Celtic declension (Trans. Philol. Soc., 1885-1886, pp. 97-203); and Brythonic was probably as highly inflected as Latin. The development of Brythonic into Welsh is analogous to that of Latin into Romance; the extant remains of Brythonic are scanty; but in the Roman period it borrowed a large number of Latin words, which, as we know their original forms, and as they underwent the same modifications as other words in the language, enable us to trace the phonetic changes by which Brythonic became Welsh.

These changes are briefly as follows:

1. Loss of Syllabification. Each syllable was syllabically divided into one syllable only; thus Latin termus-us in Welsh terfyn; the name Sabrina- had become Hafren. The loss extended to the stem-end of the first element in compounds: the personal name Maglo-chan became Madog; and generally to unaccented syllables, thus episcopus became episcop, whence esgob; trinitas-em gives trindd, the accusative is often the case in Welsh, thus: the plural of word has sometimes both, as in cîndd from cîndd-as, and cînndd from cîndd-em, now two words, not two cases of the same word. Aryan declension naturally disappeared with the loss of final syllables.

2. Vowel Change. Welsh took on vowels, or a vowel and a liquid, the seven consonants p, f, c, b, d, g, m, became respectively b, d, g, f, dd, - - - , where "- - -" represents the lost voiced spirant r. Examples: Latin cupiditas gave cibud; Tactus gave the Bretons call their language Bremonek; the Welsh bards sometimes call Welsh Brythonog: both forms imply an original Brittonica.

The i was short: Sabrina would have given Hefrin in Welsh.
WALES

Tegyd; labōrem gave lafus; sagitta gave saeth; rēmus gave rheuf. This change is called the "soft mutation." (2) After nasals 'p,' 't,' 'k,' 'd,' 'g' in Latin rhymes, remaining between vowels, though now written u, as in cited from cētum. A consonant occurring medially is, generally speaking, invariable in the present language, and the p and d of cupidōs are b and dd in cybbed; but with the initial consonant the case is different. In one combination the initial may remain; thus oeinos cupidōs gave cybbdd, "one miser"; in another combination it may have originally stood between vowels, and so is mutated, as in duōs cupidōs, which gave dau cybbdd, "two misers." Thus arose the system of "initial mutation": an initial consonant may retain its original form, or may undergo any of the changes to which it is subject. The names given above to these changes are the ones in general use in the northern Welsh, and have, therefore, been selected. These changes occur when the liquids s and r were brought into the system, the initial consonants remaining as regarded as "radical." The initial mutations, then, are as follows:

Radical.

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Soft.

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Nasal.

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Spirant.

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The initial mutation of any word depends upon its position in the sentence, and is determined by a grammatical rule which can ordinarily be traced to a generalization of the original phonetic conditions. Thus the second element of a compound word, even through written and accented as a separate word, has a soft initial, because in Brythonic the first element of a compound generally ended in a vowel, as in the name Maglo-camus. The more important rules for initial mutation are the following: the soft mutation occurs in a feminine singular noun after the article, thus y fâm, "the mother" (radical mam); in an adjective following a feminine singular noun, as in mam dda, "a good mother" (dda, "good"); in a word with an initial liquid, and in adjectives derived from such words, because this order represents what was originally a compound; in a noun following dy, "thy," and et, "his," thus dy ben, "thy head," et ben, "his head," (ben, "head"); in the object after a verb; in a name, and in adjectives derived from such words. The nasal mutation occurs after fy, "my," and ym, "in," thus fy mhen, "my head," ym Nhailagath, "at Talgarth." The nasal mutation also occurs by -dd, "and," dd, "with," et, "her," thus a phen, "and a head," ei phen, "her head." The names of the parts of the Welsh vocabulary are: 3. Vowel Changes.—(1) Long a, whether from Aryan ā or ē or from Latin ā, becomes aw in monosyllables, as in brad, "brother from abroad;" in the penultimate it is a, as in bredder, "brothers," in the ultima aw, after o, as in pecchand, now pecched, from pecclām. Long i, whether from Aryan ē or ī, or from Latin i, remains i, as see examples above. Latin e was identified with a native diptongh ing, and becomes apē, as in rheuf from rēmus. Latin ø and a appear as u; see examples above. A long vowel when unaccented counts short, thus pecchērem treated as "pecchērem, gave pecchedur. (2) Short a, the penult of a wordending in a liquid (e, ø, i), and the final e, is lost when a liquid occurs immediately after it, thus "bards gave bariad, but pl. "bards gave beired; epischo gave eispych, "bishops." This change also occurs by d, "and," dd, "with," et, "her," thus a phen, "and a head," ei phen, "her head." 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In a simple interrogative sentence the introductory particle before the verb is a, and the positive answer consists in a repetition of the verb; e.g., *daew Dafydd ò Daw* (1878), "Will David come?" Yes." If the verb is negative, the interrogative particle precedes the verb. In sentences in which a noun comes first, the interrogative particle is *at*, and the answer is always, positive i.e., "negative *nag*; is *a* *daew Dafydd ò dw.* Is it David who will come? 

A relative pronoun immediately precedes its verb and can only be separated from it by an infixed pronoun, thus *daew Dafydd ò priydd, *"David is he who will come."* If the relative is the object of a preposition, the latter is put at the end of the clause, and has a personal ending, thus *y ty bant ydodo, literally, "the house which I was in."*

The particle *at* is the only relative pronoun; when the subject is a noun the verb is put in the third person singular; thus *carant, "they love," can take a pro-

nominal suffix, "theirs," thus *cynt *at *fy* dynion (not *carant *y dynion, which can only mean "they love them"). In relative clauses the verb is sometimes made to agree; but in the oldest poetry we generally find the singular verb, as in the oft-repeated Godolfin phrase *Gwr ò gael Gwraith, "men who went (to Caernarvon)" (not *caethu a gaelu*).


**WALEWSKI—WALKER, F. A.**

A member of the Academy of Fine Arts and a grand cross of the Legion of Honour.

**WALFISH BAY,** a harbour of South-West Africa with a coast-line of 20 m. terminated southward by Pelican Point in 29° 54' S., 14° 27' E. It belongs to Great Britain, together with a strip of territory extending 15 m. along the coast south of Pelican Point and with a depth inland from 10 to 15 m. The total area is 430 sq. m. Except seaward Walfish Bay is surrounded by German South-West Africa. The northern boundary is the Swakop river; east and south there are no natural frontiers. The coast district, composed of sand dunes, is succeeded by a plateau covered in part with sparse vegetation. The river Kuisip, usually dry, has its mouth in the bay—which forms the finest harbour along a coast-line of over 1000 m. The harbour is provided with a pier 200 yds. long and is safe in all weathers. It was formerly frequented by whaling vessels (hence its name). The town has a small trade with the Heringo of the adjoining German protectorate. A tramway, 11 m. long, runs inland to Rokkool on the German frontier. Pop. (1904), 997, including 144 whites.

Walfish Bay forms a detached portion of the Cape province of the Union of South Africa. It was proclaimed British territory on the 12th of March 1878, and was annexed to Cape Colony on the 7th of August 1884 (see AFRICA, § 3). The delimitation of the southern frontier was in 1900 referred to the king of Spain as arbitrator between Great Britain and Germany.

**WALKER, FRANCIS AMASA** (1840-1897), American soldier and economist, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 2nd of July 1840. His father, Amasa Walker (1799-1875), was a distinguished economist, who, retiring from commercial life in 1849, lectured on political economy in Oberlin College from 1842 to 1848, was examiner in the same subject at Harvard from 1853 to 1860, and lecturer at Amherst from 1850 to 1860. He was a delegate to the first international peace congress in London 1845, and in 1849 to the peace congress in Paris. He was secretary of state of Massachusetts from 1851 to 1853 and a representative in Congress 1862-1863. His principal work, *The Science of Wealth,* attained great popularity as a textbook. Francis Walker graduated at Amherst College in 1860, studied law, and fought in the Northern army during the whole of the Civil War of 1861-65, rising from the rank of sergeant-major to that of brevet brigadier-general of volunteers—awarded him at the request of General Winfield S. Hancock. As a soldier he excelled in analysis of the position and strength of the enemy. In 1863 he was captured and detained for a time in the famous Libby Prison, Richmond. After the war he became editorial writer on the Springfield (Massachusetts) *Republican,* and in 1869 was appointed by President Lincoln to the position of a special commissioner of the Navajo Indian, and was made a member of the United States Indian commission. In 1871 he was sent to the office of the U.S. Commissioner of Indian Affairs (1871-1872) commissioner of Indian affairs. From 1873 to his death his work was educational, first as professor (1872-1881) of political economy in the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, and then as president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston. While superintendent of the census he increased the scope and accuracy of the records; and at the Institute of Technology he enlarged the resources and numbers of the Institution, which had 100 students when he assumed the presidency and 1100 at his death. In other fields he promoted common-school education (especially in manual training), the Boston park system, and the work of the public library, and took an active part in the discussion of monetary, economic, statistical and other public questions, holding many offices of honour and responsibility. As an author he wrote on governmental treatment of the Indians, *The Wages Question* (1876), *Money* (1878), *Land and its Rent* (1883) and general political economy (1883 and 1884), besides producing monographs on the life of General Hancock (1884) and the history of his own *Second Army Corps* (1886). As an economist, from the time of the appearance of his book on the subject, he so effectively combated the old theory of the "wage-fund" as to lead to its abandonment or material modification by American students; while in his writings on finance, from the 1870s to the end of his life, he advocated international
himatism, without, however, seeking to justify any one nation in the attempt to maintain parity between gold and silver. A collection of posthumously published *Discussions in Education* (1890) was made up of essays and addresses prepared after his taking the presidency of the Institute of Technology: their most noteworthy argument is that chemistry, physics and the other sciences promote a more exact and more serviceable mental training than metaphysics or rhetoric. Walker's general tendency was towards a rational conservatism. On the question of rent he called himself a "Ricardian of the Ricardians." To his *Wages Question* is due in great part the study formed by English students of the place and functions of the employer in modern industrial economics. A remarkable feature of his writings is his treatment of economic tendencies not as mere abstractions, but as facts making for the happiness or misery of living men. General Walker died in Boston on the 5th of January 1867.

**WALKER, FREDERICK** (1840-1875), English subject painter, the son of a designer of jewelry, was born in Marylebone, London, on the 24th of May 1840. When very young he began to draw from the antique in the British Museum, and as a boy he was placed in the office of an architect named Baker. The occupation proved uncongenial; at the end of eighteen months he resumed his work from the Elgin marbles at the British Museum, and attended Leigh's life school in Newman Street. In March 1858 he was admitted a student of the Royal Academy. But his study in the academy schools was disconnected, and ceased before he reached the life class, as he was anxious to begin earning his own living. As a means to this end, he turned his attention to designing for the wood-engravers, and worked thereon during the following six years, and for about two years in the studio of J. W. Tytler, under whose tuition he quickly mastered the technicalities of drawing on wood. His earliest book illustrations appeared in 1860 in *Once a Week*, a periodical to which he was a prolific contributor, as also to the *Cornhill Magazine*, where his charming designs appeared to the works of Thackeray and those of his daughter. These woodcuts, especially his illustrations to Thackeray's *Adventures of Philip and Denis Dauze*, are among the most spirited and artistic works of their class, and entitle Walker to rank with Millais at the very head of the draughtsmen who have dealt with scenes of contemporary life. Indeed, by his contributions to *Once a Week* alone, he has won an immediate reputation as an artist of rare accomplishment, and although he was associated on that periodical with such men as Millais, Holman Hunt, Leech, Sandsy, Charles Keene, Tenniel, and Du Maurier, he more than held his own against all competitors. In the intervals of work as a book illustrator he practised painting in water-colours, his subjects being frequently more considered and refined repetitions in colour of his black-and-white designs. Among the more notable of his productions in water-colour are "Spring," "A Fishmonger's Shop," "The Ferry," and "Phillip in Church," which gained a medal in the Paris International Exhibition of 1867. He was elected an associate of the Society of Painters in Water Colours in 1864 and a full member in 1866; and in 1871 he became an associate of the Royal Academy. In this same year he was made an honorary member of the Belgian Society of Painters in Water Colours. His first oil picture, "The Lost Path," was exhibited in the Royal Academy in 1863, where it was followed in 1867 by "The Bathers," one of the artist's finest works, in 1868 by "The Vagrants," now in the National Gallery of British Art; in 1869 by "The Old Gun," and in 1871 by "The Plough." His powerful and impressive rendering of ruddy evening light, of which the landscape was studied in Somerset. In 1871 he exhibited his tragic life-sized figure of "A Female Prisoner at the Bar," a subject which now exists only in a finished oil study, for the painter afterwards effaced the head, with which he was dissatisfied, but was prevented by death from again completing the picture. The last of his fully successful works was "A Harbour of Refuge," shown in 1872 (also in the National Gallery of British Art); for "The Right of Way," exhibited in 1875, bears evident signs of the artist's failing strength. He had suffered indeed for some years from a consumptive tendency; in 1868 he made a sea voyage, for his health's sake, to Venice, where he stayed with Orchardson and Birken Foster, and at the end of 1873 he went for a while to Algiers with J. W. North, in the hope that he might derive benefit from a change of climate. But, returning in the bitter English spring, he was again prostrated; and on the 5th of June 1875 he died of consumption at St Fillans, Perthshire.

The works of Frederick Walker are thoroughly original and individual, both in the quality of their colour and handling and in the extreme refinement of natural humanity. His colour, especially in his water-colours, is distinctive, powerful and full of delicate gradations. He had an admirable sense of design, and the figures of his peasants at their daily toil show a grace and sweeping largeness of line in which can be plainly traced the effect produced upon his taste by his early study of the antique; at the same time the sentiment of his subjects is unfailingly refined and poetic. His vigour of design may be seen in his poster for Wilkie Collins's *The Woman in White*, now in the National Gallery of British Art.

See *Life and Letters of Frederick Walker, A.R.A.*, by John George Marks (1896), a full biography of a personal rather than a critical kind, *Frederick Walker and his Works*, by Claude Phillips (1897), which is supplemented by an excellent critical supplement to the large volume. See also *Essays on Art*, by J. Conyngham Carr, which includes a judicious essay on Walker.

**WALKER, GEORGE** (c. 1618-1660), hero of the siege of Londonderry, was the son of George Walker, rector of Kilmore and chancellor of Armagh (d. 1677), and of Ursula, daughter of Sir John Stanhope of Melwood, and is said to have been born in 1618 in Tyrone. He was educated at Glasgow University, and, appointed to the livings of Lessan and Desertlyn, in the diocese of Armagh, near Londonderry, in 1660. In 1674 he obtained that of Donaghmore, which he held with Lessan. At the outbreak of the Civil War in Ireland towards the close of 1668, Walker, though in Holy Orders and advanced in years, raised a regiment and endeavoured to concert measures with Robert Lundy, the acting governor of Londonderry, for the defence of Dungannon. But Lundy, after having sent some troops to his support, ordered their withdrawal and the abandonment of the place on the 14th of March 1669. On the 17th of March Walker marched with his men to Strabane, and subsequently ordered by Lundy to move to Rash and then to St Johnstown, 5 m. from Londonderry. On the approach of the enemy (April 13th) Walker rode hastily to Londonderry to inform Lundy, but was unable to convince him of his danger. He returned to his men at Lifford, where, on the 14th, he took part in a brush with the enemy, afterwards following the retreat of the army to Londonderry. The town was in great confusion, and Walker found the gates shut against him and his regiment. He was forced to pass the night outside, and only entered the next day "with much difficulty and some violence upon the Centry." Immediately on his arrival he urged Lundy to take the field and refused the demand to disband his own soldiers. On the 17th of April Lundy determined to give up the town to James, and called a council from which Walker and others were especially excluded; but the next day the king and his troops, who had advanced to receive the surrender, were fired upon from the walls contrary to Lundy's orders, and the arrival of Captain Adam Murray with a troop of horse saved the situation. Lundy was deprived of all power, and was allowed to escape in disguise from the town. On the 19th of April Walker and Baker, joined by the joint-governors. Walker commanded fifteen companies, amounting to 900 men, and to him was also entrusted the supervision of the commissariat. He showed great energy, courage and resource throughout the siege, and led several successful sallies. Meanwhile his duties as a clergyman were not neglected. The Nonconformists were allowed the use of the cathedral on Sunday afternoons, but in the morning Walker preached. Those few of his sermons which remain, though simple in their language, are eloquent and inspiring. Meanwhile he had borne with jealousies and suspicions within the town; but he succeeded in dispelling all misgivings and in reaffirming his
WALKER, H. O.—WALKER, O.

credit with the garrison. At the close of the siege, which lasted 150 days, the town was at the last extremity; but at length, on the 30th of July, Walker preached the last of the sermons by which he had helped to inspire its defence. An hour afterwards the ships were seen approaching, and the town was relieved.

As regards the general course of the war the importance of the successful resistance at Londonderry can hardly be exaggerated. It was the first open act of hostility in Ireland against James, and the disaster to his arms not only embarrassed his campaign in the north but prevented the invasion of Scotland and England, and Walker's share in it was abundantly recognized. He sailed for Scotland and England on the 9th of August, and was everywhere welcomed with immense public enthusiasm. On the 29th of August he was graciously received at Hampton Court by William and Mary, before whom he had with good sense refused to appear in his military costume, and delivered to them the petition from Londonderry. William presented him with £3000, part of which he appears to have given to the widow of Baker, his fellow-governor, who died during the siege. Shortly after he began a large and enlarged edition of the "British" of Bishop Hopkins, whom it was determined to remove, only died three weeks before Walker, the latter was never consecrated.

Walker succeeded in obtaining a grant of £1000 for Londonderry from the city companies, and on the 18th of November his petition to the House of Commons for relief for the widows, orphans, clergy and dissenting ministers was read, and the king was asked to distribute £10,000 among them (House of Commons Journals, vol. x. p. 288). On the following day Walker was called in, received the thanks of the House, and made a short and dignified reply. On the 8th of October he had been granted the degree of D.D. at Cambridge in his absence, and on his return journey to Ireland he received the same diploma at Oxford (Feb. 1690). Walker met William on his arrival in Ireland on the 14th of June 1690 at Belfast, and followed his army. He was present at the battle of the Boyne on the 1st of July, but in what capacity, whether as spectator, as combatant or as minister to tend the wounded, is uncertain.1 He was shot through the body at the passage of the river, according to one account, while he was going to the aid of the wounded Schomberg (G. Story, A True... History of the Affairs in Ireland, p. 82), and died almost instantly. It was said, without any substantial foundation, that upon reference to Bishop Hopkins, whom it was determined to remove, only died three weeks before Walker, the latter was never consecrated.

Walker married Isabella Maxwell of Finnebrogue, and left several sons, four of whom during his lifetime were in the king's service, and from one of whom at least there are descendants at the present day.

While in London Walker had published A True Account of the Siege of Londonderry (1689), dedicated to the king, which went through several editions and was translated for perusal abroad. This pamphlet, and the ovations received by Walker in London, excited some jealousies, which had been subdued in the house of lords but which were now formulated in the Narrative (1698) of John Mackenzie, a dissenting minister who had been present during the siege. Walker was charged with having taken too much credit to himself. The truth of the charge was not questioned, but the纤小ness of his opponents. Bas insinuations were added and it was declared that Walker had never even held the post of governor. These accusations fall far below the weight of their own exaggeration. On the other hand, Walker's Account, though doubtless incomplete, is written with candour and simplicity and is free from any touch of egotistical self-consciousness; and both this tract and his subsequent letter to his correspondent, in which he enlarged on their dignity, as a restraint, to the pamphlets of his opponents. His character was proof against the perils which attend a sudden rise to fame and popularity, and his modesty is especially observed by several of his contemporaries. There exists also too much positive and independent evidence to permit any doubt whatever as to the greatness of Walker's services. Burnet, in a passage which was misquoted in his published history because of the controversy, says: "There was a minister in the place, Mr. Walker, who acted a very noble part in the government and defence of the town; he was but a man of ordinary parts, but they were suited to his station, and he did wonders."—American MSS., 6984 f. 329 b, printed by H. C. Foxcroft. Supplement to Burnet's Hist. of His Own Times, 1902, p. 321.

In the Siege of Derry (1689) the Rev. Philip Dwyer has collected the individual memoirs relating to Walker and the siege, and has reprinted in his volume Walker's True Account and Vindication, together with Walker's sermons, various other documents and valuable notes.

WALKER, HENRY OLIVER (1843— ), American artist, was born at Boston, Massachusetts, on the 14th of May 1843. He was a pupil of León Bonnat, Paris, and painted the figure and occasional portraits, but later devoted himself almost exclusively to mural decoration. His paintings symbolizing lyric poetry, for the Congressional Library, Washington; and his decorations for the Appellate Court House, New York; Bowdoin College, Maine; the gallery of the American house, Newark, New Jersey, and the Capitol at Saint Paul, Minnesota, are among his most important works. He became a member of the National Academy of Design, New York, in 1902.

WALKER, HORATIO (1858— ), American artist, was born at Listowel, Ontario, Canada, on the 12th of May 1858. When he was a child his family settled at Rochester, New York. Although entirely self-taught, he became a distinguished painter of animals, the figure and landscape. His pictures, principally of Canadian peasant life and scenes, show the influence of Drovers and Miller, manifest in their feeling for largeness of composition, in solidity of painting and in the choice of theme. He became a member of the National Academy of Design, New York, in 1891; of the American Water Color Society and of the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colours, London. He received a medal and a diploma at Chicago, 1893; and medals at Buffalo, 1901; Charleston, 1902; and St. Louis, 1904. In 1888 he won the Evans prize of the American Water Color Society, New York.

WALKER, JOHN (1732-1822), English actor, philologist and lexicographer, was born at Coley Hatch, Middlesex, on the 18th of March 1732. Early in life he became a teacher; his theatrical engagements including one with Garrick at Drury Lane, and a long season in Dublin. In 1768 he left the stage. After some experience in conducting a school at Kensington he commenced to teach elocution, and in this found his principal employment for the rest of his life. In 1775 he published his Rhyming Dictionary, which achieved a great success and has been repeatedly reprinted, and in 1791 his Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, which achieved an even greater reputation, and has run into some forty editions. He was the friend of the leading literary men of his time, including Johnson and Burke. He died in London on the 1st of August 1807.

WALKER, OBADIAH (1616-1690), master of University College, Oxford, was born at Darfield near Barnsley, Yorkshire, and was educated at University College, Oxford, becoming a fellow and tutor of this society and a prominent figure in university circles. In July 1648 the action of parliament deprived him of his academic appointments, and he passed some years in teaching, studying and travelling, returning to Oxford at the restoration of 1660, and beginning a few years later to take a leading part in the work of the University College. In June 1676 he was elected to the headship of this foundation, and in this capacity he collected money for some rebuilding, and forwarded the preparation of a Latin edition of Sir John Selden's Life of Alfred the Great, published by the college. This was the time of Titus Oates and the popish plots, and some of Walker's writings made him suspect; however, no serious steps were taken against him, although Oxford booksellers were forbidden to sell his book, The benefic of our Salvator Jesus Christ to mankind, and he remained a Protestant, in name at least, until the accession of James II. Soon after this event he came forward as

1 Luttrell writes in his diary, vol. 2, p. 17 (Feb. 20, 1689-1690), "Mr. Walker of Londonderry has taken his leave of the king to go into Ireland on special command," and again, vol. 2, p. 44 (May 17, 1690), "Letters from Ireland say that Dr. Walker, late governor of Londonderry, had a regiment of foot given him," but there appears to be no official record of his having received a commission at this time.
a Roman Catholic, and he advised the new king with regard to affairs in Oxford, being partly responsible for the tactless conduct of James in forcing a quarrel with the fellows of Magdalen College. Mass was said in his residence, and later a chapel was opened in the college for the worship of the Roman Church; he and others received a royal licence to abstain themselves from the services of the English Church, and he obtained another to supervise the printing of Roman Catholic books. In spite of growing unpopularity he remained loyal to James, and when the king fled from England, Walker left Oxford, doubtless intending to join his master abroad. But in December 1668 he was arrested at Sissingbourne and was imprisoned; then, having lost his mastership, he was charged at the bar of the House of Commons with changing his religion and with other offences. Early in 1669 he was released from his confinement, and after subsisting for some years largely on the charity of his friend and former pupil, Dr John Radcliffe, he died on the 21st of January 1690.

Walker's principal writings are: Of education, especially of young gentlemen (Oxford, 1673, and six other editions); Ars rationis ad mentem nominalium libri tres (Oxford, 1673); and Greek and Roman History Illustrated by Coins and Medals (London, 1692).

WALKER, ROBERT (d. 1658). British painter, was a contemporary and to a slight extent a follower of Van Dyck. The date of his birth is uncertain, and no details are known of his family life. Van Dyck's influence is evident in his work, though not to the extent of being either his follower or imitator. The style of his work was still a considerable degree of individuality and developed a sound style of his own which was more severe and restrained than that of the greater master. His greatest vogue was at the time of the Commonwealth, for in addition to several portraits of Cromwell he painted other portraits of Lambert, Ireton, Fleetwood, and many more members of the Parliamentary party. In 1652 he was given rooms in Arundel House in the Strand, London, where he resided for the rest of his life. He died either in 1658 or in 1660, the authority for the earlier date being an inscription on an engraved portrait by Lombart. His work had much merit; it was vigorous and showed sound character. Several of his portraits, among them the portrait of William Faithorne the elder, are in the National Portrait Gallery, and there are others of notable importance at Hampton Court and in the University Galleries at Oxford. One of his portraits of Cromwell is in the Pitti Palace, where it is ascribed to Lely; it was bought in the artist's lifetime, but after the Protector's death, by the grand duke Ferdinand II. of Tuscany. Another is at Warwick Castle.

Walker painted also Robert Cromwell and his wife Elizabeth Summerly, the two youngest children of the Protector. The portrait of the latter, attended by a page who is fastening his sash at the waist (now in the National Portrait Gallery, transferred from the British Museum, to which it was bequeathed by Sir Henry Bathurst, descendant of Cromwell's friend, Nathaniel Rich) was called by Walpole "Cromwell and Lambert"; but it is now certain that the portrait represents Cromwell's son Richard. Elizabeth Cromwell, afterwards Mrs Claypole, the Protector's daughter, also sat to him. As no complete account of Walker's work is in existence (that of Walpole being very incomplete, while Cunningham passes him over entirely), it may be added that the artist twice painted John Evelyn, in different sizes, as well as Bradshaw, John Hampden, Colonel Thomas Sanders, Cornet Joyce, and Speaker Lenthall, as well as Sir William and Lady Walker, Mrs Thomas Knight, and General George Monk, during his stay at Cambridge. The members of his own family were painted by him early in his career. A portrait of Secretary Thurloe, which was in the Lord Northwick Collection, was attributed to him. As Walker was in the camp of the Parliamentarians and Dobson was the court painter at Oxford, few aristocratic persons sat to the former. Exceptions of Mary Capel, duchess of Beaufort (engraved by J. Nutting), Aubrey, last earl of Oxford, and James Graham, marquess of Montrose; even a portrait of Charles I. in armour, with his hand on his helmet, is credited by the English School. Among his other portraits exist, one at the National Portrait Gallery and the other at Oxford, engraved by Peter Lombart, and again, later, by T. Chambers. The library of the British Association for the Advancement of Sciences contains a copy of the Walker's copy of Titian's famous "Venus at her Toilet," highly esteemed by Charles I., is considered a work of great merit.

WALKER, ROBERT JAMES (1801–1866), American political leader and economist, was born in Northumberland, Pennsylvania, on the 23rd of July 1801. He graduated from the University of Pennsylvania in 1820 and practised law in Pittsburg from 1822 to 1826, when he removed to Mississippi. Though living in a slave state he was consistently opposed to slavery, but he favoured gradual rather than immediate emancipation, and in 1838 he freed his own slaves. He became prominent, politically, during the nullification excitement of 1832–1833, as a vigorous opponent of nullification, and from 1836 to 1845 he sat in the United States Senate as a Unionist Democrat. Being an ardent expansionist, he voted for the recognition of the independence of Texas in 1839 and for the joint annexation resolution of 1845, and advocated the nomination and election of James K. Polk in 1844. Walker's views were strongly influenced by the Unionist newspaper, the New York Herald, and was generally regarded as the most influential member of the cabinet. He financed the war with Mexico and drafted the bill (1849) for the establishment of the department of the interior, but his greatest work was the preparation of the famous treasury report of the 3rd of December 1845. Although inferior in intellectual quality to Alexander Hamilton's Report on Manufactures, presenting the case against free trade, it is regarded as the most powerful attack upon the protection system which has ever been made in an American state paper. The "Walker's Tariff" of 1846 was based upon its principles and was in fact largely the secretary's own work. Walker at first opposed the Compromise of 1850, but was won over later by the arguments of Stephen A. Douglas. He was appointed territorial governor of Kansas in the spring of 1857 by President Buchanan, but in November of the same year resigned in disgust, owing to his opposition to the Lecompton Constitution. He did not, however, break with his party immediately, and favoured the so-called English Bill (see Kansas); in fact it was partly due to his influence that a sufficient number of anti-Lecompton Democrats were induced to vote for the measure to secure its passage and opposed to the Union cause during the Civil War and in 1863–1864 as financial agent of the States did much to create confidence in Europe in the financial resources of the United States, and was instrumental in securing a loan of $250,000,000 in Germany. He practised law in Washington, D.C., from 1864 until his death there on the 11th of November 1869. Both during and after the Civil War he was a contributor to the "Controversial Monthly," for which he wrote from time to time, also, with James R. Gilmore, conducted.

For the tariff report see F. W. Taussig, "State Papers and Speeches on the Tariff" (Cambridge, 1879). WALKER, SEARS COOK (1805–1853), American astronomer, was born at Wilmington, Massachusetts, on the 28th of March 1805. Graduating at Harvard in 1825, he was a teacher till 1835, was an actuary in 1835–1845, and then became assistant at the Washington observatory. In 1847 he took charge of the longitude department of the United States Coast Survey, where he was among the first to make use of the electric telegraph for the purpose of determining the difference of longitude between two stations, and he introduced the method of registering transit observations electrically by means of a chronograph. He also investigated the orbit of the newly discovered planet Neptune. He died near Cincinnati on the 20th of January 1853. His brother Timothy (1802–1856) was a leader of the Ohio bar.


WALKER, THOMAS (1784–1836). English police magistrate, best known as author of The Original, was born on the 10th of October 1784 at Charlton-cum-Hardy, near Manchester, where his father was a prosperous cotton merchant and an active Whig politician. He was educated at Cambridge and called to the bar, and after devoting some years mainly to the study of the Poor Law was made police magistrate in Lambeth in 1829. In 1835 he started his weekly publication The Original, containing his reflections on various social subjects and especially on eating and drinking; and it is in the history of gastronomy, and the art of dining, that this curious and amusing work is famous. The weekly numbers continued for six months, and subsequently were republished, after Walker's death on the 20th of January 1836, in an American selection (1837), in editions by W. P. Jerroll (with memoir) (1834), W. A. Guy (1857), and Henry Morley (1887), and in another selection of Sir Henry Cole ("Felix Summerly"), called Aristology (1881).
WALKER, W.—WALL, R.

WALKER, WILLIAM (1824-1860). American adventurer, was born in Nashville, Tennessee, on the 8th of May 1824. After graduating from the university of Nashville in 1838, he studied law, was admitted to the bar, and subsequently spent a year in the study of medicine at Edinburgh and Heidelberg. He practised medicine for a few months in Philadelphia and then removed to New Orleans, where he engaged in journalism. In 1850 he migrated to California and engaged in newspaper work at San Francisco and later at Mobile, where he also practised law. On the 15th of October 1853 he sailed from San Francisco with a filibustering force for the conquest of Mexican territory. He landed in Lower California, and on the 18th of January 1854 he proclaimed this and the neighbouring State of Sonora an independent republic. Starvation and Mexican attacks led to the abandonment of this enterprise, and Walker resumed his journalistic work in California. On the 4th of May 1855, with fifty-six followers, Walker again sailed from San Francisco, this time for Nicaragua, where he had been invited by one of the belligerent factions to continue his aid. In October Walker seized a steamer on Lake Nicaragua belonging to the Accessory Transit Company, a corporation of Americans engaged in transporting freight and passengers across the isthmus, and was thus enabled to surprise and capture Granada, the capital and the stronghold of his opponents, and to make himself master of Nicaragua. Peace was then made; Patricio Rivas, who had been neutral, was made provisional president, and Walker secured the real power as commander of the troops. At this time two officials of the Transit Company determined to use Walker as their tool to get control of that corporation, then dominated by Cornelius Vanderbilt, and they advanced him funds and transported his recruits from the United States free of charge. In return for these favours, Walker seized the property of the company, on the pretext of a violation of its charter, and turned over its equipment to the men who had befriended him. On the 20th of May 1856 the new government was formally recognized at Washington by President Pierce, and on the 3rd of June the Democratic national convention expressed its sympathy with the efforts being made to "regenerate" Nicaragua. In June Walker was chosen president of Nicaragua, and on the 22nd of September, from economic necessity, and also to gain the sympathy and support of the slave states in America, he repealed the laws prohibiting slavery.

Walker managed to maintain himself against a coalition of Central American states, led by Costa Rica, which was aided and abetted by agents of Cornelius Vanderbilt, until the 1st of May 1857, when, to avoid capture by the natives, he surrendered to Commander Charles Henry Davis, of the United States navy, and returned to the United States. In November 1857 he sailed from Mobile with another expedition, but soon after landing at Punta Arenas he was arrested by Commodore Hiram Paulding of the American navy, and was compelled to return to the United States as a paroled prisoner. On his arrival he was released by order of President Buchanan. After several unsuccessful attempts to return to Central America, Walker finally sailed from Mobile in August 1860 and landed in Honduras. Here he was taken prisoner by Captain Salmon, of the British navy, and was surrendered to the Honduran authorities, by whom he was engaged to be shot. He was executed on the 12th of September 1860.

See Walker's own narrative, accurate as to details, The War in Nicaragua (Mobile, 1860); William V. Wells, Walker's Expedition to Nicaragua (New York, 1856); Charles William Doubleday, Reminiscences of the "Filibuster" War in Nicaragua (New York, 1860), and James Jeffrey Roberts, History of the Panama Expedition (London, 1858), abridged and reprinted as Byways of War (Boston, 1901). (W. O. S.)

WALKING RACES, a form of athletic sports, either on road or track. Road walking is the older form of the sport. The records for the chief walking distances were as follows in 1910—

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<tr>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Place</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 mile</td>
<td>A. T. Yeomans.</td>
<td>6 19s</td>
<td>1906</td>
<td>Bath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 miles</td>
<td>A. T. Yeomans.</td>
<td>12 53s</td>
<td>1906</td>
<td>Swansea</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 miles</td>
<td>W. Raby (professional)</td>
<td>20 24s</td>
<td>1883</td>
<td>Lille Bridge</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>G. E. Larner</td>
<td>27 14s</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>W. Raby</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>W. Perkins</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>J. Butler</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>T. E. Hammond</td>
<td>17 25 22s</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>London to Brighton and back</td>
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The record distance walked in 1 hour was 8 m. 339 yds. by the English amateur G. E. Larner in 1905; in 8 hours, 50 m. 1190 yds. by another English amateur, J. Butler, in 1905; in 24 hours, 131 m. 802 yds. by T. E. Hammond in 1908.

About the year 1875 there was a revival of interest in professional walking, which took the form of "go-as-you-please" competitions, extending over several days, usually six. These may be classed as walking contests, for, although running was allowed, it was seldom practised, excepting for a few moments at a time, for the purpose of relief from cramped muscles. The great difficulty in competitive walking is to keep within the rules. A "fair gait" is one in which one foot touches the ground before the other leaves it, only one leg being bent in stepping, namely, that which is being put forward.

WALL, RICHARD (1665-1748), diplomatist and minister in the Spanish service, belonged to a family settled in Waterford. As he was a Roman Catholic he was debarred from public service at home, and like many of his countrymen he sought his fortune in Spain. He served, probably as a soldier in one of the Irish regiments of the Spanish army, during the expedition to Sicily in 1718, and was present at the sea fight off Cape Passaro. During the following years he continued to be employed as an officer, but in 1727 he was appointed secretary to the duke of Liria, son of the duke of Berwick, and Spanish ambassador at St Petersburg. Wall's knowledge of languages, his adaptability, his quick Irish wit and ready self-confidence made him a great favourite, not only with the duke of Liria, but with other Spanish authorities. Spain was at that time much dependent on the ability of foreigners, and for a man of Wall's parts and character there were ample openings for an important and interesting career. The climate of St Petersburg seems to have been too much for him, and he soon returned to military service in Italy. It is said that when he was presented to the duke of Montemar, the Spanish general, and was asked who he was, he replied, "The most important person in the army after your excellency, for you are the head of the serpent, and I am the tail." He became known to Don José Patiño, the most capable minister of King Philip V., and was sent by him on a mission to Spanish America—a very rare proof of confidence towards a man of foreign origin. He is also said to have laid a plan for retaking Jamaica from the English. In 1747 he was employed in the negotiations for the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, and in 1748 was named minister in London. In England he made himself very popular. Though an exile through the operation of the Penal Laws, and though he proved loyal to his adopted country, he became a constant partisan of an English alliance. His views recommended him to the favour of King Ferdinand VI. (1746-1750), whose policy was resolutely peaceful. In 1752 Wall was recalled from London to assist in completing a treaty of commerce with England, which was then being negotiated in Madrid. Wall now became the candidate of the English party in the Spanish court for the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs, in opposition to the leader of the French party, the marquis de la Ensenada. He obtained the place in 1752, and in 1754 he had a large share in driving Ensenada from office. He retained his position until 1764. The dispatches of the English minister, Sir Benjamin Keene, and of his
successor, Lord Bristol, contain many references to Wall. They are creditable to him. Though a constant partisan of peace and good relations with England, Wall was firm in asserting the rights of the government he served. During the early stages of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763) he insisted on claiming compensation for the excesses of English privateers in Spanish waters. He frequently complained to the English ministers of the difficulties which the violence of these adventurers put in his way. As a foreigner he was subjected of undue favour to England, and was the object of incessant attacks by the French party. The new king, Charles III. (1759-1788), continued Wall in office. When war was declared by Spain in 1761 the minister carried out the policy of the king, but he confessed to the English ambassador, Lord Bristol, that he saw the failure of his efforts to preserve peace with grief. The close relations of Charles III. with the French branch of the House of Bourbon made Wall's position as foreign minister very trying. Yet the king, who detested changing his ministers, refused all his requests to be allowed to retire, till Wall extorted words; for by elaborately afflicting a disease of the eyes which was in fact imaginary. The king gave him handsome allowances, and a grant for life of the crown land known as the Soto de Roma, near Granada, which was afterwards conferred on Godoy, and finally given to the duke of Wellington. Wall lived almost wholly at or near Granada, exercising a plentiful hospitality to all visitors, and particularly to English travellers, till his death in 1778. He left the reputation of an able minister and a very witty talker.

A full account will be found in volume iv. of Coke's Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon (London, 1815). Further details of his early career can be gathered from the Diario del viaje a Moscawa, 1727-1730, of the duke of Liria (vol. xiii. of the Documentos inéditos para la historia de España, (Madrid, 1842, et seq.).

WALL, O. Eng. wall, wall, Mid. Eng. wal, welle, adapted from Lat. vallum, rampart; the original O. Eng. word for a wall was wdg or wdec), a solid structure of stone, brick or other material, used as a defensive, protecting, enclosing or dividing fence, or as the enclosing and supporting sides of a building, house or room. The Roman vallum was an earth rampart with stakes or palisades (vallas, stake; Gr. ἅνκας, nail) and the Old English word was particularly applied to such earth walls; for the remains of the Roman walls in Britain see Bretain. The word, however, was also applied to stone defensive walls, for which the Latin word was muraus. The history of the wall as a means of defence will be found in the article FORTIFICATION and STRENGTH, the architectural and constructional side under the headings ARCHITECTURE, MASONRY and BRICKWORK. In anatomy and zoology the term “wall,” and also the Latin term paries, is used for an investing or enclosing structure, as in “cell-walls,” walls of the abdomen, &c. In the days when footpaths were narrow and ill-paved and the existent in the streets of towns and when the gutters were often overflowing with water and filth, the side nearest to the wall of the bordering houses was safest and cleanest, and hence to walk on that side was a privilege, hence the expressions “to take” or “to give the wall.” The term “wall-rib” is given in architecture to a half-ribbed bedded in the wall, to carry the web or shell of the vault. In Roman and in early Romanesque work the web was laid on the top of the stone courses of the wall, which had been cut to the arched form, but as this was often irregularly done, and as sometimes the courses had sunk owing to the drying of the mortar, it was better to have the ribs carry the web; half of this rib was sunk in the wall and the other half moulded like the transverse and diagonal ribs, so that if the wall sank, or if it had to be taken down from any cause, the vault would still retain its position.

The word “wall eye” or “wall-eyed” is applied to a condition of the eye, particularly of a horse, in which there is a large amount of white showing or there is absence of colour in the iris, or there is leucoma of the cornea. It is also applied to the heads of other animals, to certain fish. The word has no connexion with “wall” as above, but is from the Icelandic negl. eygr, wafi, a beam, stye in the eye, and eygr, eyed.

WALLABY, a native name, used in literature for any member of a section of the zoological genus Macropus, with naked muffle, frequenting forests and dense scrubs. With respect to their size they are distinguished as large wallabies and small wallabies, some of the latter being no bigger than a rabbit. From the localities in which they are found they are also called brush kangaroos. See Kangaroo.

WALLACE, ALFRED RUSSEL (1823— ), British naturalist, was born at Usk, in Monmouthshire, on the 8th of January 1823. After leaving school he assisted an elder brother in his work as a land surveyor and architect, visiting various parts of England and Wales. Living in South Wales, about 1840 he began to take an interest in botany, and began the formation of a herbarium. In 1847 he took his first journey out of England, spending a week in Paris with his brother and sister. In 1844—1845, while an English master in the Collegiate School at Leicester, he made the acquaintance of H. W. Bates, through whose influence he became a beetle collector, and with whom he started in 1848 on an expedition to the Amazon. In about a year the two naturalists, as Wallace and Bates, respectively wrote an account of their travels and observations. Wallace's Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro was published in 1853, a year in which he went for a fortnight's walking tour in Switzerland with an old school-fellow. On his voyage home from South America the ship was burnt and all his collections lost, except those which he had despatched beforehand. After spending a year and a half in England, during which time, besides his book on the Amazon, he published a small volume on the Palm Trees of the Amazon, he started for the Malay Archipelago, exploring, observing and collecting from 1854 to 1862. He received letters from Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, the Moluccas, Timor, New Guinea and the Aru and Ké Islands. His deeply interesting narrative, The Malay Archipelago, appeared in 1869, and he also published many important papers through the London scientific societies.

The chief parts of his vast insect collections became the property of the late W. W. Saunders, but subsequently some of the most important groups passed into the Hope Collection of the university of Oxford and the British Museum. He discovered that the Malay Archipelago was divided into a western group of islands, which in their zoological affinities are Oriental, and an eastern, which are Australian. The Oriental wallabies became convinced of the truth of evolution, and originated the theory of natural selection during these travels. In February 1855, staying at Sarawak, in Borneo, he wrote an essay "On the Law which has regulated the Introduction of New Species" (Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 1855, p. 184). He states the law as follows: "Every species has come into existence by successive steps which both in time and space with a pre-existing closely allied species." He justly claims that such a law connected and explained a vast number of independent facts. It was, in fact, a cautious statement of a belief in evolution, and for three years from the time that he wrote the essay he tells us that "the question of how changes of species could have been brought about was rarely out of my mind." Finally, in February 1858, when he was lying muffled in blankets in the cold fit of a severe attack of intermittent fever at Ternate, in the Moluccas, he began to think of Malthus' Essay on Population, and, to use his own words, "there suddenly flashed upon me the idea of the survival of the fittest." The theory was thought out during the rest of the age fit, drafted the same evening, written out in full in the two succeeding evenings, and sent to Darwin by the next post.

Darwin in England at once recognized his own theory in the manuscript essay sent by the young and almost unknown naturalist in the tropics, then a stranger to him. "I never saw more striking coincidence," he wrote to Lyell on the very day, on the 18th of June, when he received the paper. "If Wallace had my MS. sketch written out in 1842, he could not have made a better short abstract! Even his terms now stand as heads of my chapters." Under the advice of Sir Charles Lyell...
and Sir Joseph Hooker, the essay was read, together with an abstract of Darwin's own views, as a joint paper at the Linnean Society on the 1st of July 1858. The title of Wallace's section was "On the Tendency of Varieties to depart independently from the Original Type." The "struggle for existence," the rate of multiplication of animals, and the dependence of their average numbers upon food supply are very clearly demonstrated, and the following conclusion was reached: "Those that prolong their existence can only be the most perfect in health and vigour, ... the weakest and least perfectly organized must always succumb." The difference between Lamarck's theory and natural selection is very clearly pointed out. "The powerful retractional talons of the falcon and the cat tribes have not been produced or increased by the votation of those animals; but among the different varieties which occurred in the earlier and less highly organized forms of these groups, those always survived longest which had the greatest facilities for seizing their prey. Neither did the giraffe acquire its long neck by desiring to reach the foliage of more lofty shrubs, and constantly stretching its neck for the purpose, but because any varieties which occurred among its antitypes with a longer neck than usual, and which more easily reached their food, were enabled to outlive them." With such clear statements as these in the paper of the 1st of July 1858, it is remarkable that even well-known naturalists should have failed to comprehend the difference between Lamarck's and the Darwin-Wallace theory. Wallace also alluded to the resemblance of animals, and more especially of insects, to their surroundings, and pointed out that "those races having colours best adapted to concealment from their enemies would inevitably survive the longest." In 1871 Wallace's two essays, written at Samawak and Ternate, were published with others as a volume, *Contributions to the Theory of Natural Selection*. Probably, next to the *Origin of Species*, no single work has done so much to promote clear understanding of natural selection and confidence in its truth; for in addition to these two historic essays, there are others in which the new theory is applied to the interpretation of certain classes of facts. Thus one treats of "Mimicry" in animals, another on "Instinct," another on "Birds' Nests." Each of these served as an example of what might be achieved in the light of the new doctrine, which, taught in this way and in an admirably lucid style, was easily absorbed by many who found the more complete exposition in the *Origin* very hard to absorb.

In this work, and in many of his subsequent publications, Wallace differs from Darwin on certain points. Thus the two concluding essays contend that man has not, like the other animals, been produced by the unaided operation of natural selection, but that other forces have also been in operation. We here see the influence of his convictions on the subject of "spiritualism." More recently he expressed his dissatisfaction with the hypothesis of "sexual selection" by which Darwin sought to explain the conspicuous characters which are displayed during the courtship of animals. The expression of his opinion on both these points of divergence from Darwin will be found in *Darwinism* (1889), a most valuable and lucid exposition of natural selection, as suited to the later period at which it appeared as the *Essays* were to the earlier.

Darwin died some years before the controversy upon the possibility of the hereditary transmission of acquired characters arose over the writings of Weismann, but Wallace has freely accepted the general results of the German zoologist's teaching; and in *Darwinism* has presented a complete theory of the causes of evolution unmixed with any trace of Lamarck's use or disuse of inheritance, or Buffon's hereditary effect of the direct influence of surroundings. *Tropical Nature and other Essays* appeared in 1878, since republished combined with the 1871 *Essays*, of which it formed the natural continuation. One of the greatest of his publications was the *Geographical Distribution of Animals* (1876), a monumental work, which every student will maintain fully justifies his author's hope that it may bear a similar relation to the *Eleventh and Twelfth Chapters of the Origin of Species* as Mr. Darwin's *Animals and Plants under Domestication* bears to the first." *Island Life*, which may be regarded as a valuable supplement to the last-named work, appeared in 1880.

Turning to his other writings, Wallace published *Miracles and Modern Spiritualism* in 1881. Here is given an account of the reasons which induced him to accept beliefs which are shared by so small a proportion of scientific men. These reasons are purely experimental, and in no way connected with Christianity, for he had long before given up all belief in revealed religion. In 1882 he published *Land Nationalization*, in which he urged the necessity of state ownership of land, a principle which he had originated long before the appearance of Henry George's work. In *Forty-five Years of Registration Statistics* (1885) he maintained that vaccination is useless and dangerous. Wallace also published an account of what he held to be the greatest discoveries as well as the failures of the 19th century, *The Wonderful Century* (1899). His later works include *Studies, Scientific and Social* (1900), *Man's Place in the Universe* (1903) and his *Autobiography* (1905). Possessed of a bold and intensely original mind, his activities radiated in many directions, apparently rather attracted than repelled by the unpopularity of certain of his theories. The non-theological *Atlantis of the Mind* (1893) has the truest missionary spirit, an intense faith which would seek to move the mountains of apathy and active opposition.

Whatever may be the future history of his other views, he will always be remembered as an originator of a principle more illuminating than any which has appeared since the days of Newton, as one of its two discoverers whose scientific rivalry was only the beginning of a warm and unbroken friendship.

Wallace was married in 1866 to the eldest daughter of the botanist, Mr. William Mitten, of Hurstpierpoint, Sussex. In 1877 he built a house at Grays, Essex, in an old chalk-pit, and after living there four years, moved successively to Dorking (two years) and Croydon (three years). In 1880 he built a cottage at Godalming near the Charterhouse school, and grew nearly 1000 species of plants in the garden which he made. In 1889 he moved to Dorsetshire. After his return to England in 1892 Wallace visited the continent, especially Switzerland, for rest and change (1886, 1896) and the study of botany and glacial phenomena (August 1895). He also visited Spa, in Belgium, about 1870, and in October 1887 went for a lecturing tour in the United States. He delivered a course of six Lowell lectures in Boston, and visited New York, New Haven, Baltimore, &c., spending the winter at Washington. The following March he went to Canada and Niagara, and then made his way westwards. He saw the Yosemite Valley, the Big Trees, and botanized in the Sierra Nevada and at Gray's Peak. In July he returned to Liverpool by way of Chicago and the St. Lawrence.

The first Darwin medal of the Royal Society was awarded to A. R. Wallace in 1895, and he had received the Royal medal in 1868. A pension was awarded him by Mr. Gladstone at the beginning of 1881. He received the degree of D.C.L. from Oxford in 1886, and of LL.D. from the university of Dublin in 1882. He was president of the Entomological Society of London in 1870-1871.

Apart from Wallace's own *Autobiography*, a good deal of useful information is given in the biographical introduction to Wallace's *Mimicry of Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro* by the editor, Mr. C. T. Bettany.

**WALLACE, Lewis** [Lewis] (1827-1905), American soldier and author, was born at Brookville, Indiana, on the 10th of April 1827, and received an academic education. He abandoned temporarily the study of law in Indianapolis to recruit a company of volunteers (of which he was made second lieutenant) for the Mexican War, and served in 1846-1847 in the First Indiana Battery. He returned to the law, but at the beginning of the Civil War became colonel of the Eleventh Indiana Infantry, served in the West Virginia campaign, and on the 3rd of September 1861 was appointed brigadier-general. After the capture of Fort Donelson (February 16, 1862) he was promoted to major-general (March 21, 1862), was engaged at Shiloh (April, 7, 1862), and afterwards commanded the Eighth Corps.
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with headquarters at Baltimore. By delaying the Confederate
general J. A. Early at Monocacy (July 9, 1864) he saved Washing-
ton from almost certain capture. General Wallace served as
president of the court of inquiry (November 1862) which in-
vestigated the conduct of General D. C. Buell, and of the court
which in 1865 tried and condemned Henry Wirz, commander
of the Confederate prison at Andersonville, Ga. He was also
a member of the court which tried the alleged conspirators against
President Lincoln. He resigned from the army in 1865 to
return to the bar. He served as governor of New Mexico Terri-
tory (1878–1881) and was a member of the Council of His Highness
under whose auspices the boy was educated, mainly at Paris;
but it was generally supposed in his lifetime that he was a son
of the fourth marquess (his elder by only eighteen years), and
therefore her grandson. At Paris he was well known in society,
and became an assiduous collector of all sorts of valuable objets
d'art, but in 1857 these were sold and Wallace devoted himself
to assisting the fourth marquess, who left London to reside
entirely in Paris, to acquire a magnificent collection of the
finest examples of painting, armour, furniture and bric-a-brac.
The marquess of Hertford, the last of that line, was a
Frenchman who owned many works of art.

WALLACE, SIR RICHARD, Bart. (1818–1890), English
art collector and philanthropist, was born in London on the
26th of July 1818. According to Sir Walter Armstrong (see
Dict. of National Biography, art. "Wallace"), he was a natural
son of Sir Richard Wallis, 5th bart., of Hertford House, West
Malling, Kent, under whose auspices the boy was educated, mainly at Paris;
but it was generally supposed in his lifetime that he was a son
of the fourth marquess (his elder by only eighteen years), and
therefore her grandson. At Paris he was well known in society,
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WALLACE, SIR WILLIAM (c. 1270–1305), the popular
national hero of Scotland, is believed to have been the second son
of Sir Malcolm Wallace of Elderslie and Auchinbothie, in Ren-
frewshire. The date of his birth is not certainly ascertained,
but is usually given as 1270. The only authority for the events
of his early life is the metrical history of Blind Harry. That
author cannot be implicitly relied on, though we need not conclude
that the minstrel invented the stories he relates. He lived
about two centuries later than Wallace, during which a
considerable body of legend had probably gathered round the
name, and these popular "gestis" he incorporates in his narra-
tive. At the same time he professes to follow as his "autour"
an account that had been written in Latin by John Blair, the
personal friend and chaplain of Wallace himself. As Blair's
account has perished, we cannot tell how far the minstrel has
faithfully followed his authority, but some comparatively recent
discoveries have confirmed the truth of portions of the narrative
which had previously been doubted. At best, however, his
authority must be regarded with suspicion, except when it is
confirmed by other and more trustworthy evidence.

Only for a period of less than two years in his life—from the
beginning of the rising in 1297 to the battle of Falkirk—
does Wallace come before us in the clearest historical light.
With the exception of one or two glimpses of him that we obtain
from authentic historical documents, the recorded events of his
later as of his earlier life rest on no more certain authority than
that of Blind Harry, who was a contemporary of Wallace.

In his boyhood, according to the usual accounts, he resided
for some time at Dunipace, in Stirlingshire, with an uncle, who is
styled "parson" of the place. By this uncle he was partially
educated, and from him he imbibed an enthusiastic love of
liberty. His education was continued at Dundee, where he made
the acquaintance of John Blair. On account of an incident that

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happened at Dundee—his slaughter of a young Englishman
named Selby, for an insult offered to him—he is said to have
been outlawed, and so driven into rebellion against the English.

Betting himself to the wilds of the country, he gradually
acquired a body of followers, and formed for himself a
small state. But at the end of a few years he fell a victim to
various attacks upon the English. In consequence of the success
of these early enterprises his following largely increased,
some of the more patriotic nobles—including the steward of Scotland,
Sir Andrew Moray, Sir John de Graham, Douglas the Hardy,
Wishart, bishop of Glasgow, and others—having joined him.

His insurrection now became more open and pronounced, and
his enterprises of greater importance. An attack was made
upon the English justiciar, Ormsby, who was holding his court at
Scone. The justiciar himself escaped, but many of his followers
were captured or slain. The burning of the Barns of Ayr, in the
quarters of English soldiers, in revenge for the treacherous
slaughter of his uncle, Sir Ronald Crawford, and other Scottish
noblemen, followed. The success of these exploits induced the
English king to take measures for staying the insurrection. A
large army, under the command of Sir Henry Percy and Sir
Robert Clifford, was sent against the insurgents, and came up
with them at Irvine. Dissensions broke out among the Scottish
leaders, and all Wallace's titled friends left him and made sub-
mission to Edward, except the ever faithful Sir Andrew Moray.

The treaty of Irvine, by which these Scottish nobles agreed
to yield the river and its sovereignty lord, is printed in
Rymer's Foedera. It is dated the 9th of July 1297, and is the
first public document in which the name of Sir William Wallace
occurs. Wallace retired to the north, and although deserted by
the barons was soon at the head of a large army. The vigour
and success of his operations was such that in a short time he
succeeded in recovering almost all the fortresses held by the
English to the north of the Forth. On the 12th of September 1207, began to cross the bridge. When
about one half of his army had crossed, and while they were still
in disorder, they were attacked with such fury by Wallace, that
almost all—Cressingham among the number—were slain, or
driven into the river and drowned. Those on the south side of
the river being seized with panic and fled tumultuously, having
first set fire to the bridge. The Scots, however, crossed by a ford,
and continued the pursuit of the enemy as far as Berwick.
Sir Andrew Moray fell in this battle. The results of it were
important. The English were everywhere driven from Scotland.
To increase the alarm of the English, as well as to relieve the
famine which then prevailed, Wallace organized a great raid into
the north of England, in the course of which he devastated the
country to the gates of Newcastle. On his return he was elected

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WALLACE, W.—WALLACE, W. V.

WALLACE, WILLIAM (1768–1843), Scottish mathematician, was born on the 23rd of September 1768 at Dysart in Fifehire, where he received his school education. In 1784 his family removed to Edinburgh, where he himself was set to learn the trade of a bookbinder; but his taste for mathematics had already developed itself, and he made such use of his leisure hours that before the completion of his apprenticeship he had made considerable acquisitions in geometry, algebra and astronomy. He was further assisted in his studies by John Robison (1739–1804) and John Playfair, to whom his abilities had been known. After the completion of his education, dictated mainly by a desire to gain time for study, he became assistant teacher of mathematics in the academy of Perth in 1794, and this post he exchanged in 1803 for a mathematical mastership in the Royal Military College at Great Marlow (afterwards at Sandhurst). In 1819 he was chosen to succeed John Leslie in the chair of mathematics at Edinburgh, and in 1838, when compelled by ill-health to retire, he received a government pension for life. He died in Edinburgh on the 28th of April 1843.

In his earlier years Wallace was an occasional contributor to Playfair's Mathematical Repository and the Gentleman's Mathematical Collection. Between 1801 and 1810 he edited articles prefixed to MacCulloch's "Account of the Cognizances of Scotland", and several others in mathematical and physical sciences in the fourth edition of the Enyclopedia Britanica, and some of these were retained in subsequent editions from the fifth to the eighth inclusive. He was also one of the authors of the Mathematical and Physical Polarities in the Edinburgh Encyclopaedia, edited by David Brewster (1808–1830). He also contributed many important papers to the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

Transactions of the Royal Soc., 1844.

WALLACE, WILLIAM (1844–1897), Scottish philosopher, was born at Cupar-Fife on the 11th of May 1844, the son of a housebuilder. Between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two he was educated at St Andrews, whence he proceeded as an exhibitor in 1864 to Balliol College, Oxford. He took a first class in Moderations, and in Lit. Hum. (1867), was Gaisford prizeman in 1867 (Greek prose) and Craven Scholar in 1869. Three years later he was appointed fellow, and in 1871 librarian, of Merton College. In 1882 he was elected Whyte's professor of moral philosophy in succession to T. H. Green, and retained the position until his death. He died on the 18th of February 1897 from the effects of a bicycle accident near Oxford. His manner was somewhat brusque and sarcastic, and on this account, in his undergraduate days at Balliol, he was known as "The Dorian." But he was greatly respected both as a man and as a lecturer. His philosophical works are almost entirely devoted to German, and especially to Hegelian, doctrines, which he expounded and criticized with great clearness and literary skill. In dealing with Hegel he was, unlike many other writers, successful in expressing himself in a lucid literary manner, without artificial and incomprehensible terminology.

His principal works were The Logic of Hegel (1873), which contains a translation of the Encyclopädie with an introduction, a second edition of which, with a volume entitled Prolegomena, appeared in 1892; Epicureanism (1880); Kanti (Blackwood's Philosophical Classics, 1882); Life of Arthur Schopenhauer (1890); Hegel's Philosophy of Mind (translated from the Encyclopädie, with five introductory pages); Lectures on Historical and Critical Theology and Ethics, being a selection from his papers edited with a biographical introduction by Edward Caird. He wrote several important articles for the 9th edition of the Encyc. Brit., which, with some revisions, have been repeated in the present work.

WALLACE, WILLIAM VINCENT (1814–1865), British composer, was born at Waterford, Ireland, his father a Scottish family, being a regimental musician. But Wallace learnt as a boy to play several instruments, and became a leading violinist in Dublin. But in 1835 he married and went off to Australia, sheep farming. A concert in Sydney revived his musical passion; and having separated from his wife, he began a roving career, which had many romantic episodes, in Australia, the South Seas, India and South America. He returned to London in 1845 and made various appearances as a pianist; and in November of that year his opera Mariana was performed at Drury Lane with great success. This was followed by Matilda of Hungary (1847), Lurline (1860), The Amber Witch.

For bibliography see the article in the Dict. Nat. Biog. The principal modern lives are James Moir's (1866), and A. F. Morrison's (1898).

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Wallace, his Lectures

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Wednesday, when the news of this successful revolt reached him. He hastened home, and at the head of a great army entered Scotland in July 1298. Wallace was obliged to adopt the only plan of campaign which could give any hope of success. He slowly retired before the English monarch, driving off supplies and wasting the country. The nobles as usual for the first part paid little regard to his standard. Those that remained thwarted his councils by their jealousies. His plan, however, came very near being successful. Edward, compelled by famine, had already given orders for a retreat when he received information of Wallace's position and intentions. The army, then at Kirkliston, was immediately set in motion, and next morning (July 22, 1298) Wallace was brought to battle in the vicinity of Falkirk. After an obstinate fight the Scots were overpowered and defeated with great loss. Among the slain was Sir John de Graham, the bosom friend of Wallace, who went to his death, and among the French, he threw his head into a frenzy of rage and grief. The account of his distress is one of the finest and most touching passages in the poem. With the remains of his army Wallace found refuge for the night in the Torwood—known to him from his boyish life at Dunipace. He then retreated to the north, burning the town and castle of Stirling on his way. He resigned the office of guardship, and betook himself again to a wandering life and a desultory and predatory warfare against the English. At this point his history again becomes obscure. He is known to have paid a visit to France, with the purpose of obtaining aid for his country from the French king. This visit is narrated with many untrustworthy details by Blind Harry; but the fact is established by other and indisputable evidence. When in the winter of 1302–1303 Edward received the submission of the Scottish nobles, Wallace was expressly excepted from all terms. And after the capture of Stirling Castle and Sir William Oliphant, and the submission of Sir Simon Fraser, he was left alone, but resolute as ever in refusing allegiance to the English king. A price was set upon his head, and the English governors and captains in Scotland had orders to use every means for his capture. On the 6th of August 1305 he was taken—as is generally alleged, through treachery—at Robroyston, near Glasgow, by Sir John Menteith, carried to the castle of Dumbarton, and thence conveyed in fetters and strongly guarded to London. He reached London on the 22nd of August, and next day was taken to Westminster Hall, where he was impeached as a traitor by Sir Peter Mallorie, the king's justice. To the accusation Wallace made the simple reply that he could not be a traitor to the king of England, for he never was his subject, and never swore fealty to him. He was found guilty and condemned to death. The sentence was executed the same day with circumstances of unusual cruelty.

The cause of national independence was not lost with the life of Wallace. Notwithstanding the cruelty and indignity amid which it terminated, that life was not a failure. It has been an inspiration to his countrymen ever since. The popular ideas regarding his stature, strength, bodily prowess and undaunted courage are confirmed by the writers nearest his own time—Wytoun and Fordun. And indeed no man could in that age have secured the personal ascendency which he did without the possession of these qualities. The little we know of his statesmanship during the short period he was in power gives proof of political wisdom. His patriotism was conspicuous and disinterested. He was well skilled in the modes of warfare that suited the country and the times. That he failed in freeing his country from the yoke of England was due chiefly to the jealousy with which he was regarded by the men of rank and power. But he had a nobler success in inspiring his countrymen with a spirit which made their ultimate conquest impossible.
WALLACK—WALL-COVERINGS

WALLACK, a city and the county-seat of Walla Walla county, Washington, U.S.A., in the S.E. part of the state, on Mill Creek, about 300 m.s. by W. of Spokane. Pop. (1880) 3588; (1890) 4790; (1900) 10,040, of whom 1522 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 19,364. Walla Walla is served by the Northern Pacific and the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Co.'s (Union Pacific) railways, and by an interurban electric line. In the city are a state penitentiary, Fort Walla Walla (a U.S. cavalry post), a Federal Land Office, a Young Men's Christian Association building, a Carnegie library, the State Odd Fellows' Home, and the Stubbfield Home for Widows and Orphans. Sessions of Federal District and Circuit courts are held here.

WALLACETOWN is the site of the Cheshire College (chartered 1859; opened, 1866; rechartered, 1883), originally a Congregational, but now non-sectarian, which was founded by the Rev. Cushing Eells and was named in honor of Marcus Whitman, and includes a college, a conservatory of music and a preparatory academy, and occupies a campus of 30 acres; and of Walla Walla College (Adventist). Here are also St Paul's School (Protestant Episcopal) for girls, and St Vincent's Academy for girls and De La Salle Academy for boys (both Roman Catholic). The city is situated in a farming (especially wheat-growing), stock-raising and fruit-growing region, is a distributing centre for the adjacent territory and is a transit point between the Pacific railway and the Columbia river.

Wallace is a large town of the first order, situated on a high plain, about 2 m. by N.W. of the town of Rockford, in Sangamon county, Illinois. It is the seat of a court of chancery and of a school district. Pop. (1880) 3834; (1890) 7164; (1900) 4030; (1910) 7881.

WALLACETOWN, WALLAROO, WALLASS, WALLATROSS, WALLAS, WALLASEY, WALLING, WALLINGFORD, WALLINGFTON, WALLLACEMAN, WALLOR, WALLower, WALLPARK, WALLPORT, WALLSTONE, WALL-WALKING.

WALLACETOWN, a seaport of Daly county, South Australia, situated in Wallarooy, on the Spencer Gulf, 123 m. by r. N.W. by N. of Adelaide. It is connected by r. with the celebrated Wallaroo copper mines (near Kadina, at a distance of 6 m. from the port). At Wallaroo Bay are the largest smelting works in the state, ranking among the largest in the world. Copper ores are received from other parts of the continent and from Tasmania for smelting at these works, which have ample facilities for shipment. Population of town (1901) 2920; of town and mines, 4866.

WALLASEY, an urban district in the Wirral parliamentary division of Cheshire, England, 2 m. N.W. of Birkenhead, of which it forms a suburb. Pop. (1901) 33,370. The former manor estuary called Wallasey Pool is occupied by the Great Float, forming an immense dock (see BIRKENHEAD). The church of St Hilary, to which is assigned a foundation in the 10th century, was rebuilt in the 15th century, with the exception of the tower bearing the date 1516. It was gutted by fire in 1857, and the whole was again rebuilt in the Early English style. On the shore of the Irish Sea is Leasowe Castle, once known as Mock-Beggar Wall, and supposed to have been erected by the earls of Derby in the reign of Elizabeth, in order to witness the horse-races held here. Under Wallasey Pool are remains of a submerged forest, in which various animal skeletons have been found.

At the Conquest Wallasey formed part of the possessions of Robert de Rhuddlan, and on his death it became part of the manor of Halton. In the reign of Elizabeth it had a small port, to which there belonged three barques and fourteen men. In 1668 the manor was possessed by the earl of Derby, but various parts afterwards became alienated. For a considerable time the horse-races held on what was then a common had considerable reputation, but they were discontinued in 1750. At these races the duke of Monmouth, son of Charles II., once rode his own horse and won the plate.

WALLACE, WALL-COVERINGS. The present article deals with this subject (see MURAL DECORATION for art and archaeology) from the practical point of view in connexion with house-furnishing. In selecting a wall-covering, the chief factors to be borne in mind are the conditions of the room, viz., the use to which it is to be put, and its lighting, aspect and outlook.

Marble is one of the most beautiful materials that can be chosen for covering walls. The many fine veins and the almost infinite variety of color give a wide choice that enables it to be employed in practically any scheme of colouring and for rooms of any aspect and any description. The working up of the marble is done mostly by machinery; the saws used are flat strips of steel set in the frame of a machine and worked to and fro, sand and water being constantly supplied to assist in the work of cutting. Marbles are worked to the desired profile by rapidly revolving carbonium wheels, and are afterwards polished by hand. Marble-wall-skimming needs very careful fixing, and should be well supported by a sufficient number of cramps at a little distance from the wall, leaving a space of about 1 in. at the top of the marble. No rusting cramps should be used, such as those made of copper or bronze. A cement made of plaster of Paris and marble dust mixed in the proportion of two parts to one should be used for fixing, as pure plaster, especially if new, is liable to swell and cause the marble to crack. Maresco and Scagliola are imitation marbles and are described in PLASTERWORK.

Marble, well-dressed and properly executed mosaic is a very beautiful decorative medium, and ranks among the most permanent as well as most pleasing wall-coverings. With glass mosaic great ranges both of colour and of texture of surface can be obtained, different methods giving the glass a brilliant granular or quite dull surface as desired to suit the particular position of the work. Marble mosaic is used more for floors and pavings than for vertical surfaces. Most mosaic is now put together in the studio and plastered upon sheets of tough paper, to which the design has previously been transferred. The whole section can thus be bedded on the prepared wall-surface with the least amount of
WALLENSTEIN, A. E.

Tiling.

The most valuable qualities of being hard in wear, durable, free from dust and dirt, and easily washable, with beauty of design, colouring and surface, tiling may perhaps be placed next in order of merit as a wall-covering to wallpaper, although the high price of good quality, glazed, and various trade names, is now much used, especially for tiling existing walls. It has all the sanitary qualities of tiles, but is perhaps somewhat more fragile and liable to be damaged under hard wear. It is easy to prepare either colours and is usually fixed with a special cement or mastic which allows for slight movements of expansion and contraction. The thickness of the material varies with the kind of tiling used.

Metal sheeting, though somewhat inartistic in appearance, is useful where a durable, waterproof and sanitary wall protection is needed, and is therefore often used for sculleries, wash-houses and lavatories. This sheet of zinc with slightly embossed patterns and enamelled in colours can be hung upon the wall with a composition of white lead (one part) and whiting (two parts) mixed to a thick paste with varnish or oil colour. Sheets of iron or steel. The design of the paper, of which a design is fixed to the wall with nails or screws; they are either previously enamelled or are painted after being fixed. They are used more for ceilings than for wall-coverings, but are adapted for use in either position.

Tapestry paper. Some of the best known fragments is a most beautiful wall-covering. It is usually hung upon frames fitted to the wall.

Tapestry, and may either cover the entire wall surface or be fixed in certain sections, panels, friezes or pilasters. They are used at all a sanitary covering, for it harbours a very large quantity of dust and dirt. The same remark applies, but perhaps in a less degree, to brocades of silk and damask. These materials are of a delicate nature and become soiled by dust. An alternative usage of good qualities, papered or tiled, is a most admirable wall-covering, which will stand hard wear, and it forms a good background for pictures and furniture.

Metal sheeting.

The term "wall-paper" embraces a very large variety of materials of many kinds and qualities, usually machine-printed papers of the most flimsy description and often hideous design, to the Japanese and similar leathery papers, skillfully modelled in relief and richly decorated in gold and colours.

Wall-papers may be either in distemper colours or oil colours, and the patterns upon them are printed either by hand or by machine. There are also self-coloured papers which have different kinds of surface finish, and with some of these a pattern is formed by contrasting a smooth with a roughened number, or by offset printing, plane surface, and no attempt made to introduce a pictorial element into the decoration. The wall-paper, regarded from the paper-hanger's point of view, is often divided into three sections, the dado or under wall, the frieze, and the wall, or the top surface beneath the cornice. This subdivision is not always adhered to, and a wall may be papered uniformly all over its surface, or may consist of one section only, either the dado without the frieze, or frieze and filling without the dado. The division between the sections is usually formed, in the case of the frieze and filling, with a wood picture, and between the filling and dado with a moulded dado or chair rail.

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The best papers are printed from blocks manipulated by hand. The pattern, or as much of it as is to be printed in one colour, is carefully composed on the wood block, small and delicate members being represented by strips of hack work, inverted in the manner of woodcut work. With large blocks a trowel and pulley arrangement gives the workman assistance in applying and removing the pattern, which is first fixed upon the wall, and then washed over with a watered-down paste, and then applied to the surface of the paper to be decorated. One tint is applied at a time, and this when dry is followed by others necessary to complete the design. This drying of the previous colour ensures sharpness of outline and accuracy of colour. Designs are sometimes worked on the paper with special patterns cut out of zinc sheets. These are laid upon the paper and thick colour applied through the perforations with a stiff brush.

The cheaper wall-papers are printed by machinery. The paper is fed through red hot rollers, large dies are adopted, and are grouped to the printing cyliners, each with a separate ink colour, to give the special colour for its use. On each of the wooden printing rollers is set copper "type," representing as much of the pattern as is to be printed, and the various designs and the work of the roller is one piece to form one perfect pattern, and when printing in several colours it may take a skilled workman a week or more to "set" his machine, a very large quantity of paper being applied in a single day.

The colours used for hand-printed work, whether applied with blocks or stencil plates, are much thicker in consistency than those for machine print work. The advantage of hand-worked paper is the comparative ease with which the paper can be removed if it has gone out of stock. At a slight extra cost the manufacturer will print a few pieces for his customer from the blocks he has retained. With machine-printed work, however, the colouring of the paper, to ascertain the number of pieces required for a room, is made by taking a tracing in ten or fifteen copies, stained with different tints, and these figures representing in print the area of the design, and the amount of material required; an allowance of about one-seventh must be added to allow for wastage in matching patterns and odd lengths. If French papers are to be used the division should be 38 instead of 60, these figures representing the number of bands in the printed surface in each roll. The surface of the wall should before papering be carefully prepared so as to be quite smooth and regular. The paper that has been previously peeled should be stripped, and any irregularities filled in with stopping. To remove varnished paper use hot water to which borax has been added in the proportions of 2 oz. to each pint of water. In selecting a paper for a newly plastered wall, it is advisable to have the plaster sustaining the blunting action of the lime in the plaster. Greens, blues and pinks especially are affected in this manner. For heavy papers glue paste should be used. Papering which has become dirty may be effectually cleaned with a trowel made from the handle of a scullery mop, the blade being cut to a wedge shape in one direction this speedily removes the dirt. When the wall is damp, tinfoil, pitch-covered paper or Willesden waterproofed paper is used behind the paper to prevent the paper from becoming damaged by the water. For a piece of paper 12 yds. long and 21 in. wide. The printed surface is only 20 in. in width, as a margin of half an inch is left on each edge. One or both of these plain margins must be removed prior to hanging. French wall-papers are 9 yds. long and 18 in. wide, and only 17 in. of this is a useful piece of English paper. To ascertain the number of pieces required for a room take the superficies in feet of the surface to be covered (dado, frieze, and pilasters) and divide by 240. This gives the net amount required; an allowance of about one-seventh must be added to allow for wastage in matching patterns and odd lengths. If French papers are to be used the division should be 38 instead of 60, these figures representing the number of bands in the printed surface in each roll. The surface of the wall should before papering be carefully prepared so as to be quite smooth and regular. The paper that has been previously peeled should be stripped, and any irregularities filled in with stopping. To remove varnished paper use hot water to which borax has been added in the proportions of 2 oz. to each pint of water. In selecting a paper for a newly plastered wall, it is advisable to have the plaster sustaining the blunting action of the lime in the plaster. Greens, blues and pinks especially are affected in this manner. For heavy papers glue paste should be used. Papering which has become dirty may be effectually cleaned with a trowel made from the handle of a scullery mop, the blade being cut to a wedge shape in one direction this speedily removes the dirt. When the wall is damp, tinfoil, pitch-covered paper or Willesden waterproofed paper is used behind the paper to prevent the paper from becoming damaged by the water.

WALLENSTEIN (properly WALLENSTEIN), ALBRECHT WENZEL EUSEBIUS VON, duke of Friedland, Sagan and Mecklenburg (1583-1634). German soldier and statesman, was born of a noble but by no means wealthy or influential family at Herrnack, Bohemia, on the 15th of September 1583. His parents were Lutherans, and in early youth he attended the school of the Brothers of the Common Life at Koschumberg. After the death of his parents he was sent by his uncle, Slawa, to the Jesuit college of nobles at Olmitz, after which he professed, but hardly accepted, the Roman Catholic faith. In 1600 he went to the university of Altdorf, at which he had to leave in consequence of some boisterous fellows. Afterwards he studied at Bologna and Padua, and visited many places in southern and western Europe. While in Padua he gave much attention to astrology, and during the rest of his life he never wavered in the conviction that he might trust to the stars for indications as to his destiny. For some time Wallenstein served in the army of the emperor Rudolph II. in Hungary, which was commanded by a methodical professional soldier, Giorgio Basta. His personal gallantry at the siege of Gran won for him a company without promotion. In 1606 he returned to his estates, but in 1609 he married an elderly widow, Lucretia Nikossie von Landeck, whose great estates in Moravia he inherited after her death in 1614. His new wealth enabled him to offer two hundred horse, splendidly equipped, to the archduke Ferdinand for his war with Venice in 1617. Wallenstein commanded them in person, and from that time he enjoyed both favour at court and popularity in the army. His wealth and influence were further increased by his marriage with Isabella Katharina, daughter of Count Harrach, a confidential adviser of the emperor Matthias. In the disturbances which broke out in Bohemia in 1618 and proved to be the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, advances
WALLENSTEIN, A. E.

were made to Wallenstein by the revolutionary party; but he preferred to associate himself with the imperial cause, and he carried off the treasure-chest of the Moravian estates to Vienna, part of its contents being given him for the equipment of a regiment of cuirassiers. At the head of this regiment Wallenstein won great distinction under Buquoy in the war against Mansfield. He was not present at the battle of the Weisser Berg, but he did help the same time to the imperial cause, in opposition to Gabriel Bethlen in Moravia, and recovered his estates which the nationalists had seized. The battle of the Weisser Berg placed Bohemia at the mercy of the emperor Ferdinand, and Wallenstein turned the prevailing confusion to his own advantage. He secured the great estates belonging to his mother's family, and the emperor sold to him on easy terms vast tracts of confiscated lands. His possessions he was allowed to form into a territory called Friedland, and he was raised in 1622 to the rank of an imperial count palatine, in 1623 to that of a prince. In 1625 he was made duke of Friedland. Meantime he fought with skill and success against Gabriel Bethlen, and so enhanced his reputation at the dark moment when Vienna was in peril and the emperor's general Buquoy dead on the field of battle. At this stage in his life the enigma of his personality is complicated by the fact that he was not only the cold, detached visionary with vast ambitions and dreams, but also the model ruler of his principality. In everyday matters of administration he displayed vigour and foresight. He not only placed the administration of justice on a farm basis and founded schools, but by many wise measures developed agriculture and mining and manufacturing industries. At the same time he collected in the service of his ambition and his authority a pomp and refinement in his court which contrasted forcibly with the way of life of the smaller established rulers.

When the war against the Bohemians had become a widespread conflagration, Ferdinand found he had no forces to oppose to the Danes and the Northern Protestants other than the Army of the League, which was not his, but the powerful and independent Maximilian's, instrument. Wallenstein saw his opportunity and early in 1626 he offered to raise not a regiment or two, but a whole army for the imperial service. After some negotiations the offer was accepted, the understanding being that the troops were to be maintained at the cost of the countries they might occupy. Wallenstein's popularity soon brought great numbers of recruits to his standard. He soon found himself at the head of 30,000 (not long afterwards of 50,000) men. The campaigns of this army in 1625, 1626 and 1627, against Mansfield, the Northern Protestants and Gabriel Bethlen, are described under Thirty Years' War.

Having established himself in Hungary, Wallenstein proceeded, in 1627, to clear Silesia of some remnants of Mansfield's army; and at this time he bought from the emperor the duchy of Sagan, his outlay in the conduct of the war being taken into account in the conclusion of the bargain. He then joined Tilly in the struggle with Christian IV., and afterwards took possession of the duchy of Mecklenburg, which was granted to him in reward for his services, the hereditary dukes being displaced on the ground that they had helped the Danish king. He failed to capture Stralsund, which he besieged for several months in 1628. This important reverse caused him bitter disappointment, for he had hoped that by obtaining free access to the Baltic he might be able to make the emperor supreme at sea as he seemed to be on land. It was a part of Wallenstein's scheme of German unity that he should obtain possession of the Hanseatic towns, and through them destroy or at least defy the naval power of the Scandinavian kingdom, the Netherlands and England. This plan was completely frustrated by the resistance of Stralsund, and even more by the emperor's "Edict of Restitution" that not only rallied against him all the Protestants but brought in a great soldier and a model army, Gustavus and the Swedes.

At the time of the victory of the Peace of Lutzen Wallenstein took part in the victory of the Peace of the League involved the fall of Wallenstein's influence. By his ambitions, his high dreams of unity and the incessant exactions of his army, he had made for himself a host of enemies. He was reported to have spoken of the arrogance of the princes, and it appeared probable that he would try to bring them, Catholics and Protestants alike, into rigid subjection to the crown. Again and again the emperor was advised to dismiss him. Ferdinand was very unwilling to part with one who had served him so well; but the demand was pressed so urgently in 1630 that he had no alternative, and in September of that year envoys were sent to Wallenstein to announce his recall. Had the emperor declined to take this course, the princes would probably have combined against him; and the result would have been a civil war even more serious than that which had already brought so many disasters upon the country. Wallenstein perfectly understood this, and he therefore accepted the emperor's decision calmly, gave over his army to Tilly, and retired to Gitschin, the capital of his duchy of Friedland. There, and at his palace in Prague, he lived in an atmosphere of mysterious magnificence, the rumours of which penetrated all Germany. The enigma of his projects was intensified, and the princes who had incurred his disgrace became more suspicious than ever. But ere long the emperor was forced by events to call him into the field again.

Shortly before the dismissal of Wallenstein, Gustavus Adolphus had landed in Germany, and it soon became obvious that he was far more formidable than the enemies with whom the emperor had yet had to contend. Tilly was defeated at Breitenfeld and on the Lech, where he received a mortal wound, and Gustavus advanced to Munich, while Bohemia was occupied by his allies the Saxons. The emperor entreated Wallenstein to come once more to his aid. Wallenstein at first declined; he had, indeed, been secretely negotiating with Gustavus Adolphus, in the hope of destroying the League and its projects and of building his new Germany without French assistance. However, he accepted Ferdinand's offers, and in the spring of 1632 he raised a fresh army as strong as the first within a few weeks and took the field. This army was placed absolutely under his control, so that he assumed the position of an independent prince rather than of a subject. His first aim was to drive the Saxons from Bohemia— an object which he accomplished without serious difficulty. Then he advanced against Gustavus Adolphus, whom he opposed near Nuremberg and after the battle of the Alte Veste dislodged. In November came the great battle of Lützen (q.e.), in which the imperialists were defeated, but Gustavus Adolphus was killed.

To the dismay of Ferdinand, Wallenstein made no use of the opportunity provided for him by the death of the Swedish king, but withdrew to winter quarters in Bohemia. In the campaign of 1633 much astonishment was caused by his apparent unwillingness to attack the enemy. He was in fact preparing to desert the emperor. In the war against the Saxons he had offered them as terms of peace the reoccupation of the Edict. Religious toleration, and the destruction of the separatist régime, as well as not inconsiderable aggressiandments for his own power, formed his programme, so far as historians have been able to reconstruct it, and becoming convinced from Ferdinand's obstinacy that the Edict would never be rescinded, he began to prepare to "force a just peace on the emperor in the interests of united Germany." With this object he entered into negotiations with Saxony, Brandenburg, Sweden and France. He had vast and vague schemes for the reorganization of the entire constitutional system of the empire, and he himself was to have supreme authority in determining the political destinies of his country. But as the mere commander of mercenaries he was trusted by no one, and could only play the part of Cassandra to the end.

Irritated by the distrust excited by his proposals, and anxious to make his power felt, he at last assumed the offensive against the Swedes and Saxons, winning his last victory at Steinau on the Oder in October. He then resumed the negotiations. In December he retired with his army to Bohemia, fixing his headquarters at Pilsen. It had soon been suspected in Vienna that Wallenstein was playing a double part, and the emperor, encouraged by the Spaniards at his court, anxiously sought for means of getting rid of him. Wallenstein was well aware of the designs formed against him, but displayed little energy in his
attempts to thwart them. This was due in part, no doubt, to ill-health, in part to the fact that he trusted to the assurances of his astrologer, Battista Seni. He also felt confident that when the time came for his army to decide between him and the emperor the decision would be in his own favour.

His principal officers assembled around him at a banquet on the 20th January 1634, when he submitted them a declaration to the effect that they should remain true to him. This declaration they signed. More than a month later a second paper was signed; but on this occasion the officers' expression of loyalty to their general was associated with an equally emphatic expression of loyalty to their emperor. By this time Wallenstein had learned that he must act warily. On the 24th of January the emperor had signed a secret patent removing him from his command, and imperial agents had been busying themselves to undermine Wallenstein's influence.

On the 7th of two of his officers, Piccolomini and Aldringen, had intended to seize him at Pilsen; but finding the troops there loyal to their general, they had kept quiet. But a patent charging Wallenstein and two of his officers with high treason, and naming the generals who were to assume the supreme command of the army, was signed on the 18th of February, and published in Prague.

When Wallenstein heard of the publication of this patent and of the refusal of the garrison of Prague to take his orders, he realized the full extent of his danger, and on the 23rd of February, accompanied by his most intimate friends, and guarded by about 1000 men, he went from Pilsen to Eger, hoping to see the Duke of Burghausen, Emperor, at whom, it is supposed, of his sincerity, were marching to join him. After the arrival of the party at Eger, Colonel Gordon, the commandant, and Colonels Butler and Leslie agreed torid the emperor of his enemy. On the evening of the 25th of February Wallenstein's supporters Illo, Kinsky, Terzky and Neumann were received at a banquet by the three colonels, and then murdered. Butler, Captain Devereux and a number of soldiers hurried to the house where Wallenstein was staying, and broke into his room. He was instantly killed by a thrust of Devereux's pistol. Wallenstein was buried at Gitschin, but in 1732 the remains were removed to the castle Chapel of Münchengratz.

No direct orders for the murder had been issued, but it was well understood that tidings of his death would be welcome at court. The murderers were handsomely rewarded, and their deed was commended as an act of justice.

Wallenstein was tall, thin and pale, with reddish hair, and eyes of remarkable brilliancy. He was of a proud and imperious temper, and had a sharp tongue. During his hard and starry days, and at times of supreme difficulty he listened carefully to the advice of his counsellors, but the final decision was always his own, and he rarely revealed his thoughts until the moment for action arrived. Few generals have surpassed him in the power of quickly organizing great masses of men and of inspiring them with confidence and enthusiasm. But it is as a statesman that Wallenstein is immortal. However much or little motives of personal aggrandisement influenced his schemes and his conduct, "Germany turns ever to Wallenstein as she turns to no other amongst the leaders of the Thirty Years' War. . . . Such faithfulness is not without reason. . . . Wallenstein's wildest schemes, impossible of execution by military violence, were always built upon the foundation of German unity. In the way in which he walked that unity was doubtless unattainable. . . . But during the long dreary years of confusion which were to come, it was as nothing to those of the last supremely able man whose life had been spent in battling against the great evils of the land, against the spirit of religious intolerance and the spirit of cruelty."

See Förster, Albrecht von Wallenstein (1834); Aretin, Wallenstein (1840); Hethig, Wallenstein und Armin, 1632-1634 (1856), and Kaiser Ferdinand und der Herzog von Friedland, 1633-1634 (1855); Hettner, Wallenstein 1633-1635 (1853); Fiedler, Zur Geschichte der Wallensteins (1860); L. van Ranke, Geschichte Wallensteins (3rd ed., 1872); Gindely, Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Kriegs (1866); J. Mitchell, Wallenstein (1840); S. R. Gardiner, Thirty Years' War.

WALLER, EDMUND (1666-1687), English poet, was the eldest son of Robert Waller of Coleshill (then in Herts, now in Buckingham county) and Anne Hargrave, his wife. He was his maternal cousin to the celebrated poet John Hampden. He was born on the 4th of March 1666, and baptized in the parish church of Amersham. Early in his childhood his father sold his house at Coleshill and migrated to Beaconsfield. Of Waller's early education all we know is his own account that he "was bred under several ill, dull and ignorant schoolmasters, till he went to Mr Dobson at Wickham, who was a good schoolmaster and had been an Eton scholar." His father died in 1616, and the future poet's mother, a lady of rare force of character, sent him to Eton and to Cambridge. He was admitted a fellow-commoner of King's College on the 22nd of March 1620. He had not yet attained the proper age, and it is believed that in 1621, at the age of only sixteen, he sat as member for Agmonedsham (Amersham) in the last parliament of James I. Clarendon says that Waller was "nursed in parliaments." In that of 1624 he represented Ilchester, and in the first of Charles I. Chipping Wycombe. The first act by which Waller distinguished himself, however, was his surreptitious marriage with a wealthy ward of the Court of Aldermen, in 1631.

He was married before the Star Chamber for this offence, and heavily fined. But his own fortune was large, and all his life Waller was a wealthy man. After bearing a son and a daughter at Beaconsfield, Mrs Waller died in 1634. It was about this time that the poet was elected into Falkland's "Club."

It is supposed that about 1635 he met Lady Dorothy Sidney, eldest daughter of the Earl of Leicester, who was then eighteen years of age. He formed a romantic passion for this girl, whom he celebrated under the name of Sacharissa. She rejected him, and married Lord Spencer in 1639. Disappointment, it is said, rendered Waller for a time insane, but this may well be doubted. He wrote, at all events, a long, graceful and eminently romantic poem, the "Disappointment," which was first published in 1643.

In 1640 Waller was once more M.P. for Amersham, and made certain speeches which attracted wide attention; later, in the Long Parliament, he represented St Ives. Waller had hitherto supported the party of Pym, but he now left him for the group of Falkland and Hyde. His speeches were much admired, and were separately printed; they are academic exercises very carefully prepared. Clarendon says that Waller spoke "upon all occasions with great sharpness and freedom." An extraordinary and obscure conspiracy against Parliament, in favour of the king, which is known as "Waller's Plot," occupied the spring of 1643, but on the 30th of May he and his friends were arrested. In the terror of discovery, Waller was accused of displaying a very mean politeness, and of confessing "whatever he had said, heard, thought or seen, and all that he knew . . . or suspected of others." He certainly cut a poor figure by the side of those of his companions who died for their opinions. Waller was called before the bar of the House in July, and made an abject speech of recantation. His life was spared and he was committed to the Tower, whence, on paying a fine of £10,000, he was released and banished the realm in November 1643. He married a second wife, Mary Bracey of Thame, and went over to Calais, afterwards taking up his residence at Rouen. In 1645 the Poems of Waller were first published in London, in three different editions; there has been much discussion of the order and respective authority of these issues, but nothing is decidedly known. Many of the lyrics were already set to music by Henry Lawes. In 1646 Waller travelled with Evelyn in Switzerland and Italy. During the worst period of the exile Waller managed to get a table for the Royalists in Paris, although in order to do so he was obliged to sell his wife's jewels. At the close of 1651 the House of Commons revoked Waller's sentence of banishment, and he was allowed to return to Beaconsfield, where he lived very quietly until the Restoration.

In 1655 he published A Panegyric to my Lord Protector, and was made a Commissioner for Trade a month or two later. He followed this up, in 1660, by a poem To the King, upon his Majesty's Happy Return. Being challenged by Charles II. to explain why this latter piece was inferior to the eulogy of Cromwell, the poet smartly replied, "Sir, we poets never succeed so well in writing truth as in fiction." He entered the House of Commons in 1661 as M.P. for Hastings, and Burrowes has recorded that for the next quarter of a century "it was no house if Waller was not there." His sympathies were tolerant and kindly, and he constantly defended the Nonconformists. One
famous speech of Waller’s was: “Let us look to our Government, fleet and trade, ‘tis the best advice the oldest Parliament man among you can give you, and so God bless you.” After the death of his second wife, in 1677, Waller retired to his house called Hall Barn at Beaconsfield, and though he returned to London, he became more and more attached to the retirement of his woods, “where,” he said, “he found the trees as bare and withered as himself.” In 1661 he had published his poem, *St James’ Park*; in 1664 he had collected his poetical works; in 1666 appeared his *Instructions to a Painter*; and in 1685 his *Divine Poems*. The final collection of his works is dated 1686, but there were further posthumous additions made in 1690. Waller bought a cottage at Coleshill, where he was born, meaning to die there; “a stag,” he said, “when he is hunted, and near spent, always returns home.” He actually died, however, at Hall Barn, with his children and his grandchildren about him, on the 21st of October 1687, and was buried in woolen (in spite of his expressed wish), in the churchyard of Beaconsfield.

Waller’s lyrics were at one time admired to excess, but with the exception of “Go, lovely Rose” and one or two others, they have greatly lost their charm. He was almost destitute of imaginative invention, and his fancy was plain and trite. But he resolutely placed himself in the forefront of reaction against the violence and “conceit” into which the baser kind of English poetry was descending. A great deal of discussion, some of it absurdly violent in tone, has been expended on the question how far Waller was or was not the pioneer in introducing in English verse a plain and direct style. It is, of course, obvious that Waller could not have introduced what had been invented, and admirably exemplified, by Chaucer. But those who have pointed to smooth distichs employed by poets earlier than Waller have not given sufficient attention to the fact (exaggerated, doubtless, by critics arguing in the opposite camp) that it was he who earliest made writing in the serried couplet the habit and the fashion. Waller was writing in the regular heroic measure, accordingly to his own perfect taste and his own fashion in the medium of the English language. He was a careful, though not a too critical, reader, and his understanding of the bard was admirable, as is shown by his careful study of the works of Shakespeare. He reappeared in the memorable production of Henry V., and he had a great success with *Monsieur Boucau* and similar plays. His wife, Mrs Lewis Waller (Florence West), also became well known as a powerful and accomplished actress.

WALLER, LEWIS (1597–1668), English soldier, was born in Spain, his father being a civil engineer. He first appeared on the London stage in 1683, at Toole’s, and for some years added to his reputation as a capable actor in London and the provinces. He came more particularly to the front by a fine performance as Buckingham in *The Three Musketeers* under Mr Beavobohm Tree’s management at His Majesty’s in 1883, and soon afterwards organized a company of his own, first at the Haymarket and afterwards at Drury Lane. He was a soldier of Imperial, Apollo and other theatres. His fine voice and vigorous acting at the Court were well suited in his memorable production of Henry V., and he had a great success with *Monsieur Boucau* and similar plays. His wife, Mrs Lewis Waller (Florence West), also became well known as a powerful and accomplished actress.

WALLER, SIR WILLIAM (c. 1597–1668), English soldier, was the son of Thomas Waller, lieutenant of Dover, and was born about 1597. He was educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, and served in the Venetian army and in the Thirty Years’ War. He was knighted in 1622 after taking part in Vere’s expedition to the Palatinate. Little is known of his life up to 1640, when he became member of parliament for Andover. Being a strict Presbyterian by religion, and a member of the opposition in politics, he naturally threw himself with the greatest ardour into the cause of the parliament when the Civil War broke out in 1642. He was at once made a colonel, and conducted to a speedy and successful issue the siege of Portsmouth in September; and later in the year captured Farnham, Winchester and other places in the south-west. At the beginning of 1643 Waller was made a major-general and placed in charge of operations in the north and west. He took the city of York (see GREAT REBELLION), and he concluded his first campaign with a victory at Higham and the capture of Hereford. He was then called upon to oppose the advance of Sir Ralph Hopton and the Royalist western army, and though more or less defeated in the hard-fought battle of Lansdown (near Bath) he shut up the enemy in Devizes. However, Hopton and a relieving force from Oxford inflicted a crushing defeat upon Waller’s army at Roundway Down. Hopton was Waller’s intimate personal friend, and some correspondence passed between the opposing generals, a quotation from which (Gardiner, *Civil War* i. 1643, is given as illustrative of the temper in which the nobler spirits on either side had entered on the war) “That great God,” wrote Waller, “who is the searcher of my heart knows with what a sad sense I go upon this service, and with what a perfect hatred I detest this war without an enemy; but I look upon it as sent from God . . . God . . . in his good time send us the blessing of peace and in the meantime assist us to receive it! We are both upon the stage and must act such parts as are assigned us in this tragedy, let us do it in a way of honour and without personal animosities.”

The destruction of his army at Roundway Down greatly affected Waller’s military reputation, many reproaching Essex, the commander-in-chief, for allowing the Oxford royalists to turn against Waller. The Londoners, who had called him “William the Conqueror,” recognized his skill and energy so far as willingly to raise a new army for him in London and the south-eastern counties. But from this point Waller’s career is one of gradual disillusionment. His new forces were distinctively local, and, like other local troops on both sides, resented long marches and hard work far from their own counties. Only at moments of imminent danger could they be trusted to do their duty. At ordinary engagements, e.g., when they were defended by their own forts and had mutinied in face of the enemy, deserted and even marched home in formed bodies under their own officers, and their gallantry at critical moments, such as the surprise of Alton in December 1643 and the recapture of Arundel in January 1644, but partially redeemed their general bad conduct. Waller himself, a general of the highest skill,—“the best shifter and chooser of ground” on either side,—was, like Turenne, at his best at the head of a small and highly-disciplined regular army. Only a Cédes or a Cromwell could have enforced discipline and soldierly spirit in such men, ill-clad and unpaid as they were, and the only military quality lacking to Waller was precisely his supreme personal magnetism. In these circumstances affairs went from bad to worse. Though successful in stopping Hopton’s second advance at Cheriton (March 1644), he was defeated by Charles I. in the war of manoeuvre which ended with the action of Cropredy Bridge (June), and in the second battle of Newbury in October his tactical success at the village of Speen led to nothing. His last expeditions were made into the west for the relief of Taunton, and in these he had Cromwell as his lieutenant-general. By this time the confusion in all the armed forces of the parliament had become so great that reforms were essential. The original suggestion of the celebrated “New Model” army came from Waller, who wrote to the Committee of Both Kingdoms (July 2, 1644) to the effect that “an army compounded of these men will never go through with your service, and till you have an army merely your own that you may command, it is in a manner impossible to do anything of importance.” Simultaneously with the New Model came the Self-Denying Ordinance, which required all members of parliament to lay down their military commands. Waller did so gladly—the more as he had already requested and had been granted a civil commission—and his active military career came to an end. But the events of 1643–1644 had done more than embitter him. They had combined with his Presbyterianism to make him intolerant of all that he conceived to be licence in church, state or army, and after he ceased to exercise command himself he was constantly engaged, in and out of parliament, in opposing the Independents and the army politicians, and supporting the cause of his own religious system, and later that of the Presbyterian-Royalist opposition to the Commonwealth and Protectorate régime. He was several times imprisoned between 1648 and 1659. In the latter year he was active in promoting the final negotiations for the restoration of Charles II. and reappeared in the House of Commons. He sat
in the Convention Parliament, but soon retired from political life, and he died on the 19th of September 1668.

See Wood's *Allotiae Oxonienses*, ed. Bliss, iii. 812; and two partial autobiographies, *Recollections by General Sir William Waller* (printed in the *Poetry of Anna Madida*, 1788), and *Vindication of the Character*, &c. (1797).

Sir William Waller's cousin, Sir Hardress Waller (c. 1604-1666) was also a parliamentarian of note. Knighted by Charles I. in 1629, he gained military experience in serving against the rebels in Ireland; then from 1645 to the conclusion of the Civil War he was in England commanding a regiment in the new model army. He was Colonel Pride's chief assistant when the latter "purged" the House of Commons in 1648, and he was one of the king's judges and one of those who signed the death warrant. During the next few years Waller served in Ireland, finally returning to England in 1660. After the restoration he fled to France, but soon surrendered himself to the authorities as a regicide, his life being spared owing to the efforts of his friends. He was, however, kept in prison and was still a captive when he died.


**WALLINGFORD.** A township of New Haven county, Connecticut, U.S.A., S.W. of the centre of the state, in the valley of the Quinnipiac river. It contains the villages of East Wallingford, Tracy and Yalesville, and the borough of Wallingford. Pop. of the township (1900) 9001, (1910) 11,155; of the borough (1900) 6737, of whom 1706 were foreign-born and 21 were negroes, (1910) 8690. Area of the township, about 38 sq. m. The borough is 12 m. N.E. of New Haven, on a hill about 1 m. long, and 1 m. wide. It forms part of the New York & Hartford railroad (which has stations also at East Wallingford and Yalesville) and by an interurban electric line connecting with Meriden and New Haven. The borough has a public library (1881), a Masonic Home, the Gaylord Farm Sanatorium of the New Haven County Anti-Tuberculosis Association, the Phelps School (for girls) and the Choate School (1896, for boys). Among the manufactures of the borough are sterling silver articles, plated and britannia ware, brass ware, rubber goods, cutlery and edge tools. The township of Wallingford was settled in 1670. At a meeting held in January 1766, in protest against the Stamp Act, it was declared, that "Whereas it appears from ancient Records and other Memorials of Incontestible Validity that our Ancestors with a great Sum Purchased said township, with great Peril possessed and Defended the Same, we are Born free (having never been in bondage to any), an inheritance of Inestimable Value," and a penalty of 20£ was imposed upon any one who should introduce or use stamped paper or parchment. During the War of Independence patriotic sentiment here was strong and Loyalists were sometimes exiled to Wallingford, where they could have no effective influence. The borough of Wallingford was incorporated in 1832. In 1853 or 1854 a company was organized to erect a town hall, which was completed in 1855. In 1857 a town hospital was established, and in 1858 a town library was organized. In 1875 a town hall and grammar school were built. In 1880 a high school was organized. The town has a daily newspaper, the *Hartford Morning Post*. The town is divided into 12 districts.

See C. H. S. Davis's *History of Wallingford* (Meriden, 1870).

**WALLINGFORD.** A market town and municipal borough in the Abingdon parliamentary division of Berkshire, England, 31 m. W. by N. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901) 2808. It is pleasantly situated in the flat valley of the Thames, on the west (right) bank. The railway station is the terminus of a branch line from Cheltenham. Of the churches only St Leonard's, retaining its Norman tower, and rebuilt apse, in the older original plan, with an eastern apse, is of interest. The ancient castle has left only its mound and earthworks, and other works may be traced surrounding the town on the landward side. The town hall, raised on arches, dates from 1670. The large grammar school was founded in 1650. The trade of the town is principally agricultural; and malting is carried on. The borough is under a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 350 acres.

The site of Wallingford (Wærgæford, Wylyngford, Wylyngfort), was occupied by a Romano-British settlement, though the imposing earthworks are of uncertain date—they may be of post-Roman British origin. Wallingford was a fortified town before the Conquest, and, though burned by Sweyn in 1066, was much the largest and most important borough in Berkshire at the time of the Domesday Survey. The new castle was so extensive that eight houses had been demolished to make room for it; the market was already in existence, and perhaps also the gild merchant, which in a charter of Henry II. is said to date back to the reign of the Confessor. In the reign of Henry I. the building of the town was either temporarily suspended or stopped altogether. It was again started under Henry II., who permitted a fair to be held at Wallingford, and who granted the right of holding fairs and markets at Wallingford, and that the town was to be called Wallingford. This charter was renewed under Henry III. in 1257. It was confirmed and enlarged by Henry III. in 1267 and by Philip and Mary in 1557-1558. In 1648 the corporation consisted of a mayor, three aldermen, a chamberlain and sixteen burgesses. This constitution was remodelled in 1650 by a charter from Cromwell, but the governing charter until the passing of the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 was that given by Charles II. in 1653, incorporating the town under the style of a mayor, recorder, town clerk, six aldermen, two burgesses, a chamberlain and eight assistants of the better sort of the inhabitants. In 1571 Elizabeth issued letters patent empowering the burgesses of Wallingford to take toll of all carts passing over their bridge, in order to provide for its repair and maintenance. Wallingford sent two members to parliament from 1295 to 1832, and one from 1832 to 1885, when its representation was merged in that of the county: before 1832 the franchise was vested in the inhabitants paying scot and lot. The empress Maud took refuge at Wallingford after her escape from Sheriff Castle (1144), and here peace was made between her and Stephen (1153). Wallingford Castle was one of the last strongholds to hold out for Charles I., and during the Commonwealth it was demolished by order of the government. In 1605 the king commanded the sheriff of Oxford to cause a fair to be held at Wallingford at Whitsun for four days, to be continued for three years. In 1272 Swyncombe fair was transferred from the feast of St. Botolph to the feast of St Mark in order not to interfere with Wallingford fair. Fairs on the days of St Nicholas and of St John the Baptist were granted by Henry VII. in 1500, and the charter of 1503 provided for two markets and four annual fairs. All the latter have fallen into disuse except the Michaelmas fair, which is principally for hiring servants. During the 18th century the town was fairly prosperous and had a good trade in grain and malt.


**WALLIS, JOHN** (1616-1703), English mathematician, logician and grammarian, was born on the 23rd of November 1616 at Ashford, in Kent, of which parish his father, Rev. John Wallis (1567-1622), was incumbent. After being at school at Ashford, Tenterden and Felsted, and being instructed in Latin, Greek, Hebrew and mathematics, he was sent to Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and afterwards was chosen fellow of Queens' College. Having been admitted to holy orders, he left the university in 1641 to act as chaplain to Sir William Darby, and in the following year accepted a similar appointment from the widow of Sir Horatio Vere. It was about this period that he displayed surprising talents in deciphering the intercepted letters and papers of the Royalists. His adherence to the parliamentary party was in 1643 rewarded by the living of St Gabriel, Fen-church Street, London. In 1644 he was appointed one of the scriveners or secretaries of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster. During the same year he married Susanna Glyde, and thus
vacated his fellowship; but the death of his mother had left him in possession of a handsome fortune. In 1645 he attended those scientific meetings which led to the establishment of the Royal Society. When the Independents obtained the superiority Wallis adhered to the Solemn League and Covenant. The living of St Gabriel he exchanged for that of St Martin, Ironmonger Lane; and, as rector of this parish, he in 1663, on the occasion of putting Charles I. to death. Notwithstanding this act of opposition, he was in June 1649 appointed Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford. In 1654 he there took the degree of D.D., and four years later succeeded Gerard Langbaine (1609–1658) as keeper of the archives. After the restoration he was named one of the king's chaplains in ordinary. While complying with the terms of the Act of Uniformity, Wallis seems always to have retained moderate and rational notions of ecclesiastical polity. He died at Oxford on the 28th of October 1703.

The works of Wallis are numerous, and relate to a multiplicity of subjects. His *Institutio Logicae*, published in 1667, was very popular, and in his *Arithmeticis Logicae Systema* were brought together observations of an acute and philosophic intellect. The mathematical works are published, some of them in a small 4to volume (Oxford, 1657) and a complete collection in three thick folio volumes (Oxford, 1685–1699). The first volume contains, however, only geographical treatises, and the first part of it is occupied with editions of treatises on harmonics and other works of Greek geometers, some of them first printed with Latin paraphrases by Meibomius, and others (Ptolemy, Porphyrius, Brieniumus, Archimedes, Eutocius, Aristarchus and Pappus). The second and third volumes include also his correspondence with his contemporaries; and there is a tract on trigonometry by Caswell. Excluding all these, the mathematical works contained in the first two and second volumes occupy about 1800 pages. The titles in the order adopted, but with date of publication, are as follows: "Orat. inter linearum proprietat. et imagin. (1646); "Mathesis universalis, seu ars mathematicam philosophic et mathematic matricium, arithmetica numerosam et speciosam aliquae continet (1651); "De sectionibus conicis (1652); "De sectionibus conicis novo modo expositis (1655); "Arithmetica infinitarum, sive nova methodus inquirendi in curvilinearum quadraturas aliqua difficilia matheose probatam (1658); "Eclipsis solaris observatio Oxoni habitab in Aug. 1654 (1655); "Tractatus duo, prior de cycloide, posterior de cissode et de curvarum tum linearum et curvarum superficierum (1656); "Mechanica, sive de motu tractatus quatuor" (three parts, 1660–1667–1667); "De algebra tractatus historicius et practici, ejusdem origine et progressus varios ostendens" (English, 1668); "De combinationibus alternatis et continuatibus" (English, 1667); "De sectionibus conicis angulatius tractatus" (English, 1668); "De angulo contactus et semicirculi tractatus" (1669); "Ejusdem tractatus defensio" (1669); "De postulato quinto, & quinta definitione, lib. 1 al. sect. 8" (1670); "De curvarum, suo corpus partim comum partim cuneum representan geometrice consideratur" (English, 1665); "De gravitate et gravitas" (English, 1672); "De asynt maris hypothesis nova" (1666–1669).

The *Arithmetica Infinitorum* relates chiefly to the quadrature of curves by the so-called method of indivisibles established by Bonaventura Cavalieri in 1639 (see Infinitesimal Calculus). He extended the "law of continuity" as stated by Johannes Kepler; regarded the denominators of fractions as powers with negative exponents; and deduced from the quadrature of the parabola the area of the curves when $n$ is negative or fractional. He attempted the quadrature of the circle by interpolation, and arrived at the remarkable expression known as Wallis's Theorem, containing the same result as Tartaglia's, but obtained an expression for the length of the element of a curve, which reduced the problem of rectification to that of quadrature. The *Mathesis Universalis*, a more elementary work, contains copious dissertations on fundamental points of algebra, arithmetic and geometry, and critical remarks.

The *De Algebra Tractatus* contains (chaps lxi.-lxxi.) the idea of the square root of a negative quantity, which is given somewhat as follows: the distance represented by the square root of a negative quantity cannot be measured in the line backwards or forwards, but can be measured in the same plane above or below the line appearing elsewhere but right angles to the line either in the plane, or in the plane at right angles thereto. Considered as a history of algebra, this work is strongly objected to by Jean Etienne Montucla on the ground of its gross ignorance of early Italian algebraists and also Francesco Viceta and René Descartes and in favour of Harriot; but Augustus De Morgan, while admitting this, attributes to it considerable merit. The symbol for infinity, $\omega$, was invented by him.
WALLOONS

révolutionnaire de Paris avec le journal de ses actes (6 vols., 1880-1882); La Révolution du 31 mai et le fédéralisme en 1793 (2 vols., 1885); Les Répétitants du peuple en mission et la justice révolutionnaire dans les départements (5 vols., 1880-1890). Besides these he published a number of articles in the Journal des savants; for many years he wrote the history of the Académie des Inscriptions in the collection of Mémoires of this Academy, and he composed obituary notices of his colleagues, which were inserted in the Bulletin. He died at Paris on the 13th of November 1904.

WALLOONS (Wallons, from a common Teut. word meaning "foreign," cf. Ger. welsch, Du. waelsch, Eng. Welsh), a people akin to the French, but forming a separate branch of the Romance race, inhabiting the Belgian provinces of Hainaut, Namur, Liège, parts of Luxembourg and southern Brabant, parts of the French departments of Nord and Ardennes, and a few villages in the neighbourhood of Malmedy in Rhenish Prussia. The Walloons are descended from the ancient Gallic Belgae, with an admixture of Roman elements. They are in general characterized by greater vivacity and adaptability than their Flemish neighbours, while they excel their French neighbours in endurance and industry. Their numbers are reckoned in Belgium at between 2,000,000 and 3,000,000. The Walloon dialect is a distinct branch of the Romance languages, with some admixture of Flemish and Low German. It was used as a literary language until the 15th century, when it began to be assimilated to French, by which it was ultimately superseded.

As early as 1852, Delaître published, De la situation des Walloons (Liège, 1852), Vocabulaire des noms wallons, &c. (2nd ed., 1857), and Dict. synonymique de la langue wallonne (t. i. and ii., 1845-1851; t. iii., by Scheler, 1880). J. Dejardin, Dict. des "spots ou proverbes wallons" (1863); Van der Kindere, Répartition de l'éloquence (Brussels, 1875); G. Normant, Le Flamand, le Wallon, l'Ouvrier (Liège, 1889); M. Wilmutte, Le Wallon, Histoire et littérature (Brussels, 1893); Monsieur Le Folklore wallon (Brussels, 1892). [X.]

WALLOON LITERATURE.—In medieval times various local documents in prose and verse were written by inhabitants of Liège and its diocese in a dialect of French which contained many Walloon words and phrases. It is supposed that as early as the 12th century the idiom of the people may have been used in songs which are now lost, unless echoes of them are preserved in the curious Noëls, partly in French, partly in patois, which were orally collected by M. Doutrepont and published in 1888. Several Flemish works in old French, containing Walloon expressions, and in particular the so-called Poème moral of the 13th century, have been claimed as precursors of a local literature, but they are really to be considered as composed in French with a certain admixture of Liégeois phrases. The earliest existing specimen of pure Walloon literature is the Ode in praise of Liège, dated 1629, and attributed to Mathias Navages; this was first printed in 1857 in the transactions of the Société Liégeoise. Except a few very flat popular songs, there is nothing more until the end of the 17th century, when we find Lis Alles di Tongue (The Waters of Tongres), an amusing lyric satire at the pretensions of that town to be considered a Roman spa. Fifty years later the opening of a popular theatre at Liège led to the creation of a class of farces, written in Walloon; of these Li Veige di Chaudfontaine (The Journey to Chaudfontaine) (1757), by Jean-Noël Hamoir, has considerable humour and vivacity. Other successful comedies were Li Fiesse di Hongròplou, Li Liégeois écagé, and, above all, Lis Hypocoques, the liveliest specimen of old Walloon literature which has survived. This diverting farce describes the adventures of a party of mock-invalids, who pursue a series of intrigues at a spa. This class of dramatic literature closed with Li Maligants in 1789. In these early songs and plays the Walloon humour is displayed with great cruelty; anything like sentiment or elevated feeling is unknown.

The Revolution of 1789 inspired numerous Liégeois patriots with popular songs; of these pasqueyes, as they are styled, Albin Body collected more than 250, but they are almost entirely devoid of literary merit. Under their new government, Liège and Namur allowed the national patois to withdraw into the background, and it was not until the middle of the 19th century that Walloon literature began seriously to be cultivated. Its only expression, for a long time, was in lyrical poetry in the form of satires and the humorous songs, called pasqueyes and crémougnens. The earliest of these modern Wallon writers was Charles Nicolas Simonon (1774-1847), who celebrated in Li Copère the ancient clock-tower of the cathedral of St Lambert, an object of reverence to the inhabitants of Liège. His poems were collected in 1845. Henri Joseph Foré (1784-1862) was the first president of the Société Liégeoise, and one of the protagonists of Wallon literature. He published a valuable dictionary of the patois. The Curé C. E. E. Du Vivier de Steel (1799-1866) was the author of Li Pasional trawé (The Torn Trousers), a pasquey which still enjoys an enormous popularity among the Wallon population. The first Wallon writer of high merit, however, was Nicolas Defrereux (1825-1874), who is the most distinguished poet whom the patois has hitherto produced. His Les Bauté-mi plorer (Let me cry), when it appeared in 1842, made a wide sensation, and was the earliest expression of what is serious and tender in the Wallon nature. His Chansons wallonnes appeared in 1850. Defrereux stands almost alone among the Wallon poets as an artist and not merely an improvisatore. His poetical works were posthumously collected in 1877.

For many years, in spite of the efforts of such scholars as MM. Alphonse Le Roy and H. Gaidoza, a taste for Wallon literature remained strictly circumscribed, and was limited to a small circle of enthusiasts in Liège and Namur. In 1872 a literary society was formed, the Société Belge de Littérature wallonne, and at the instance of its presidents, M. Wallon and M. Defrereux, a translation of the works of Charles Simonon and Pierre Dejardin was published. This effort was attended with considerable success, and the translation of Le Prélàve and certain of his humorous lyrics was undertaken by M. G. G. Dejardin. In 1875 a Wallon Literary Society (Societe d'étude de la Littérature Wallonne, Brussels) was formed, which did much to arouse the interest of the local patois. By the efforts of M. M. G. Dejardin, Wallon literature made a very considerable impression on the Wallon public, which had been entirely neglected for more than a century, once more was called into existence through the exertions of the theatrical club, called Le Wallon. The comedies of A. M. J. Delche (b. 1835) were acted with success, and led the way for the most important patois dramatist that Liège has produced, Édouard Remouchamps (b. 1836), who is the author of Taut l'Errattr (1884), perhaps the most entertaining farce in Wallon, and certainly the most popular. Remouchamps was for thirty years a prolific writer of short pieces for the stage, sentimental and farcical. After the success of this play, according to an enthusiastic chronicle, "the writers of Wallonia became legion." Their style, however, was not greatly varied, and they have mainly confined themselves to songs, satirical lampoons and farces. The founder of the Société Liégeoise was J. F. E. Bailleux (1817-1860), to whom the revival of an interest in early Wallon literature is mainly due; in conjunction with J. V. F. J. Dehin (1809-1871) he published a translation of Lafontaine into patois. Among writers of the younger generation, special credit must be given to Henri Simon (b. 1856), for his humorous tales and sketches; to Julien Bason (b. 1868), for his amusing lyrics; and to Zéphir Henin (b. 1866), for his prose, prose being much rarer than verse in Wallon. It would be possible to add very largely to this list, but the most notable names have been mentioned. A certain monotonous fluency is the fault of Wallon literature, which repeats its effects too constantly, and is confined within too narrow limits. A few writers, among whom Isidore Dory (b. 1833) is prominent, have endeavoured to enlarge the scope of the patois writers, but their suggestions have met with little response. When the Wallon writer desire to impart serious information or deep feeling, he resorts to the use of French. The pasqueye, which is the characteristic form of Wallon verse, is a kind of semi-comic and extremely familiar lyric, humorous and extravagant, a survival of the influence of Béranger on taste three-quarters of a century ago; the facility with which these songs are composed is betrayed by the numerous number of them which exist in Liège and Namur. The difficulties of Wallon literature are increased by the unfixed character of its phonetic and often extravagant orthography.

AUTHORITIES.—H. Gaidoza, La Société liégeoise de littérature wallonne (Liège, 1890); Alphonse Le Roy, Littérature wallonne (Brussels, 1875); Charles Defrereux, Joseph Defrereux and Charles Goethier, Anthologie des poètes wallons (Liège, 1895); Maurice Wilmutte, Le Wallon (Brussels, 1894). (E. G.)
WALROP, SIR HENRY (c. 1540-1590), English statesman, was the eldest son of Sir Oliver Wallop (d. 1560), of Farleigh Wallop, Hampshire. Having inherited the estates of his father and of his uncle, Sir John Wallop (q.v.), he was knighted in 1569 and was chosen a deputy-sheriff in 1572. His connexion with Ireland, where the quarter part of his public life was passed, began in 1579, when he was appointed vice-treasurer of that country; this position was a very thankless and difficult one, and Wallop appears to have undertaken it very unwillingly. However, he reached Dublin and was soon immersed in the troubles caused by the rebellion of Gerald Fitzgerald, earl of Desmond, finding, in his own words, it was "easier to talk at home of Irish wars than to be in them." In July 1582 he and Adam Loftus, archbishop of Dublin, were appointed lords justices and they were responsible to the government of Ireland for just two years, after which they were succeeded by Sir John Perrot. Sir Henry continued to fill the office of vice-treasurer, and at Enniscorthy, where he had secured a lease of lands, he set up a colony of Englishmen and opened up a trade with Madeira. As a member of the Irish council he quarrelled with Perrot, and then from 1589 to 1595 he was in England, entertaining the queen at Farleigh Wallop in 1591. Having returned to Ireland he was sent to Dundalk to attempt to make peace with Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone, but this proved a vain errand. At length, after many misadventures, he was allowed to return to Dublin, and before he could arrange to leave Ireland he died on the 14th of April 1599.

Wallop's eldest son, Sir Henry Wallop (1568-1642), who acted as his father's deputy in Ireland, left an only son, Robert Wallop (1601-1667). A member of parliament for nearly forty years, and a supporter of the parliamentary party, Robert was one of the judges of Charles I, although he did not sign the death warrant. He was active under the Commonwealth, being a member of nearly all the councils of state. At the restoration he was deprived of his estates and was imprisoned, and he died in the Tower of London on the 19th of November 1667. Robert's son Henry (d. 1673) was the grandfather of John Wallop, 1st earl of Portsmouth.

WALROP, SIR JOHN (c. 1490-1551), English soldier and diplomatist, belonged to an old Hampshire family. Adopting the profession of arms, he commanded ships which took part in the war between England and France in 1513 and 1514; later he served the king of Portugal against the Moors, and then he fought for his own sovereign in Ireland and in France. In 1526 Wallop began his diplomatic career, being sent on an errand to Germany by Henry VIII, and from that time till his death he spent much of his time in Paris and elsewhere in France as the representative of the English king. He filled several other public positions, including that of lieutenant of Calais, before January 1541, when he was suddenly arrested on a charge of treason; his offence, however, was not serious and in the same year he was made captain of Guines. In 1543 he led a small force to help the emperor Charles V. in his invasion of France, and he remained at his post at Guines until his death there on the 13th of July 1551.

Walqvist, Olaf (1755-1800), Swedish statesman and ecclesiastic, was ordained in 1776, became doctor of philosophy in 1779, court preacher to Queen Louisa Ulrica in 1780, and bishop of Vaxio in 1787. He attracted the attention of Gustavus III. by his eloquent preaching at the fashionable St Clara church at Stockholm. Gustavus at once took the young priest by the hand, appointed him, at twenty-five, one of his chaplains; made him a canon before he was thirty and a bishop at thirty-two, and finally placed him at the head of the newly appointed commission for reforming the ecclesiastical administration of the country. Thus at thirty-four Walqvist had nothing more to hope for but the primacy, which would infallibly have been his also had the archbishop died during the king's lifetime. Walqvist was, however, much more of a politician than a churchman. His knowledge of human nature, inexhaustible energy, dauntless self-confidence and diplomatic finesse made him indispensable to Gustavus III. His seductive manners too often won over those whom his commanding eloquence failed to convince. His political career began during the tumultuous riksdag of 1786, when he came boldly forward as one of the royalist leaders. But it was at the stormy riksdag of 1789 that Walqvist put forth all his powers. The retirement of the timid prince left him without an equal in the Estate of Clergy, and it was very largely due to his co-operation that the king was able to carry through the famous "Act of Unity and Security" which converted Sweden from a constitutional into a semi-absolute monarchy. Nevertheless, even the combative Walqvist was appalled when on the 16th of February 1789 the king privately informed him that he meant on the following day soundly to wound the Estate of Nobles in the presence of the three other estates and bend them to his royal will. A friend of Gustavus, and, like most of the men of his cloth, Walqvist dissuaded all revolutionary expedients at the outset, though when the king proved immovable the bishop materially smoothed the way before him. At this memorable riksdag Walqvist exhibited, moreover, financial ability of the highest order, and, as president of the ecclesiastical commission, assisted to equilibrate the budget and find the funds necessary for resuming the war with Russia. During the brief riksdag of 1792, as a member of the secret committee, Walqvist was at the very centre of affairs and rendered the king essential services. Indeed it may be safely said that Gustavus III., during the last six years of his reign, mainly depended upon Walqvist and his clerical colleague, Carl Gustaf Nordin (q.v.), who were patriotic enough to subordinate even their private emolument to the royal service. During the Reuterholm (q.v.) administration, Walqvist, like the rest of the Gustavians, was kept remote from court. In 1806 he was recalled to the political arena. But his old rivalry with Nordin was resumed at the same time, and when the latter defeated a motion of the bishop in the Estate of Clergy, at the diet of Norrköping, Walqvist from sheer vexation had a stroke of apoplexy and died next day.

As bishop of Vexio, Walqvist was remarkable for his extraordinary administrative ability. He did much for education and for the poorer clergy, and endowed the library of the gymnasium with 6000 volumes. As an author also he was more than distinguished. His Ecclesiastica Samlingar testify to his skill and diligence as a collector of MSS., while his Minnen och Bref, ed. E. V. Montan (Stockholm, 1878), is one of the most trustworthy and circumstantial documents relating to the Gustavian era of Swedish history.

See R. N. Bain, Gustavus III. and his Contemporaries (London, 1869), vol. 10; O. Walqvists Sjöborgska anteckningar (Uppsala, 1850); and J. Rosengren, Om O. Walqvist såsom Biskop och Eftorn (Vexio, 1901).

(Emb.)

WALLSEND, a municipal borough in the Tyneside parliamentary division of Northumberland, England, on the north bank of the Tyne, 3½ m. E.E. of Newcastle by a branch of the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1891) 11,257; (1901) 20,018. The Church of St Peter dates from 860. There are remains of the church of the Holy Cross in transitional Norman style. At an early period Wallsend was famous for its coal, but the name has now a general application to coal that does not go through a sieve with meshes five-eighths of an inch in size. The colliery, which was opened in 1807, has frequently been the scene of dreadful accidents, notably on the 23rd of October 1821, when 52 lives were lost. There are ship and boat building yards, engineering works, lead and copper smelting works, cement works and brick and tile works. In the river are two pontoon docks and an immense dry dock. Wallsend was incorporated in 1901, and the corporation consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 1202 acres.

Walmer denotes its modern name from its position at the eastern extremity of the Roman Hadrian's Wall; and there was a Roman fort here. It had a quay, of which remains have been discovered, and possessed a magazine of corn and other provisions for the supply of the stations in the interior.

WALMER, a watering-place, and member of the Cinque Port of Sandwich, in the St Augustine's parliamentary division of
Kent, England, 2 m. S. of Deal, on the South-Eastern & Chatham railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 5248. Lower Walmer, the portion most frequented by visitors, extends northward along the coast, so as to be contiguous with Deal. Upper Walmer is a short distance inland, and below it Walmer Castle lies close to the sea. This was a blockhouse built for coast defence by Henry VIII., but became the official residence of the Lords Warden of the Cinque Ports, and was in consequence much altered from its original condition. It ceased to be the official residence in 1905, when the prince of Wales (afterwards George V.) was appointed Lord Warden, and the public was given access to those rooms which possess historical associations with former holders, such as the Duke of Wellington, who died here in 1852, William Pitt and others. Kingsdown, 1 m. south, is a decayed member of the Cinque Port of Dover.

WALMSLEY, THOMAS ATTWOOD (1814-1859), English musician, was born in London, his father Thomas Forbes Walmsley (1783-1866) being a well-known organist and composer of church music and glee. Thomas Attwood (q.v.) was his godfather, and the boy was educated in music under their tuition. He became organist at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1833, and there he soon became prominent by his anthems and other compositions. He not only took the degrees of Mus.Bac. and Mus.Doc., but also graduated at Jesus College as B.A. and M.A. In 1836 he was made professor of music. His Cathedral Music was edited after his death by his father.

WALNUT (Juglans), a botanical genus of about ten species (nat. ord. Juglandaceae), natives of the temperate regions of the northern hemisphere, extending into Mexico, the West Indies and tropical South America. They are all trees, usually of large size, with alternate stalked, unequally pinnate leaves, and abounding in an aromatic resinous juice. The scars left by the fallen leaves are unusually large and prominent. The buds are not unlike those of the ash; and it frequently happens that in the axils of the leaves, instead of one, several buds may be formed. The utility of this is seen in seasons when the shoot produced from the first bud is killed by frost; then one of the supplementary buds starts into growth, and thus replaces the injured shoot. The flowers are unisexual and monoeious, the numerous males borne in thick cattkins proceeding from the side of last year's shoot. The female flowers are solitary or few in number, and borne on short terminal spikes of the present season's growth. In the male flower the receptacle is "conspicuously shorter" from the ovary to the base of the perianth. The receptacle is, in consequence, extended more or less horizontally so that the flowers appear to be placed on the upper surface of horizontally spreading stalks. The perianth consists of five or six oblong greenish lobes, within which is found a tuft, consisting of a large number of stamens, each of which has a very short filament and an oblong two-lobed anther bursting longitudinally, and surmounted by an oblong lobe, which is the projecting end of the connective. There is usually no trace of ovary in the male flowers, though by exception one may occasionally be formed.

The female flower consists of a cup-like receptacle, inseparable from the ovary, and bearing at its upper part a bract and two bracteoles. From the margin springs a perianth of four short lobes. The one-celled ovary is immersed within the receptacular tube, and is surmounted by a short style with two short ribbon-like stigmatic branches. The solitary ovule springs erect from the base of the ovarian cavity. The fruit is a kind of drupe, the fleshy husk of which is the dilated receptacular tube, while the two-valved stone represents the two carpels. The seed is large, very solid and of a yellowish colour, and curiously crumpled cotyledons concealing the plumule, the leaves of which, even at this early stage, show traces of pinnae.

The species best known is J. regia, the common walnut, a native of the mountains of Greece, of Armenia, of Afghanistan and the north-west Himalayas. Traces of the former existence of this or of a very closely allied species are found in the Post-Tertiary deposits of Provence and elsewhere, proving the former much wider extension of the species. At the present day the tree is largely cultivated in most temperate countries for the sake of its timber or for its edible nuts. The timber is specially valued for furniture, and the beauty of its markings rendering it desirable for the first-named purpose, while its strength and elasticity fit it for the second. The leaves and husk of the fruit are resinous and astringent, and are sometimes used medicinally as well as for dyeing purposes. A Spiritus Nucis Juglandis is given as an antispasmodic. It doubtless owes its properties to the alcohol which it contains. Sugar is also prepared from the sap in a similar manner to that obtained from the maple. The young fruits are used for pickling. When ripe the seeds are much esteemed as a delicacy, while in France much oil of fine quality is extracted from them by pressure. There are several varieties in cultivation, varying in the degree of hardiness, time of ripening, thickness of shell, size and other particulars. In the climate of Great Britain a late variety is preferable, as securing the young shoots against injury from frost, to which otherwise they are very subject. The kernel of the large-fruited variety is of very indifferent quality, but its large shells are made use of by the French as trinket cases.

The walnut is mentioned in the earliest British botanical writings, and the species has since been introduced by the Romans. It grows well, and ripens its fruit in the southern and midland counties of England; but large trees may be seen as far north as Rose-shire in Scotland. The nut is spherical or oblong, one to two inches long, and in stiff loams resting on a gravelly bottom. It requires free exposure to air and light. It is propagated by seeds, and occasionally by budding, grafting or inarching for the perpetuation of special varieties. Seedlings should be protected from frost during the first winter. The trees form their heads naturally, and therefore little pruning is required, it being merely necessary to cut off straggling growths, and to prevent the branches from interlacing. The best time for pruning this is in the late winter, when the shoots of the year are green and have nearly assumed the character of the leaf. Plants raised from the seed seldom become productive till they are twenty years old. The fruit is produced at the extremities of the branches. Two out of three of the young shoots of the crop, care should be taken not to injure the young wood. In some parts of England the trees are thrashed with rods or poles to obtain the nuts, but this is not a commendable mode of collecting them.

Among the American species J. nigra, the black walnut, is especially noteworthy as a very handsome tree, whose timber is of great value for furniture purposes, but which is now becoming scarce. In Britain it forms a magnificent tree. The white walnut or butternut, J. cinerea, is a smaller tree, though it sometimes reaches 100 ft. in height; its inner bark yields an extractive, juglandin, given as an hepatic stimulant and cathartic in doses of 2-5 grains.

WALPOLE, HORATIO or HORACE (1717-1797), English politician and man of letters, 4th earl of Orford—a title to which he only succeeded at the end of his life, and by which he is little known—was born in Arlington Street, London, on the 24th of September 1717. He was the youngest of the five children of the 1st earl of Orford (Sir Robert Walpole) by Catherine Shorter, but by some of the scandal-mongers of a later age, Carr, Lord Hervey, half-brother of John, Lord Hervey, afterwards second earl of Bristol, has been called his father. If this rumour be correct, no such suspicion ever entered into the mind of Horace Walpole. To his mother he erected a monument, with an inscription couched in terms of sincere affection, in the chapel of Henry VII. in Westminster Abbey, and from the beginning to the end of his public life his sarcasms never spared the Newcastles and the Hardwicke, who had shown, as he thought, lukewarmness in support of his father’s ministry. On the 20th of April 1727 he was sent to Eton, where he formed what was known as the "Garter Club," in which Hardwicke, Horace Walpole and Thomas Ashton, and became very intimate with Henry Seymour Conway, George Augustus Selwyn and the two Montagu, and in 1735 matriculated at King’s College, Cambridge. Two years (1750-1751) were spent in Gray’s company in the recognized grand tour of France and Italy. They stopped a few weeks in Paris, and lingered for three months at Rheim, on the pretence of learning the French language. Henry Seymour Conway, whose mother was a sister of Lady Walpole, shared their society in the French city. The
other two members of this little circle next proceeded to Florence, where Walpole rested for more than a year in the villa of Horace Mann, the British envoy-extraordinary for forty-six years to the court of Tuscany. Mann's family had long been on terms of the closest intimacy with his guests, and they continued correspondence until 1788. As the 5th Earl of Cholmondeley, their friendship, unlike most of Walpole's attachments, remained unbroken. After a short visit to Rome (March-June 1740), and after a further sojourn at Florence, Walpole and Gray parted in resentment at Reggio. Walpole in after years took the blame of this quarrel on himself, and it is generally believed that it arose from his laying too much stress on his superiority in position. In 1744 the two friends were nominally reconciled, but the breach was not cemented.

Walpole came back to England on the 11th of September 1741. He had been returned to parliament on the 14th of May 1741 for the Cornish borough of Callington, over which his elder brother, through his marriage with the heiress of the Rolles, exercised supreme influence. He represented three constituencies in succession, Callington 1741-1754, the family borough of Castle Rising from 1754 to 1757, and the more important constituency of King's Lynn, for which his father had long sat in parliament, from the latter date until 1768. In that year he retired, probably because his success in political life had not equalled his expectations, but he continued until 1784 in the days of Walpole's son, and afterwards in the speeches of both houses of parliament. Through his father's influence he had obtained three lucrative sinecures in the exchequer, and for many years (1745-1784) he enjoyed a share, estimated at about £1,500 a year, of a second family perquisite, the collectorship of customs. These resources, with a house in Arlington Street, which was left to him by his father, enabled him, a bachelor all his days, to gratify his tastes. He acquired in 1747 the lease and in the next year purchased the reversion of the charmingly situated villa of Strawberry Hill, near Twickenham, on the banks of the Thames. Six years later he began a series of alterations in the Gothic style, not completed for nearly a quarter of a century later, under which the original cottage became transformed into a building without parallel in Europe. On the 25th of June 1757 he established a printing-press there, which he called "Officina Arbuteana," and many of the first editions of his own works were struck off within its walls. Through Walpole's influence Dodsworth published in 1753 the clever, if eccentric, designs of Richard Bentley (the youngest child of the great scholar, and for some time a protégé of Horace Walpole) for the poems of Gray. The first work printed at Strawberry Hill itself was a translation of Plutarch's Greek, by George Vertue, and among the reprints were the Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury, Memoirs of Grammont, Hentzner's Journey into England, and Lord Whitworth's Account of Russia. The rooms of this whimsical edifice were crowded with curiosities of every description, and the house and its contents were shown, by tickets to admit four persons, between 12 and 3 from May to October, but only one party was admitted on each day, and the owner, although enamoured of notoriety, simulated discontent at this limited intrusion into his privacy. Walpole paid several visits to Paris, was present at the coronation of Louis XVI. in June 1774, and in 1755, and they corresponded until her death in 1780. His nephew, the reckless 3rd earl, died on the 5th of December 1791, and Horace succeeded to the peerage, but he never took his place in the House of Lords, and sometimes signed his name as "the uncle of the late earl of Orford." All his life long he was a victim of the gout, but he lived to extreme old age, and died unmarried, in Berkeley Square, London, to which he had removed in October 1779, on the 2nd of March 1797. He was buried privately at Houghton. The family estate descended to the earl of Cholmondeley, whose successor was his son Horace Walpole's younger sister. All Walpole's printed books and manuscripts were left to Robert Berry (d. 19th of May 1817) and his two daughters, Mary (1763-1852) and Agnes (1764-1839), and Mary Berry edited the five volumes of Walpole's works which were published in 1798. Their friendship had been very dear to the declining days of Walpole, who, it has even been said, wished to marry Mary Berry. By his will each of the ladies obtained a pecuniary legacy of £4,000, and for their lives the house and garden, formerly the abode of his friend Kitty Clive, which adjoined Strawberry Hill. Strawberry Hill went to Mrs Anne Damer, the Countess of Bristol, for the life of her daughter Kitty, who was afterwards the wife of General Conway, for her life, but it was entailed on his niece the countess dowager of Waldegrave and her heirs. The collections of Strawberry Hill, which he had spent nearly fifty years in amassing, were dispersed under the hammer of George Robins in 1842. They are described in a catalogue of that date, and in a series of articles in the Gentleman's Magazine for that year.

The pen was ever in Horace Walpole's hands, and his entire compositions would fill many volumes. His two works of imagination, the romance of the Castle of Otranto (1764) and the tragedy of the Mysterious Mother (1768), are known to have still retained its vitality for more than a century, is entitled Anecdotes of Painting in England, with some Account of the Principal Artists; collected by George Vertue, and now digested and published from his original manuscripts by Horace Walpole (4 vols., 1762-1771). Its value to art students and to admirers of biographical literature demanded its frequent reproduction, and it was re-edited with additions by the Rev. James Dallaway in five volumes (1826-1828), and then again was revised and edited by R. N. Wornum in 1849. A cognate volume, also based on the Journal of the 5th earl of Orford, and printed for his own use, was published as Specimens of English and Foreign Antiquities and Residence in England (1765), which, like its more famous predecessor, often passed through the press. On the Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors of England (1758) Walpole spent many hours of toilsome research. The best edition is that which appeared in five volumes, in 1866, under the competent editorship of Thomas Park, who carefully verified and diligently augmented the labours of the original author. As a senator himself, or as a private person following at a distance the combats of St Stephen's, Walpole recorded in a diary the chief incidents in English politics. For twenty-seven years he studied, a silent witness, the most private and the most public events, and it was he who trod the stage of politics, and when he quitted the scene he retained the acquaintance of many of the chief actors. If he was sometimes prejudiced, he rarely distorted the acts of those whom he disliked; and his prejudices, which lie on the surface, were mainly against those whom he considered traitors to his father. These diaries extend from 1750 to 1783, and cover a period of momentous importance in the annals of the national history. The Memoirs of the Last Ten Years of the Reign of George II. was edited by Lord Holland (1846); its successor, Memoirs of the Reign of George III., was published as Early Life and Times of Sir Denis Le Marchant (4 vols., 1845), and re-edited in 1849 by Mr G. F. Russell Barker; the last volumes of the series, Journal of the Reign of George III. from 1774 to 1783, were edited and illustrated by John Doran (2 vols., 1859), and were
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edited with an introduction by A. F. Steuart (London, 1909). To these works should be added the Reminiscences (2 vols., 1810), which Walpole wrote in 1788 for the gratification of the Misses Berry. These labours would in themselves have rendered the name of Horace Walpole famous for all time, but his delightful Letters are the crowning glory of his life. His correspondents were numerous and widespread, but the chief of them were William Cole (1734–1752), the critic and biographer of Sir Robert Jephson, the dramatist; William Mason, the poet; Lord Hertford during his embassy in Paris; the countess of Osyory; Lord Harcourt; George Montagu, his friend at Eton; Henry Seymour Conway (1721–1795) and Sir Horace Mann. With most of these friends he quarrelled, but the friendship of the last two, in the former case through genuine liking, and in the latter through his fortunate absence from England, was never interrupted. The Letters were published at different dates, but the standard collection is that by Mrs Paget Tounbee (1909–1909), and to it should be added the volumes of the letters addressed to Walpole by his old friend Madame du Delfain (4 vols., 1810). Dr Doran’s publication, Mans and Manners at the Court of Florence (1876), is founded on the epistles sent in return to Walpole by the envoy-ordinary. Other works relating to him are Horace Walpole and his World, by L. B. Seeley (1884); Horace Walpole, a memoir by Austin Dobson (1890 and 1893); Horace Walpole and the Strawberry Hill Press, by M. A. Havens (1901). Walpole has been called “the best letter-writer in the English language”; and few indeed are the modern correspondents who can show that they can write letters with the same felicity and lightfulness, no less than with the same frivolity, with which Walpole’s correspondents are penned for our amusement, and his love of trifles—for, in the words of another Horace, he was ever “nescio quid meditans nugatur et totus in illis”—ministers to our instruction. To these friends he communicated every fashionable scandal, every social event, and the details of every political struggle in English life. The politicians and the courtiers of his day were more akin to his character than were the chief authors of his age, and the weakness of his intellectual perceptions stands out most prominently in his estimates of such writers as Johnson and Goldsmith, Gibbon and Hume. On many occasions he displayed great liberality of disposition and he bitterly deplored for the rest of his days his neglect of the unhappy Chatterton. Chatterton wrote to Walpole in 1760, sending some prose and verse fragments and offering to place information on English art in Walpole’s hands. Encouraged by a kindly reply, Chatterton appealed for help. Walpole made inquiries and came to the conclusion that he was an impostor. He finally returned the manuscripts in his possession, and took no notice of subsequent letters from Chatterton.

Abundant information about Horace Walpole will be found in the Memoirs of him and of his contemporaries edited by Elliot Warburton (1851), J. H. Jessé’s George Selwyn and his Contemporaries (4 vols., 1843–1844) and the extracts from the journals and correspondence of Miss Berry (3 vols., 1866); and it would be unparodonal to omit mention of Macaulay’s sketch of Walpole’s life and character. (W. P. C.)

Walpole, Sir Spencer (1839–1907), English historian and civil servant, was born on 6th of February 1839. He came of the younger branch of the family of the famous Whig prime minister, being descended from his brother, the 1st lord Walpole of Wolterton. He was the son of the latter’s great-grandson, the Right Hon. Spencer Horatio Walpole (1807–1868), thirce home secretary under Lord Derby, and through his mother was grandson of Spencer Perceval, the Tory prime minister who was murdered in the House of Commons. He was educated at Eton, and from 1858 to 1867 was a clerk in the War Office, then becoming an inspector of fisheries. In 1882 he was made lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Man, and from 1893 to 1899 he was secretary to the Post Office. In 1898 he was created K.C.B. Although well known as a most efficient public servant, and in private life as the most amiable of men, Sir Spencer Walpole’s real title to remembrance is as an historian. His family connections gave him a natural bent to the study of public affairs, and their mingling of Whig and Tory in politics contributed, no doubt, to that quality of judicious balance—inclining, however, to the Whig or moderate Liberal side—which, together with his sanity and accuracy, is so characteristic of his writings. His principal work, the History of England from 1815 (1878–1886), in six volumes, was carried down to 1858, and was continued in his History of Twenty-Five Years (1904). Among his other publications come his lives of Spencer Perceval (1864) and Lord John Russell (1859), and a volume of valuable Studies in Biography (1906); and the lecture he delivered to the Royal Historical Society, for the Encyclopædia Britannica. He died on the 7th of July 1907.

Walpole of Wolterton, Horatio, 1st Baron (1767–1757), English diplomatist, was a son of Robert Walpole of Houghton, Norfolk, and a younger brother of the great Sir Robert Walpole. The Walpoles owned land in Norfolk in the 18th century and took their name from Walpole, a village in the county. An early member of the family was Ralph de Walpole, bishop of Norwich from 1288 to 1290, and bishop of Ely from 1290 until his death on the 20th of March 1302. Among its most noted members were three brothers, Edward (1560–1637), Richard (1564–1607) and Michael (1570–1624), all members of the Society of Jesus. Another Jesuit in the family was Henry Walpole (1558–1595), who wrote An Epitaph of the life and death of the most famous clerk and virtuous priest Edmund Campion. After an adventurous and courageous career in the service of the order, he was arrested on landing in England, was tortured and then put to death on the 17th of April 1595.1

Born at Houghton on the 5th of December 1678 and educated at St John’s College, Cambridge, Horatio Walpole became a fellow of King's and entered parliament in 1716, remaining a member for fifty-four years. In 1714, when his brother, Sir Robert, became first lord of the treasury, he was made secretary to the treasury, and in 1716, having already some experience of the kind, he went on a diplomatic mission to The Hague. He left office with his brother in 1717, but he was soon in harness again, becoming secretary to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1720 and secretary to the treasury a second time in 1721. In 1722 he was again at The Hague, and in 1723 he went to Paris, where in the following year he was appointed envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary. He got on intimate terms with Fleury and seconded his brother in his efforts to maintain friendly relations with France; he represented Great Britain at the congress of Soissons and helped to conclude the treaty of Seville (November 1729). He left Paris in 1730 and in 1734 went to represent his country at The Hague, where he remained until 1740, using all his influence in the cause of European peace. After the fall of Sir Robert Walpole in 1742 Horatio defended his conduct in the House of Commons and also in a pamphlet, The Interest of Great Britain steadily pursued. Later he wrote an Apology, dealing with his own conduct from 1715 to 1720, and an Answer to the latter part of Lord Bolingsbroke’s letters on the study of history (printed 1763). In 1756 he was created Baron Walpole of Wolterton, this being his Norfolk seat, and he died on the 5th of February 1757. His eldest son, Horatio, the 2nd Baron (1723–1809), was created earl of Orford in 1806, and one of his sons was Major-General George Walpole (1758–1835), under-secretary for foreign affairs in 1806.

See W. Cox, Memoirs of Horatio, Lord Walpole (2nd ed., 1856); the same writer, Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole (1846); and Charles, comte de Baillon, Lord Walpole à la cour de France (1867).

Walpurgis (Walpurga of Walburga), St (d. c. 780), English missionary to Germany, was born in Sussex at the beginning of the 8th century. She was the sister of Willibald, the first bishop of Eichstätt in Bavaria, and Wunnibald, first abbot of Heidenheim. Her father, Richard, is thought to have been a son of Hlothhere, 9th king of Kent; her mother, Winna or Wun, a sister of St Boniface. At the instance of Boniface and Willibald she went about 750 with some other nuns to found

1. The Letters of Henry Walpole, S.J., from the original manuscripts at St John’s College, are edited by the Rev. Augustus Jessopp, One Generation of a Norfolk House (1878).

2. French forms of the name are Gualibou, Falbou, Vaubourg and Avougourg.
WALRAS—WALRUS

religious houses in Germany. Her first settlement was at Bischofsheim in the diocese of Mainz, and two years later (1754) she became abbess of the Benedictine nunnery at Heidenheim in the diocese of Eichstadt. On the death of Wunnibald in 1760 she succeeded him in his charge also, retaining the superintendence of both houses until her death. Her relics were translated to Eichstadt, where she was laid in a hollow rock, from which exuded a kind of bituminous oil afterwards known as Walpurgis oil, and regarded as of miraculous efficacy against disease. It is still said to exude from the saint's bones (especially from October to February) and was chosen by Cardinal Newman as an example of a credible miracle. The cave became a place of pilgrimage, and a fine church was built over the spot. Walpurgis is commemorated at various times, but principally on the 1st of May, her day taking the place of an earlier heathen festival which was characterized by various rites marking the beginning of summer. She is regarded as the protectress against magic arts (cf. the Walpurgin-Nacht dance in Goethe's Faust). In art she is represented with a crozier, and bearing in her hand a flask of balsam.

Her life was written by the presbyter Wolfhard and dedicated to Erkenbald, bishop of Eichstadt (884-916). See the Bollandist Acta sanctorum, vol. iii. February 25. On Walpurgis, Wunnibald and Wunnibald see G. F. Browne, Boniface of Crediton and his Companions (London, 1910), vii.

WALRAS, MARIE ESPRIT LÉON (1834-1910), French economist, was born at Évreux in 1834. From 1866 to 1868 he edited a journal called Le Travail, to which he contributed many valuable political articles. In 1870 he was appointed professor of political economy at Lausanne, a post which he retained until his retirement in 1892. He died on the 4th of January 1910. Walras is best known for his mathematical treatment of economics, and the extreme care he has shown in his works in distinguishing theory and practice. His most important works are Éléments d'économie politique pure (1874-1877) and Théorie mathématique de la richesse sociale (1883).

Of his many valuable papers contributed to various periodicals a good bibliography will be found in the Dict. Pol. Econ. (1914). See biographical notice in Economic Journal (March, 1910) by Vilfredo Pareto, his successor in the chair of political economy at Lausanne.

WALRUS, or MORSE (Odobenus rosmarus), a large marine mammal allied to the seals, representing a family by itself. The former word is a modification of the Scandinavian vollross or hvillos ("whale-horse"), the latter an adaptation of the Russian name for the animal. A full-grown male walrus measures from 10 to 11 ft. from the nose to the end of the short tail, and is a heavy, bulky animal, especially thick about the shoulders. The head is rounded, the eyes are rather small, and there are no external ears. The muzzle is short and broad, with, on each side, a group of stiff, bristly whiskers, which become stouter and shorter in old animals. The tall scarcely projects beyond the skin. The fore-limbs are free only from the elbow; the fore-flipper is broad, flat and webbed, the five digits being of nearly equal length, but the first slightly the longest. Each digit has a small flattened nail, situated on the inner surface at a considerable distance from the end. The hind-limbs are enclosed in the skin of the body, almost to the heel. The free portion when expanded is fan-shaped, the two outer toes (first and fifth) being the longest, especially the latter. Flaps of skin project considerably beyond the bones of the toes. The nails of the first and fifth toes are minute and flattened; those of the second, third and fourth elongated, sub-compressed and pointed. The soles of both fore and hind feet are bare, rough and warty. The surface of the skin generally is covered with short, compressed hair of a light yellowish-brown colour, which, on the under parts of the body and base of the flippers, passes into dark reddish-brown or chestnut. In old animals the hair becomes more scanty, sometimes almost disappearing, and the skin shows evidence of the rough life and pugnacious habits of the animal in the scars which it is usually covered. It is everywhere more or less wrinkled, especially over the shoulders, where it is thrown into deep and heavy folds.

One of the most striking characteristics of the walrus is the pair of tusks which descend almost directly downwards from the upper jaw, sometimes attaining a length of 20 in. or more. In the female they are as long or sometimes longer than in the male, but less massive. In the young of the first year they are not visible. These tusks correspond to the canine teeth of other mammals. All the other teeth, including the lower canines, are much alike—small, simple and one-rooted, and with crowns, rounded at first, but wearing to a flat or concave surface. Many of the teeth are lost early, or remain through life in a rudimentary state concealed beneath the gum. The tusks are formidable weapons of defence, but their principal use seems to be scraping and digging among sand and shingle for the molluscs and crustaceans on which the walrus feeds. They are said also to aid in climbing up the slippery rocks and ledges of ice on which so much of the animal's life is passed.

Walruses are more or less gregarious in their habits, being met with generally in companies or herds of various sizes. They are only found near the coast or on large masses of floating ice, and rarely far out in the open sea; and, though often moving from one part of their feeding-ground to another, have no regular migrations. Their young are born between April and June, usually but one at a time, never more than two. Their strong affection for their young, and their sympathy for each other in danger, have been noticed by all who have had the opportunity of observing them in their haunts. When one is wounded the whole herd usually join in defence. Although harmless and inoffensive when not molested, they exhibit considerable fierceness when attacked, using their tusks with tremendous effect either on human enemies who come into too close quarters or on polar bears, the only other adversary they can meet with in their own natural territory. The voice, a loud roaring, which can be heard at a great distance, is described by Dr Kane as "something between the mooing of a cow and the deepest baying of a mastiff, very round and full, with its bark or detached notes repeated rather quickly seven or nine times in succession."

The principal food of the walrus consists of bivalve molluscs, especially Mya truncata and Saxicava rugosa, two species very abundant in the Arctic regions, which it digs up from the mud and sand in which they lie buried at the bottom of the sea by means of its tusks. It crushes and removes the shells by the aid of its grinding teeth and tongue, and swallows only the soft parts of the animal. It also feeds on other molluscs, sand-worms, starfishes and shrimps. Portions of various kinds of seaweed have been found in its stomach, but whether swallowed intentionally or not is doubtful.

The commercial products of the walrus are its oil, hide (used to manufacture harness and sole-leather and twisted into tillerropes) and tusks. The ivory of the latter is, however, inferior in quality to that of the elephant. Its flesh forms an important article of food to the Eskimo and Chukchi. Of the coast tribes of the last-named people the walrus formed the chief means of support.
Walrus colonies are confined to the northern circumpolar regions, extending apparently as far north as explorers have penetrated. On the Atlantic coast of America the Atlantic species was met with in the 16th century as low as the southern coast of Nova Scotia, and in the last century was common in the Gulf of St Lawrence and on the shores of Labrador. It still inhabits the coast round Hudson’s Bay, Davis Strait and Greenland, where, however, its numbers are decreasing. It is not found on the Arctic coast of America between the 97th and 108th meridians. In Europe, occasional stragglers have reached the British Isles, and it was formerly abundant on the coast of Finnmark. It is rare in Iceland, but Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla and the islands of the western part of the north coast of Siberia are constant places of resort. The North Pacific, including both sides of Bering Strait, northern Kamchatka, Alaska and the Pribiloff Islands are also the haunts of numerous walruses, which are isolated from those of the North Atlantic by long stretches of coast in Siberia and North America where they do not occur. The Pacific walrus appears to be as large as, if not larger than, that of the Atlantic; its tusks are longer and more slender, and curve inwards; and the whole general appearance is smaller, relative to size, and broader. These and certain other differences have led to its being considered specifically distinct, under the name of Odo- benus rosmarus. Its habits appear to be similar to those of the Atlantic form. Though formerly found in immense herds, it is becoming scarce, as the methods of destruction used by American whalers are more certain than those of the Chukchi, to whom the walrus long afforded the principal means of subsistence.

Fossil remains of walruses and closely allied animals have been found in the United States, and in England, Belgium and France, in the Miocene and Pliocene strata. (W. F. R. L.)

WALSALL, a market town and municipal, county and parliamentary borough of Staffordshire, England, on the northern edge of the Black Country, and on a tributary stream of the Tame. Pop. (1891) 71,780; (1901) 86,430. It is 120 miles N.W. from London by the London & North-Western railway, on which system it is a centre of several branches, and is served by the Birmingham-Wolverhampton branch of the Midland railway and by canals. The town, though of ancient foundation, is modern in appearance. The central part stands high on a ridge at the northern termination of which is the church of St Matthew, dating in part from the 15th century, but almost wholly rebuilt. The council house and town hall was completed in 1905; there are two theatres, a free library and museum, and an institute of science and art. Recreation grounds include a picturesque arboretum, Reed’s Wood and Palpey Park. Queen Mary’s Schools are a foundation of 1544; here are believed to have been educated John Hough (1561-1743), the president of Magdalen College, Oxford, whom James II. sought to eject from office, afterwards bishop of Oxford, Lichfield, and Worcester; and John, Lord Somers (1651-1716), Lord Keeper and Lord Chancellor of England. The town has large charities, and Walsall was the scene of the charitable work of Sister Dora (Miss Pattison) whom a statue commemorates. Coal, limestone and ironstone are mined in the neighbourhood. The most important products are saddlery and leather-works, horses’ bits and all metal harness fittings: there are iron and brass foundries, and locks, keys, bolts and other hardware are made, both in Walsall and at Bloxwich, a large industrial suburb. Three annual fairs are held. The parliamentary borough returns one member. The town is governed by a mayor, 8 aldermen and 24 councillors. Area, 3,203 acres.

The town is noted for industry, which includes cottons, woollens, and worsteds, and the manufacture of iron and steel goods. Agriculture is of importance, the chief crops being potatoes, turnips, oats and barley.

Walsall (Walsailes, Walsall, Walsal) is included in the list of lands given in 966 to the church of Wolverhampton, which, however, did not retain it long. It was granted by Henry II. to Herbert Ruffus, and Henry III. confirmed it to his grandson (1227). Later the manor passed to the Bassetts and the Beauchamps, and Warwick the King-maker held it in right of his wife. Henry VIII. granted it (1538) to Dudley, afterwards duke of Northumberland. William Ruffus in the reign of John granted it to the burgesses, in consideration of a fine of 12 marks silver and a rent of 12d. for every burbage, all services, customs and secular demands belonging to him and his heirs, except tallage. Henry IV. confirmed to the burgesses a grant of freedom from toll on the ground that Walsall was ancient demesne of the Crown. A mayor and twenty-four brethren who formed the council of the borough are mentioned in 1440, but the earliest charter of incorporation is that of Charles I. (1627), confirmed in 1661, incorporating it under the title of “The Mayor and Commonalty of the Borough and Foreign of Walsall”: under the act of 1853 the town was governed by a mayor, six aldermen and eighteen town councillors. It was not represented in parliament until 1826, when it returned a representative. In 1791 it was known for its manufacture of iron goods and nail-making. In the 18th century the staple industry was the making of shapes and shoe-buckles, and the town suffered when the latter went out of fashion. Two fairs, on Michaelmas day and September 21, were granted in 1399. The Tuesday market, which is still held, and two fairs on October 28 and May 6, were granted in 1417 to Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick. See Victoria County History, Stafford; E. L. Grew, History of the Borough and Foreign of Walsall (1650).

WALSH, JOHN HENRY (1836-1888), English writer on sport under the pseudonym of “Stonehenge,” was born at Hackney, London, on the 21st of October 1810. He was educated at private schools, and became a fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons in 1844. For several years he followed his profession of surgeon, but gradually abandoned it on account of the success of his works on the subject of sport. He removed from the country to London in 1852, and the following year brought out his first important book, The Greyhound (3rd ed. 1873), a collection of papers originally contributed to “Bell’s Life.” In 1866 appeared his Manual of British Rural Sports, which enjoyed many editions. During the same year he joined the staff of The Field, and became its editor at the close of 1857. Among his numerous books published under the name of “Stonehenge” are The Shot-Gun and Sporting Rifle (1859), The Dog in Health and Disease (1859; 4th ed. 1887), The Horse in the Stable and in the Field (1861; 13th ed. 1890), Dogs of the British Isles (1867; 3rd ed. 1885), The Modern Sportsman’s Gun and Rifle (1882-1884). While editor of The Field Walsh instituted a series of trials of guns, rifles and sporting powders extending over a period of many years, with great tend to the development of sporting firearms, and his influence upon all branches of sport was stimulating and beneficial. He died at Putney on the 12th of February 1888.

WALSH, PETER [Valesius] (c. 1618-1688), Irish politician and controversialist, was born at Mooretown, co. Kildare, and studied at Louvain, where he joined the Franciscans and acquired Jansenist sympathies. In 1646 he went to Kilkenny, then in the hands of the rebel “confederate Catholics,” and, in opposition to the papal nuncio Riuicini, urged, and in 1649 helped to secure, peace with the viceroy Ormonde. Persecuted from this time by the irreconcilable supporters of the papal claims, and even in danger of death, after Cromwell’s conquest of Ireland he lived obscurely in London and abroad. On the restoration he urged his patron Ormonde to support the Irish Roman Catholics as the natural friends of royalty against the sectarists, and endeavoured to mitigate their lot and efface the impression made by their successive rebellions by a loyal remonstrance to Charles II., boldly repudiating papal infallibility and interference in public affairs, and affirming undivided allegiance to the crown. For eight years he canvassed for signatures to this address, but in spite of considerable support the strong opposition of the Jesuits and Dominicans deterred the clergy and nearly wrecked the scheme. From 1669 until his death he lived in London, much respected for his honesty, loyalty and learning. Excommunicated by the Franciscan chapter-general in 1670, he remained a devout adherent of his church, although he maintained friendly relations with the Anglicans, accepting their orders and attending their churches. He made a full submission to Rome before his death, though the fact has been questioned. He wrote (1672-1684) a series of controversial letters against Pope Gregory VII’s doctrine of papal supremacy over princes;
a voluminous History of the Remonstrance (1674); Hibernia (1682), a worthless history of Ireland; in 1686 a reply to the Popery of Thomas Barlow (1607-1691), bishop of Lincoln; and other works. In these writings he consistently upheld the doctrine of civil liberty against the pretensions of the papacy.

Sir Francis's love of literature led him to contribute to and edit several works himself. His History of the Great Civil War; or, Burnet, History of his own Times, i. 195; T. Carte, Life of Ormonde (new ed. 1851); Dict. Nat. Biog. ix.

WALSH, WILLIAM (1663-1708), English poet and critic, son of Joseph Walsh of Abberley, Worcestershire, was born in 1663. He entered Wadham College, Oxford, as a gentleman commoner in 1678. Leaving the university without a degree, he retired in 1681, and was returned M.P. for Worcester in 1698, 1701 and 1702. In 1705 he sat for Richmond, Yorkshire. On the accession of Queen Anne he was made "gentleman of the horse," a post which he held till his death, noted by Narcissus Luttrell on the 18th of March 1708. He wrote a Dialogue concerning Women, being a Defence of the Sex (1691), addressed to "Eugenia"; and Letters and Poems, Amorous and Gallant (preface dated 1692, printed in Jonson's Miscellany, 1716, and separately, 1736), love lyrics designed, says the author, to impart to the world "the faithful image of an amorous heart. It is not a galley for sale as an enchanted rose." Pope that Walsh is remembered. Pope's Pastoral Seasons were submitted for his criticism by Wycherley in 1675, and Walsh then entered on a direct correspondence with the young poet. The letters are printed in Pope's Works (ed. Elwin and Courtthope, vi. 49-60). Pope, who visited him at Abberley in 1707, set great value upon his opinion. "Mr Walsh used to tell me," he says, "that there was one way left of excelling; for though we had several great poets, we never had any one great poet that was correct, and he desired me to make that my study and my aim." The excessive eulogy accorded him by Dryden and Pope to Walsh must be accounted for partly on the grounds of personal friendship. The life of Virgil prefixed to Dryden's translation, and a "Preface to the Pastoral" with a short defence of Virgil, against some of the reflections of Monsieur Fontenelle," both ascribed at one time to Walsh, were the work of Dr Knightly Cchetwood (1650-1720). In 1704 Walsh collaborated with Sir John Vanbrugh and William Congreve in Menrile de Pour-ceagnac, or Squire Trelouby, an adaptation of Molière's farce. Walsh's Poems are included in Anderson's Miscellaneous Poems, the British Poets. See The Lives of the Poets, vol. iii. pp. 151 et seq., published 1753 as by Theophilus Cibber.

WALSHINGHAM, SIR FRANCIS (c. 1530-1590), English statesman, was the only son of William Walsingham, common sergeant of London (d. March 1534), by his wife Joyce, daughter of Sir Edmund Denny of Cheshunt. The family is assumed to have sprung from Walsingham in Norfolk, but the earliest authentic traces of it are found in London in the first half of the 15th century; and the list of his ancestors is long and distinguished. Walsingham was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, and was called to the bar. In 1556 he was one of the heads admitted "counsel" in the faculty of laws. Returning to England after Elizabeth's accession he was elected M.P. for Banbury to her first parliament, which sat from January to May 1559. He married in January 1562 Anne, daughter of George Barnes, Lord Mayor of London and widow of Alexander Carleil, whose son-in-law Christopher Hoddesdon was closely associated with maritime and commercial enterprise. He was elected to represent Lyme Regis in Elizabeth's second parliament of 1563 as well as for Banbury, and preferred to sit for the former borough. He may have owed his election to Cecil's influence, for to Cecil he subsequently attributed his rise to power; but his brother-in-law Sir Walter Mildmay was well known at court and in 1566 became chancellor of the exchequer. In that year Walsingham married a second time, his first wife having died in 1564; his second was also a widow, Ursula, daughter of Henry St Barbe and widow of Sir Richard Worsley of Appuldurcombe, captain of the Isle of Wight. Her sister Edith married Robert Beale, afterwards the chief of Walsingham's henchmen. By his second wife Walsingham had a daughter who married firstly Sir Philip Sidney, secondly Robert Devereux, second earl of Essex, and thirdly Richard de Burgh, earl of Claricarre.

Walsingham's earliest extant communications with the government date from 1558, and in that and the following two years he was supplying Cecil with information about the movements of foreign spies in London. The Spanish ambassador in Paris declared in 1590 that he had been for two years engaged in collecting contributions from English churches for the assistance of the Huguenots in France; and he drew up a memorial denouncing the danger of the enterprise. In England and abroad, the project, was together with the Huguenot enterprise, was a great interest of Walsingham's, and he united both interests in his policy. Ridolfo, the conspirator, was committed to his custody in October 1560, and seems to have deluded Walsingham as to his intentions; but there is inadequate evidence for the statement (Dict. Nat. Biog.) that Walsingham was already organizing the secret police of London. In the summer of 1570 he was, in spite of his protestations, designated to succeed Norris as ambassador at Paris. La Mothe Fénélon, the French ambassador in England, wrote that he was thought a very able man, devoted to the new religion, and very much in Cecil's secrets. Cecil had in 1560 triumphed over the conservative and aristocratic party in the council; and Walsingham was the ablest of the new men whom he brought to the front to give play to the new forces which were to carve out England's career.

An essential element in the new policy was the destabilization of an alliance with France for the old Burgundian friendship. The affair of San Juan de Ulu and the seizure of the Spanish treasure-ships in 1568 had been omens of the inevitable conflict with Spain; Ridolfo's plot and Philip II's approaches to Mary Stuart indicated the lines upon which the struggle would be fought; and it was Walsingham's business to reconcile the nation with the French government, and upon this reconciliation to base an Anglo-French alliance which might lead to a grand attack on Spain, to the liberation of the Netherlands, to the destruction of Spain's monopoly in the New World, and to making Protestantism the dominant force in Europe. Walsingham threw himself heart and soul into the movement. He was the anxious fanatical of Elizabeth's advisers; he lacked the patience of Burghley and the cynical coolness of Elizabeth. His devotion to Protestantism made him feverishly alive to the perils which threatened the Reformation; and he took an alertist view of every situation. Ever dreading a blow, he was always eager to strike the first; and alive to the perils of peace, he was blind to the dangers of war. He supplied the momentum which was necessary to counteract the caution of Burghley and Elizabeth; but it was probably fortunate that his headstrong counsels were generally overruled by the circumspection of his sovereign. He would have plunged England into war with Spain in 1572, when the risks would have been infinitely greater than in 1588, and when the Huguenot influence over the French government, on which he relied for support, would probably have broken in his hands. His clear-cut, strenuous policy of open hostility has always had its admirers; but it is difficult to see how England could have secured from it more than she
actually did from Elizabeth's more Fabian tactics. War, declared before England had gained the naval experience and wealth of the next fifteen years, and before Spain had been weakened by the struggle in the Netherlands and the depredations of the sea-rovers, would have been a desperate expedient; and the ideas that any action on Elizabeth's part could have made France Huguenot, or prevented the disruption of the Netherlands, may be dismissed as the idle dreams of Protestant enthusiasts.

Walsingham, however, was an accomplished diplomatist, and he reserved these turbulent opinions for the ears of his own government, incurring frequent rebukes from Elizabeth. In his professional capacity, his attitude was correct enough; and, indeed, his anxiety for the French alliance and for the marriage between Elizabeth and Anjou led him to suggest concessions to Anjou's Catholic susceptibilities which came strangely from so staunch a Puritan. Elizabeth did not mean to marry, and although a defensive alliance was concluded between England and France in April 1572, the French government perceived that public opinion in France would not tolerate an open breach with Spain in Protestant interests. Coligny's success in captivating the mind of Charles IX. infuriated Catherine de Médicis, and the prospect of France being dragged at the heels of the Huguenots infuriated the Catholics. The result was Catherine's attempt on Coligny's life and then the massacre of St Bartholomew, which placed Walsingham's person in jeopardy and ruined for the time all hopes of the realization of his policy of an Anglo-French alliance.

He was recalled in April 1573, but the queen recognized that the failure had been due to no fault of his, and eight months later he was admitted to the privy council and made joint secretary of state with Sir Thomas Smith. He held this office jointly or solely until his death; in 1577 when Smith died, Dr Thomas Wilson was associated with Walsingham; after Wilson's death in 1581 Walsingham was sole secretary until July 1586, when Davison began his brief and ill-fated seven months' tenure of the office. After Davison's disgrace in February 1587 Walsingham remained sole secretary, though Wolley assisted him as Latin secretary from 1588 to 1590. He was also returned to parliament at a by-election in 1576 as knight of the shire for Surrey in succession to Charles Howard, who had become Lord Howard of Effingham, and he was re-elected for Surrey in 1584, 1586 and 1588. He was knighted on December 1, 1577, and made chancellor of the order of the Garter on April 22, 1578.

As secretary, Walsingham could pursue no independent policy; he was rather in the position of permanent under-secretary of the combined home and foreign departments, and he had to work under the direction of the council, and particularly of Burghley and the queen. He continued to urge the necessity of more vigorous intervention on behalf of the Protestants abroad, though now his clients were the Dutch rather than the Huguenots. In June 1578 he was sent with Lord Cobham to the Netherlands, mainly to glean reliable information on the complicated situation. He had interviews with the prince of Orange, with Casimir who was there in the interests of Protestant Germany, with Anjou who came in his own interests or in those of France, and with Don John, who nominally governed the country in Philip's name; the story that he instigated a plot to kidnap or murder Don John is without foundation. His letters betray discontent with Elizabeth's reluctance to assist the States; he could not understand her antipathy to rebellious subjects, and he refused in October, having accomplished little.

In August 1581 he was sent on a second and briefer mission to Paris. Its object was to secure a solid Anglo-French alliance against Spain without the condition upon which Henry III. insisted, namely a marriage between Elizabeth and Anjou. The French government would not yield, and Walsingham came back, to be followed by Anjou who sought in personal interviews to overcome Elizabeth's objections to matrimony. He, too, was unsuccessful; and a few months later he was dismissed with some English money and ostensible assurances of support. But secretly Elizabeth countermanded his plans; unlike Walsingham, she would sooner have seen Philip remain master of the Netherlands than see them fall into the hands of France. His final embassy was to the court of James VI in 1583, and here his vehement and suspicious Protestantism led him astray and provoked him into counterworking the designs of his own government. He was convinced that James was as hostile to Elizabeth as Mary herself, and failed to perceive that he was as much a Jesuit as a proponent of the union. Walsingham and Burghley were inclined to try an alliance with the Scottish king, and the event justified their policy, which Walsingham did his best to frustrate, although deserted on this occasion by his chief regular supporter, Leicester.

For the rest of his life Walsingham was mainly occupied in detecting and frustrating the various plots formed against Elizabeth's life; and herein he achieved a success denied him in his foreign policy. He raised the English system of secret intelligence to a high degree of efficiency. At one time he is said to have had in his pay fifty-three agents at foreign courts, besides eighteen persons whose functions were even more obscure. Some of them were double spies, sold to both parties, whose real sentiments are still conjectural; but Walsingham was more successful in seducing Catholic spies than his antagonists were in seducing Protestant spies, and most of his information came from Catholics who betrayed one another. In his office in London they were trained in the arts of deciphering correspondence, feigning handwriting, and of breaking and repairing seals in such a way as to avoid detection. His spies were naturally doubtful about any policy, because the profession does not attribute any morality of methods can no more be expected from counterploters than from plotters; and the prevalence of political or religious assassination made counterplot a necessity in the interests of the state.

The most famous of the plots frustrated by Walsingham was Anthony Babington's, which he detected in 1586. Of the guilt of the main conspirators there is no doubt, but the complicity of Mary Stuart has been hotly disputed. Walsingham had long been convinced, like parliament and the majority of Englishmen, of the necessity of removing Mary; but it was only the discovery of Babington's plot that enabled him to bring pressure enough to bear upon Elizabeth to ensure Mary's execution. This circumstance has naturally led to the theory that he conceived, if not the plot, at least the proofs of Mary's connivance. Undoubtedly he facilitated her self-incrimination, but of her active encouragement of the plot there can be little doubt after the publication of her letters to Mendoza, in which she excuses her complicity on the plea that no other means were left to secure her liberation. Considering the part he played in this transaction, Walsingham escaped the vengeance which the queen with calculated indignation inflicted upon Babington.

Walsingham died deeply in debt on April 6, 1590. Since 1576 he had lived mainly at Barn Elms, Barnes, maintaining an adequate establishment; but his salary did not cover his expenses, he was burdened with his son-in-law Sir Philip Sidney's debts, and he obtained few of those perquisites which Elizabeth lavished on her favourites. He had little of the courtier about him; his sombre temperament and directness of speech irritated the queen, and it says something for both of them that he retained his confidence and his office until the end of his life.

Dr Karl Stäglich's elaborate and scholarly Sir Francis Walsingham (Die Zeit [Heidelberg, 1926]), which gives the first full accounts of Walsingham so far as it goes (1573); Dr Stäglich has also dealt with the early history of the family in his Die Walsingham bis zur Mitte des 16. Jahrhunderts (Heidelberg, 1925). The letters of Walsingham's correspondence are preserved in the Record Office and the British Museum; some have been epitomized in the Foreign Calendar (as far as 1582); and his correspondence during his two missions to France was published in extenso by Sir Dudley Digges in 1658 under the title The Compleat Ambassador, possibly, as has been suggested by Dr Stäglich, to give a filip to the similar policy then being pursued by the French government. The ascription to Sir Francis of Archival Tics: or Walsingham's Manual of Prudential Maxims for the Statesman and the Courtier is erroneous; the book is really the translation of a French treatise by one Edward Walsingham who flourished c. 1643-1656. See also Webb, Miller and Beckwith's History of Chislehurst (1899) and Dict. Nat. Biog. lix. 231-240.
Mr Conyers Read, who edited the Bardon Papers ("Camen", ser. 1905), relating to Mary's trial, was in 1910 engaged on an elaborate life of Walsingham, part of which the present writer was asked to see in MS.

WALSINGHAM, THOMAS (d. c. 1422), English chronicler, was probably educated at the abbey of St Albans and at Oxford. He became a monk at St Albans, where he appears to have passed the whole of his monastic life except the six years between 1394 and 1400 during which he was prior of another Benedictine house at Wymondham, Norfolk. At St Albans he was in charge of the scriptorium, or writing room, and he died about 1422. Walsingham's most important work is the Historia Anglorum, a valuable picture of English history between 1272 and 1419, but some authorities hold that Walsingham himself only wrote the section between 1377 and 1392, but this view is controverted by James Gairdner in his Early chroniclers of Europe (1879).

The Historia, which from the beginning to 1377 is largely a compilation from earlier chroniclers, was published by Matthew Parker in 1574 as Historia Angliae brevis. For the "Rolls" series it has been edited in two volumes by H. T. Riley (1863-1864). Covering some of the same ground Walsingham wrote a Chronicon Angliae; this deals with English history from 1328 to 1388 and has been edited by Sir E. P. W. Lewis. The "Rolls" series of Welsh manuscripts include the Gesta abbatum monasterii S. Albanii and the Ypodigma Neustriae. The Gesta is a history of the abbots of St Albans from the foundation of the abbey to 1328, while the Ypodigma Neustriae is a record of the work of the archbishop of Canterbury from 1272 and 1381, the earlier part being merely a compilation; it has been edited for the "Rolls" series by H. T. Riley (1867-1869). The Ypodigma purports to be a history of the dukes of Normandy. But the original work of Walsingham has been lost, and his personal authority is not great. Compiled about 1419, it was dedicated to Henry V. and was written to justify this king's invasion of France. It was first published by Matthew Parker in 1574, and has been edited for the "Rolls" series by H. T. Riley (1876). Another history of England by Walsingham dealing with the period between 1272 and 1393 is in manuscript in the British Museum. This agrees in many particulars with the Chronicæ Anglice, but it is much less hostile to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. Walsingham is the main authority for the history of England during the reigns of Richard II., Henry IV., and Henry V., including the rising under Wat Tyler in 1381. He shows considerable animus against John Wycliffe and the Lollards.

WALTER, HUBERT (d. 1203), chief justice of England and archbishop of Canterbury, was a relative of Ranulf de Glanvill, the great justiciar of Henry II., and rose under the eye of his kinsman to an important position in the Curia Regis. In 1184 and in 1185 he appears as a baron of the exchequer. He was employed, sometimes as a negotiator, sometimes as a justice, sometimes as a royal secretary. He received no clerical promotion from Henry II., but Richard I. appointed him bishop of Salisbury, and by Richard's command he went with the third crusade to the Holy Land. He gained the respect of all the crusaders, and acted as Richard's principal agent in all negotiation. He is always being given a place in the first band of pilgrims that entered Jerusalem. He led the English army back to England after Richard's departure from Palestine; but in Sicily he heard of the king's captivity, and hurried to join him in Germany. In 1193 he returned to England to raise the king's ransom. Soon afterwards he was elected archbishop of Canterbury and made justiciar. He was very successful in the government of the kingdom, and after Richard's last visit he was practically the ruler of England. He had no light task to keep pace with the king's constant demands for money. He was compelled to work the administrative machinery to its utmost, and indeed to invent new methods of extortion. To pay for Richard's ransom, he had already been compelled to tax personal property, the first instance of such taxation for secular purposes. The main feature of all his measures was the novel and extended use of representation and election for all the purposes of government. His chief measures are contained in his instruction to the itinerant justices of 1194 and 1198, in his ordinance of 1195 for the conservation of the peace, and in his scheme of 1198 for the assessment of the carucage. The justices of 1194 were to order the election of four constables by the chief persons of the county. These constables were to "keep," i.e. to register, the pleas of the crown, an important duty hitherto left to the sheriff. The juries, both for answering the questions asked by the judges and for trying cases under the grand assize, were to be chosen by a committee of four knights, also elected by the suitors of each county court for that purpose. In 1195 Hubert issued an ordinance by which four knights were to be appointed in every hundred to act as guardians of the peace, and from this humble beginning eventually was evolved the office of justice of the peace. His reliance upon the knights, or middle-class landowners, who now for the first time appear in the political foreground, is all the more interesting because it is this class who, either as members of parliament or justices of the peace, were to have the effective rule of England in their hands for so many centuries. In 1198, to satisfy the king's demand for money, Hubert demanded a carucage or plough-tax of five shillings on every plough-land (carucate) under cultivation. This was the old tax, the Danegeld, in a new and heavier form and there was great difficulty in levying it. To make it easier, the justiciar ordered the assessment to be made by a sworn jury in every hundred, and one may reasonably conjecture that these jurors were also elected. Besides these important constitutional changes Hubert negotiated a peace with Scotland in 1195, and in 1197 another with the Welsh. But Richard had grown dissatisfied with him, for the carucage had not been a success, and Hubert had failed to overcome the resistance of the Great Council when its members refused to equip a force of knights to serve abroad. In 1198 Hubert, who had inherited from his predecessors in the primacy a fierce quarrel with the Canterbury monks, gave these enemies an opportunity of complaining to the pope, for in 1193 Hubert had committed an act of sacrilege in Bow Church, which belonged to the monks. The pope asked Richard to free Hubert from all secular duties, and he did so, thus making the demand an excuse for dismissing Hubert from the justiciarship. On the 27th of May 1199 Hubert crowned John, making a speech in which the old theory of election by the people was enunciated for the last time. He also took the office of chancellor and cheerfully worked under Geoffrey Fitz Peter, one of his former subordinates. In 1201 he went on a diplomatic mission to Philip Augustus of France, and in 1202 he returned to England to keep the king in peace while John was losing his continental possessions. In 1205 he died. Hubert was an ingenuous, original and industrious public servant, but he was grasping and perhaps dishonest.


WALTER, JOHN (1738-1812), founder of The Times newspaper, London, was born in 1738/9, probably in London, and from the death of his father, Richard Walter (about 1735/6), merchant, as a second child. In 1749, aged 17, he was apprenticed as a merchant. He played a leading part in establishing a Coal Exchange in London; but shortly after 1761, when he began to occupy himself solely as an underwriter and became a member of Lloyd's, he over-specified and failed. In 1782 he bought from one Henry Johnson a patent for a new method of printing from "logotypes" (i.e. fonts of words or portions of words, instead of letters), and made some improvements in it. In 1784 he acquired an old printing office in Blackfriars, which formed the nucleus of the Printing-house Square of a later date, and established there his Logographic Office. At first John only undertook the printing of booklets, but on 1st January 1785 he started a small newspaper called The Daily Universal Register, which on reaching its 400th number on 1st January 1788 was renamed The Times. The printing business developed and prospered, but the newspaper at first had a somewhat chequered career. In 1789 Mr Walter was tried for a libel in it on the duke of York, and was sentenced to a fine of £50, a year's imprisonment in Newgate, to stand in the pillory for an hour and to give surety for good behaviour for seven years; and for further libels the fine was increased by £100, and the imprisonment extended. On 20th March 1791, however, he was released and pardoned. In 1799 he was again convicted for a technical libel, this time on Lord Cowper. He had then given
up the management of the business to his eldest son, William, and had (1795) retired to Teddington, where he died, 10th November 1812. In 1759 he had married Frances Landen (died 1788), by whom he had six children. William Walter very soon gave up the duties he undertook in 1795, and in 1803 transferred the sole management of the business to his younger brother, John.

John Walter (2) (1776-1847), who really established the great newspaper of which his father had sown the seed, was born on the 23rd of February 1776, and was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and Trinity College, Oxford. About 1798 he was associated with his elder brother in the management of his father's business, and in 1803 became not only sole manager but also editor of The Times. The second John Walter was a very remarkable man, the details of whose practice would be extremely interesting if we could recover them. But the conditions of newspaper work at that time, together with the natural reticence of one born to do, not to talk about doing, drew over his operations a veil of secrecy which there are now no means of penetrating. His greatness must be measured by the work he did. He found The Times one of a number of unconsidered journals whose opinions counted for little, and whose intelligence lagged far behind official reports, the accuracy of which they had no independent means of checking. He found it unregarded by the great except when a stringent law of libel enabled them to inflict vindictive punishment in the pillory and in prison for what in our days is ordinary political criticism. He left it in 1847 a great and influential paper. Walter's opinion was delivered to the European public throughout Europe, consulted and courtey by cabinet ministers at home, and in intimate relations with the best sources of independent information in every European capital. The man who, alone among contemporaries of older standing and with better opportunities, raised a struggling newspaper to a position such as no other journal has ever attained or is likely to attain in future, needs no further attestation of his exceptional ability and character. The secret of an achievement of that unique kind is incomprehensible. Yet we may note some at least of the elements of John Walter's monumental success. From his father he inherited a fearless and perhaps slightly aggressive independence, to which he joined a steady and tireless energy and a concentration of purpose which are less conspicuous in his father's career. He had been associated with his brother in the management of the paper for five years before he took entire control and became his own editor in 1803. In the same year he signalized the new spirit of the direction by his opposition to Pitt, which cost him the withdrawal of government advertisements and the loss of his appointment as printer to the Customs, besides exposing him to the not too scrupulous hostility of the official world. These were undoubtedly serious discouragements in the circumstances of that day. In John Walter's way of meeting them we find a principle upon which he consistently acted through life, and which goes far to explain his success. He never allowed himself to be diverted from the pursuit of a great though distant object by any petty calculation of immediate gain or loss. He had set himself to build up a journal which all the world should recognize as independent of government favour, and which governments themselves should be compelled to respect and reckon with. He was not going to barter that splendid field of titanic ideas for a few days' mess of pottage, or allow the government do its worst and hold on his way. At times the way must have been hard and the anxiety great, but great also was the reward. For the public in ever-widening circles received assurance, in an age of considerable literary and political servility, of a man who could not be bought, and a newspaper that could be neither hoodwinked nor terrorized. His determination to avoid even the appearance of being amenable to influence was forcibly illustrated when the king of Portugal sent him, through the Portuguese ambassador, a service of gold plate. It was a princely gift, and a flattering testimonio of the European reputation and authority of his newspaper. Mr Walter promptly returned it, courteously recognizing the honourable motives of the giver, but stating that to accept the gift would place him under a sense of obligation incompatible with the perfect independence of thought and action which he desired to maintain. It was the same jealous regard for the complete independence of The Times that led him to insist, as he did with remarkable success, upon the strict anonymity of the able men whom he selected with the eye of a general to act as his coadjutors. From about 1810 he delegated to other editorial supervision, first to Sir John Stoddart, then to Thomas Barnes, and in 1827 to T. J. Delahaye, though never the supreme direction of policy. Their influence was essentially due to the fact that they had a great newspaper behind them, and behind the great newspaper was the remarkable man who made it, and never ceased from giving it inspiration and direction. To unassailable independence, inflexible integrity and sure sagacity he added complete business knowledge of details, a sound judgment of men and things, and untiring energy in the pursuit of excellence in literary quality, in typography (see Printing, in mechanical appliances, and in the organization for the collection of news. These are the things that went to the making of The Times, and the measure of the greatness of the second John Walter is that he supplied them all. In 1832 Mr Walter, who had purchased an estate called Bear Wood, in Berkshire (where his son afterwards built the present house), was elected to Parliament for that county, and retained his seat till 1837. In 1841 he was returned to Parliament for Nottingham, but was unseated next year on petition. He was twice married, and by his second wife, Mary Smythe, had a family. He died in London on the 28th of July 1847. John Walter's younger son, born at Printing-house Square in 1818, and was educated at Eton and Exeter College, Oxford, being called to the bar in 1847. On leaving Oxford he took part in the business management of The Times, and on his father's death became sole manager, though he devoted part of the work on Mr Mowbray Morris. He was a man of scholarly tastes and serious religious views, and his conscientious character had a marked influence on the tone of the paper. It was under him that the successive improvements in the printing machinery, begun by his father in 1814, at last reached the stage of the "Walter Press" in 1869, the pioneer of modern newspaper printing-presses. In 1847 he was elected to Parliament for Nottingham as a moderate Liberal, and was re-elected in 1852 and in 1857. In 1859 he was returned for Berkshire, and though defeated in 1866, was again elected in 1868, and held the seat till he retired in 1885. He died on the 3rd of November 1894. He was twice married, first in 1842 to Emily Frances Court (d. 1858), and secondly in 1861 to Flora Macnab. His eldest son by the first marriage, John, was accidentally drowned at Bear Wood in 1870; and he was succeeded by Mr Arthur Franklin Walter (1840-1916), his second son by the first marriage. Mr A. F. Walter remained lifelong proprietor of The Times till 1908, when it was converted into a company. He then became chairman of the board of directors, and on his death was succeeded in this position by his son John.

See Newspapers: Modern London Newspapers (The Times), for the history of the paper.

WALTER, LUCY (c. 1630-1638), mistress of the English king Charles II. and reputed mother of the duke of Monmouth (q.v.), is believed to have been born in 1630, or a little later, at Roch Castle, near Haverfordwest. The Walters were a Welsh family of considerable standing, who were active in the Civil War. Roch Castle having been captured and burned by the parliamentary forces in 1644, Lucy Walter found shelter first in London and then at the Hague. There, in 1648, she met the future king, possibly renewing an earlier acquaintance. There is little reason for believing the story that she was his first mistress; it is certain that he was not her first lover. The intimacy between him and this "brown, beautiful, bold but insipid creature," as John Evelyn calls her, who chose to be known as Mrs Barlow (Barlo) lasted with intervals till the autumn of 1651, when Charles claimed the paternity of the child born in 1649, whom he subsequently created duke of Monmouth. A daughter, Mary (b. 1651), of whom the reputed father was Henry Bennet, earl of Arlington, married William Sansfield,
brother of Patrick Sarsfield, earl of Lucan. On the termination of her connexion with Charles II., Lucy Walter abandoned herself to a life of prodigal living and immorality, which resulted in her premature death, at Paris, in 1638. Her name is often wrongly written Walters or Waters.


WALTER OF COVENTRY (fl. 1290), English monk and chronicler, who was apparently connected with a religious house in the province of York, is known to us only through the historical compilation which bears his name, the Memorialis fratriis Waleri de Coventria. The word Memorialis is usually taken to mean "commonplace book." Some critics interpret it in the sense of "a souvenir," and argue that Walter was not the author but merely the donor of the book; but the weight of authority is against this view. The author of the Memorialis lived in the reign of Edward I., and mentions the homage done to Edward as overlord of Scotland (1291). Since the main narrative extends only to 1225, the Memorialis is emphatically a second-hand production. But for the years 1201-1225 it is a faithful transcript of a contemporary chronicle, the work of a Barnwell canon. A complete text of the Barnwell work is preserved in the College of Arms (Heralds' College, MS. 10) but has never yet been printed, though it was collated by Bishop Stubbs for his edition of the Memorialis. The Barnwell annalist, living in Cambridgeshire, was well situated to observe the events of the barons' war, and is our most valuable authority for that important crisis. He is less hostile to John than are Ralph of Coggeshall, Roger of Wendoro and Matthew Paris. He praises the king's management of the Welsh and Scotch wars; he is critical in his attitude towards the pope and the English opposition; he regards the submission of John to Rome as a skilful stroke of policy, although he notes the fact that some men called it a humiliation. The constitutional agitation of 1215 does not arouse his enthusiasm; he passes curtly over the Runnymede conference, barely mentions Magna Carta, and blames the barons for the resumption of war. It may be from this that the annalist avoids talking John, but it is more probable that the middle classes, whom he represents, regarded the designs of the feudal baronage with suspicion.


WALTERSHAUSEN, WOLFGANG SARTORIUS, BARON VON (1800-1876), German geologist, was born at Göttingen, on the 17th of December 1800, and educated at the university in that city. There he devoted his attention to physical and natural science, and in particular to mineralogy. During a tour in 1834-1835 he carried out a series of magnetic observations in various parts of Europe. He then gave his attention to an exhaustive investigation of Etna, and carried on the work with some interruptions until 1843. The chief result of this undertaking was his great Atlas der Etna (1858-1861), in which he distinguished the lava streams formed during the later centuries. After his return from Etna he visited Iceland, and subsequently published Physikalische Skizze von Island (1842), Über die vulkanischen Gesteine in Sicilien und Island (1853), and Geologischer Atlas von Island (1853). Meanwhile he was appointed professor of mineralogy and geology at Göttingen, and held this post for about thirty years, until his death. In 1866 he published an important essay entitled Recherches sur les climats de l'époque actuelle et des époques anciennes; in this he expressed his belief that the Glacial period was due to changes in the configuration of the earth's surface. For this he gained the Geologiseh Schulenburg.

WALTHAM, a city of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on both banks of the Charles river, about 10 m. W. of Boston. Pop. (1890) 18,707; (1900) 23,481, of whom 6695 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 27,834. Waltham is served by the Boston & Maine railway, and by electric interurban lines connecting with Boston, Lowell, Lexington, Watertown and Newton. It is situated on a series of rugged hills rising from the river. Prospect Hill (485 ft.) commands a magnificent view. A tract of 100 acres, comprising this hill and an adjoining elevation, has been set aside as a public park by the city; and there are four playgrounds (total area, 62 acres) and, in the centre of the city, a large common. In Waltham are some 43 acres of the Beaver Brook Reservation and 40 acres of the Charles River Reservation of the Metropolitan park system; in the former are the famous "Waverley Oaks." The Gore Mansion, erected towards the close of the 18th century by Christopher Gore (1758-1829), a prominent lawyer and Federalist leader, governor of Massachusetts in 1809-1810, and a member of the United States Senate in 1814-1817, is a stately country house surrounded by extensive grounds. Among the fine old oaks and elms. Above the city the Charles river is famous as a canoeing stream, and there is an annual canoe carnival between Waltham and Riverside, one of the most popular resorts in the neighbourhood of Boston. The city has a good public library (about 35,000 volumes in 1910). Its principal buildings are a state armory, and the First Parish (Unitarian), Christ (Protestant Episcopal), the Swedenborgian, the First Baptist and Beth Eden (Baptist) churches. Waltham is the seat of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded (established in Boston in 1848), the first institution of its sort in the country, and of the Waltham Training School for Nurses (through the generosity of Mrs. Abbie S. Leland). Waltham is a noted manufactory of "day nursing" (outside of hospital wards) on the present plan, of the Convent of Notre Dame and the Notre Dame Normal Training School (Roman Catholic), of the New Church School (New Jerusalem Church), of two business schools, and the Waltham Horological School (1879), a school for practical watchmaking and repairing; here also are the Waltham Hospital (1889), the Baby Hospital (1902) and the Leland Home (1879) for aged women. In 1905 the city's factory product was valued at $7,199,697 (21% more than in 1900). The largest single article manufactured was that of the American Waltham Watch Company, which has here the largest watch factory in the world, with an annual production of about a million watches. Watch and clock materials were valued at $123,885 in 1905. In 1905 cotton goods were second in value to watches; and third were foundry and machine-shop products ($516,607). Other products are automobiles, wagons and carriages, bicycles, canoes, organs and enamelled wood.

The first white settlement was made about 1630 and in 1637 became the Middle Precinct of Watertown. In 1738 the township of Waltham was separately organized. At various times it was part of the town of Weston, part of Cambridge, and part of Newton. In 1755 it was incorporated as a town, and in 1841 its western portion was known as Waltham West. In 1879 one of its precincts was set off to form part of the new township of Belmont. In 1884 Waltham was chartered as a city. The first power mill for the manufacture of cotton cloth in the United States was established here in 1814 as an experiment by the company which built the mills and the city of Lowell. Waltham became an important manufacturing city in the decade before the American Civil War, when the company which in 1835 made the first American machine-made watches moved hither from Roxbury and established the Waltham watch industry. This watch company, before the establishment of the U.S. Observatory at Washington and the transmission thence of true time throughout the country by electric telegraph, had an elaborate observatory for testing and setting its watches.

WALTHAM ABBEY, or WALTHAM HOLY CROSS, a market town in the Epping parliamentary division of Essex, England, on the Lea, and on the Cambridge branch of the Great Eastern railway, 13 m. N. by E. from London. Pop. of urban district of Waltham Holy Cross (1901) 6549. The neighbouring county of Essex is flat and uninteresting, but to the E. and N.E. of the town the hills rise in the direction of Hainault and Epping Forests. Of the former magnificent cruciform abbey church the only portion of importance now remaining is the nave, forming the present parish church, the two easternmost bays being converted into the chancel. It is a very fine specimen of ornate Norman work. Only the western supports of the ancient tower now remain. A tower corresponding with the present size of the church was
erected in 1536 and restored in 1798. On the south side of the church is a lady chapel dating from the end of the reign of Edward II. or the beginning of that of Edward III., containing some good Decorated work, with a crypt below. Of the monastic buildings there remain only a bridge and gateway and other slight fragments. Bishop Hall became curate of Waltham in 1612, and Thomas Fuller was curate from 1648 to 1658. At Waltham Cross, about 1 m. W. of Waltham in Hertfordshire, is the beautiful cross erected (1291-1294) by Edward I. at one of the resting-places of the corpse of Queen Eleanor on its way to burial in Westminster Abbey. It is of Caen stone and is supposed to have been designed by Pietro Cavallini, a Roman sculptor. It is hexagonal in plan and consists of three stages, decreasing towards the top, which is finished by a crocketed spirelet and crown. The lower stage is flanked by compartments enclosing the arms of England, Castile and Leon, and Pontorie. Its restoration has not been wholly satisfactory. The royal gunpowder factory is in the immediate vicinity; government works were built in 1850 at Quinton Hill, ½ m. W. of the town, for the manufacture of cordite; and the town possesses gun-cotton and percussion-cap factories, flour-mills, malt kilns and breweries. Watercresses are largely grown in the neighbourhood, and there are extensive market gardens and nurseries.

The town probably grew round the church, which was built early in the 11th century and extended to the confines of the true cross.

The manor was held by the abbot and convent of the Holy Cross from the reign of Henry I. to that of Henry VIII. The town was never more than a market town until 1894. In 1845 a local board of twelve members was formed to govern it; in 1894, under the Local Government Act, it was brought under an urban district council. The market of Waltham was granted to the abbey by Richard I. and confirmed in 1227 by Henry III., who also conceded two fairs in 1257: one for ten days following the Invention of the Holy Cross, the other on the vigil of the Exaltation of the Cross. These fairs lasted for seven days after the Charter from which the present market appears to be derived was granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1560, and gave a Tuesday market for miscellaneous stock. The fairs have died out, although as late as 1792 they were held on the 14th of May and the 25th and 26th of September. The fisheries in the river Lea appear in records from 1086 onwards. At the end of the 17th century a fulling mill is mentioned, and by the year 1721 three powder mills were in existence.

WALTHAMSTOW, a suburb of London in the Walthamstow parliamentary division of Essex, England, a short distance E. of the river Lea, with several stations on a branch of the Great Eastern railway, 6 m. N. of Liverpool Station, pop. of urban district (1891) 46,436; (1901) 95,131. It is sheltered on the north and east by low hills formerly included in Epping Forest. The church of St Mary existed at a very early period, but the present building, chiefly of brick, was erected in 1535 by Robert Thorne, a merchant, and Sir George Monoux, lord mayor of London, and has undergone frequent alteration. Besides other old brasses it contains in the north aisle the effigies in brass of Sir George Monoux (d. 1543) and Anne his wife. There is a number of educational institutions, including a school of art; Forest School, founded in 1834 in connexion with King's College, now ranks as one of the well-known English public schools. Brewing is extensively carried on.

In the reign of Edward the Conqueror Walthamstow belonged to Walthof, son of Siward, earl of Northumberland, who married Judith, niece of William the Conqueror, who betrayed him to his death in 1075. The estate subsequently passed in 1090 to Guy de Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, and on the attainder of Earl Thomas in 1396 reverted to the crown. Afterwards it came into the possession of Edmund, the 2nd earl of Somerset, from the Somersets it passed to Sir George Rodney, and in 1630 came to the Maynard family. It is supposed to have been the birthplace of George Gascoigne the poet (d. 1577). Sir William Batten, commissioner of the navy (d. 1667), the friend of Pepys, had his seat at Walthamstow, and was frequently visited here by Pepys.

WALTHARIUS, a Latin poet founded on German popular tradition, relates the exploits of the west Gothic hero Walter of Aquitaine. Our knowledge of the author, Ekkehard, a monk of St Gall, is due to a later Ekkehard, known as Ekkehard IV. (1160), who gave this story in the series of Lai искусных Galli (cap. 80). The poem was written by Ekkehard, generally distinguished as Ekkehard I., for his master Geraldus in his schooldays, probably therefore not later than 920, since he was probably no longer young when he became deacon (in charge of ten monks) in 957. He died in 973. Waltharius was dedicated by Geraldus to Erchanbald, bishop of Strassburg (fl. 965-981), but MSS. of it were in circulation before that time. Ekkehard IV. stated that he corrected the Latin of the poem, the Germanisms of which offended his patron Aribo, archbishop of Mainz. The work probably harked the cupidity of lost, so that if the author was still in his teens when he wrote, it it must have possessed considerable and precocious powers.

Walter was the son of Alphere, ruler of Aquitaine, which in the 5th century, when the legend developed, was a province of the west Gothic Spanish kingdom. When Attila invaded the west the western princes are represented as making no resistance. They purchased peace by offering tribute and hostages. King Gibich, here described as a Frankish king, gave Hagen as a hostage (of Trojan race, but not, as in the Nibelungenlied, a kinsman of the royal house) in place of his infant son Gunther; the Burgundian king Herithr, his daughter Hildegund; and Alphere, his son Walter. Hagen and Walter became brothers in arms, fighting at the head of Attila's armies, while Hildegund was put in charge of the queen's treasure. Presently Gunther succeeded his father and refused to pay tribute to the Huns, whereupon Hagen fled from Attila's court. Walter and Hildegund, who had been betrothed in childhood, also made good their escape during a drunken feast of the Huns, taking with them a great treasure.

The story of their flight forms one of the most charming pictures of old German story. They were recognized at Worms, however, where the tresspass was exacted. The custody of lost, so that if the author was still in his teens when he wrote, it must have possessed considerable and precocious powers.

The occasional incoherencies of the tale make it probable that many changes have been introduced in the legend. The Thidreks Saga (chaps. 241-244) makes the story more probable by representing the pursuers as Huns. There is reason to believe that Hagen was originally the father of Hildegund, and that the tale was a variant of the saga of Hild as told in the Skaldskaparmál. Hild, daughter of King Högni, was carried off by Hedin, son of Hjarrandi (A.S. Heorrenda). The fight between the forces of father and lover only ceased at sundown, to be renewed on the morrow, since each evening Hild raised the dead by her incantations. This is obviously a form of the old myth of the daily recurring struggle between light and darkness. The songs sung by Hildegund in Waltharius during her night watches were probably incantations, a view strengthened by the fact that in a Polish version the glance of Helgunda is said to have inspired the combatants with new strength. Hildegund has retained nothing of Hild's fierceness, but the fragment of the Anglo-Saxon Waldere shows more of the original spirit. In Waltharius Hildegund advises Walter to fly; in Waldere she urges him to the combat.

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Cassel, 1881); by F. Holthausen in Göttingens Höherschul- Arbeitsbuch (vol. v., 1889), with autotype reproductions of the two leaves which have been preserved. See also A. Ebert, Allg. Gesch. der Lit. des Mittelalters im Abhandl. K. H. Festschrift der deutschen Literatur zum 800. Jubiläum der deutschen Literatur bis zum Ausgang des Mittelalters (vol. i., pt. ii., Strassburg, 1897); M. D. Larmé, The Saga of Walter of Aquitaine (Baltimore, 1892); B. Symons, Deutsche Heldensage (Strassburg, 1909). "D'Youville's French ballads of the " Brand" and " Erlinton " (F. J. Child's English and Scottish Popular Ballads, i. 88 seq.).

WALTHEOF, (d. 1076), earl of Northumbria, was a son of Earl Siward of Northumbria, and, although he was probably educated for the church, he seems to have been sent to France to study about 1065. After the battle of Hastings he submitted to William the Conqueror; but when the Danes invaded the north of England in 1069 he joined them and took part in the attack on York, only, however, to make a fresh submission after their departure in 1070. Then, restored to his earldom, he married William's niece, Judith, and in 1072 was appointed earl of Northumbria. In 1075 Waltheof joined the conspiracy against the king arranged by the earls of Norfolk and Hereford; but soon repenting of his action he confessed his guilt to Archbishop Lanfranc, and was pardoned in Normandy. Returning to England with William he was arrested, and after being brought twice before the king's court was sentenced to death. On the 31st of May 1076 he was beheaded at St. Giles's Hill, near Winchester. Weak and unreliable in character, Waltheof, like his father, is said to have been a man of immense bodily strength. Devout and charitable, he was regarded by the English as a martyr, and miracles were said to have been worked at his tomb at Crowland. The earl left three daughters, the eldest of whom, Matilda, brought the earldom of Huntingdon to her second husband, David I. of Scotland. One of Waltheof's grandparents was Waltheof (d. 1159), abbot of Melrose.


WALTHEOF, BERNHARD (1430-1504), German astronomer, was born at Nuremberg in 1430. He was a man of large means, which he devoted to scientific pursuits. When Regioniamentum (q.v.) settled at Nuremberg in 1471, Walther built for their common use an observatory at which in 1484 clocks driven by weights were first used in astronomical determinations. He further brought into prominence the effects of refraction in altering the apparent altitudes of the heavenly bodies, and calculated Venus for the moon as a connecting-link between observations of the sun and stars. Walther established a printing-press, from which some of the earliest editions of astronomical works were issued. His observations, begun in 1475 and continued until his death in May 1504, were published by J. Schöner in 1544, and by W. Snell in 1618, as an appendix to his Observationes Heliasticae.


WALTHEOF VON DER VOGELWEIDE (c. 1170-c. 1230), the most illuminated of medieval German lyric poets. For all his fame, Walther's name is not found in contemporary records, with the exception of a solitary mention in the travelling accounts of Bishop Wolfgier of Passau—" Walther cantori de Vogelweide pro pellicio V. solidos longus "—" To Walther the singer of the Vogelweide five shilling to buy a fur coat," and the main sources of information about him are his own poems and occasional references by contemporaneous Minnesingers. It is clear from the title hér (Herr, Sir) these give him, that he was of noble birth; but it is equally clear from his name Vogelweide (Bird Meadow, a gathering place or preserve of birds) that he belonged not to the higher nobility, but to the titles from castles or villages, but to the nobility of service (Dienst). He was a humble retainer of the great lords, who in wealth and position were little removed from non-noble free cultivators. For a long time the place of his birth was a matter of dispute, until Professor Franz Pfeiffer established beyond reasonable doubt that he was born in the Wipthal in Tirol, where, not far from the little town of Sterzing on the Eisak, a wood—called the Vorder- und Hintervogelweide—preserves at least the name of his vanished home. This origin would account for what is known of Walther's early life. Tirol was at this time the home of several noted Minnesingers; and the court of Vienna, under the enlightened duke Frederick I. of the house of Babenberg, had become a centre of poetry and art. It was that the young poet learned his craft under the renowned master Reinmar the Old, whose death he afterwards lamented in two of his most famous lyric poems; and in the open-handed duke he found his first patron. This happy period of his life, during which he produced the most charming and spontaneous of his love-lyrics, came to an end with the death of Duke Frederick in 1198. Hencenward Walther was a wanderer from court to court, singing for his lodging and his bread, and ever hoping that some patron would arise to save him from this "juggler's life " (gugelhupf) and the shame of ever playing the guest. For moral success in this profession he was not calculated. His optimism of men and manners was scathing; and even when this did not touch his princely patrons, their underlings often took measures to rid themselves of so uncomfortable a tenor. Thus he was forced to leave the court of the generous duke Bernhard of Carinthia (1120-1136); after an experience of the tumultuous household of the landgrave of Thuringia he warns those who have weak ears to give it a wide berth; and after three years at the court of Dietrich I. of Meissen (reigned 1195-1221) he complains that he found neither money nor praise. Walther was, in fact, a man of strong views; and it is this which gives him his main significance in history, as distinguished from his place in literature. From the moment when the death of the emperor Henry VI. (1197) opened the fateful struggle between empire and papacy, Walther threw himself ardently into the fray on the side of German independence and unity. Though his religious poems sufficiently prove the sincerity of his catholicism, he remained to the end of his days opposed to the extreme claims of the popes, whom he attacks with a bitterness which can only be justified by the strength of his patriotic feelings. His political poems begin with an appeal to Germany, written in 1198 at Vienna, against the despotic ambitions of the princes:

" Crown Philip with the Kaiser's crown
And bid them vex thy peace no more."

He was present, on the 5th of September, at Philip's coronation at Mainz, and supported him till his victory was assured. After Philip's murder in 1200, he "said and sang" in support of Otto of Brunswick against the papal candidate Frederick of Stauien; and only when Otto's usefulness to Germany had been shattered by the battle of Bouvines (1212) did he turn to the rising star of Frederick II., now the sole representative of German majesty against pope and princes. From the new emperor his genius and his zeal for the empire at last received recognition; and a small fief in Franconia was bestowed upon him, which, though he complained that its value was little, gave him the home and the fixed position he had so long desired. That Frederick gave him an even more signal mark of his favour by making him the tutor of his son Henry VII., is more than doubtful. The fact, in itself highly improbable, rests only upon the evidence of a single poem which is capable of another interpretation. Walther's restless spirit did not suffer him to remain long on his new property. In 1217 we find him once more at Vienna, and again in 1220 after the return of Duke Leopold VI. from the crusade. About 1224 he seems to have settled on his fief near Würzburg. He was active in urging the German princes to take part in the crusade of 1228, and may have accompanied the crusading army at least as far as his native Tirol. In a beautiful and pathetic poem he paints the grandiose and grandiose scenes of his childhood and his life made his life seem a thing dreamt. He died about 1250, and was buried at Würzburg, after leaving directions, according to the
story, that the birds were to be fed at his tomb daily. The original gravestone with its Latin inscription has disappeared; but in 1843 a new monument was erected over the spot. There is also a fine statue of the poet at Bozen, unveiled in 1877.

Historically interesting as Walton's political verses are, their merit has been not a little exaggerated by modern German critics, who saw their own imperial aspirations and anti-papal prejudices reflected in this patriotic poet of the middle ages. Of more lasting value are the beautiful lyrics, mainly dealing with love, which led his contemporaries to hail him as their master in song (unsers sangen meister). He is of course unequal. At his worst he exerts not riddles above the grossest conventionalities of his school. At his best he shows spontaneity, a charm and a facility which his rivals sought in vain to emulate. His earlier lyrics are full of the joy of life, of feeling for nature and of the glory of love. Greatly daring, he even rescues love from the convention which had made it the prerogative of the nobly born, contrasts the titles "woman" (wif) and "lady" (lodowe) to the disadvantage of the latter, and puts the most beautiful of his verses—Unter der Linden—into the mouth of a simple girl. A certain seriousness, which is apparent under the joyousness of his earlier work, grew on him with years. Religious and didactic poems became more frequent, and his verses in praise of love turn at times to a protest against the laxer standards of an age demoralized by political unrest. Throughout his attitude is healthy and sane. He preaches the crusade; but at the same time he suggests the virtue of toleration, pointing out that in the worship of God

"Christians, Jews and heathen all agree."

He fulminates against "false love"; but pours scorn on those who maintain that "love is sin." In an age of monastic ideals and loose morality there was nothing commonplace in the simple lines in which he sums up the inspiring principle of chivalry at its best:—

"Swer quotes wibes liebe hat
Der schamts sich ieder missät."

Altogether Walton's poems give us the picture not only of a great artistic genius, but of a strenuous, passionate, very human and very lovely character.


WALTON, Brian (1600–1661), English divine and scholar, was born at Seymour, in the district of Cleveland, Yorkshire, in 1600. He went to Cambridge as a sizar of Magdalene College in 1616, migrated to Peterhouse in 1618, was bachelor in 1619 and master of arts in 1623. After holding a school mastership and two curacies, he was made rector of St Martin's Ongar in London in 1628, where he took a leading part in the contest between the London clergy and the citizens about the city titles, and compiled a treatise on the subject, which is printed in Brewer's Collectanea (1751). His conduct in this matter displayed his ability, but his zeal for the exaction of ecclesiastical dues was remembered in 1641 in the articles brought against him in parliament, which appear to have led to the sequestration of his very considerable preferments. He was also charged with Popish practices, but on frivolous grounds, and with aspersing the members of parliament for the city.

1 He who has the love of a good woman
Is ashamed of every mistake.

2 He was from 1635 to 1636 rector of Sandon, in Essex, where his wife, Anne Claxton, is buried. He appears to have also been a prebendary of St Paul's, and for a very short time he had held the rectory of St Giles in the Fields.

In 1642 he was ordered into custody as a delinquent; thereafter he took refuge in Oxford, and ultimately returned to London to the house of William Fuller (1587–1659), dean of Ely, whose daughter Jane was his second wife. In this retirement he gave himself to Oriental studies and carried through his great work, a Polyglot Bible which should be completer, cheaper and provided with a better critical apparatus than any previous work of the kind (see POLYGLOT). The proposals for the Polyglot appeared in 1652, and the book itself came out in six great folios in 1657, having been printing for five years. Nine languages are used: Hebrew, Chaldean, Samaritan, Syriac, Arabic, Greek, Latin, Coptic, and Ethiopic. Among his collaborators were James Ussher, John Lightfoot and Edward Pearce, Edmund Castell, Abraham Wheelocke and Patrick Young, Thomas Hyde and Thomas Gravbes. The great undertaking was supported by liberal subscriptions, and Walton's political opinions did not deprive him of the help of the Commonwealth; the paper used was freed from duty, and the interest of Cromwell in the work was acknowledged in the original preface, part of which was afterwards cancelled to make way for more loyal expressions towards that restored monarchy under which Oriental studies in England immediately began to languish.

Walton himself, after his retirement, was appointed to the see of Chester. He was consecrated bishop in December 1660. In the following spring he was one of the commissioners at the Savoy Conference, but took little part in the business. In the autumn of 1661 he paid a short visit to his diocese, and returning to London he died on the 29th of November.

However much Walton was indebted to his helpers, the Polyglot Bible is a great monument of industry and of capacity for directing a vast undertaking, and the Prolegomena (separately reprinted by Darby, 1777, and by Francis Wrangham, 1825) show judgment as well as learning. The same qualities appear in Walton's Considerations on the River Stour (1669), where he thought that the accumulation of material for the revision of the received text tended to atheism. Among Walton's works must also be mentioned an Introductio ad lectionem singularum orientalium (1643; 2nd ed., 1655), meant to prepare the way for the Polyglot.


WALTON, Izak (1593–1683), English writer, author of The Compleat Angler, was born at Stafford on the 9th of August 1593, the son of John Walton, a regimental chaplain in Ireland and later vicar of St John's-in-the-Wood, Westminster. His wife was Jane Jervis, and nothing more is known of his parentage. He settled in London as an ironmonger, and at first had one of the small shops, 7½ ft. by 5 ft., in the upper storey of Gresham's Royal Borse or Exchange in Cornhill. In 1614 he had a shop in Fleet Street, two doors west of Chancery Lane. Here, in the parish of St Dunstan's, he gained the friendship of Dr John Donne, then vicar of that church. His first wife, married in December 1626, was Rachel Floud, a great-niece of Archbishop Cranmer. She died in 1640. He married again soon after, his second wife being Anne Ken—the pastoral "Kenna" of The Angler's Wish—step-sister of Thomas Ken, afterwards bishop of Bath and Wells. After the Royalist defeat at Marston Moor, he retired from business. He had bought some land near his birthplace, Stafford, and he went to live there; but, according to Wood, spent most of his time "in the families of the eminent clergyman of England, of whom he was much beloved"; and in 1650 he was again living in Clerkenwell. In 1653 came out the first edition of his famous book, The Compleat Angler. His second wife died in 1662, and was buried in Worcester cathedral church, where there is a monument to her memory. One of his daughters married Dr Hawkins, a prebendary of Winchester. The last forty years of his long life seem to have been spent in ideal leisure and occupation, the old man travelling here and there, visiting his "eminent clergymen" and other brethren of the angle, compiling the biographies of congenial spirits, and collecting here a little and there a little for the enlargement of his famous treatise. After 1662 he found a home at Farnham Castle with George Morley, bishop of Winchester, to whom he dedicated his Life of George Herbert and also that of Richard Hooker; and from time to time he visited Charles Cotton in
his fishing house on the Dove. He died in his daughter’s house at Winchester on the 15th of December 1683, and was buried in the cathedral. It is characteristic of his kindly nature that he left his property at Shalford for the benefit of the poor of his native town.

Walton hooked a much bigger fish than he angled for when he offered his unique treatise, The Compleat Angler, to the public. There is hardly a name in English literature, even of the first rank, whose immortality is more secure, or whose personality is the subject of a more devoted cult. Not only is he the sacred
take of a considerable sect in the religion of recreation, but multitudes who have never put a worm on a hook—even on a fly-hook—have been caught and securely held by his picture of the delights of the gentle craft and his easy leisurely transcript of his own simple, peaceful, lovable, and amusing character.

The Compleat Angler was published in 1653, but Walton continued to add to it, and the completion of it is still a matter of doubt even for professional anglers.

The first edition the thirteen chapters of the original have grown to twenty-one, and a second part was added by his loving friend and brother angler Charles Cotton, who took up "Venator" where Walton had left him and completed his instruction in fly-fishing and the making of flies. Walton could not profess to be an expert with the fly; the fly-fishing in his first edition was addition by Walton and by a batman, who produced a treatise of his own in 1659; but in the use of the live worm, the grasshopper and the frog "Fis-
cator," himself could speak as a master.

The famous passage about the frog—often misquoted about the worm—"use him as though you loved him, that is, harm him as little as you possibly, that he may live the longer"—appears in the original edition. The additions made as the work grew were merely to the technical part; happy quotations, new turns of phrase, songs, poems and anecdotes were introduced as if the leisurely author, who wrote it as a recreation, had kept it constantly in his mind and talked it over point by point with his numerous brethren. There were originally only two interlocutors in the opening scene, "Piscator" and "Viator;" but in the second edition, as if in answer to an objection that "Piscator" had it too much in his own way in praise of angling, he introduced the falconer, "Auceps," changed "Viator" into "Venator" and made the new companions each dilate on the joys of his favourite sport.

Although The Compleat Angler was not Walton’s first literary work, his leisurely labours as a biographer and a historian grew out of that absorbing interest. It was probably as an angler that he made the acquaintance of Sir Henry Wotton, but it is clear that Walton had more than a love of fishing and a humorous temper to recommend him to the friendship of the accomplished ambassador. At any rate, Wotton, who had intended to write the life of John Donne, and had already corresponded with Walton on the subject, left the task to him. Wotton had already contributed an Elegy to the 1653 edition of Donne’s poems, and he completed and published the life, much to the satisfaction of the most learned critics, in 1640. Sir Henry Wotton dying in 1650, Walton undertook the completion of his work, and it was published in 1651 and 1652. His life of Hooker was published in 1662, that of George Herbert in 1670 and that of Bishop Sanderson in 1678. All these subjects were endeared to the biographer by a certain gentleness of disposition and cheerful piety; three of them at least—Donne, Wotton and Herbert—were angels. Their lives were evidently written with loving pains, in the same leisurely fashion as his Angler, and like it are of value less as exact knowledge than as harmonious and complete pictures of character.

Walton also rendered affectionate service to the memory of his friends Sir John Sionegoff and John Chalkhill, editing with prefatory notices Sionegoff’s Hero of Lorenzo in 1652 and Chalkhill’s Thecla and Clearchus a few months before his own death in 1683. His poems and prose fragments were collected in 1873 under the title of Waltoniana.

The best-known old edition of the Angler is J. Major’s (2nd ed., 1718). The book was edited by Andrew Lang (1882), and various modern editions have appeared. The standard biography is that of Sir Harris Nicol, prefixed to an edition of the Angler (1836). There are notices also, with additional scraps of fact, annexed to two American editions, Bethune’s (1847) and Dowling’s (1853). An edition of Walton’s Lives, by C. Sampson, appeared in 1893. See also Isaak Walton and his Friends, by S. Martin (1903).

WALTON-LE-DALE, an urban district in the Darwen parliamentary division of Lancashire, England, on the S. bank of the Ribble, immediately above Preston. Pop. (1901) 11,271. The church of St Leonard, situated on an eminence to the east of the town, was originally erected in the 11th century. The earliest portions of the present building are the Perpendicular chancel and tower, the nave having been rebuilt in 1758, while the transepts were erected in 1816. There are a number of interesting old brasses and monuments. Cotton-spinning is carried on, and there are market-gardens in the vicinity. Roman remains have been found here, and there was perhaps a roadside post on the site. The manor of Walton was granted by Henry de Lacy about 1130 to Robert Banastre. It afterwards passed by marriage to the Langtons, and about 1592 to the Hoghtons of Hoghton. Walton was the principal scene of the great battle of Preston, fought on the 17th of August 1648 between Cromwell and the duke of Hamilton. In 1701 the duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Derwentwater and other Jacobites incorporated the town by the style of the mayor and corporation of the ancient borough of Walton, and in 1719 the passage of the Ribble was bravely defended against the Jacobites by Parson Woods and his parishioners of Atherton (q.v.).

WALTON-ON-THAMES, an urban district in the Epsom parliamentary division of Surrey, England, pleasantly situated on the right bank of the Thames, 17 m. W.S.W. from London by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 10,329. The church of St Mary has late Norman portions, and contains numerous memorials, including examples of the work of Chantrey and Roubilac. A verse inscribed upon a pillar is reputed to be Queen Elizabeth’s profession of faith as regards transplantation. The queen was a frequent resident at Henry VIII’s palace of Oatlands Park, which was destroyed during the civil wars of the 17th century. The property subsequently passed through various hands, and the park is reduced in extent by the modern growth of villages surrounding it. It contains, however, a remarkable grotto built of mineral and stalactitic rock, shells and other similar materials, by one of the early of Lincoln when owner. Ashley Park, a Tudor mansion (in the main modernized), attributed to Cardinal Wolsey, was at times the residence of Cromwell, while William Cavendish, Duke of Devonshire, was the tenant of the estate rebuilt by Sir Robert Wotton’s (q.v.) the most recent period of the town’s history. It was occupied by the old manor house of Walton. Walton is a favourite resort of anglers and boating parties.

WALTON-ON-THE-NAZE (or Walton-le-Soken), a watering-place in the Harwich parliamentary division of Essex, England, the terminus of a branch of the Great Eastern railway from Colchester, 713 m. E.N.E. from London. Pop. of urban district (1901) 2,014. This portion of the coast has suffered from encroachment of the sea, and a part of the old village of Walton, with the church, was engulfed towards the end of the 18th century and reconstructed on a new site. The town was completed about the site of the old church, was occupied in the 19th century of the site of the old church, and the site of the old church, was occupied in the 19th century. It was endowed with the lands thus consumed "praebenda consumpta per mora." On the E. side of the town is the open North Sea, with a fine stretch of sand and shingle, affording good bathing. To the west is a salt marsh extending to low islands, known as Harford Water. The Naze is a promontory in miles. N. by E. of the town, and in the vicinity of Walton are low cliffs exhibiting the fossiliferous red crag formation. The church of All Saints is a brick building dating mainly from 1804. Walton has a public hall, several hotels and a small community of passenger steamers in connexion with Harwich, Clacton-on-Sea, and London are maintained in the summer.

WALTZING MOUSE (or JAPANESE WALTZING MOUSE), a pied race of the house mouse (Mus musculus), or one of its allies,
WALWORTH—WANAMAKER

originally bred in China, and known in Japan as the Nankin mouse. The habit of these mice of spinning round and round after their tails is highly developed, and continually exercised. In Japan, where there were originally two breeds, a grey and a white, these mice are kept in cages on account of their dancing propensity. The dancing was at first supposed to be due to a disease of the labyrinth of the ear; but Dr K. Kishi, in a paper in the Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie (vol. xxi. pt. 3), concludes that it is the effect of confinement for untold centuries in small cages.

WALWORTH, SIR WILLIAM (d. 1385), lord mayor of London, belonged to a good Durham family. He was apprenticed to John Lovekyn, a member of the Fishmongers' Gild, and succeeded his master as alderman of Bridge ward in 1368, becoming sheriff in 1370 and lord mayor in 1374. He is said to have suppressed usury in the city during his term of office as mayor. His name frequently figures as advancing loans to the king, and he supported John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, in the city, where there was a strong opposition to the king's uncle. His most famous exploit was his encounter with Wal Tyler in 1381, during his second term of office as lord mayor. In June of that year, when Tyler and his followers entered south London, Walworth defended London Bridge against them; he was with Richard II. when he met the insurgents at Smithfield, and assisted in slaying their leader (see TYLER, Wal), afterwards rising the Church bodyguard as a time imposed to be due for suppressing and an hour at the king's service; for which service he was rewarded by knighthood and a pension. He subsequently served on two commissions to restore the peace in the county of Kent. He died in 1385, and was buried in the church of St Michael, Crooked Lane, of which he was a considerable benefactor. Sir William Walworth was the most distinguished member of the Fishmongers' Gild, and he invariably figured in the pages prepared by them when one of their members attained the mayoralty. He became a favourite hero in popular tales, and appeared in Richard Johnson's Nine Worthies of 1546.

See William Herbert, The History... of St Michael, Crooked Lane, London... (1831); W. and R. Woodcock, Lives of Illustrious Lord Mayors (1846); an account of Wal Tyler's rebellion in a fragmentary chronicle printed by G. H. Trevelyan in the English Historical Review (July 1898).

WAMPUM, or WAMPUM-PEAGE (Amer. Ind. wampum, "white"; peag, "bead"), the shell-money of the North American Indians. It consisted of beads made from shells, and, unlike the cowry-money of India and Africa (which was the shell in its natural state), required a considerable measure of skill to make. A wampum bead was of two colours, dark purple and white, of cylindrical form, averaging a quarter of an inch in length, and about half that in diameter. Its colour determined its value. The term wampum or wampum-peage was apparently applied to the beads only when strung or woven together. They were ground as smooth as glass and were strung together by a hole drilled through the centre. Dark wampum, which was made from a "hard shell" clam (Venus mercenaria), popularly called quahog or quahog, a corruption of the Indian name, was the most valuable. White wampum was made from the shell of whelks, either from the common whelk (Bussumandans) or from the purple whelk (Pyraul garda) and Pyraula carica. Wampum was employed most in New England, but it was common elsewhere. By the Dutch settlers of New York it was called seawen or seawen, and roeoke in Virginia, and perhaps farther south, for shell-money was also known in the Carolinas, but whether the roeoke of the Virginian Indians was made from the same species of shell as wampum is not clear. Cylindrical shell-beads similar to the wampum of the Atlantic coast Indians were made to some extent by the Indians of the west coast. This was manufactured from the Mytilus californianus, mussel which abounds there.

In the trading between whites and Indians, wampum so completely took the place of ordinary coin that its value was fixed by legal enactment, three to a penny and five shillings a fathom. The fathom was the name for a count, and the number of shells varied according to the accepted standard of exchange. Thus where six wampum went to the penny, the fathom consisted of 360 beads; but where four made a penny, as under the Massachusetts standard of 1640, then the fathom counted 240. The beads were at first worth more than five shillings per fathom, the price at which they passed current in 1643. A few years before the fathom had been worth nine or ten shillings. Connecticut received wampum for taxes in 1637 at four a penny. In 1640 Massachusetts adopted the Connecticut standard, "white to pass at four and bleuse at two a penny." There was no restriction on the manufacture of wampum, and it was made by the whites as well as the Indians. The market was soon flooded with carelessly made and inferior wampum, but it continued to be circulated in the remote districts of New England through the 17th century, and even into the beginning of the 18th. It was current with silver in Connecticut in 1704.

Wampum was also used for personal adornment, and belts were made by embroidering wampum upon strips of deerskin. These belts or scarves were symbols of authority and power and were surrendered on defeat in battle. Wampum also served a mnemonic use as a tribal history or record. "The belts that pass from one nation to another in all treaties, declarations and important transactions are very carefully preserved in the chiefs' cabins, and serve not only as a kind of record or history but as a public treasury. According to the Indian conception, these belts could tell by means of an interpreter the exact rule, property, and precepts by which the nation lived. If a belt was a present, or a reward, the three were the exclusive record. A strand of wampum, consisting of purple and white shell-beads or a belt woven with figures formed by beads of different colours, operated on the principle of associating a particular fact with a particular string or figure, thus giving a serial arrangement to the facts as well as fidelity to the memory. These strands and belts were the only visible records of the Iroquois, and they were the trained interpreters who could draw from their strings and figures the acts and intentions locked up in their remembrance" (Major Rogers, Account of the Iroquois, London, 1763).


WANA, a valley and frontier outpost of Waziristan in the North-West Frontier Province of India. It lies to the west of the Mahsud country and north of the Gomal and Chitral rivers, and is inhabited by the Waziri tribe. Lying on the border of Afghanistan it is conveniently placed for dominating Waziristan on the north and the Gomal Pass on the south, and occupies very much the same strategic position as the Zhob valley holds in Baluchistan. It forms the end of the chain of outposts extending from Quetta to Waziristan, and can be supported either from India by the Gomal Pass or from Quetta by the Zhob valley. In 1854, when the Indio-Afghan boundary commission was delimiting the Waziri border, the Mahsud Waziris, thinking their independence to be threatened, made a night attack on the camp of the commission at the Zhob Kundi, the Waziri frontier post of the same year, and the occupation of Wana by British troops. On the formation of the North-West Frontier Province in 1901 it was decided to replace the troops by militia, and Wana was handed over to them in 1904. It is now the headquarters of the political agency of Southern Waziristan.

WANAMAKER, JOHN (1838– ), American merchant, was born, of Palatine-Huguenot stock, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvanla, on the 17th of July 1838. He attended a public school in that city until he was fourteen, then became an errand boy for a book store, and was a retail clothing salesman from 1856 until 1861, when he established with Nathan Brown (who afterward became his brother-in-law) the clothing house of Wanamaker & Brown, in Philadelphia, the partnership continuing until the death of Brown in 1868. In 1869 Wanamaker founded the house of John Wanamaker & Company; and in 1875 bought the
Pennsylvania Railroad Company's freight depot at Thirteenth and Market streets, and in the following year opened it as a dry goods and clothing store, subsequently much enlarged. In September 1866 he acquired from Hilton, Hughes & Company the former New York store of A. T. Stewart, and thereafter greatly enlarged it (Durham, 1876); this, and the Philadelphia store, are among the largest department stores in the United States. Mr Wanamaker was postmaster-general in President Benjamin Harrison's cabinet in 1889-1893, and brought about the establishment of post-offices on ocean-going vessels. He early identified himself with religious work in Philadelphia; was the first paid secretary, in 1857-1861, of that city's Young Men's Christian Association, of which he was president in 1879-1883, and in 1883 founded, and thereafter served as superintendent of, the Bethany (Presbyterian) Sunday School, one of the largest in the world. He took an active part in the movement which resulted in the formation of the United States Christian Commission in 1861.

WANDERU (WANDEROO), the native name for the species of langur monkeys (Semnopithecus) inhabiting the island of Ceylon; but in India commonly misapplied to the lion-tailed macaque, Macacus silenus (see Primates).

WANDESDFOR, CHRISTOPHER (1592-1640), lord deputy of Ireland, was the son of Sir George Wandesford (1573-1612) of Kirklington, Yorkshire, and was born on the 24th of September 1592. Educated at Clare College, Cambridge, he entered the army in 1610. His commission as captain was due primarily to his friendship with Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford. Although at first hostile to Charles I., this being evidenced by the active part he took in the impeachment of Buckingham, Wandesford soon became a royalist partisan, and in 1633 he accompanied Wentworth to Ireland, where he was already master of the rolls. His services to his chief were fully recognized by the latter, whom in 1640 he succeeded as lord deputy, but he had only just begun to struggle with the difficulties of his new position when he died on the 3rd of December 1642.

His son Christopher (1628-1687), created a baronet in 1662, was the father of Sir Christopher Wandesford (d. 1707), who was created an Irish peer as Viscount Castlecomer in 1707, Castlecomer in Kilkenny having been acquired by his grandfather when in Ireland. Christopher, the 2nd viscount (d. 1719), was secretary-at-war in 1717-1718. In 1738 John, 5th viscount, was created Earl Wandesford, but his titles became extinct when he died in January 1784.


WANDIWASH, a town in the North Arcto district of Madras, India. Pop. (1901) 5971. It is notable as the scene of the victory of Sir Eyre Coote in 1760, the most important ever won by the British over the French in India.

WANDSEK, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Schleswig-Holstein, practically forming a populous suburb of Hamburg, with which it is connected by a railway and an electric tramway. Pop. (1905) 31,263.

Wandsworth, the largest part of which is best known as the parish of Battersea, is one of the older parts of London, and was inhabited by the people of the Thames valley, and identified with the poet Johann Heinrich Voss and of Matthias Claudius, who here issued (1771-1772) the Wandsea lover Boten. There is a monument to Claudius in the town. Its leading manufactures are spirits, tobacco, beer, leather and confectionery; other industries are machine building and gardening.

WANDSWORTH, a south-western metropolitan borough of London, England, bounded N. by the river Thames and Battersea, and E. by Lambeth, and extending S. and W. to the boundary of the county of London. Pop. (1901) 232,034. The name, which occurs in Domesday, indicates the position of the village on the river Wand, a small tributary of the Thames. Wandsworth is the largest in area of the metropolitan boroughs, including the districts of Putney by the river, part of Clapham in the north-east, Streatham in the south-east, Balham and Upper and Lower Tooting in the centre and south. These are mainly residential districts, and the borough is not thickly populated. Towards the west, along the Upper Richmond and Kingston roads, there is considerable open country, undulating and well wooded. It is to a great extent preserved in the public grounds of Putney Heath, which adjoins Wimbledon Common, outside the borough, on the north; and Richmond Park and Barnes Common, parts of which are in the borough. Other public grounds are parts of Wandsworth Common (193 acres) and Clapham Common, both extending into Battersea, Tooting Bec (147 acres) and Streatham Common (66 acres), and Wandsworth Park bordering the Thames. The borough is connected with Fulham across the Thames by Wandsworth and Putney bridges. The annual Oxford and Cambridge boat-race starts from above Putney Bridge, finishing at Mortlake; and the club-houses of the principal clubs on the Thames are all situated on the Putney shore. Putney Heath was formerly notorious as a resort of highwaymen and duellists. Among the institutions of Wandsworth are the Royal Hospital for Incurables, Putney; the Fountain and the Grove fever hospitals, Lower Tooting; the Clapham School of Art, Wandsworth Technical Institute; the Roman Catholic Training College for Women, West Hill; and Wandsworth Prison, Heathfield Road. The parliamentary borough of Wandsworth returns one member, but the municipal borough also includes part of the Clapham division of the parliamentary borough of Battersea and Clapham.

WANGANAI, the principal port on the west coast of North Island, New Zealand, in the Waiteara county, at the mouth of the Wanganai river, 133 m. by rail N. of Wellington. Pop. (1906) 8175. The town is laid out in rectangular blocks at the foot of low hills, from the summit of which (as in Queen's Gardens) a splendid panorama is seen, including the snow-clad Mount Ruapehu to the north-east. The river bar obstructs navigation, the depth not exceeding 18 ft., so that large vessels must lie outside. The district is agricultural and pastoral, and wool and grain are exported, as well as meat and dairy produce, for which there are large refrigerating works. The Wanganai Collegiate School (Church of England) is one of the largest boarding schools in Australasia. The district was the scene of conflicts with the natives in 1847, 1863 and 1868, and in the beautiful Mountoa gardens a monument commemorates the battle of that name (May 14th, 1864). The settlement was founded in 1842.

WANGARA, the Hausa name for the Mandingo (q.v.), a people of West Africa, used also as the name of districts in the western and central Sudan. The Wangara are also known as Wangara, Wongara, Ungara, Wankore and Wako. According to Idrisi (writing in the 12th century), the Wangara country was renowned for the quantity and the quality of the gold which it produces. The country formed an island about 300 m. long by 150 in breadth, which the Nile (i.e. Niger) surrounded on all sides and at all seasons. This description corresponds fairly accurately with the tract of country between the Niger and its tributary the Bani. Idrisi's account of the annual emigration to the desert, the rise of the Niger, and its fall, is in some details correct, but in others the facts. He states that on the fall of the waters natives from all parts of the Sudan assembled to gather the gold which the subsidizing waters left behind. In the closing years of the 18th and the opening years of the 19th century the discoveries of Horinemann, Mungo Park and others revived the stories of Wangara and its richness in gold. Geographers of that period (e.g. Major Rennell) shifted the Wangara country far to the east and confused Idrisi's description with accounts which probably referred to Lake Chad. Gradually, however, as knowledge increased, the Wangara territory was again moved westward and was located within the Niger bend. The name has now practically disappeared from the maps save that a town in the hinterland of Dahomey is named Wangara (French spelling Ouangara). Idrisi's account as to the richness in gold of the upper Niger regions has basis in fact; though the gold brought
in considerable quantities to the European trading stations on the Gambia and Senegal in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries appears to have come largely from Bambuk.

WANGARATTA, a town of Victoria, Australia, in the counties of Moira, Delatite and Bogong, at the junction of the Ovens and King rivers, in the north by rail N.E. of Melbourne. Pop. (1901) 2621. It is a prosperous little town in an agricultural district and is the see of an Anglican bishop. It has numerous industries, including flour-milling, tanning, flemmorying, brewing, coach-building, bacon-curing, and bicycle and butter making. Important stock sales are held fortnightly, and there is an annual agricultural exhibition.

WANSTEAD, an urban district in the Romford parliamentary division of Essex, England, forming a residential suburb of London, on a branch of the Great Eastern railway, 8 m. E. of London by train via the Eastern Counties Railway. Pop. (1881) 9179. Wanstead Park, 184 acres in extent, was opened in 1882. Northward extend the broken fragments of Epping Forest. Wanstead Flats, adjoining the Park, form another open ground. At Lake House Thomas Hood wrote the novel 'Tynney Hall.' At Wanstead Park the parish church is the Infant Orphan Asylum, founded in 1827, and the Royal Merchant Seamen's Orphan Asylum, established in London in 1817 and refounded here in 1861. In Wanstead Park is Eagle Pond or lake, 10 acres in extent. It is mentioned in Domesday, and the name is considered by some to be derived from Woden's stead or place, indicating a spot dedicated to the worship of Woden. It belonged before the time of Edward the Confessor to the monks of St Peter's, Westminster, and afterwards to the bishop of London, of whom it was held at the time of the Domesday Survey by Ralph, Fitz Brien. In the reign of Henry VIII. it came into the possession of the crown, and in 1540 it was bestowed by Edward VI. on Lord Rich; whose son sold it in 1577 to Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester. The original manor house was rebuilt by Lord Chancellor Rich, who was here visited by Queen Elizabeth in 1567, and for her entertainment Sir Philip Sidney wrote a dramatic interlude which was played before the queen at Wanstead garden, and is printed at the end of the 'Arcadia.' Sir Richard Child, afterwards earl of Tynley, built the splendid mansion of Wanstead House in 1715 (demolished in 1822), in which the prince of Condé and others of the Bourbon family resided during the reign of the first Napoleon.

WANTAGE, a market town in the Abingdon parliamentary division of Berkshire, England. Pop. of urban district (1901), 3786. The town, in a basin; White Horse Hill, a chalk hollow at the foot of the steep hills which border the Vale on the south, 2 m. S. of Wantage Road station on the Great Western railway, with which a steam tramway connects it. The church of St Peter and St Paul is cruciform, and as a whole Perpendicular in appearance, but retains a nave arcade and ornate tower-arches of the Early English period. The font is a fine specimen of the same style; and there is beautiful woodwork in the chancel. An altar-tomb in alabaster of 1361, and a fine brass of 1414, commemorate members of the family of Fitzwarren. There are other monuments and tombs in 1564 and 1587. The old building of the grammar school preserves a Norman door from another church, which formerly stood in the same churchyard with St Peter's. In the broad market-place is a great statue of King Alfred, executed by Count Gleichen and unveiled in 1877; for Wantage is famous as the birthplace of the king in 849. The town has a large agricultural trade and ironworks.

The title of Baron Wantage of Lockinge was taken in 1885 by Sir Robert Loyd-Lindsay (b. 1832) on his elevation to the peerage. He was the son of General James Lindsay of Balcarres, but took the additional surname of Loyd in 1858 on marrying the heiress of Lord Ovington. He is succeeded by his son; he fought with his regiment the Scots Fusilier Guards in the Crimea and won the V.C., retiring as lieutenant-colonel. He was M.P. for Berks from 1865 to 1885, and was financial secretary to the War Office in 1877-1880. The title became extinct at his death in 1900.

WAPENSHAW (M.E. for "weapon-show"), a periodical muster or review of troops formerly held in every district in Scotland, the object having been to satisfy the military chiefs that the arms of their retainers were in good condition. Scott's 'Old Mortality' gives a description of one. The name is still given to the large meetings held annually at Aberdeen and other places in Scotland.

WAPENTAKE, formerly the principal administrative division of the counties of York, Lincoln, Leicester, Nottingham, Derby and Rutland, corresponding to the hundred in the southern counties of England. In many cases, however, ancient wapentakes are now called hundreds. North of the Tees, Sadbergh in Durham is the only district which was called a wapentake, and the rest of the ancient administrative divisions of the three northern counties were called wapentakes. The word wapentake seems to have been first applied to the periodical meetings of the magnates of a district; and, if we may believe the 12th century compilation known as the 'Leges Edwardi,' it took its name from the custom in accordance with which they touched the spear of their newly-appointed magistrate with their own spears and so confirmed his appointment. Probably it was also usual for them to signify their approval of a proposal by the clash of their arms, as was the practice among the Scandinavian peoples. Wapentakes are not found outside the parts of England which were settled by the Danes. They varied in size in different districts; those of Yorkshire, for instance, being very much larger than those in Lincolnshire. Wapentake had its own court, which had the same jurisdiction as the hundred courts of the southern counties. In some cases, however, a group of wapentakes had a single court. It should be noticed that the court was styled 'wapentagiwm' simply, and not curia wapentagiwm.

See Sir Henry Ellis, General Introduction to Domesday Book; W. W. Skeat, Etymological English Dictionary; W. Stubbs, Constitutional History; and H. M. Chadwick, Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions (1905).

WAPPERS, EGIDE CHARLES GUSTAVE, BARON (1803-1874). Belgian painter, was born at Antwerp on the 23rd of August 1803. After studying at the Antwerp Academy he went to Paris in 1826. The Romantic movement was then astir in France, and in that vehement struggle towards a new ideal artists and political men were thrown together. Wappers was the first Belgian artist to take advantage of this state of affairs, and his first exhibited picture, "The Devotion of the Burgomaster of Leiden," appearing at the appropriate moment, had a marvellous success in the Brussels Salon of 1830. The picture, although political, was in fact a remarkable work, which revolutionized the taste of Flemish painters. Wappers was invited to the court of Brussels, and was favoured with commissions. In 1832 the city of Antwerp appointed him professor of painting, and his triumph was complete when he exhibited at the Antwerp Salon of 1834 his masterpiece "An Episode of the Belgian Revolution of 1830" (Brussels Gallery). He was subsequently appointed painter to the king of the Belgians, and at the death of Mathieu van Brée he was made director of the Antwerp Academy. Of his very numerous works we may name "Christ Entombed," "Charles I. taking leave of his Children," "Charles IX.," "Camoëns," "Peter the Great at Saardam," and "Boccaccio at the Court of Joanna of Naples." Louis Philippe gave him a commission to paint a large picture for the gallery at Versailles, "The Defence of Rhodes by the Knights of St John of Jerusalem," a work finished in 1844, when he received from the king the Belgians the title of baron. After retiring from the post of director of the Antwerp Academy, he settled in 1853 in Paris, where he died on the 6th of December 1874.


WAQIDIB (Abū 'Abdallah Mahommed ibn 'Umar al-Waqildi (742-823), Arabian historian, was born at Medina, where he became a corn-dealer but was compelled to flee from his creditors (owing largely to his generosity) to Bagdad. Here the Barmecide vizier Yahyā b. Khālid (see BARMECIDES) gave him means and
made him cadí in the western district of the city. In 819 he was transferred to Rosafa (Rusafa) on the east side. His greatest work is the Kitab ul-Maghasí, or history of Mahomet's campaigns.

The first third of the Kitab ul-Maghasí (one leaf missing) was published by A. von Kremer from a Damascus MS. (Calcutta, 1856). Supplementing this work the British Museum MS., containing the first half, all but one leaf. J. Wellhausen published an abridged German translation from another British Museum MS., under the title Muhammad in Medina (Berlin, 1882), probably the only safe guide in the time of the Crusades to incite the Moslems against the Christians, several works on the conquests of Islam. One of the best known is the Futih ud-Durr, printed in Venice, 1854-55, and also in English translation (Leiden, 1900), holds that this work is founded on that of Abu Hudhafa ul-Bukhari, which in turn is an edition of the real Futuh.

Significant is the edition of the "Warr." in the J. W. ROYAL LIBRARY, 1789.

WAR (O. Eng. warre, Fr. guerre, of Teutonic origin; cf. O.H.G. warran, to confound), the armed conflict of states, in which each seeks to impose its will upon the other by force. War is the opposite of Peace (q.v.), and is the subject of the military art. In separate sections below the general principles of the art of war are discussed, and the laws which have gradually become accepted among civilized peoples for the regulation of its condition. The details concerning the history of individual wars, and the various weapons and instruments of war, are given in separate articles.

The Navy, Conscription, Strategy, Tactics, Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, Fortification, Coast Defence, Officers, Staff, Orders, Supply and Transport, Uniforms, Arms and Armours, Guns, Rifles, Pistols, Sword, Lance, Ordnance, Machine Guns, Submarine Mines, Torpedo, &c. The important wars are dealt with under the names commonly given to them: e.g., American Civil War, American War of Independence, American War of 1812, Crimean War, Dutch Wars, Franco-German War, French Revolutionary Wars, Great Rebellion, Greek War of Independence, Italian Wars, Napoleonic Campaigns, Peloponnesian War, Peninsular War, Russian Wars, Russo-Japanese War, Russo-Turkish Wars, Servo-Bulgarian War, Seven Weeks' War, Seven Years' War, Spanish-American War, Spanish Succession War, Thirty Years' War. Important campaigns and battles are also separately treated (e.g., Waterloo, Trafalgar, Shenandoah Valley, Wilderness, Metz, &c.).

I. General Principles

It is not easy to determine whether industrial progress, improved organization, the spread of education or mechanical inventions have wrought the greater change in the military art. Modern conditions. War is first and foremost a matter of movement; and as such it has been considerably affected by the multiplication of good roads, the introduction of steam transport, and by the ease with which draught animals can be collected. In the second place, war is a matter of supply; and the large area of cultivation, the increase of live-stock, the vast trade in provisions, pouring the food-stuffs of one continent into another, have done much to lighten the inevitable difficulties of a campaign. In the third place, war is a matter of destruction; and while the weapons of armies have become more perfect and more durable, the modern substitutes for gunpowder have added largely to their destructive capacity. Fourthly, war is not merely a blind struggle between mobs of individuals, without guidance or coherence, but a conflict of well-organized masses, moving with a view to intelligent co-operation, acting under the impulse of a single will and directed against a definite objective. These masses, however, are seldom so closely concentrated that the impulse which sets them in motion can be promptly and easily communicated to each, nor can the right objective be selected without some knowledge of the enemy's strength and dispositions. Means of intercommunication, therefore, as well as methods of observation, are of great importance; and with the telegraph, the telephone, visual signalling, balloons, airships and improved field-glasses, the armies of to-day, so far as regards the maintenance of connexion between different bodies of troops, and the diffusion, if not the acquiring, of information, are at a great advantage compared with those of the middle of the 19th century.

War, then, in some respects has been made much simpler. Armies are easier to move, to feed and to maintain. But in other respects this very simplicity has made the conduct of a campaign more difficult. Not only is the weapon wielded by the general less clumsy and more deadly than heretofore, less fragile and better balanced, but, it acts with greater rapidity and has a far wider scope. In a strong and skillful hand it may be irresistible; in the grasp of a novice it is worse than useless. In former times, when war was a much slower process, and armies were less highly trained, mistakes at the outset were not necessarily fatal. Under modern conditions, the inexperienced commander will not be granted time in which to correct his deficiencies and give himself and his troops the needful practice. The idea of forging generals and soldiers under the hammer of war disappeared with the advent of "the nation in arms." Military organization has become a science, studied both by statesmen and soldiers. The lessons of history have not been neglected. Previous to 1870, in one kingdom only was it recognized that intellect and education play a more prominent part in war than stamina and courage. Taught by the disasters of 1866, Prussia set herself to discover the surest means of escaping the value of an educated army. The shrewdness of her sons understood the task. The nature of war was analysed until the secrets of success and failure were laid bare; and on these investigations a system of organization and of training was built up which, not only from a military, but from a political, and even an economical point of view, is the most striking product of the 19th century. The keynote of this system is that the best brains in the state shall be at the service of the war lord. None, therefore, but thoroughly competent soldiers are entrusted with the responsibility of command; and the education of the officer is as thorough as the system of military education now practised by the lawyer, the diplomatist and the doctor. In all ages the power of intellect has asserted itself in war. It was not courage and strategy that made Hannibal, Alexander and Caesar the greatest names of antiquity. Napoleon, Wellington and the Archduke Charles were certainly the best-educated soldiers of their time; while Lee, Jackson and Sherman probably knew more of war, before they made it, than any one else in the United States. But it was not until 1866 and 1870 that the preponderating influence of the trained mind was made manifest. Other wars had shown the value of an educated general; these showed the value of an educated army. It is true that Moltke, in mental power and in knowledge, was in no wise inferior to the great captains who preceded him; but the remarkable point of his campaigns is that so many capable generals had never before been gathered together under one flag. No campaigns have been submitted to such searching criticism. Never have mistakes been more sedulously sought for or more frankly exposed. And yet, compared with the mistakes of other campaigns, even with that of 1815, where hardly a superior officer on either side had not seen more battles than Moltke and his comrades had seen field-days, they were astonishingly few. It is not to be denied that the losses of Prussia were hardly worthy of her steel. Yet it may be doubted whether either Austria or France ever put two finer armies into the field than the army of Bohemia in 1866 and the army of the Rhine in 1870. Even their generals of divisions and brigades had more actual experience than those who led the German army corps. Compared with the German rank and file, a great part of their non-commissioned officers and men were veterans, and veterans who had seen much service. Their chief officers were practically familiar with the methods of moving, supplying and manoeuvring large masses of troops; their marshals were gallant and successful soldiers. And yet the history of modern warfare records no defeats so swift and so complete as those of Königgrätz and Sedan. The great host of Austria was shattered to fragments in seven weeks; the French Imperial army was destroyed in seven weeks and three days; and to all intent and purpose the resistance they had offered was not much more effective than that of a respectable militia. But both the Austrian and the French armies were organized and trained under the old system. Courage, experience and professional pride they possessed in abundance. Man for man, in all virile qualities, neither officers nor men were inferior to
their foes. But one thing their generals lacked, and that was education for war. Strategy was almost a sealed book to them; organization a matter of secondary importance. It was no part of their duty, they declared, to train the judgment of their subordinates; they were soldiers, and not pedagogues. Knowledge of foreign armies and their methods they considered useless; and of war prepared and conducted on "business principles" they had never even dreamed of every word of their profession.

The popular idea that war is a mere matter of brute force, redeemed only by valour and discipline, is responsible for a greater evil than the complacency of the amateur. It blinds both the people and its representatives to their bounden duties. War is something more than a mere outgrowth of politics. It is a political act, initiated and controlled by the government, and it is an act of which the issues are far more momentous than any other. No branch of political science requires more careful study. It is not pretended that if military history were thoroughly studied all statesmen would become Moltkes, or that every citizen would be competent to set squadrons in the field. War is above all a practical art, and the application of theory to practice is not to be taught at a university or to be learned by those who have never rubbed shoulders with the men in the ranks. But if war were more generally and more thoroughly studied, the importance of organization, of training, of education and of readiness would be more generally appreciated; abuses would no longer be regarded with lazy tolerance; efficiency would be something more than a political catchword; and soldiers would be given ample opportunities of becoming assistants of every word of their profession.

Nor is this all. A nation that understood something about war would hardly suffer the fantastic tricks which have been played so often by the best-meaning statesmen. And statesmen themselves would realize that when war is about their interference is worse than useless; that preparation for defence, whether by the multiplication of roads, the construction of railways, of arsenals, dockyards, fortresses, is not the smallest of their duties; and lastly, that so far as possible diplomacy and strategy should keep step. Each one of these is of far greater importance than the past. In the wars of the 18th century, English cabinets and Dutch deputies could direct strategic operations without bringing ruin on their respective countries. The armies of Austria in 1792-1795, controlled as they were by the Aulic Councils, were more formidable in the field than those of the French Republic. In the campaigns of 1854 and 1859 the plans of Newcastle and Napoleon III. worked out to a successful issue; and if Lincoln and Stanton, his Secretary of War, impelled the Union in 1862, they saw the downfall of the Southern Confederacy in 1865. But in every case amateur was pitted against amateur. The Dutch had the support of planning or approving a sound plan of campaign than Louis XIV. The Aulic Council was not more of a marplot than the Committee of Public Safety. Newcastle was not a worse strategist than the tsar Nicholas I. Napoleon III. and his advisers were quite a match for the courtier generals at Vienna; while Lincoln and Stanton were not much more ignorant than Jefferson Davis. The amateur, however, can no longer expect the good fortune to be pitted against foes of a capacity no higher than his own. The professional analytical armies will be directed by soldiers of experience whose training for war has been incessant, and who will have at their command troops in the highest state of efficiency and preparation. It is not difficult to imagine, under such conditions, with what condescension punishment mistakes will be visited. Napoleon III. in 1859 committed as many blunders as he did in 1870. But the Austrians had no Moltke to direct them; their army corps were commanded by men who knew less of generalship than a Prussian major, and their armament was inferior. Had they been the Austrians of to-day, it is probable that the French and the allies would have been utterly defeated. And to come to more recent campaigns, while the Spaniards at Santiago had been Germans or French, the invasion would have ended in disastrous failure, it is impossible to doubt that had the Boers of 1899 possessed a staff of trained strategists, they would have shaken the British Empire to its foundations. The true test of direction of war is the number of mistakes. If they were numerous, although the enemy may not have been skilful enough to take advantage of them, the outlook for the future under the same direction, but against a more practised enemy, is anything but bright.

As before the provision for defence, history supplies us with numerous illustrations. The most conspicuous, perhaps, is the elaborate series of fortifications which were constructed by Vauban for the defence of France; and there can be no question that Louis XIV., in erecting this mighty barrier against invasion, gave proof of statesmanlike foresight of no mean order. An instance less familiar, perhaps, but even more creditable to the brain which conceived it, was Wellington's preparation of Portugal in 1809-1811. Not only did the impregnable stronghold of Torres Vedras, covering Lisbon, and securing for the sea-power an open door to the continent of Europe, rise as if by magic from the earth, but the whole theatre of war was so dealt with that the defending army could operate wherever opportunity might offer. No less than twenty supply depots were established on different lines of the advance. Fortifications protected the principal magazines. Bridges were restored and roads improved. Waterways were opened up, and flotillas organized; and three auxiliary bases were formed on the shores of the Atlantic. Again, the famous "quadrilaterals" of Lombardy and Rumelia have more than fulfilled the purpose for which they were built; and both Austria and Turkey owe much to the fortresses which so long protected their vulnerable points. Nor has the neglect of preparation failed to exert a powerful effect. Moltke has told us that the railway system of Germany before 1870 had been developed without regard to strategic considerations. Yet the fact remains that it was far better adapted both for offence and defence than those of Austria and France; and, at the same time, it can hardly be denied that the unprovided state of the great French fortresses exercised an evil influence on French strategy. Both Metz and Strasbourg were so far from forming strong points of manoeuvres, and thus aiding the operations of the field armies, that they required those armies for their protection; and the retreat on Metz, which removed Bazaine's army from the direct road to Paris and placed it out of touch with its supports, was mainly due to the unfinished outworks and deficient armament of the virgin city. Since 1870 it has been recognized that preparation of the theatre of war is one of the first duties of a government. Every frontier of continental Europe is covered by a chain of entrenched camps. The great arsenals are almost fortified and strongly structured; and both Austrians and Turks have become able to say to new railways as to old, that the lines of communication, whether by water or by land, are adequately protected from all hostile enterprises.

We now come to the importance of close concert between strategy and diplomacy. On the continent of Europe they can easily keep pace, for the theatre of war is always within easy reach. But when the ocean intervenes, and between two hostile states it is undoubtedly difficult to time an ultimatum so that a sufficient armed force shall be at hand to enforce it, and to declare beforehand that it is impossible to negotiate in good faith at the point where the ultimatum is to be accepted, it is not even theoretically possible. The expedition to Copenhagen in 1807, when the British ultimatum was presented by an army of 37,000 men carried on 300 transports, would appear to traverse this statement. But at the beginning of the 20th century an army and a fleet of such magnitude could neither be assembled nor despatched without the whole world being cognizant. It is thus perfectly true that an appreciable period of time must elapse between the breaking off of negotiations and the appearance on the scene of an invading army. Events may march so fast that the statesman's hand may be forced before the army has embarked. But because a powerful blow cannot at once be struck, it by no means follows that the delivery or the receipt of an ultimatum should at once produce a dangerous situation. Dewey's brilliant victory at Manila lost
the greater part of its effect because the United States Government was unable to follow up the blow by landing a sufficient force. Exactly the same thing occurred in Egypt in 1882. The only results of the bombardment of Alexandria were the destruction of the city, the massacre of the Christian inhabitants, the encouragement of the rebels, who, when the ships drew off, came to the natural conclusion that Great Britain was powerless on land. Again, in 1899 the invading Boers found the fortresses unfortified and their march opposed by an inadequate force. It is essential, therefore, that when the hostile acclamation, despised and scorned, the most careful precautions should be taken to ward off the chance of an initial disaster. And such precautions are always possible. It is hardly conceivable, for instance, that a great maritime power, with Cyprus as a place d'armes, could not have placed enough transports behind the fleet to hold a sufficient garrison for Alexandria, and thus have saved the city from destruction. Nor in the case of a distant province being threatened is there the smallest reason that the garrison of the province should be exposed to the risk of a reverse before it is reinforced. It may even be necessary to abandon it altogether to secure strong places, to secure the lines of communication, to establish ample magazines, to organize local forces, to assemble a fleet of transports, and to keep a large body of troops ready to embark at a moment's notice. But there is no reason, except expense, that all this should not be done directly it becomes clear that war is probable, and that it should not be done without attracting public attention. In this way strategy may easily keep pace with diplomacy; and all that is wanted is the exercise of ordinary foresight, a careful study of the theatre of war, a knowledge of the enemy's forces and a resolute determination, despite some temporary inconvenience and the outcry of a thoughtless public, to give the enemy no chance of claiming first blood. The Franco-German War supplies a striking example. Moltke's original intention was to assemble the German armies on the western frontier. The French, he thought, inferior in numbers and but half prepared, would probably assemble as far back as the Moselle. But, as so often happens in war, the enemy did what he was least expected to do. Hastily leaving their garrisons, the French regiments rushed forward to the Saar. The excitement in Germany was great; and even soldiers of reputations abandoned her, to secure the mobilization of the army was still unfinished, demanded that such troops as were available should be hurried forward to protect the rich provinces which lie between the Saar and Rhine. But the chief of the staff became as deaf as he was silent. Not a single company was despatched to reinforce the slender garrisons of the frontier towns; and those garrisons were ordered to retire, destroying railways and removing rolling-stock, directly the enemy should cross the boundary. Moltke's foresight had embraced every possible contingency. The action of the French, improbable as it was deemed, had still been provided against; and, in accordance with time-tables drawn up long beforehand, the German army was disentrenched on the Rhine instead of on the Saar. Ninety miles of German territory were thus laid open to the enemy; but the temporary surrender of the border provinces, in the opinion of the great strategist, was a very minor evil compared with the disasters, military and political, that would have resulted from an attempt to hold them.

It is hardly necessary to observe that no civilian minister, however deeply he might have studied the art of war, could be expected to solve for himself the strategical problems which came before him. In default of practical knowledge, it would be as impossible for him to decide where garrisons should be stationed, what fortifications were necessary, what roads should be constructed, or how the lines of communication should be protected, as to frame a plan of campaign for the invasion of a hostile state. His foresight, his prevision of the accidents inevitable in war, would necessarily be far inferior to those of men who had spent their lives in applying strategical principles to concrete cases; and it is exceedingly unlikely that he would be as prolific of strategical expediens as those familiar with their employment. Nevertheless, a minister of war cannot divest himself of his responsibility for the conduct of military operations. In the first place, he is directly responsible that plans of campaign to meet every possible contingency are worked out in time of peace. In the second place, he is directly responsible that the advice on which he acts should be the best procurable. It is essential, therefore, that he should be capable of forming an independent opinion on the merits of the military projects which may be tendered to him, and that his answers to the ministers of war is the result of his own examination and not the work of a bureau.

The French Directory had sufficient sense to accept Napoleon's project for the campaign of Italy in 1796. In the third place, strategy cannot move altogether untrammelled by politics and finance. But political and financial considerations may not present themselves in quite the same light to the soldier as to the statesman, and the latter is bound to make certain that they have received due attention. If, however, modifications are necessary, they should be made before the plan of campaign is finally approved; and in any case the purely military considerations should be most carefully weighed. It should be remembered that an unfavourable political situation is best redeemed by a decisive victory, while a reverse will do more to shake confidence in the Government than even the temporary surrender of some portion of the national domains. “Be sure before striking” and Remerci pour mieux sauver are both admirable maxims; but their practical application requires a thorough appreciation of the true principles of war, and a very large degree of moral courage, both in the soldier who suggests and in the statesman who approves. If, however, the soldier and the statesman are supported by an enlightened public, sufficiently acquainted with war to realize that patience is to be preferred to precipitation, that retreat, though inglorious, is not necessarily humiliating, their task is very considerably lightened. Nothing is more significant than a comparison between the Paris press in 1870 and the American Confederate press in 1864. In the one case, even after the disastrous results of the first encounters had proved the superior strength and readiness of the enemy, the French people, with all the heat of presumptuous ignorance, cried out for more battles, for an immediate offensive, for a desperate defence of the frontier provinces. So fierce was their clamour that both the generals and the government hesitated, until it was too late, to advise the retreat of Bazaine's army; and when that army had been cut off at Metz, the pressure of public opinion was so great that the last reserve of France was despatched to Sedan on one of the maddest enterprises ever undertaken by a civilized state. In 1864, on the other hand, while Lee in Virginia and Johnston in the west were retreating from position to position, and the huge hosts of the Union were gradually converging on the very heart of the Confederacy, the Southern press, aware that every backward step made the Federal task more difficult, had nothing but praise for the caution which controlled the movements of their armies. But the Southern press, in three crowded years of conflict, had learned something of war. In 1866 and 1870 the German press was so carefully muzzled that even had there been occasion it could have done nothing to prejudice public opinion. Thus both the sovereign and the generals were backed by the popular support which they so richly merited; and it may be remarked that the relations between the army and the government were characterized by a harmony which has been seldom seen. The old king, in his dual capacity as head of the state and commander-in-chief, had the last word to say, not only in the selection of the superior officers, but in approving every important operation. With an adviser like Moltke at his elbow, it might appear that these were mere matters of form. Moltke, however, assures us that the king was by no means a figurehead. Although most careful not to assert his authority in a way that would embarrass his chief of staff, and always ready to yield, on his own judgment.
to sound reasons, he expressed, nevertheless, a perfectly independent opinion on every proposal placed before him, and on very many occasions made most useful suggestions. And at the same time, while systematically refraining from all interference after military operations had once begun, he never permitted military considerations to override the demands of policy. In 1866, when it was manifestly of the first importance, and a military point of view, that the Prussian army strain was concentrated in a position which would enable it to cross the border immediately war was declared, the political situation was so strained that it was even more important to prevent the enemy from setting foot at any single point on Prussian territory. The army, in consequence, was dispersed instead of being concentrated, and the ultimate offensive became a difficult and hazardous operation. It is true that the king was an able and experienced soldier. Nevertheless, the wise restraint he displayed in the conduct of great campaigns, as well as the skill with which he adjusted conflicting factors, are an admirable example of judicious statesmanship.

The duration of a campaign is largely affected by the deadly properties of modern firearms. It is true that the losses in battle are relatively less that in the days of Brown Bess and the smooth-bore cannon, and almost insignificant when compared with the fearful carnage wrought by sword and spear. The reason is simple. A battlefield in the old days, except at close quarters, was a comparatively safe locality, and the greater part of the troops engaged were seldom exposed to a steady fire from either a hot and continuous fire. To-day death has a far wider range, and the strain on the nerves is consequently far more severe. Demoralization, therefore, sets in at an earlier period, and it is more complete. When troops once realize their inferiority, they can no longer be depended on. It is not the losses they have actually suffered, but those that they expect to suffer, that affect them. Unless discipline and national spirit are of superior quality, unless the soldier is animated by something higher than the mere habit of mechanical obedience, panic, shrieking and wholesale surrender will be the ordinary features of a campaign. These phenomena made themselves apparent, though in a less degree, as long ago as the American Civil War, when the weapon of the infantry was the muzzle-loading rifle, firing at most two rounds a minute, and when the projectiles of the artillery were hardly more destructive than the stone shot of Mons Meg. With the magazine rifle, machine guns, shrapnel and high explosives they have become more pronounced than ever at Vionville or Plevna. "The retreat of the 38th (Prussian) Brigade," writes Captain Hoenig, "an eye-witness of the former battle, 1 forms the most awful drama of the great war. It had lost 55 per cent of its strength, and the proportion of killed to wounded was as 3 to 4. Strong men collapsed inanimately... I saw men cry like children, others fell prone without a sound; in most the need of water thrust forth all other instincts; the body demanded its rights. 'Water, water,' was the only intelligible cry that broke from those moving phantoms. The enemy's lead poured like hail upon the wretched remnant of the brigade; yet they moved only slowly to the rear, their head bent in utter weariness; their features distorted under the thick dust that had got into their hair and clothes, so that they were beyond endurance. The soldier was no longer a receptive being; he was oblivious of everything, great or small. His comrades or his superiors he no longer recognized; and yet he was the same man who but a short time before had marched across the battlefield shouting his marching chorus. A few active squadrons, and not a man would have escaped! Only he who had seen men in such circumstances, and observed their bearing, knows the dreadful imprint that their features leave upon the memory. Madness is there, the madness that arises from bodily exhaustion combined with the most abject terror. I do not shrink," he adds, "from confessing that the fire of Mars-la-Tour affected my nerves for months."

If such are the results of ill-success, a whole army might be reduced to the condition of the 38th Brigade in the first month of the campaign, and it is thus perfectly clear that some small mistake in conduct, some trifling deficiency in preparation, an ill-conceived order or a few hours' delay in bringing up a reinforcement may have the most terrible consequences.

The importance, nay the necessity, that the people, as a governing body, should keep as watchful an eye on its armed forces as on diplomacy or legislation is fully realized. Naturally enough, only by those who instinctively feel the value of self-defence, by reason of the configuration of their fronts or their political situation, are strongly developed. Yet even to maritime empires, to Great Britain or indeed to the United States, an efficient army is of the first necessity. Their land frontiers are vulnerable. They may have to deal with rebellion, and a navy is not all-powerful, even for the defence of coasts and commerce. It can protect, but it cannot destroy. Without the help of an army, it can neither complete the ruin of the enemy's fleet nor prevent its resuscitation. Without the help of an army it can hardly force a hostile power to ask for terms. Exhaustion is the object of its warfare; but exhaustion, unless accelerated by crushing blows, is an exceedingly slow process.

In the spring of 1861 the blockade was established in American waters along the coasts of the Southern Confederacy, and maintained with increasing stringency from month to month. Yet it was not till the spring of 1865 that the colours of the Union floated from the capitol of Richmond, and it was the army which placed them there. A state, then, which should rely for naval defence on mere geography; it is one long illustration. Captain Mahan points out that there are always dominant positions, outside the frontiers of a maritime state, which, in the interests of commerce, as well as of supremacy at sea, should never be allowed to pass into the possession of a powerful neighbour. Great Britain, always dependent for her prosperity on narrow seas, has long been familiar with the importance of the positions that command these waterways. In one respect at least her policy has been consistent. She has spared no effort to secure such positions for herself, or, if that had been impracticable, at least to draw the teeth. The position of the Ionian Islands, Malta, Egypt, Cyprus are conspicuous instances; but above all stands Antwerp. In perhaps the most original passage of Alison's monumental work the constant influence of Antwerp on the destinies of the United Kingdom is vividly portrayed. "Nature has framed the Scheldt to be the rival of the Thames. Flowing through a country excelling even the midland counties of England in wealth and resources, adjoining cities equal to any in Europe in arts and commerce; the artery at once of Flanders and Holland, of Brabant and Luxembourg, it is fitted to be the great organ of communication between the fertile fields and rich manufacturing towns of the Low Countries and other maritime states of the world." Antwerp, moreover, the key of the great estuary, is eminently adapted for the establishment of a vast naval arsenal, such as it became under Philip II. of
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Spain and again under the first Napoleon. "It is the point," continues the historian, "from which in every age the independence of these kingdoms has been seriously menaced. Sensible of her danger, it had been the fixed policy of Great Britain for centuries to prevent this formidable outwork from falling into the hands of her enemies, and the best days of her history are chiefly occupied with the struggle to ward off such a disaster."

In ascribing, however, every great war in which Great Britain has been engaged to this cause alone, he has gone too far. The security of India has been a motive of equal strength. Nevertheless, it was to protect Antwerp from the French that Charles II. sided with the Dutch in 1670; that Anne declared war on Louis XIV. in 1704; that Chatham supported Prussia in 1742; that Pitt, fifty years later, took up arms against the Revolution. The trophies of the British army in the great war with France were characteristic of the amphibious power. The troops took more battleships than colours, and almost as many naval arsenal as land fortresses. Many were the blows they struck at the maritime strength of France and her allies; but had the expedition which landed on the Isle of Walcheren in 1809 been as vigorously conducted as it was wisely conceived, it would have hit Napoleon far harder than even the seizure of the Danish fleet at Copenhagen. The great dockyard that the emperor had constructed on the Scheldt held the nucleus of a powerful fleet. Eight line-of-battle ships and ten frigates lay in mid-channel. Twenty vessels of different classes were on the slips, and in the magazines and storehouses had been accumulated sufficient material to equip all these and twenty more. The destruction of Antwerp — and for a full week it was at Lord Chatham's mercy — would have freed scores of British frigates to protect British commerce; Wellington, in his great campaign of 1813, could not have had to complain that, for the first time, the communication by sea of a British army was insecure; the Americans, in the war which broke out in 1812, would have been more vigorously opposed; and Napoleon, who, while Antwerp was his, never altogether abandoned hope of overmastering Great Britain on her own element, might, on his own confession, have relinquished the useless struggle with the great sea power. The expedition failed, and failed disastrously. But for all that, fulfilling as it did the great maxim that the naval strength of the enemy should be the first objective of the forces of the maritime power, both by land and sea, it was a strategical stroke of the highest order.

The predominant part played by the army under Wellington in Spain and Belgium has tended to obscure the principle that governed its employment in the war of 1793-1815. The army, in the opinion of the country, was first and foremost the auxiliary of the fleet; and only when the naval strength of the enemy had been destroyed was it used in the ordinary manner as, for instance, in the invasion of the hostile territory and in lending aid to the forces of confederate powers. Events proved that these principles were absolutely sound. It was not in the narrow seas alone that the army rendered good service to the navy. Depriving France of her colonies, occupying her ports in foreign waters, cutting her from commanding posts along the trade routes, it contributed not only to her exhaustion, but to the protection of British commerce and to the permanent establishment of maritime supremacy. Few of these operations are of sufficient magnitude to attract much notice from the ordinary historian, yet it is impossible to overrate their effect. To the possession of the dominant positions that were captured by the army, Great Britain, in no small degree, is indebted for the present security of her vast dominions. The keynote of the fierce struggle with the French Empire was the possession of India. Before he became First Consul, Napoleon had realized that India was the throne of Asia; that whoever should sit on that throne, master of the commerce of the East, of the richest and most natural market for the products of the West, and of the hardest and most enlightened tribe, would be master of more than half the globe. But his prescience was not sure than the instinct of the British people. Vague and shadowy indeed were their dreams of empire, yet the presentiment of future greatness, based on the foothold they had already gained in Hindustan, seems always to have controlled the national policy. They knew as well as Napoleon that Malta and Egypt, to use his own phrase, were merely the outworks of their stronghold in the East; and that if those outworks fell into the hands of France, a great army of warlike Mahomedans, led by French generals, stiffened by a French army corps, and gathering impetus from the accession of every tribe it passed through, might march unopposed across the Indus. So, from first to last, the least threat against Egypt and Malta sufficed to awaken their apprehensions; and in their knowledge that India was the ultimate objective of all his schemes is to be found the explanation of the stubbornness with which they fought Napoleon. It is not to be denied that in thwarting the ambition of their mighty rival, or perhaps in furthering their own, the navy was the chief instrument; but in thrusting the French from Egypt, in adding Ceylon, Mauritius and Cape Colony to the outworks, the army, small as it was then, compared with the great hosts of the Continent, did much both for the making and the security of the British Empire.

But the scope of the military operations of a maritime state is by no means limited to the capture of colonies, naval arsenals and coaling-stations. Timely diversions, by attracting a large portion of the enemy's fighting strength on the mainland, may give valuable aid to the armies of an ally. The Peninsular War is a conspicuous example. According to Napoleon, the necessity of maintaining his grip on Spain deprived him of 180,000 good soldiers during the disastrous campaign of 1813; and those soldiers, who would have made Dresden a decisive instead of a barren victory, were held fast by Wellington. Again, it was the news of Vittoria that made it useless for the emperor to propose terms of peace, and so escape from the coils that strangled him at Leipzig.

Nor is the reinforcement supplied by a small army based upon the sea to be despised. In 1793 a British contingent under the duke of York formed part of the allied forces which, had the British government forborne to interfere, would in all probability have captured Paris. Twenty-two years later, under wiser auspices, another contingent, although numbering no more than 30,000 men, took a decisive part in the war of nations, and the blunders of the older generation were more than repaired at Waterloo. Nevertheless, the strength of the amphibious power has been more effectively displayed than in the campaign of 1815. Intervention at the most critical period of a war has produced greater results than the provision of a contingent at the outset. In 1781 the disembarkation of a French army at Yorktown, Virginia, rendered certain the independence of the United States; and in 1812, when the Russian invaders were advancing north of Constantinople, the arrival of the British fleet in the Dardanelles, following the mobilization of an expeditionary force, at once arrested their further progress. Had the British Cabinet of 1807 realized the preponderating strength which even a small army, if rightly used, draws from the command of the sea, the campaign of Eylau would in all probability have been as disastrous to Napoleon as that of Leipzig. The presence of 20,000 men at the great battle would have surely turned the scale in favour of the allies. Yet, although the men were available, although a few months later 27,000 were assembled in the Baltic for the coercion of Denmark, his Majesty's ministers, with the exception of Marlborough's glories, were so imbued with the idea that the British army was too insignificant to take part in a Continental war, that the opportunity was let slip. It is a sufficiently remarkable fact that the successive governments of that era, although they realized very clearly that the first duty of the army was to support the operations and complete the triumph of the navy, never seemed to have grasped the principles which should have controlled its use when the command of the sea had been attained. The march of the Allies on Paris in 1793 was brought to a standstill because the British Cabinet considered that the contingent would be better employed in besieging Dunkirk. After the failure of the expedition
under Sir John Moore to achieve the impossible, and in conjunction with the Spaniards drive the French from the Peninsula, the ministry abandoned all idea of intervention on the main theatre, although, as we have seen, had such intervention been well timed, it might easily have changed the current of events. It is true that when the main theatre is occupied by huge armies, as was the case during the whole of the Napoleonic conflict, the value of a comparatively small force, however, sudden its appearance, is only realized by the enemy. For instance, it would seem at first sight that a British contingent of 100,000 men would be almost lost amid the millions that would take part in the decisive conflicts of a European war. It is remembered, however, that with enormous masses of men the difficulties of supply are very great. Steam has done much to lighten them, and the numbers at the point of collision will be far greater than it was possible to assemble in the days of Napoleon. Nevertheless, the lines of communication, especially railways, will require more men to guard them than heretofore, for they are far more vulnerable. The longer, therefore, the lines of communication, the smaller the numbers on the field of battle. Moreover, the great hosts of the Continent, not only for convenience of supply, but for convenience of manœuvre, will deploy several armies on a broad front. At some one point, then, a reinforcement of even one or two army corps might turn the scale.

The objections, however, to intervention of this character are numerous. Between allied armies, especially if one is far larger than the other, there is certain to be friction, as was the case in the Crimea; and the question of supply is not easily settled. If, however, the decisive point is near the coast, as in the campaign of Eyland, the army of the maritime power, possessing its own base, can render effective aid without embarrassment either to itself or its ally. But, under all other conditions, independent operations of a secondary nature are distinctly to be preferred. Such was clearly the opinion of the British ministries during the war with France. They recognized that by giving vitality and backbone to popular risings even a small army might create useful diversions. But their idea of a diversion was a series of isolated efforts, made at far-distant points; and even so late as 1813 they were oblivious of the self-evident facts that for a diversion to be really effective it must be made in such strength as to constitute a serious threat, and that it should be directed against some vital point. Fortunately for Europe, Wellington foresaw that the permanent occupation of Portugal, and the presence of a British army in close proximity to the southern frontier of France, would be a menace which it would be impossible for Napoleon to disregard. Yet with what difficulty he induced the government to adopt his views, and how lukewarm was their support, is exposed in the many volumes of his despatches. In all history there are few more glaring instances of incompetent statesmanship than the proposal of the cabinet of 1813, at the moment Wellington was contemplating the campaign that was to expel the French from Spain, and was asking for more men, more money and more material, to detach a large force in the vague hope of exciting a revolution in southern Italy. Whether the improvement in communications, as well as the increase in the size of armies, have not greatly weakened the value of diversions on the mainland, it is difficult to say. Railways may enable the defender to concentrate his forces so rapidly that even the landing may be opposed, and with the enormous numbers at his command he may well be able to spare a considerable force from the main theatre. It is possible to conceive that a small army, even if it completed its embarkation, might find itself shut up in an entrenched position by a force little larger than itself. If, however, the diversions were made at a crisis of the campaign, the sudden appearance of a new army might be decisive of the war. Otherwise, the army would probably do more good if it refrained from landing and concentrated on the real threats. So long as it was hidden by the horizon, it would be wasted as the key to a fort. The enemy's knowledge that at any moment a well-equipped force, supported by a powerful fleet, might suddenly descend upon some prosperous port or important arsenal, would compel him to maintain large garrisons along the whole seaboard. The strength of these garrisons, in all probability, would be much larger in the aggregate than the force which menaced them, and the latter would thus exercise a far greater disintegrating effect on the enemy's armed strength than by adding a few thousand men to the hosts of its ally. On theatres of war which are only thinly populated or half civilized, a descent from the mountains would make a complete change in the situation. The occupation of Plevna, in close proximity to the Russian line of communications and to the single bridge across the Danube, brought the Russian advance through Bulgaria to a sudden stop, and relieved all pressure on Turkey proper. The deadlock which ensued is suggestive. Let us suppose that the invaders' line of communications had been a railway, and Plevna situated near the coast. Supplied from the sea, with unlimited facilities for reinforcement, Osman's ring of earthworks would have been absolutely impregnable; and had the ring been pushed the Inland as to secure scope for operation, then, as Napoleon, in all human probability, would never have crossed the Balkans. It is perfectly possible, then, that if an army lands within reach of a precarious line of communications it may compel the enemy, although far superior in numbers, to renounce all enterprises against distant points.

Railways in war are good servants, but bad masters. In some respects they are far superior to a network of highways. Two trains will supply the daily needs of 100,000 men, several hundred miles distant from their base. But the road-bed is easily destroyed; the convey system is impracticable if the road-bed is not there. Indeed, the regular course of traffic is susceptible to the slightest threat. So, when railways become the principal factors, as when an army finds itself dependent on a long and exposed line, a powerful aggressive combination becomes a matter of the utmost difficulty. The whole attention of the commander will be given to the security of his supplies, and even if he is not thrown on the defensive by the enemy's activity, his liberty of action will be exceedingly circumscribed. The relative values of the different kinds of communications have a most important bearing on the art of war. A great waterway, such as the Nile, the Mississippi, the Danube or the Ganges, is safer and surer than a railway. But railways are far more numerous than navigable rivers, and a series of parallel lines is a better means of supplying a large army. But neither railways nor waterways as lines of supply or of operation are to be compared with the sea. Before the war of 1870, for instance, a study of the French railway system enabled Moltke to forecast, with absolute accuracy, the direction of Napoleon's advance, the distribution of his forces, and the extent of front that they would occupy. In a war, therefore, between two Continental powers, the staff on either side would have no difficulty in determining the line of attack; the locality for concentration would be at once made clear; and as the carrying capacity of all railways is well known, the numbers that would be encountered at any one point along the front might be easily calculated. But if the enemy's army, supported by a powerful fleet, were to advance across blue water, the case would be very different. Its movements would be veiled in the most complete secrecy. It would be impossible to do more than guess at its objective. It might strike at any point along hundreds of miles of coast, or it might shift from one point to another, perhaps far distant, in absolute security; it could bewilder the enemy with feints, and cause him to disperse his forces over the whole seaboard. Surprise and freedom of movement are pre-eminently the weapons of the power that commands the sea. Witness the War of Secession. McClellan, in 1862, by the adroit transfer of 120,000 men down the reaches of Chesapeake to the Virginia Peninsula, had Richmond at his mercy. Grant in 1864, by continually changing his line of communication from one river to another, made his progress of himself, in two years. Sherman's great march across Georgia would have been impossible, had not a Federal fleet been ready to receive him when he reached
the Atlantic; and, throughout the war, the knowledge that at any moment a vast fleet of transports might appear off any one of the ports on their enormous seaboard prevented the Confederates, notwithstanding that the garrisons were reduced to a most dangerous extent, from massing their full strength for a decisive effort.

The power of striking like "a bolt from the blue" is of the very greatest value in war. Surprise was the foundation of almost all the great strategical combinations of the past, as it will be of those to come. The first thought and the last of the great general is to outwit his adversary, and to strike where he least expected. And the measured approach to accomplish his purpose are not easily divined.

What soldier in Europe anticipated Marlborough's march to the Danube and Blenheim field? What other brain besides Napoleon's dreamt of the passage of the Alps before Marengo? Was there a single general of Prussia before Jena who foresaw that the French would march north from the Bavarian frontier, uncovering the roads to the Rhine, and risking utter destruction in case of defeat? Who believed, in the early June of 1815, that an army 130,000 strong would dare to invade a country defended by two armies that mustered over 200,000 unbeaten soldiers? To what Federal soldier did it occur, on the morning of Chancellorsville, that Lee, confronted by 90,000 Northerners, would detach the half of his own small force of 50,000 to attack his enemy in flank and rear? The very course which appeared to ordinary minds so hetet by difficulties and dangers as to be outside the pale of practical strategy has, over and over again, been that which led to decisive victory; and if there is one lesson more valuable than another as regards national defence, it is that preparation cannot be too careful or precautions overdone. Overwhelming numbers, adequately trained, commanded and equipped, are the only means of ensuring absolute security. But a numerical preponderance, either by land or sea, over all possible hostile combinations, is unattainable, and in default the only sound policy is to take timely and ample precautions against all enterprises which are even remotely possible. There is nothing more to be dreaded in war than the combined labours of a thoroughly well-trained general staff, except the intellect and audacity of a great strategist. The ordinary mind, even if it does not shrink from great danger, sees no way of surmounting great difficulties; and any operation which involves both vast dangers and vast difficulties it scoffs at as chimerical. The heaven-born strategist, on the other hand, "takes no counsel of his fears." Knowing that success is seldom to be won without incurring risks, he is always greatly daring; and by the skill with which he overcomes all obstacles, and even uses them, as Hannibal and Napoleon did the Alps, and as some great captain of the future may use the seas, to further his purpose and surprise his adversary, he shows his superiority to the common herd. It is repeated ad nauseam that in consequence of the vastly improved means of transmitting information, surprise on a large scale is no longer to be feared. It is to be remembered, however, that the means of concentrating troops and ships are far speedier than of old; that false information can be far more readily distributed; and also, that if there is one thing more certain than another, it is that the great strategist, surprise being still the most deadly of all weapons, will devote the whole force of his intellect to the problem of bringing it about.

Nor is it to be disguised that amphibious power is a far more terrible weapon than even in the days when it crushed Napoleon. Commerce has increased by leaps and bounds, and it is no longer confined within territorial limits. The arteries vital to the existence of civilized communities stretch over every ocean. States which in 1800 rated their maritime traffic at a few hundred thousand pounds sterling, value it now at many millions. Others, whose flags, fifty years ago, were almost unknown on the high seas, possess to-day great fleets of merchantmen; and those who fifty years ago were self-dependent, rely in great part, for the maintenance of their prosperity, on their intercourse with distant continents. There is no great power, and few small ones, to whom the loss of its sea-borne trade would be other than a most deadly blow; and there is no great power that is not far more vulnerable than when Great Britain, single-handed, held her own against a European coalition. Colonies, commercial ports, dockyards, coaling-stations are so many hostages to fortune. Year by year they become more numerous. Year by year, as commercial rivalry grows more acute, they become more intimately bound up with the prosperity and prestige of their mother-countries. And to what end? To exist as pledges of peace, auspicia mellioris aevi, or to fall an easy prey to the power that is supreme at sea and can strike hard on land?

Even the baldest and briefest discussion of the vast subject of war would be incomplete without some reference to the relative merits of professional and unprofessional soldiers. Voluntary service still holds its ground in the Anglo-Saxon states; and both the United Kingdom and America will have to a great extent to rely, in case of conflicts which tax all their resources, on troops who have neither the practice nor the discipline of their standing forces. And how are those to be recruited and trained against regulars? Putting the question of moral aside, is leading us too far afield, it is clear that the individual amateur must depend upon his training. If, like the Boers, he is a good shot, a good scout, a good skirmer and, if mounted, a good horseman and horsemaster, he is undoubtedly a most useful soldier. But whether amateurs en masse, that is, when organized into battalions and brigades, are thoroughly trustworthy, depends on the quality of their officers. With good officers, and a certain amount of previous training, there is no reason why bodies of infantry, artillery or mounted infantry, composed entirely of unprofessional soldiers, should not do excellent service in the field. Where they are likely to fail is in discipline; and it would appear that at the beginning of a campaign they are more liable to panic, less resolute in attack, less enduring under heavy losses and great hardships, and much slower in manoeuvre than the professionals. To a certain extent this is inevitable; and it has a most important bearing on the value of the citizen soldier, for the beginning of a campaign is a most critical phase. In short, troops who are only half-trained or have been hastily raised may be a positive danger to the army to which they belong; and the shelter of strong rank is the only place for them. Yet the presence of a certain number of experienced fighting men in the ranks may make all the difference; and, in any case, it is probable that battalions composed of unprofessional soldiers, the free citizens of a free and prosperous state, are little if at all inferior, as fighting units, to battalions composed of conscripts. But it is to be understood that the men possess the qualifications referred to above, that the officers are accustomed to command and have a good practical knowledge of their duties in the field. A mob, however patriotic, carrying small-bore rifles is no more likely to hold its own to-day against well-led regulars than did the mob carrying pikes and flint-lock in the past. A small body of resolute civilians, well-armed and skillful marksmen, might easily on their own ground defeat the same number of trained soldiers, especially if the latter were badly led. But in a war of masses, the power of combination, of rapid and orderly movement, and of tactical manœuvring is bound to tell.

(G.F.R.H.)

LITERATURE.—On the general principles of War, see C. v. Clausewitz, Vom Kriege (Eng. trans. On War, new ed. 1906); C.v. B(on) Kriegsphilosophie, Geist und Stoff im Kriege (1895); A. D'ant de Pic, Sur le combat, In Marquis de Flahaut de la Billader, Oeuvres de guerre, 5 vols.; J. M. C. de Flahaut, Physiologie de la guerre, 1857; H. G. von der Goltz, Krieg und Nation (Eng. trans. National in Arms); A. T. Mahan, History of the Anglo-Saxon; H. Spenser Wilkinson, Art of War, 1830; and various works mentioned in the bibliography to the article Army.
WAR

II. LAWS OF WAR

The law of war, in strict usage, does not apply to all armed conflicts, but only to such conflicts as, by the usage of states, constitute war. War exists when the organized armed forces of one state are opposed to the organized armed forces of another state. War also exists within the bounds of a single state when organized armed forces, of sufficient power to make the issue doubtful, place themselves in opposition to the armed forces of the existing government. If the disaffected forces are in a state of flagrant inferiority in comparison with those of the existing government there is not a state of war but of rebellion. The combatants in civil war are entitled to treatment in accordance with the law of war. Rebels, as outlaws, have no rights. In the South African campaign (1899-1902) the question arose whether the manifest inferiority of the Boer forces, the possession by the British forces of the seats of government, and their practical occupation of the whole country, did not put an end to the state of war and constitute the Boer fighting forces rebels against a new existing government which had proclaimed annexation of the conquered states. The action of the British commanders is a precedent in favour of the view that the fighting forces of an invaded state are entitled to belligerent rights, though in a state of hopeless inferiority, so long as they remain in the field in organized bands. In this, as in many cases which have formed international usage, the danger of reprisals more than the logic of principles has dictated a different line of conduct from that which the strict principles of law suggested. A somewhat similar, but more complicated situation, arose out of the cession by Spain to the United States of the Philippine Islands. The insurgents being in possession of them at the time, Spain ceded what she did not in fact possess. Thus it has been contended that the position of the insurgents became that of belligerents defending their country against conquest by invading forces.

Wars have been classed in different ways—wars of intervention, wars of conquest, wars of defence, wars of independence, just wars, unjust wars, and so on; but the law of war applies to them all without distinction. States do not sit as judges over each other, but treat war, subject to their own interest, as a fact. Interest, however, with the development of international relations is becoming a more important factor in the determination of the attitude of the neutral onlooker (see NEUTRALITY).

In the Chino-Japanese War (1894-95) the Japanese had to decide whether the Chinese were entitled to treatment under the European law of war. Japan had acceded to the Geneva Convention (see below) in 1866, and to the Declaration of Paris (see below) in 1857. China was a party to neither, and observed the provisions of neither. Japan, nevertheless, as related by her learned judicial advisers, Professors Ariga and Takahashi, observed towards the Chinese forces, combatant and non-combatant, all the rules of European International Law without resorting to the reprisals to which Chinese barbarities provoked her.

The position of neutral governments towards insurgent forces is always a delicate one. If they are not recognized as belligerents by the state against which they are arrayed, the state in question theoretically accepts responsibility for the consequences of their acts in respect of neutral states. A neutral state may be satisfied with this responsibility, or it may recognize the belligerent character of the insurgents. If, however, it does not, the insurgent forces cannot exercise rights of war against neutral property without exposing themselves to treatment as outlaws and pirates. A case of such treatment occurred in September 1902 in connexion with a then pending revolution in Hayti. A German cruiser, the "Panther", treated an insurgent gunboat, the "Crête-a-Pierrot", as a pirate vessel, and sank her for having stopped and confiscated arms and ammunition found among the cargo of the German steamer

"Markomannia" on the ground that they were contraband destined for the armed forces of the existing Hayitian government. The "Crête-a-Pierrot" had for some years formed part of the Hayitian navy, and was commanded by Admiral Killick, who had been an admiral of that navy. There had been no recognition of the belligerency of the insurgents. No state seems to have made any observations on the incident, which may be taken to be in accordance with current international usage.

A well-known instance of a neutral government recognizing insurgent forces as belligerent, in spite of the denial of that character to them by the state against which they were carrying on hostilities, occurred in the Northern American Civil War. The right asserted by Great Britain to recognize the belligerency of the Confederate forces was based on the contention that British commercial interests were very largely affected by the blockade of the Southern ports. It is agreed, however, among jurists that, where the interests of neighbouring states are not affected, the recognition of an insurgent's belligerency is needless interference.2

2 It is also agreed that, as the existence of belligerency imposes burdens and liabilities upon neutral subjects, a state engaged in civil war has a right in entrenching to effect its warlike object; and that such a proceeding would be an invasion of international law relating to blockade (Hansard, cixii., 1846). Subsequently the government of the United States proposed to adopt the same measure against the ports of the Northern States upon which Lord John Russell wrote to Lord Lyons that "Her Majesty's government entirely concur with the French government in the opinion that a decree closing the Southern ports would be entirely illegal, and that, under an event that recognizes the maxim of law that the ports of a belligerent can only be closed by an effective blockade" (State Papers, North America, No. 1, 1862). In neither case was the order carried out. When in 1892 the British government declared the existence of civil war, declared several ports to be closed without instituting a blockade, Mr T. F. Bayard, Secretary of State of the United States, in a despatch of 24th April of that year, fully acknowledged the general principle of this contention by refusing to acknowledge the closure.

In the Servo-Bulgarian War of 1885 the Sultan, though suzerain of Bulgaria, was unmoved by the invasion of his vassal's dominions.

Effect of recognition of belligerency.

Regular forces and civilians.

Neutral position towards insurgents.

Neutral interest.

Civil war as distinguished from rebellion.

War with barbarous peoples.

The Times (9th September 1902).
LAWS OF WAR

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civilian population as any longer possible. They have found, to some extent, expression in the following Articles of the Hague War-Regulations:

"Art. 23. The laws, rights and duties of war apply not only to an army, but also to militia and volunteer corps fulfilling the following conditions: (a) To be commanded by a person responsible for his subordinates; (b) to have a fixed distinctive emblem recognized as a military formation, and (c) to carry on their operations in accordance with the laws and customs of war. In countries where militia or volunteer corps constitute the army, or form part of it, they are included under the denomination "army.""

"The only alteration made by the revised Convention of Nov. 27th, 1907, as compared with that of 1899 is the insertion in Art. 2 of the words in italics. By these provisions, irregular combatants whom both the government of the United States in the American Civil War and the German government in the Franco-German War refused to regard as legitimate belligerents, are now made legally so."

"The preamble of the Convention refers specially to Articles 1 and 2 in the following terms: "In the view of the High Contracting Parties, the draft Regulations have been inspired by the desire to diminish the evils of war as far as military necessities permit, are destined to serve as general rules of conduct for belligerents in their relations with each other and with civilians."

"It is not the intention of the drafters, in the present provision, to contemplate a change of the law, or anything to the effect that nothing in the Regulations should be considered as tending to diminish or suppress the right which belongs to the population of an invaded country patriotically to oppose the most energetic resistance by every legitimate means." The whole of this notice was to cause the insertion of a proviso in the preamble of the

Connected with the position of private persons in time of war is that of their property in invaded territory, a subject which has often been misunderstood. Assumptions as to immunity, neutrality or confiscation of the property of those who have been made which are historically inaccurate and are not borne out by contemporary usage. No doubt contemporary usage is an improvement on older usage. An invading army, before the practice of war became more refined, lived by foraging and pillage in the invaded country; pillage, in fact, being one of the inducements held out to the adventurers who formed part of the fighting forces either as officers or as common soldiers, and this continued down to comparatively recent times. Attenuations followed from the rise of standing and regular armies, and the consequent more careful distinction between soldier and civilian. They have now taken the form of systematic requisitions and contributions, the confining of the right of levying these to generals and commanders-in-chief, the institution of quittances or bills drawn by the belligerent invader on the invaded power and handed in payment to the private persons whose movable belongings have been appropriated or used, and of war indemnities. These are methods of lessening the hardships of war as regards the private property on land of the subjects of belligerent states. Their object and effect have by no means been to arrest at all."

"Neither requisitions in kind nor services can be demanded from communes or inhabitants except for the necessities of the army of occupation. They must be in proportion to the resources of the country, and of such a nature as not to involve the population in the obligation of taking part in military operations against their country."

"These requisitions and services shall only be demanded on the authority of the Commander in the locality occupied."

"The contributions in kind shall, as far as possible, be paid for in ready money; if not, their receipt shall be acknowledged and the payment of the amounts due shall be made as soon as possible" (Article 52).

"In another Article provision, moreover, is made for the utilization of property in kind belonging to private persons:"

"An army of occupation can only take possession of the cash, funds and property liable to requisition belonging strictly to the state, depots of arms, means of transport, stores and supplies, by virtue of the law, all movable property of the state which may be used for military operations."

"All appliances, whether on land, at sea, or in the air adapted for the transmission of news, or for the transport of persons or things, for the use of naval law, diplomatic archives, or any other service, all kinds of ammunition of war, may be seized, even if they belong to private individuals, but must be restored and compensation paid when peace is made."

Utilize neutral rolling-stock is not excepted, Article 19 of the Convention on the rights and duties of neutral powers and persons in war on land only providing that:

"The plant of railways coming from neutral states, whether the property of those states, or of companies, or of private persons, and recognizable as such, shall be sent back as soon as possible to the country of origin.""
existing exemptions. The considerations which have led mankind to systematize the practice of war in regard to private property on land do not arise in the same form in connexion with private property at sea. Here there is no question of seizing the live stock, or the bedding, or the food, or the utensils of the private citizen. If ship and cargo are captured, it may be hard upon the merchant, but such captures do not directly deprive him of the necessaries of life. Yet, as in the case of war on land, its hardships have been attenuated, and progress has been made by developing a more systematic procedure of capture of private property at sea. Thus exemption from capture is now allowed by belligerents to enemy merchant ships which, at the outbreak of war, are on the way to one of their ports, and they also allow enemy merchantmen in their ports at its outbreak a certain time to leave them. This is confirmed by the Hague Convention of 1897 on the status of enemy ships on the outbreak of hostilities. A somewhat similar practice exists as regards pursuit of merchant ships which happen to be in a neutral port at the same time with an enemy cruiser. Under the Hague Convention of 1897 respecting the rights and duties of neutral powers in naval war (Art. 16), this, too, is confirmed.

Lastly, there has grown up, on grounds similar to those which have led to the indulgence shown to private property on land, a now generally recognized immunity from capture of small vessels engaged in the coast fisheries, provided they are in no wise made to serve the purposes of war, which also has been duly confirmed in the Hague Conventions of 1907 by Art. 3 of the convention relative to certain restrictions on the exercise of the right of capture in maritime war. This has all been done with the object of making the operations of war systematic, and enabling the private citizen to estimate his risks and take the necessary precautions to avoid capture, and of restricting acts of war to the purpose of bringing it to a speedy conclusion.

We have seen that the only immunity of private property yet known to the laws of war is a limited one at sea. War, by its very nature, seems to prevent the growth of any such immunity. The tendency in war on land has been to spread its effects over the whole community, to keep a faithful record on both sides of all confiscations, appropriations and services enforced against private citizens; beyond this, protection has not yet been extended. There is good reason for this. The object of each belligerent being to break the enemy's power and force him to sue for peace, it may not be enough to defeat him in the open field; it may be necessary to prevent him from repairing his loss both in men and in the munitions of war. This may imply crippling his material resources, trade and manufactures. It has been contended that to capture at sea raw materials used in the manufacturing industry of a belligerent state, or products on the saie of which its prosperity, and therefore its taxable sources depend, is necessarily one of the objects, and one of the least cruel, which the belligerents pursue. To capture the merchant vessels which carry these goods, and even to keep the seamen navigating them prisoners, is to prevent the employment of the ships by the enemy as transports or cruisers, and the repairing from among the seamen of the mercantile marine of losses of men in the official navy. 1

The existence of reform of the existing practice would naturally be viewed in different countries according to their respective interests. The United States has obviously an interest in the exemption of its merchant vessels and cargoes from capture, a small official navy being sufficient for the assertion of its ascendancy on the American continent. It may also be presumed to be in the interest of Italy, who, in a treaty with the United States in 1871, provided for mutual recognition of the exemption.

In the Austro-Prussian war of 1866 the principle of inviolability was adhered to by both parties. Germany proclaimed the same principle in 1870, but afterwards abandoned it.

There is a strong movement in Great Britain in favour of the general adoption of immunity. Whether it may now be expedient for her to agree to such immunity is an open question. It is quite conceivable, however, that different considerations would weigh with her in a war with the United States from those which would arise in a war with France or Germany. In the case of the United States it might be in the interest of both parties to localize the operations of war, and to interfere as little as possible, perhaps for the joint exclusion of neutral vessels, with the traffic across the Atlantic. In the case of Germany, Britain, Great Britain might consider that the closing of the high seas to all traffic by the merchantmen of the enemy would be very much in her own interest.

The converse subject of the treatment of subjects of the one belligerent who remain in the country of the other belligerent also was not dealt with at the Hague. British practice in this matter has always been indulgent, the protection to the persons and property of non-combatant enemies on British soil dating back to Magna Carta (s. 48), and this is still the law of England. The practice in the continent of Europe varies according to circumstances, to which no doubt, in the event of the invasion of Great Britain, British practice would also have to adapt itself.

The Hague War-Regulations deal fully with the treatment of prisoners, and though they add nothing to existing practice, such treatment is no longer in the discretion of the signatory Powers, but is binding on them. They provide as follows:

"Prisoners of war are the property of the hostile government, but not in that of the individuals or corps who captured them. They must be humanely treated. All their personal belongings, except arms, horses and military papers, remain their property (Article 4). Prisoners of war may be interned in a town, fortress, camp or any other locality, and bound not to go beyond certain fixed limits; but they can only be confined as an indispensable means of maintaining security, and under circumstances necessitating this measure shall endure (Article 5). The States may exempt from the rank of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude, with the exception of officers. Their tasks shall not be excessive, and shall have regard to their rank and aptitude. They shall do with them as though they were authorized to work for public service, for private persons, or on their own account. Work done for the state shall be paid for according to the tariffs in force for soldiers of the national army employed in similar tasks, or if there are none in force, then according to a tariff suitable to the work executed. When the work is for other branches of the public service or for private persons, the conditions shall be settled in agreement with the military authorities. The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them at the time of their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance (Article 6). The government in whose hands prisoners of war have fallen is bound to treat them without punishment and without difference in the treatment of their fellow-countrymen. They shall be allowed to send and receive letters, and to have a change of clothes, except in case of serious misconduct, and shall be allowed to move about freely in their camp and in the city, whilst engaged in work. They shall be provided with proper accommodation, which shall be kept clean (Art. 7). Their captors shall not be permitted to sell their individual property, or to take away their personal effects. They shall be provided with proper clothing, food, and medical assistance (Art. 8). They shall be treated with all humanity, and not suffer from any hardships but those which circumstances may make unavoidable (Article 9). Those guilty of breaches of this rule shall be punished with their capitons or interned. All prisoners of war shall be released or exchanged in the event of a conclusion of peace (Article 10)."

1 Barclay, "Proposed Immunity of Private Property at Sea from Capture by Enemy," Law Quarterly Review (January 1900).
LAWS OF WAR

WAR

To employ arms, projectiles or material of a nature to cause superfluous injury.

To make improper use of a flag of truce, the national flag or military ensigns and the enemy's uniform, as well as the distinctive badges of the Geneva Convention (Art. 32).

To destroy or seize the enemy's property, unless such destruction or seizure be imperatively demanded by the necessities of war; to attack or bombard towns, villages, habitations or buildings which are not declared.

To pillage a town or place, even when taken by assault.

Ruses of war, or the employment of methods necessary to obtain information about the enemy and the country, on the contrary, are allowed.

A spy is one who, acting clandestinely, or on false pretences, obtains, or seeks to obtain, information in the zone of operations of a belligerent, with the intention of communicating it to the hostile party (the Hague War-Regulations, Art. 29). Thus, soldiers not in disguise who have penetrated into the zone of operations of a hostile army to obtain information are not considered spies. Similarly, the following are not considered spies: soldiers or civilians, carrying out their mission openly, charged with the delivery of despatches destined either for their own army or for that of the enemy. To this class belong likewise individuals sent in balloons to deliver despatches, and generally to maintain communication between both sides, in order to be in communication with persons who, in case of war, may be prisoners of war, and not punishable for his previous acts of espionage.

In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps are to be taken to avoid the destruction of buildings devoted to religion, art, science, and charity, hospitals and places where the sick and wounded are, or their mounts; provided they are not used not the same time for military purposes; but the besieged are to indicate these buildings or places by particular and visible signs and notify them to the assailants.

New Convention respecting bombardments by naval forces was adopted by the Hague Conference of 1907, forbidding the bombardment of undefended "ports, towns, villages, dwellings or buildings," unless after a formal summons the local authorities decline to comply with requisitions for provisions or supplies necessary for the immediate use of the naval force before the place in question. But they may not be bombarded on account of failure to pay money contributions. On the other hand, the prohibition does not apply to military works, depots of arms, &c., or ships of war in a harbour.

Another new Convention adopted at the Hague in 1907 dealt with the laying of automatic submarine contact mines. Its main provisions are as follows:

**To employ poison or poisoned arms.**

**To kill or wound treacherously individuals belonging to the hostile nation or army.**

**To kill or wound an enemy who, having laid down arms but having no longer means of defence, has surrendered at discretion.**

To declare that no quarter will be given.

**Rules of war.**

**Relief societies.**

**Shk and wounded.**

Military hospital-ships, that is to say, ships constructed or assigned by states specially and solely for the purpose of assisting the wounded and sick, the wounded and sick being evacuated and their ships armed, are to be respected and cannot be captured while there are wounded and sick on board.

As regards hospital-ships equipped wholly or in part at the cost of private individuals or officially recognized relief societies, they likewise are to be respected and exempt from capture, provided the belligerent or neutral power to which they belong shall have given them an official commission and notified their names to the hostile powef at the commencement of or during the hostilities, and in any case before they are employed, are to be respected and cannot be captured while there are wounded and sick on board.

The belligerents have the right to control and visit them; they can refuse to help them, order them off, make them take a certain course, and put a commissioner on board; they can even detain them, if important circumstances require it.

The religious, medical or hospital staff of any captured ship is inviolable, and its members cannot be made prisoners of war.

Lastly, neutral merchant ships, yachts or vessels, having, or taking on board, sick, wounded or shipwrecked of the belligerents, cannot be captured for so doing.

The following provisions are also placed by the Hague Regulations on the means of injuring the enemy:

1. It is forbidden:
   - To employ anchored automatic contact mines, except when they are so constructed as to become harmless one hour at most after the person who laid them ceases to control them;
   - To lay anchored automatic contact mines which do not become harmless in case the ship they have been detached from, breaks loose from its moorings;
   - To use torpedoes which do not become harmless when they have missed their mark (Art. 1).

2. It is forbidden to lay automatic contact mines off the coast and ports of the enemy, with the sole object of intercepting commercial shipping (Art. 2).

When anchored automatic contact mines are employed, every possible precaution must be taken for the security of peaceful shipping.

The belligerents undertake to do their utmost to render these mines harmless within a limited time, and, should they cease to be used for defence, to notify the danger zones as soon as military exigencies permit, by a notice addressed to shippers, which must also be communicated to the Governments through the diplomatic channels (Art. 3).

Neutral Powers which lay automatic contact mines off their coasts must observe the same rules and take the same precautions as are imposed on belligerents.

**Neutral Power.**

Neutral Power may inform shippers, by a notice issued in advance, where automatic contact mines have been laid. This notice must be communicated at once to the Governments through the diplomatic channels. In case of the war, the Contracting Powers undertake to do their utmost to remove the mines which they have laid, each Power removing its own mines.

In case of an anchored automatic contact mine laid by one of the belligerents off the coast of the other, their position must be notified to the other party by the Power which laid them, and each Power must proceed with the least possible delay to remove the mines in its own waters. (Art. 5.)

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1. See, as to Flags of Truce, Art. 32 of the Hague Regulations.
The Contracting Powers which do not at present own perfected mines of the pattern contemplated in the present Convention, and which, consequently, could not at present carry out the rules laid down in Articles 1 and 3, undertake to convert the material of their mines as soon as possible so as to bring it into conformity with the foregoing requirements. (Art. 6.)

Territory is considered as occupied when it is actually under the authority of the hostile army. The authority having passed into the hands of the occupant, the latter takes all possible steps to re-establish public order and safety. Compulsion of the population of occupied territory to take part in military operations against their own country, or even give information respecting the army of the other belligerent, is strictly prohibited. Private property must be respected, save in case of military necessity (Arts. 46 and 47). The property of religious, charitable and educational institutions, and of art and science, even when state property, are assimilated to private property, and all seizure of, and destruction or intentional damage done to such institutions, to historical monuments, works of art or science is prohibited (Art. 46).

Practice as regards declarations of war has hitherto varied. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870 was preceded by a deliberate declaration. In the war between Japan and China there was no declaration. In the Franco-Japanese War (sino-japonaise, Paris, 1896). The delivery of an ultimatum specifying those terms, the compliance with which is demanded within a specified time, is practically a conditional declaration of war which becomes absolute in case of non-compliance. Thus the note communicated by the United States to Spain on 20th April 1898 demanded the "immediate withdrawal of all the land and sea forces from Cuba," and gave Spain three days to accept these terms. On the evening of 22nd April the United States seized the opportunities thus opened. In the case of the Transvaal War, the declaration also took the form of an ultimatum. A special Hague convention adopted at the Conference of 1907 now provides that hostilities "must not commence without previous and explicit warning in the form of a reasoned declaration of war or of an ultimatum with conditional declaration of war." It also provides that the existence of a state of war must be notified to the neutral powers and shall not take effect in regard to them until after the receipt of the notification which may be given by telegraph. Most of the rules of the preceding provision, however, is negatived by the qualification that neutral powers cannot rely on the absence of notification if it is clearly established that they were in fact aware of the existence of a state of war.

Too much confidence must not be placed in regulations concerning the conduct of war. Military necessity, the heat of action, the violence of the feelings which come into play will always at times defeat the most skillfully-combined rules diplomacy can devise. Still, such rules are a sign of conditions of public opinion which serve as a restraint upon the commission of barbarities among civilized peoples. The European operation of the Confederate armies on the "Boxer" rising showed how distance from European criticism tends to lessen that restraint. On the other hand, it was significant that both the United States and Spain, who were not parties to the Declaration of Paris, found themselves, in a war confined to them, under the necessity of observing provisions which the majority of civilized states have agreed to respect. (T.B.A.)

WARANGAL, an ancient town of India, in the Nizam's Dominions or Hyderabad state, 86 m. N.E. of Hyderabad city. It was the capital of a Hindu kingdom in the 12th century, but little remains to denote its former grandeur except a fort and four gateways of a temple of Siva. Warangal has given its name to a district and a division of the state.

WARASDIN (Hungarian, Varads; Croatian, Varaladin), a royal free town of Hungary, and capital of the county of Warasdin, in Croatia-Slavonia; on the right bank of the Drave, 62 m. by rail N.N.E. of Agram. Pop. (1900) 12,930. Warasdin is the seat of a district court, and possesses an old castle, a cathedral and several churches, monasteries and schools. It carries on a brisk trade in timber, wine, fruit, tobacco, spirits, stoneware and silk. Coal is also manufactured here. Several mines in the Warsadin Mountains were worked. The celebrated sulphur baths of Constantins-Bad or Toplitz, known to the Romans as Thermae Constantiane, lie about 10 m. S.

WARBECK, PERKIN (c. 1474-1499), pretender to the throne of England, was the son of Jehan de Werbecue, a poor burgess of Tournay in Flanders and of his wife Katherine de Faro. The exact date of his birth is unknown, but as he represented himself as having been nine years old in 1483, it must have taken place in, or close on, 1474. His confession made at the end of his life was an account of his early years which is to some extent relevant to the oratory of his pretension. There are many other relations whom he mentions have been found in the governmental records of Tournay, and the official description of them agrees with his statements. According to this version, which may be accepted as substantially true, he was brought up at Antwerp by a cousin Jehan Stienbecks, and served a succession of employers as a boy servant. He was for a time with an Englishman John Strewle at Middleburg, and then accompanied Lady Brampton, the wife of an exiled partisan of the house of York, to Portugal. He was for a year employed by a Portuguese knight whom he described as having only one eye, and whom he accompanied to Veza, in the Azores (1490). In 1491 he was in Cork as the servant of a Breton silk merchant Pregent (Pierre Jean) Meno. Ireland was strongly attached to the house of York, and was full of intrigue against King Henry VII. Perkin says that the people seeing him dressed in the silks of his master took him for a person of distinction, and insisted that he must be either the son of George, duke of Clarence, or a bastard of Richard III. He was more or less encouraged by the ears of Desmond and Kildare. The facts are ill recorded, but it is safe to presume that intrigues who wished to disturb the government of Henry VII. did not lack resources. The case of Perkin was, however, more发展阶段, he was at first considered the legal heir of the Yorkists.
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two or three small vessels, and accompanied by his wife, who had borne him one or two children. After some obscure adventures in Ireland, he landed at Whitesand Bay, near the Land's End, on the 7th of September, and there he found it very a cold认识 in the country, and that he had lately been recently in revolt against excessive taxation. He advanced to Exeter, but was unable to master the town. On the approach of the royal troops he deserted his followers, and ran for refuge to the sanctuary of Beaulieu in Hampshire. He then surrendered. His wife was kindly treated and placed in the household of Henry's queen Elizabeth. Perkin was compelled to make two ignominious public confessions at Westminster, and in Cheapside on the 15th and 16th of June 1498. On the 23rd of November 1490 he was hanged on a charge of endeavouring to escape from the Tower with the imprisoned earl of Warwick.


WARBLER, in ornithology, the name bestowed in 1773 by T. Pennant (Genera of Birds, p. 32) on the birds removed, in 1759, by J. A. Scopoli from the Linnaean genus Motacilla (cf. Wagtail) to one founded and called by him Seriola luxurabi being a word evidently recognized as a valid genus, so that to say, on all the species of Motacilla which were not wagtails. "Warbler" has long been used by English technical writers as the equivalent of Sylvia, and is now applied to all members of the sub-family Sylviinae of the thrushes (g.v.), and in the combination "American warblers" to the distinctive passerine family Mniotilidae. The true warblers (Sylviinae) are generally smaller than the true thrushes Turdinae (see Thrushes), with, for the most part, a weak and slender bill. They seldom fly far, except when migrating, but frequent undergrowth and herbage, living on insects, larvae and fruits. The song is unusually clear and a true sound, as in the grasshopper warbler. The nest is usually cup-shaped and well lined, and from three to six eggs (twelve in Regulus), usually spotted, are laid.

The true warblers are chiefly Old World, visiting the southern Old World in winter, but members of the sub-family occur in New Zealand, Polynesia and Panama. Amongst the commonest in England is the well-known sedge-bird or sedge-warbler, Acrocephalus schoenobaenus, whose chattering song resounds in summer-time from almost every wet ditch in most parts of Britain. As is the case with so many warblers, the warbling habits of the bird cause it to be far more often heard than seen; but, with a little patience, it may be generally observed flitting about the uppermost twigs of the bushes it frequents, and back and forth between the edges of ditches over its eye serve to distinguish it from its ally the reed-wren or reed-warbler, A. streperus, which is clad in a wholly mouse-coloured suit. But this last can also be recognized by its different song pattern and by never betraying its presence; thus the reed-wars and its favourite haunts. In them generally it builds one of the most beautiful of nests, made of the seed-branches of the reed and long grass, woven together, and suspended so as to include its subject the living stems of three or four reeds, between which it is suspended at a convenient height above the water, and the structure is so deep that the eggs do not roll out when its props are shaken by the wind. Of very similar habits is the reed-thrush or great reed warbler, A. arundinaceus, a loud-voiced species, abundant on the Continent but very rarely straying to England. Much interest also attaches to the species known as Sav's warbler, Locustella savii, one of the few species possessing as a constant inhabitant of the Fen district of England a few years before its haunts were destroyed by drainage. The last example known to have been obtained in this country was killed in 1856. The nest of this species is peculiarly placed on the ground and formed of the blades of a species of Glyceria so skillfully woven as to be a very permanent structure, and it is a curious fact that its nests were well known to the sedge-cutters of the district which it most frequented, and amongst these bird with its eggs were unacquainted, long before the builder was recognized by naturalists. In coloration the bird somewhat resembles a nightingale (whose it is especially), and it is from the front its name being unmeaning, being a long smooth tripli, pitched higher possessing more tone than that of the grasshopper-warbler Locustella naevius—which is a widely-distributed species throughout the British Isles—who had been kept for a time from the birds before mentioned, being a long smooth tripli, pitched higher possessing more tone than that of the grasshopper-warbler Locustella naevius—which is a widely-distributed species throughout the British Isles. True warblers are generally of the class of the American warblers, a distinction of which the American and European genera, such as the willow- and wood-wrens under Wren. The Australian genus Malurus, to which belong the birds known as "superb warblers," not inaptly so named, since in beauty they surpass any other of the genus, is allied to the Old World fly-catchers in the family Muscicapidae. Part of the plumage of the cocks in breeding-dress is generally some shade of intense blue, and is so glossy as to resemble enamel, while in the females, and as well as green and lilac, are also present in one species or another, so as to heighten the effect. But, as already stated, there are systematists who would raise this genus, which contains some 15 species but 5 species of a distinct family, though on what grounds it is hard to say.

The birds known as "American warblers," forming what is now recognized as a distinct family, Mniotilidae, remain for considerations. The family includes only a single genus, Mniotilus, which is peculiar to the New World. More than 130 species have been described, and these have been grouped in 20 genera or more, of which the larger are at home in North and South America and in the West Indies. As a whole they are much more brightly coloured than the Sylviae, for, though the particular genus Mniotilus (from which the family takes its name) is one of the most aboriginal—its present range is from the Baltic and Alpine plains to the ocean, and to which a tree-creeper (g.v.)—in other groups chestnut, bluish-grey and green appear, the last varying from an olive to a saloon tint, and in some groups the yellow predominates to an extent that has been called that of "golden" warblers. In the genus Setophaga, the members of which deserve to be called "fly-catching" warblers, the plumage of the male is more present, yellow, orange, scarlet or scarlet and as well as green and lilac, are also present in one species or another, so as to heighten the effect. But, as already stated, there are systematists who would raise this genus, which contains some 15 species but 5 species of a distinct family, though on what grounds it is hard to say.

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WARBURTON, COLONEL SIR ROBERT (1842–1890), Anglo-Indian soldier and administrator, was the son of an artillery officer who had been taken prisoner at Kabul in 1842, and escaped through the good offices of an Afghan princess. He married this lady, and she transmitted to their son that power of exercising influence over the tribes of the north-west frontier which stood him in good stead during his long service in India. Warburton entered the Royal Artillery in 1861, took part in the Abyssinian War of 1867–68, and then joined the Bengal Staff Corps. He served with distinction in the expedition against the Utman Khel in 1878 and in the Afghan War of 1878–80. Very soon after the British government had made permanent arrangements for keeping open the Khyber Pass, Warburton was appointed to take charge of it as political officer. This post he held, discharging its duties with conspicuous ability, between 1879 and 1882 with intervals of other duty, and continuously from 1882 until 1890. He turned the rude levies which formed the Khyber Rifles into a fine corps, ready to serve the Indian government wherever they might be required. He made the road safe, kept the Afridis friendly, and won the thanks of the people. At the end of his term of office he was given the rank of colonel and a pension in retirement, for his good work. When the Afridis began to cause anxiety in 1897, Colonel Warburton was asked by the government of India if he would assist in quieting the excitement amongst them. He declared himself ready to do so, but in the meantime the trouble had come to a head. Colonel Warburton took part in the campaign which followed; at its close his active career ended. He occupied his leisure in retirement by writing his memoirs, Eighteen Years in the Khyber (1900). He died at Kensington on the 22nd April 1899.

WILLIAM (1674–1709), English critic and divine, bishop of Gloucester, was born at Newark on the 24th of December 1668. His father belonged to an old Cheshire family and was town clerk of Newark. William was educated at Oakham and Newark grammar schools, and in 1714 he was articled to Mr. Kirke, attorney at East Markham, in Nottinghamshire. After serving his time he returned to Newark with the intention of practising as a solicitor; but, having given some time to the study of Latin and Greek, he left the law and was ordained deacon by the archbishop of York in 1723, and in 1727 received his other orders from the bishop of London. He had occupied the interval in various literary labours, the most important being the notes he contributed to Theobald's edition of Shakespeare, and an anonymous share in a pamphlet on the jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery, The Legal Judicature in Chancery stated (1727). This was an answer to another anonymous pamphlet, written by Philip Yorke, afterwards Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, who replied in an enlarged edition (1728) of his original Discourse of the Judicial Authority...of Master of the Rolls. Warburton now received from Sir Robert Sutton the small living of Greatley, in Nottinghamshire, exchanged next year for that of Brant Broughton, Lincolnshire. He held in addition, from 1725, the living of Frisby in Lincolnshire. In 1728 he was made an honorary M.A. of Cambridge. At Brant Broughton for eighteen years he spent his time in study, the first result of which was his treatise on the Alliance between Church and State (1736). The book brought Warburton into favour at court, and he probably only missed immediate preferment by the death of Queen Caroline. His next and best-known work, Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated on the Principles of a Religious Deist (2 vols., 1737–74), preserves his name as the author of the most daring and ingenious of theological paradoxes. The deists had made the absence of any inculcation of the doctrine of a future life an objection to the divine authority of the Mosaic writings. Warburton boldly admitted the fact and turned it against the adversary by maintaining that no merely human legislator would have omitted such a sanction of morality. The author's extraordinary power, learning and originality were acknowledged on all hands, though he excited censure and suspicion by his tenderness to the alleged heresies of Conyers Middleton. The book aroused much controversy. In a pamphlet of 1738, "Warburton the Deist," he replied to John Tindal, and answered his Reflections on Several Occasional Reflections (1744–1745) was an answer to Akinside, Conyers Middleton (who had up to this time been his friend), Richard Pococke, Nicholas Mann, Richard Grey, Henry Stebbing and other of his critics. As he characterized his opponents in general as the "pestilent herd of libertine scribblers with which the island is overrun," it is no matter of surprise that the book made him many bitter enemies.

Either in quest of paradox, or actually unable to recognize the real tendencies of Pope's Essay on Man, he entered upon its controversy against the Notes and Emendations on Shakespeare's series of articles (1738–1739) contributed to The Works of the Learned. Whether Pope had really understood the tendency of his own work has always been doubtful, but there is no question that he was glad of an apologist, and that Warburton's jeu d'esprit in the long run did more for his fortunes than all his erudition. It occasioned a sincere friendship between him and Pope, whom he persuaded to add a fourth book to the Dunciad, and encouraged to substitute Cibber for Theobald as the hero of the poem in the edition of 1743 published under the editorship of Warburton. Pope bequeathed him the copyright and the proceeds of his copperplate engravings upon his retirement by introducing him to Murray, afterwards Lord Mansfield, who obtained for him in 1746 the preachership of Lincoln's Inn, and to Ralph Allen, who, says Johnson, "gave him his niece and his estate, and, by consequence, a bishopric." The marriage took place in 1745, and from that time Warburton resided principally at his father-in-law's estate at Prior Park, in Gloucestershire, which he inherited on Allen's death in 1764. In 1747 appeared his edition of Shakespeare, into which, as he expressed it, Pope's earlier edition was melted down. He had previously entrusted notes and emendations on Shakespeare to Sir Thomas Hamner, whose unauthorized use of them led to a heated controversy. As early as 1727 Warburton had corresponded with Theobald on Shakespearean subjects. He now accused him of stealing his ideas and denied his critical ability. Theobald's superiority to Warburton as a Shakespearean critic has long since been acknowledged. Warburton was further kept busy by the attacks on his Divine Legation from all quarters, by a dispute with Bolingbroke respecting Pope's behaviour in the affair of Bolingbroke's Patriotic King, by his edition of Pope's Works, and by large contributions to the building of Lincoln's Inn, "to prove the truth of revealed religion...from the completion of the prophecies of the Old and New Testament which relate to the Christian Church, especially to the apostacy of Papal Rome." He died at Gloucester on the 7th of June 1779. Warburton was undoubtedly a great man, but his intellect, marred by wilfulness and the passion for
WARD, A. W.—WARD, E. S. P.

WARD, ADOLPHUS WILLIAM (1837— ), English historian and man of letters, was born at Hampstead, London, on the 2nd of December 1837, and was educated in Germany and at the university of Cambridge. In 1860 he was appointed professor of history and English literature in Owens College, Manchester, and was principal from 1890 to 1897, when he retired. He took an active part in the foundation of Victoria University, of which he was vice-chancellor from 1886 to 1890 and from 1894 to 1896. In 1897 the freedom of the city of Manchester was conferred upon him, and in 1900 he was elected master of Peterhouse, Cambridge. His most important work is his standard History of English Dramatic Literature to the Age of Queen Anne (1875), re-edited after a thorough revision in three volumes in 1890. He also wrote The House of Austria in the Thirty Years' War (1869), which was re-edited in 1890; Gipsies and their Way of Life (1869); The Electress Sophia and the Hanoverian Succession (1903); he edited Crabbe's Poems (2 vols., 1905-1906) and Pope's Poetical Works (1866); he wrote the volumes on Chaucer and Dickens in the "English Men of Letters" series, translated Curtius's History of Greece (5 vols., 1868-1873); he was one of the editors of the Cambridge Modern History, and with A. R. Waller edited the Cambridge History of English Literature (1907, 5 vols.). For the 9th edition of the Ency. Brit. he wrote the article Drama, and biographies of Ben Jonson and other dramatists; and he became an important contributor to the present work.

WARD, ARTEMUS (1834-1867), American humorist, was born in Waterford, Maine. He began life as a composer and became an occasional contributor to the daily and weekly journals. In 1858 he published in the Cleveland Plain Dealer the first of the "Artemus Ward" series, which attained great popularity both in America and England. His separate publications were: Artemus Ward: his Book (New York, 1862); Artemus Ward: his Travels (New York, 1863); Artemus Ward among the Pioneers (1863); Betsy Jane Ward: Her Book of Gags (New York, 1866), generally attributed to his widow; The Electress Sophia and the Hanoverian Succession (1893); and Other Papers (New York, 1867). Artemus Ward's Lecture at the Egyptian Hall . . . and Other Relics of the Humourist (London, 1869), edited by T. W. Robertson and J. C. Hotten, was published posthumously (New York, 1869). His wit largely relied on the drollery of strange spelling. In 1860 he became editor of Vanity Fair, a humorous New York weekly, which proved a failure. About the same time he began to appear as a lecturer, and his eccentric humour attracted large audiences. In 1866 he visited England, where he became exceedingly popular both as a lecturer and in literature. In the spring of the following year he gave up this occupation and devoted himself to the study of art.
WARD, J.—WARD, M. A.

(1829): A Dash to the Pole (1833); The White Crown, and Other Stories (1845); The Jorglar who moved Paradise (1897); and The Light of the World (1901).

WARD, JAMES (1829-1890), English animal painter and engraver, was born in Thames Street, London, on the 23rd of October 1769. At the age of twelve he was bound apprentice with J. Raphael Smith, but he received little attention and learnt nothing from this engraver. He was afterwards instructed for over seven years by his elder brother, William Ward, and he engraved many admirable plates, among which his "Mrs Billington," after Reynolds, occupies a very high place. He presented a complete set of his engravings, in their various states, amounting three hundred impressions, to the British Museum. While still a youth he made the acquaintance of George Morland, who afterwards married his sister; and the example of this artist's works induced him to attempt painting. His early productions were rustic subjects in the manner of Morland, which were frequently sold as the work of the more celebrated painter. His "Bull-Bait," an animated composition, introducing many figures, attracted much attention in the Royal Academy of 1797. A commission from Sir John Sinclair, president of the new Agricultural Society, to paint an Aldeurney cow and several similar works, and turned Ward's attention to animal-painting, a department in which he achieved his highest artistic successes. His "Landscape with Cattle," acquired for the National Gallery at a cost of £1,500, was painted in 1820-1822 at the suggestion of West, in emulation of the "Bull of Paul Potter" at the Hague. His "Boa Serpent Seizing a Horse" was executed in 1822, and his admirable "Grey Horse," shown in the Old Masters' Exhibition of 1839, dates from 1828. Ward also produced portraits, and many landscapes like the "Gordene Scar" and the "Harlech Castle" in the National Gallery. Sometimes he turned aside into the less fruitful paths of allegory, as in his unsuccessful "Pool of Bethesda" (1818), and "Triumph of the Duke of Wellington" (1818). He was a frequent contributor to the Royal Academy and the British Institution, and in 1841 he collected one hundred and forty examples of his art, and exhibited them in his house in Newman Street. He was elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1807, and a full member in 1811, and died at Cheshunt on the 23rd of November 1839.

WARD compiled an autobiography, of which an abstract was published in the Art Journal in 1849.

WARD, JAMES (1829- ), English psychologist and metaphysicist, was born at Hull on the 27th of January 1843. He was educated at the Lilyfield Institute, at Berlin and Göttingen, and at Trinity College, Cambridge; he also worked in the physiological laboratory at Leipzig. He studied originally for the Congregational ministry, and for a year was minister of Emmanuel Church, Cambridge. Subsequently he devoted himself to psychological research, became fellow of his college in 1875 and university professor of mental philosophy in 1897. He was Gifford lecturer at Aberdeen in 1895-1897, and at St Andrews in 1898-1900. His work shows the influence of Leibnitz and Lotze, as well as of the biological theory of evolution. His psychology marks the definite break with the sensationalism of the English school; experience is interpreted as a continuum into which distinctions are gradually introduced by the action of selective attention; the implication of the subject in experience is emphasized; and the operation in development of subjective, as well as natural, selection is maintained. In his metaphysical work the analysis of scientific concepts leads to a criticism of naturalism, and to a view of reality as a unity which implies both subjective and objective factors. This view is further worked out, through criticism of pluralism and as a theistic interpretation of the world, in his St Andrews Gifford Lectures (The Realm of Ends). Beside the article "Psychology" in the Ency. Brit. (9th and 10th edit. 1885 and 1896), and A Dictionary of National Biography (1889, 3rd ed. 1909), besides numerous articles in the Journal of Physiology, Mind, and the British Journal of Psychology.

WARD, JOHN QUINCY ADAMS (1830-1910), American sculptor, was born in Urbana, Ohio, on the 20th of June 1830. His education was received in the village schools. He studied under Henry K. Brown, of New York, in 1852-1853, and by 1857, when he opened a studio in New York, he had executed busts of Joshua R. Giddings, Alexander H. Stephens, and Hannibal Hamlin, prepared the first sketch for the "Indian Hunter," and made studies among the Indians themselves for the work. In 1863 he became a member of the National Academy of Design (New York), and he was its president in 1872-1873. Among his best-known statues are the "Indian Hunter," finished in 1864 (Central Park, New York); Washington, heroic size (on the steps of the U.S. Sub-Treasury, Wall Street, New York); Henry Ward Beecher (Brooklyn); an equistrian statue of General Sherman. Thomas Jefferson, a statue of Israel Putnam (Hartford); and the seated statue of Horace Greeley, the founder of the New York Tribune, in front of the office of that newspaper. In 1896 he was elected president of the newly organized National Sculpture Society (New York). Unlike his fellow-countryman, W. W. Story, he acquired his training, his inspiration and his themes from his own country. He died in New York on the 1st of May 1910.

WARD, LESTER FRANK (1841- ), American geologist and sociologist, was born in Johnstown, Illinois, on the 18th of June 1841. He graduated at Columbia (now George Washington) University in 1863 and from the law school of the same university in 1871, his education having been delayed by his service in the Union army during the Civil War. In 1865-1872 he was employed in the United States Treasury Department, and became assistant geologist in 1881 and geologist in 1888 to the U.S. Geological Survey. In 1884-1886 he was professor of botany in Columbia University. He wrote much on paleobotany, including A Sketch of Paleobotany (1883), The Geographical Distribution of Fossil Plants (1888) and The Status of the Mesozoic Flora of the United States (1905). He is better known, however, for his work in sociology, in which, modifying Herbert Spencer and refuting the Spencerian individualism, he paralleled social with psychological and physical phenomena. His more important works are: Dynamic Sociology (1883, 2nd ed. 1897), Psychical Factors of Civilization (1897), Outlines of Sociology (1899), Sociology and Economics (1890), Pure Sociology (1903), and, with J. Q. Dealy, Text-Book of Sociology (1905).

See an appreciation by L. Gumpowicz, in Die Zeit (Vienna, 20th Aug. 1904); reprinted in English in vol. x. of The American Journal of Sociology.

WARD, MARY AUGUSTA [MRS HUMPHREY WARD] (1831- ), British novelist, was born on the 13th of June 1851 at Hobart, Tasmania, where her father, Thomas Arnold (1824-1900), was then an inspector of schools. Thomas Arnold was a son of Arnold of Rugby, and a brother of the poet Matthew Arnold. As a scholar of University College, Oxford, at the crisis of the Oxford Movement, he had begun life as a Liberal of the school of Jowett, Stanley and Clough. In 1856 he became a Roman Catholic, relinquished his inspectorship of schools in Tasmania, and was appointed professor of English literature at Dublin, whence followed Newman to Birmingham, where he published his Manual of English Literature. After a brief period of unrest he reverted to the English Church, and went to Oxford, where he lived twenty years, editing The Select Works of Wyclif and Beaufort for the Clarendon Press, Henry of Huntingdon and Symeon of Durham for the "Rolls" series, and, with W. E. Addis, the Catholic Dictionary. In 1877 he reverted once more to the Roman Catholic Church, and was appointed fellow of the new Royal University of Ireland, dying in Dublin on the 12th of November 1906. His daughter was brought up mainly at Oxford, and her early associations with a life of scholarship and religious conflict are deeply marked in her own later literary career. She was brought into close connexion during this period with Edward Hartopp Cradock, who was principal of Brasenose College from 1853 till his death in 1886, and some of whose characteristics went to the portrait of the "Squire" in Robert Eliotson. In 1872 she married Thomas Humphrey Ward (b. 1845), then fellow and tutor of Brasenose, and one of the authors of the Oxford Spectator. Mr Humphry Ward, a son of the...
WARD, S.—WARD, W. G.

Rev. Henry Ward, Vicar of St Barnabas, King's Square, London, E.C., remained at Oxford till 1886, and then went to London to take up literary work; with the help of the chief critics of the day he brought out the important selections of English verse called The English Poets (4 vols., 1850–1881). He joined the staff of The Times and wrote much for that paper, becoming its principal art critic. He also published Humphry Sandwich, a Memoir (1884); and he edited Men of the Reign (1885), English Art in the Public Galleries of London (1886), Men of the Time (1887), and, with the help of Matthew Arnold, Huxley, Lord Wolseley, H. S. Maine and others, The Reign of Queen Victoria: a Survey of Fifty Years Progress (1887).

Mrs Humphry Ward at first devoted herself to Spanish literature, and contributed articles on Spanish subjects to the Dictionary of Christian Biography, edited by Dr William Smith and Dr Henry Wace. She wrote also for Macmillan's Magazine. In 1881 she published her first book, Milly and Olly, a child's story illustrated by Lady (then Mrs) Alma-Tadema. This was followed in 1884 by a more ambitious, though slight, study of modern life, Miss Bretherton, the story of an actress. In 1885 Mrs Ward published an admirable translation of the Journal of the Swiss philanthropist, Edmund de Casterlé, and in 1890 her delicate appreciation of the subtleties of speculative thought. It was no bad preparation for her next book, which was to make her famous. In February 1888 appeared Robert Elsmere, a powerful novel, tracing the mental evolution of an English clergyman, of high character and conscience and of intellectual leanings, constrained to surrender his own orthodoxy to the influence of the "higher criticism." The character of Elsmere owed much to reminiscences both of T. H. Green, the philosopher, and of J. R. Green, the historian. Largely in consequence of a review by W. E. Gladstone in the Nineteenth Century (May 1888, "Robert Elsmere and the Battle of Belief"), the book became the talk of the civilized world. It ran in five months through seven editions in three-volume form, and the cheap American editions had an enormous sale. It was translated into several European languages, and was the subject of articles in learned foreign reviews. Robert Elsmere is in itself a fine story, notably in its picture of the emotional conflict between Elsmere and his wife, whose over-narrow orthodoxy brings her religious faith and their mutual love to a terrible impasse; but it was the detailed discussion of the "higher criticism" of the day, and its influence on Christian belief, rather than the power as a piece of dramatic fiction, that gave the book its exceptional vogue. It started, as no academic work could have done, a popular discussion on historic and essential Christianity. In 1890 Mrs Ward took a prominent part in founding University Hall, an "Elsmarian" settlement for working and teaching among the poor. Her next novel, David Grieve, was published in 1892. In Marcella (1894), and its sequel Sir George Tressey (1896), she broke new ground in the novel of modern politics and socialism, the fruit of observation and reflection at University Hall. In 1895 she had appeared the short tragic, the Story of Bessie Costrell. Mrs Ward's next long novel, Helbeck of Bannisdale (1898), treated of the clash between the ascetic ideal of Roman Catholicism and modern life. The element of Catholic and humanistic ideals entered also into Eleanor (1900), in which, however, the author relied less on the interest of a thesis and more on the ordinary arts of the novelist. Eleanor was dramatized and played at the Court Theatre in 1902. In Lady Rose's Daughter (1903)—dramatized as Agatha in 1905—and The Marriage of William Ashe (1905), modern tales founded on the stories respectively of Mlle de Lespinasse and Lady Caroline Lamb, she achieved entirely with success upon social portraiture. Later novels were Fenwick's Career (1906), Diana Mallory (1908), Daphne (1909) and Canadian Born (1910).

Mrs Ward's eminence among latter-day women-novelists arises from her high conception of the art of fiction and her strong grasp of intellectual and social problems, her descriptive power (fondly shown in the first part of Robert Elsmere) and her command of a broad and vigorous prose style. But her activities were not confined to literature. She was the originator in England of the Vacation Schools, which have done much to educate the poorest children of the community upon rational lines. She also took a leading part in the movement for opposing the grant of the parliamentary suffrage to women, whilst encouraging their active participation in the work of local government. She was one of the founders of the Women's National Anti-Suffrage League in 1908, and both spoke and wrote repeatedly in support of its tenets.

See for bibliography up to June 1904, English Illustrated Magazine, vol. 24, pp. 297–298 (H. C.)

WARD, SETH (1677–1695), English bishop, was born in Hertfordshire, and educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, where he became fellow in 1690. In 1693 he was chosen university mathematical lecturer, but he was deprived of his fellowship next year for opposing the Solemn League and Covenant. In 1694 he became Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, and gained a high repute by his theory of planetary motion, propounded in the works entitled In Ismaelis Bullialdi astronome phillolaiae fundamenta inquisito brevis (Oxford, 1693), and Astronomia geometrica (London, 1696). About this time he was involved in a controversy with Thomas Hobbes. He was one of the original members of the Royal Society. In 1659 he was appointed master of Trinity College, Oxford, but not having the statutory qualifications he resigned in 1660. Charles II. appointed him to the livings of St Lawrence Jewry in London, and Updown, Devonshire, in 1661. He also became dean of Exeter (1661) and rector of Brook, Cornwall (1662). In the latter year he was consecrated bishop of Exeter, and in 1667 he was translated to the see of Salisbury. The office of chancellor of the Order of the Garter was conferred on him in 1671. In his diocese he showed great severity to nonconformists, and rigidly enforced the act prohibiting conventicles. He spent a great deal of money on the restoration of the cathedrals of Worcester and Salisbury. He died at Knightsbridge on the 6th of January 1688/1689.

WARD, WILLIAM (1766–1826), English mezzotint-engraver, an elder brother of James Ward (q.v.), was born in London in 1766. He was the most distinguished pupil of J. Raphael Smith, and executed a great part of many of the plates which bear the name of that excellent engraver. In 1795 he began to exhibit in the Royal Academy, of which in 1814 he was elected an associate engraver, in 1817 the engraver, and in 1824 the president, in the latter capacity being appointed mezzotint-engraver to the prince regent and the duke of York. He executed six plates after Reynolds, engraved many of the works of his brother-in-law, George Morland, and his mezzotints after Andrew Geddes, which include the full-lengths of Sir David Wilkie and of Patrick Brydone, are of great merit. His engravings are full of artistic spirit, and show fine feeling for colour; and they are excellently tender and expressive in their rendering of flesh. He died in London on the 1st of December 1826.

WARD, WILLIAM GEORGE (1812–1882), English Roman Catholic theologian, was born on the 21st of March 1812. His career is extremely interesting as illustrating the development of religious opinion at a remarkable crisis in the history of English religious thought. Ward is described by his son and biographer as somewhat unequally gifted by nature. For pure mathematics he had a special gift—almost a passion. For history, applied mathematics—for anything, in fact, outside the exact sciences—he felt something approaching to contempt. He was endowed with a strong sense of humour and a love of paradox carried to an extreme. He went up to Christ Church, Oxford, in 1830, but his father's subsequent pecuniary embarrassments compelled him in 1833 to try for a scholarship at Lincoln College, which he succeeded in obtaining. His examination for mathematical honours exhibited some of the peculiarities of his character and mental powers. Four out of his five papers on applied mathematics were sent up absolutely blank. Honours, however, were not refused him, and in 1834 he obtained an open fellowship at Balliol. In the previous year the Tractarian movement had commenced, and Ward's relations with that movement were as original as the rest of his life. He was attracted to it by his.
WARD—WARDLAW, LADY

hatred of moderation and what he called “respectability” in any shape—a characteristic of which some amusing instances have been handed down. He was repelled from it by the conception he had formed of the character of Newman, whom he regarded as a mere antiquary. When, however, he was at length persuaded by a friend to go and hear Newman preach, he at once became a disciple. But he had, as Newman afterwards said of him, “struck into the movement at an angle.” He had no taste for historical investigations. He treated the question at issue as one of pure logic, and differing the Reformers, the right of private judgment which Protestants claimed, and the somewhat prosaic uniformity of the English Church, he flung himself into a general campaign against Protestantism in general and the Anglican form of it in particular. He nevertheless took deacon’s orders in 1838 and priest’s orders in 1840.

In 1839 Ward became the editor of the British Critic, the organ of the Tractarian party, and he excited suspicion among the adherents of the Tractarians themselves by his violent denunciations of the Church to which he still belonged. In 1841 he urged the publication of the celebrated “Tract XC,” and wrote in defence of it. From that period Ward and his associates worked undisguisely for union with the Church of Rome, and in 1844 he published his Ideal of a Christian Church, in which he openly contended that the only hope for the Church of St. Paul’s, was submission to the Church of Rome. This publication brought to a height the storm which had long been gathering. The university of Oxford was invited, on the 13th of February 1845, to condemn “Tract XC,” to censure the Ideal, and to degrade Ward from his degrees. The two latter propositions were carried and “Tract XC,” only escaped censure by the non placet of the proctors, Guilmard and Church. The condemnation precipitated an exodus to Rome. Ward left the Church of England in September 1845, and was followed by many others, including Newman himself. After his separation into the Church of Rome, Ward gave himself up to ethics, metaphysics and moral philosophy. He wrote articles, on free will, the philosophy of theism, on science, prayer, and miracles for the Dublin Review. He also dealt with the condemnation of Pope Honorious, carried on a controversial correspondence with John Stuart Mill, and took a leading part in the discussions of the Metaphysical Society, founded by Mr James Knowles, of which Tennyson, Huxley and Martineau were also prominent members. He was a vehement opponent of Liberal Catholicism. In 1851 he was made professor of moral philosophy at St Edmund’s College, Ware, and was advanced to the chair of dogmatic theology in 1852. In 1856 he became editor of the Dublin Review. He gave a vigorous support to the promulgation of the dogma of Papal Infallibility in 1870. After his admission into the Roman Catholic Church he had, rather to the dismay of his friends, entered the married state, and for a time had to struggle with poverty. But his circumstances afterwards improved. He died on the 6th of July 1882. (J. L.)*

See William George Ward and the Oxford Movement (1889); and William George Ward and the Catholic Revival (1893), by his son, Wilfrid Philip Ward (b. 1886), who has also written the Life and Times of Cardinal Wiseman; and Ten Personal Studies (1908).

WARD, that the guards or watches and that which is guarded or watched. The word is a double of “guard,” which was adapted from the French comparatively late into English. Both are to be referred to the Teutonic root wer-, to protect, defend, cf. “wary,” “warn,” “beware,” O. Eng. ward, Ger. warten, &c., and the English “guardian,” “garrison,” &c. The principal applications of the term are, in architecture, to the inner courts of a fortified place; at Windsor Castle they are called the upper and lower wards (see BAILEY, CASTLE); to a ridge of metal inside a lock blocking the passage of any key which has not a corresponding slot into which the ridge fits, to the slot in the key being also called “ward” (see LOCK). Another branch of meaning is to be found in the use of the word for a division into which a borough is divided for the purpose of election of councillors, or a parish for election of guardians. It was also the term used as equivalent to “hundred” in Northumberland and Cumberland. To this branch belongs the use for the various large or small separate rooms in a hospital, asylum, &c., where patients are received and treated. The most general meaning of the word is for a minor or person who is under a guardianship (see INFANT, MARRIAGE and ROMAN LAW).

WARDEN, a custodian, defender, guardian (see GUARDIAN, a word with which it is etymologically identical). The word is frequently employed in the ordinary sense of a watchman or guardian, but more usually in England in the sense of a chief or head official. The lords wardens of the marches, for example, were powerful nobles appointed to guard the borders of Scotland and of Wales; they held their lands per baroniam, the king’s writ noted against them, and they had extensive rights of administering justice. The chief officer of the ancient stannaries of Cornwall has the title of lord warden (see STANNARIES), as has also the governor of Dover Castle (see Cinque Ports). Warden was until 1870 the alternative title of the master of the mint, and “warden of the standards” the title of the head of the Standards office (see STANDARDS). The principal or head of several of the colleges of Oxford University is also termed WARDEN.

WARDHA, a town and district of British India, in the Nagpur division of the Central Provinces, which take their name from the Wardha river. The town is situated 49 m. S.W. of Nagpur by rail. Pop. (1901) 9872. It was laid out in 1866, shortly after the district was first constituted. It is an important centre of the cotton trade.

The District of Wardha has an area of 4228 sq. m. It is hilly in the north, and intersected by spurs from the Satpura range. The central portion includes the three peaks of Malegun (1726 ft.), Nandgaon (1854 ft.), and Jahigarah (2086 ft.). From this cluster of hills numerous small streams lead to the Wardha river on the one side, while on the other the Dham, Bor, and Asoda flow down the length of the district in a south-easterly direction. The Wardha, and its affluent the Wana, are the only rivers of any importance. To the south the country spreads out in an undulating plain, intersected by watercourses, and broken here and there by isolated hills rising abruptly from the surface. In general the lowlands are well wooded. Leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and wild hogs abound in the district; other animals found are the spotted deer, nilgai and antelope. The district is subject to great variations of climate, and the rainfall at Wardha town averages 41 in. In 1901 the population was 385,103, showing a decrease of 4% in the decade. The principal crops are cotton, millet, wheat and oil-seeds. This region supplies the cotton known in the market as Hinganath. There are cotton-mills at Hinganath and Palgaon, and many factories for ginning and pressing cotton. The district is traversed by the Nagpur line of the Great Indian Peninsula railway. A branch runs from Wardha town past Hinganath to the Warora coal-field in the district of Chanda. The history of Wardha forms part of that of Nagpur district, from which it was separated in 1862 for administrative purposes.

See Wardha District Gazetteer (Alibabad, 1906).

WARDLAW, ELIZABETH, LADY (1677–1747), reputed author of Hardyknute, second daughter of Sir Charles Halket, was born in April 1677. She married in 1666 Sir Henry Wardlaw, Bart., of Pitreavie. The ballad of Hardyknute, published in 1719 as an old poem, was supposed to have been discovered by her in a vault at Dunfermline, but no MS. was ever produced; and in the 1767 edition of Percy’s Reliques the poem was ascribed to her. The beautiful ballad of Sir Patrick Spens (F. J. Child, English and Scottish Popular Ballads, ii. 17) has been also asserted to be her work, one of the supporters of the theory being Robert Chambers (Remarks on Scottish Ballads, 1859). The level of accomplishment in Hardyknute, however, gives no reason for supposing that Lady Wardlaw was capable of producing the charm of Sir Patrick Spens.

WARDLAW, H.—WAREHAM

WARDLAW, HENRY (d. 1440), Scottish prelate, was a son of Sir Andrew Wardlaw and a nephew of Walter Wardlaw (d. 1390), bishop of Glasgow, who is said to have been made a cardinal by the anti-pope Clement VII. in 1381. Educated at the universities of Oxford and of Paris, Henry Wardlaw returned to Scotland about 1385, and owing to his influential connections received many benefices in the Church. He passed some time at Avignon, and it was whilst he was residing at the papal court that he was chosen bishop of St Andrews, being consecrated in 1403. Returning to Scotland he acted as tutor to the future king, James L, and finished the work of restoring his cathedral. Then having helped to bring about the release of James from his captivity in England, he crowned this king in May 1424, and afterwards acted as one of his principal advisers. He appears to have been an excellent bishop, although he tried to suppress the teaching of John Wycliffe by burning its advocates. He died on the 6th of April 1440. Wardlaw's chief title to fame is the fact that he was the founder of the university of St Andrews, the first Scottish university. He issued the charter of foundation in February 1411, and the privileges of the new seat of learning were confirmed by a bull of Pope Benedict XIII., dated the 28th of August 1413. The university was to be "an impregnable rampart of doctors and masters to resist heresy."

WARDROBE, a portable upright cupboard for storing clothes. The earliest wardrobe was a chest, and it was not until some degree of luxury was attained in regal palaces and the castles of powerful nobles that separate accommodation was provided for the sumptuous apparel of the great. The name of wardrobe was then given to a room in which the wall-space was filled with cupboards and lockers—the drawer is a comparatively modern invention. From these cupboards and lockers the modern wardrobe, with its hanging spaces, sliding shelves and drawers, was slowly evolved. In its movable form as an oak "hanging cupboard" it dates back to the early 17th century. For probably a hundred years such pieces, massive and cumbersome in form, but often with well-carved fronts, were made in fair numbers; then the gradual diminution in the use of oak for cabinet-making produced a change of fashion. Walnut succeeded oak as the favourite material for furniture, but some strong oaks, such as the Kentish nave (q.v.) at Stowe, and others, were made. Walnut appeared to have been made very rarely, although clothes presses, with drawers and sliding trays, were frequent. During a large portion of the 18th century the tallboy (q.v.) was much used for storing clothes. Towards its end, however, the wardrobe began to develop into its modern form, with a hanging cupboard at each side, a press in the upper part of the central portion and drawers below. As a rule it was of mahogany, but so soon as satinated and other hitherto scarce finely grained foreign woods began to be obtainable in considerable quantities, many elaborately and even magnificently inlaid wardrobes were made. Where Chippendale and his school had carved, Sheraton and Hepplewhite and their contemporaries obtained their effects by the artistic employment of deftly contrasted and highly polished woods. The first step in the evolution of the wardrobe was taken when the central doors, which had hitherto enclosed merely the upper part, were carried to the floor, covering the drawers as well as the sliding shelves, and were fitted with mirrors.

WARD-ROOM (i.e. the room of the guard), the cabin occupied by the commissioned officers, except the captain, in a man-of-war. In the wooden line-of-battle ships it was above the gun- room.

WARE, a market town in the Hertford parliamentary division of Hertfordshire, England, on the river Lea, 22 m. N. of London by a branch of the Great Eastern railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 5573. The church of St Mary is a cruciform Decorated and Perpendicular building of flint and stone, consisting of chancel (built, it is supposed, by Lady Margaret Beaufort, countess of Richmond, and mother of Henry VII.), lady chapel to the south (c. 1380), nave of five bays of the time of Richard II., transepts, aisles, south porch and embattled tower of the time of Edward III. There is an elaborate Perpendicular font. The modern mansion of The Priory, to the west of the town, occupies the site of a priory of the order of St Francis, founded, according to Dugdale, by Hugh de Grantmaisill, lord of Ware. A portion of the original building is incorporated in the modern one. Among public buildings are the corn exchange and the town-hall, which includes a literary institute and library. The famous "Great Bed of Ware," referred to in Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night," which formerly was at the Saracen's Head in Ware, has been moved to Rye House, about 2 m. distant, the scene of the Rye House plot of 1683 against Charles II. The town possesses breweries and brick-fields, and there is a large trade in malt, assisted by the navigation of the Lea to London. Near the village of Great Amwell (1 m. S.E.) are the sources of the New River, formed in 1666-1672 to supply London with water; and on a small island in the stream stands a monument to Sir Hugh Myddleton, through whose exertions this work was carried out.

WARE, a township of Hampshire county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., traversed by the Ware river, and about 25 m. E.N.E. of Springfield. Pop. (1880) 487, (1890) 7559, (1900) 8263, of whom 7563 were foreign-born, (1910 census) 8774. Area 29-3 sq. m. The township is served by the Boston & Albany and Boston & N'Alaine railways, and by two interurban electric lines. Its average elevation is about 550 ft. above sea-level. There is a public library (14,225 volumes in 1910). In 1905 the value of the factory products was $3,783,606, 23.2% more than in 1900. Among the manufactures are cotton and woollen goods, and boots and shoes. The township owns and operates its waterworks. Because of its hard and rough soil, Ware was not easily settled. In 1703 the Ware townspeople formed a company for the "acquisition of the lands and waste in the town of Ware or any town thereabouts," and obtained a deed of land in 1705. Later a town charter was obtained, and Ware was incorporated as a town in 1772.

WAREHAM, a market town and municipal borough in the eastern parliamentary division of Dorsetshire, England, 12 1/4 m. S.W. by W. from London by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 2083. It lies between the rivers Frome and Piddle, 13 m. above their outflow into Poole harbour. The town is of high antiquity, and is partially surrounded by the old works probably of British construction. The church of St Mary contains a chapel dedicated to St Edward, commemorating that Edward who was murdered at Corfe Castle in this neighbourhood, whose body lay here before its removal to Shaftesbury. It also possesses a remarkable Norman font of lead. Two other ancient churches remain, but are not used for worship. There are ruins of a priory dedicated to SS. Mary, Peter and Ethelwold, and the site of the old castle may be traced. The town and neighbourhood have been long noted for their lime and cement, and large quantities of potters' pipe, fire and other kinds of clay are sent to Staffordshire and to foreign countries. The borough is under a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors. Area 253 acres.

Owing to its situation as a key of Purbeck, the site of Wareham (Wareham, Warham) has been occupied from early times. The earthworks, of British origin, were modified in almost every successive age. That Wareham was a pre-Saxon town is evident from Asser's statement that its British name was Duungecir. The early chroniclers declare that St Aldhelm founded a church near Wareham about 701, and perhaps the priory, which is noted as existing in 1054, when the Danes returned from Cambridge to a strong position in this fort. Their occupation was not lengthy. Having made terms with Alfred, they broke the conditions and returned to Cambridge. In the following year they were again at Wareham, which they made their headquarters. Peorhtic, the immediate predecessor of Egbert, was buried here. Further incursions made by the Danes in 998 and in 1015 under Canute probably resulted in the destruction of the priory, on the site of which a later house was founded in the 12th century as a cell of the Norman abbey of Lyca, and in the decayed condition of Wareham in 1586, when 203 houses
WARENNE, EARLS—WAR GAME

were ruined or waste, the result of misfortunes, poverty and fire. The early castle, which existed before 1086, was important during the civil wars of Stephen's reign; in 1142 Robert, earl of Gloucester, on his departure for France, committed it to his son's charge. Stephen, however, surprised and took it, but it surrendered to the earl in the same year on the king's refusal to send it aid. John fortified it against Louis of France in 1216, and during the civil wars it was the scene of much fighting, being stormed by the parliamentary forces in 1644. Warenne was taken in 1649 by Lord Byron, and the Warringtons in 1776 paid 20 marks for a default. In 1180-1181 they rendered account of 5 marks for erecting a geld without licence. The fee-farm of the borough was obtained in 1211, on a fine of 100 marks. The constitution of Waremham underwent a change during the years 1326-1338, when the governing body of the bailiffs and commonalty were replaced by the mayor and bailiffs. In 1587 Elizabeth granted certain privileges to Waremham, but it was not incorporated until 1703, when the existing fairs for April 6 and August 23 were granted. The port was important throughout the middle ages, and was required to furnish ships for the French war in 1334. Considerable trade was carried on with France and Spain, cloth, Purbeck stone and, later, clay being largely exported.

WARENNE, EARLS. The Warennes derived their surname from the river of Guernsey or Warenne and the little town of the same name near Arques in Normandy. William de Warenne, who crossed with William I. in 1066, was a distant cousin of the Conqueror, his grandmother having been the sister of Gunora, wife of Richard I. of Normandy: De Warenne received as his share of English spoil some 300 manors in Yorkshire, Norfolk, Surrey and Sussex, including Lewes Castle. He was wounded at the siege of Pevensey and died in 1069, a year after he had received the title of earl of Surrey. Both he and his successors were more commonly styled Earl Warenne than earl of Surrey. His wife Gundrada, described on her monument as stirps ducum, appears to have been a sister of Gharbod, earl of Chester.

Their son William, 2nd earl (c. 1091-1138), was a suitor for the hand of Matilda of Scotland, afterwards queen of Henry I. He was temporarily deprived of his earldom in 1101 for his support of Robert, duke of Normandy, but he commanded at the Battle of Trenchenberi (1106), and was governor of Rouen in 1135. He carried off Elizabeth of Vermandois, granddaughter of Henry I. of France, and wife of Robert, count of Meulan, and married her in 1118 after her husband's death.

William de Warenne, 3rd earl (d. 1148), was, with his half-brother, Robert de Beaumont, early of Leicester, present at the battle of Lincoln, where his flight early in the day contributed to Stephen's defeat. He remained faithful to the queen during Stephen's imprisonment, and in 1146 he took the cross, and was killed near Laodoicea in January 1148.

His daughter and heiress, Isabel, married in 1153 William de Blois, second son of King Stephen and Matilda of Boulogne, and in 1163 Hamelin Planntagente, natural son of Geoffrey, count of Anjou. Both Isabel's husbands appear to have borne the title of Earl Warenne. Earl Hamelin was one of those who at the council of Northampton denounced Becket as a traitor; he remained faithful to his half-brother, Henry II., during the trouble with the king's sons, and in Richard I.'s absence on the crusade he supported the government against the intrigues of Prince John.

William de Warenne (d. 1240), son of Isabel and Hamelin, who succeeded to the earldom in 1216, enjoyed the special confidence of King John. In 1212, when a general rebellion was apprehended, John committed him the custody of the northern shires; and he remained faithful to his master throughout the troubles which preceded the signing of the Charter. In 1216, as the king's situation became desperate, the earl repented of his loyalty, and, shortly before the death of John, made terms with Prince Louis. He returned, however, to his lawful allegiance immediately upon the accession of Henry III., and was, during his minority, a loyal supporter of the crown. He disliked, however,

the royal favourites who came into power after 1227, and used his influence to protect Hubert de Burgh when the latter had been removed from office by their efforts (1232). Warenne's relations with the king became strained in course of time. In 1238 he was evidently regarded as a leader of the baronial opposition, for the great council appointed him as one of the treasurers who were to prevent the king from squandering the subsidy voted in that year. His son John de Warenne (c. 1231-1304) succeeded 1240, and at a later date bore the style of earl of Surrey and Sussex. In the battle of Lewes (1264) he fought under Prince Edward, and on the defeat of the royal army fled with the queen to France. His estates were confiscated but were subsequently restored. He served in Edward I.'s Welsh campaigns, and took a still more prominent part in Scottish affairs, being the king's lieutenant in Scotland in 1296-1297. In September 1297 he advanced to Stirling, and, giving way to the clamour of his soldiers, was defeated by William Wallace on the 11th. He invaded Scotland early the next year with a fresh army, and, joining Edward in the second expedition of that year, commanded the rear at Falkirk. He was killed in the battle.

By his first wife, Alice of Lusignan, half-sister of Henry III., Earl Warenne had three children—Alice, who married Henry Percy, father of the 1st baron Percy; Isabella, who married John Baliol, afterwards king of Scots; and William, who pre-deceased his father, leaving a son John.

John de Warenne (1286-1347) succeeded his grandfather in 1304, and was knighted along with the prince of Wales in 1306, two days after his marriage with the prince's niece, Joanna, daughter of Eleanor of England, countess of Bar. From that time Joanna was his constant companion. He was not engaged in the Scottish war, in which he had a personal interest, since John Baliol was his cousin and at one time his ward. As there were no children of his marriage, his nephew, Richard Fitzalan II., earl of Arundel (c. 1307-1376), became heir to his estates and the earldom of Surrey. His northern estates reverted to the crown, and the southern estates held by Joanna of Bar during her lifetime passed to Fitzalan. The Warrens of Poynton, barons of Stockport, descended from one of Earl Warenne's illegitimate sons by Isabella de Holland. Earl Warenne had received from Edward Baliol the Scottish earldom of Strathbarn, but seems never to have established an effective possession.


WAR GAME, or (in its German form) KRIEGSPIEL, a scientific game, played by representing the positions and movements of troops on a map. Kriegspiel is, as the name indicates, of German origin. A form of it, invented by Marshal Keith, called Kriegs-schachspiel (War Chess), was in vogue in the 19th century. In its present form it was invented by von Reisswitz (1794-1827), a Prussian officer, in 1824. As a game it quickly became fashionable at the German courts, and as a means of instruction it was promptly introduced into the Prussian army, whence it has spread to all the armies of the world. The idea of it has been applied also to naval warfare in recent times, the most usual form of naval war game being that designed by F. T. Jane about 1898.

In the military game the positions of troops are marked on maps, movements are made under regulations and the whole or portions of past campaigns can be reproduced in outline of fair accuracy, or more usually hypothetical manoeuvres may be formulated for study and instruction. The materials required are at least three copies of the same map, drawn to such scale as may be suitable to the magnitude of the operations to be represented. If the scheme is one for small numbers of troops, maps of large scale are essential, as small features of the ground largely influence the action of small bodies, and it is only on large-scale maps that the real influence of small features can readily be appreciated. Conversely, with large bodies, maps on a diminished scale are convenient. A great amount of detail is necessary in all maps drawn for military purposes; heights, roads, buildings, water-courses, fences and the nature of the

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ground, all enter into the question of the feasibility or the reverse of military operations; and where the map is the actual field of manoeuvre, the features of the natural field must be adequately supplied. Blocks, cut or moulded to scale, represent the different units of the combatants; and are coloured (generally red and blue) to distinguish the opposing forces. Some pairs of dividers and a few measures of the same scale as the maps employed complete the material. Southburgh’s maps for submission for manoeuvre were on smaller scale; and although rules have been drafted at various times and in many languages, they have generally been allowed to lapse, practice having proved that the decision of a competent umpire is of more value, as to the soundness or unsoundness of a military manoeuvre, than a code of regulations which inevitably lack elasticity.

The usual course of procedure varies but little in the different countries in which the system has been employed. The central map screened from the view of the combatants is used by the umpire, who places on it the forces of both sides; copies are on either hand behind screens or in adjoining rooms, and on them representative blocks are placed in position. Each umpire is supplied by information possessed by each respective commander. A scheme is formulated such as may occur in war, and a “General Idea” or “Narrative” is the common property of both sides. This contains the broad lines of the preliminary moves in the game, and is on the proposed movement of either commander in the field. The General Idea is supplemented by “special ideas,” issued one to each of the combatants, supplying the information which a commander may require only in the event of the occupation of his own field. A third series of instructions is issued, entitled “Orders,” which define to each commander the object to be attained; and on receipt of these he is required to draw up specific orders, such as, in manoeuvre or in war, would be considered necessary for issue to field units in the assumed circumstances. Then the game begins. The units of artillery, cavalry, infantry or train-wagons advance or retreat at a rate approximately regulated to their normal pace. Information gained by advancing patrols is brought at realistic speed to its destination; and no alteration in the ordered movements of a unit is allowed, till expiration of the time fixed for the execution of the move, or for the issue of fresh orders. So the exercise progresses, each movement is marked, and periodically the blocks on the three maps are placed as they would be at a simultaneous moment. Smaller units yield to larger ones of the enemy; equal forces, as such, are balanced by superiority of position; “contain” one another, and are practically neutralised till reinforcements arrive and equilibrium is overthrown.

The decisions of the umpire are all-important, and it is he who makes or mars the value of the instruction. Some customs must be universally accepted for the guidance both of himself and of the players. A force arrayed within effective range on the flank of an equal force is better than one which is in position with an impeded glisca is a terrible task for a frontal attack. Cavalry, as such, is ineffective in woodlands, marshes or a country broken up by cross hedges or wire fencing. Infantry in manoeuvre can do much more effective work, and bodies affords opportunities for attack by well-handled cavalry. The just application of the ideas contained in these few sentences to the varying stages of a combat is no mean task for a cultured soldier.

One of many difficulties encountered in war is the lack of accurate information. Any man’s view of details spread over large areas of country is extremely limited, even with the greatest precautions against unreality, a commander’s information is vastly more accurate over the extended units of his mimetic force at kriegspiel than when the forces so represented are men, horses and machines, wrapped in dust or in smoke, and partially obscured by accidents of the ground too insignificant for reproduction on the map. Yet whilst accepting a certain unreality in kriegspiel, and to a less degree in field manoeuvres, both by one and the other military training and education, the player must not forget that the effective capabilities of bodies affords opportunities for attack by well-handled cavalry. The just application of the ideas contained in these few sentences to the varying stages of a combat is no mean task for a cultured soldier.

WARGLA, a town in the Algerian Sahara, 175 m. S.W. of Biskra on the caravan route to the Niger countries, and a starting-point for the exploration of the southern part of the Sahara. Pop. (1906) 3,579, the majority of mixed Berber and negro blood. The town is walled and is entered by six gateways, which are fortified. The French fort, barracks, hospital and other buildings are south of the native town. Wargla lies in an oasis containing many palm trees. It claims to be the oldest town in the Sahara, and was for a long time self-governing, but eventually placed under the protection of the sultan of Morocco. The sultan, however, had ceased to have any power in the town some time previous to the French occupation. Wargla was first occupied for the French in 1853 by native allies, but it was not until 1872 that the authority of France was definitely established. The importance of the town as a trans-Saharan trade centre has greatly declined since the suppression of slave-trading by the French. The oasis in which Wargla is situated contains two or three other small fortified ksars or villages, the largest and most picturesque being Ruissat. The total population of the oasis is about 12,000.

WARHAM, William (c. 1450–1532), archbishop of Canterbury, belonged to a Hampshire family, and was educated at Winchester and New College, Oxford, afterwards practising and teaching law both in London and Oxford. Later he took holy orders, held two livings, and became master of the rolls in 1504, while Henry VII. found him a useful and clever diplomatist. He helped to arrange the marriage between Henry’s son, Arthur, and Catherine of Aragon; he went to Scotland with Richard Foxe, then bishop of Durham, in 1497; and he was partly responsible for several commercial and other treaties between Flanders, Burgundy and the German king, Maximilian I. In 1502 Warham was consecrated bishop of London and became keeper of the great seal, but his tenure of both these offices was short, as in 1504 he became lord chancellor and archbishop of Canterbury. In 1509 the archbishop married and then crowned Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon, but gradually withdrawing into the background he resigned the office of lord chancellor in 1515, and was succeeded by Wolsey, whom he had consecrated as bishop of Lincoln in the previous year. This resignation was possibly due to his dislike of Henry’s foreign policy. He was present at the Field of the Cloth of Gold in 1520, and assisted Wolsey as assessor during the secret inquiry into the validity of Henry’s marriage with Catherine in 1527. Throughout the divorce proceedings Warham’s position was essentially that of an old and weary man. He was named as one of the counsellors to assist the queen, but, fearing to incur the king’s displeasure and using his favourite phrase “praecum non esse,” he gave her very little help; and he signed the letter to Clement VII. which urged the pope to assent to Henry’s wish. Afterwards it was proved that for the above reasons he should try the case, but his suggestion came to nothing. He presided over the Convocation of 1531 when the clergy of the province of Canterbury voted £100,000 to the king in order to avoid the penalties of praemunire, and accepted Henry as supreme head of the church with the saving clause “so far as the law of Christ allows.” In his concluding years, however, the archbishop showed rather more independence. In February 1532 he protested against all acts concerning the church passed by the parliament which met in 1529, but this did not prevent the important proceedings which occupied the convocation through the following year, and their finalisation in the same year. Against this further compliance with Henry’s wishes Warham drew up a protest; he likened the action of Henry VIII. to that of Henry II., and urged Magna Carta in defence of the liberties of the church. He died on the 22nd of August 1532 and was buried in Canterbury cathedral. Warham, who was chancellor of Oxford University from 1506 until his death, was munificent in his public, and moderate in his private life. As archbishop he seems to have been somewhat arbitrary, and his action led to a serious quarrel with Bishop Foxe of Winchester and others in 1512.

WARKWORTH, a small town in the Wansbeck parliamentary division of Northumberland, England, 32 m. N. of Newcastle-upon-Tyne by the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 712. It is beautifully situated in a hollow of the river Coquet, 13 m. above its mouth, where, on the S. bank is Amble, an urban district (pop. 4428), with a harbour. An ancient bridge of two arches crosses the river, with a fortified gateway on the road mounting to the castle, the site of which is surrounded on three sides by the river. Of this Norman stronghold there are fine remains, including walls, a gateway and hall; while the remainder, including the Lion tower and the keep, is of the 13th and 14th centuries. Roger Fitz-Richard held the manor and probably built the earliest parts of the castle in the reign of Henry II. The lordship came to the Percies in Edward III.'s reign and is still held by their descendants the dukes of Northumberland, though it passed from them temporarily after the capture of the castle by Henry IV. in 1405, and again on the fall of the house of Lancaster. The foundation of Warkworth church is attributed to CSLovul, king of Northumbria (c. 736), who subsequently became a monk. It was the scene of a massacre by a Scottish force sent by William the Lion in 1174. The church is principally of Norman and Perpendicular work, but remains of the Saxon building have been discovered. In the vicinity are remains of a Benedictine priory of the 11th century. By the side of the Coquet above the castle is the Hermitage of Warkworth. This remarkable relic consists of an outer portion built of stone, and an inner portion hewn from the steep rock above the arch. This part contains a storeroom and a smaller chamber, both having altars. There is an altar-tomb with a female effigy in the chapel. From the window between the inner chamber and the chapel, and from other details, the date of the work may be placed in the latter part of the 11th century, the characteristics being late Decorated. The traditional story of the origin of the hermitage, attributing it to one of the Bertrams of Bothal Castle in this county, is told in Bishop Percy's ballad The Heroine of Warkworth (1771). At Amble are ruins of a monastic toll-house, where a tax was levied on shipping; and Coquet Island, 1 m. off the mouth of the river, was a monastic retreat from the earliest times, like the Farne and Holy Islands farther north. The harbour at Amble has an export trade in coal and bricks, coal and fireclay being extensively worked in the neighbourhood, and an import trade in timber.

WARLOCK, a wizard, sorcerer or magician (see MAGIC). The word in O. Eng. is werloga, literally "a liar against the truth," from wer, truth, cognate with Lat. verum (cf. Ger. wahr), and loga, liar, from fegan, to lie (cf. Ger. lügen). It was thus used with the meaning of a traitor, deceiver, a breaker of a truce. In M. Eng. it is found as a name for the devil (werlog, the arch liar and deceiver. The use of the word as a noun for a sorcerer or wizard, one whose magic powers are gained by his league with the devil, seems to be a northern English or Scottish use.

WARMINGTON, a market town in the Westbury parliamentary division of Wilts, England, 1001 m. W. by S. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 5547. Its white stone houses form a long curve between the uplands of Salisbury Plain, which sweep away towards the north and east, and the tract of park and meadow land lying south and west. The cruciform church of St. Denys has a 14th-century south porch and tower. St. Lawrence's chapel, a chantry built under Edward I., was bought by the townfolk at the Revolution. Warmington has also a free school established in 1707, a missionary college, a training home for lady missionaries and a reformatory for boys. Besides a silk mill, malthouses and engineering and agricultural implement works, there is a brisk trade in farm produce.

Warmington appears in Domesday, and was a royal manor whose tenant was bound to provide, when required, a night's lodging for the king and his retinue. This privilege was enforced by George III. and he visited Longleat. The meeting of roads from Bath, Frome, Shaftesbury and Salisbury was a busy coaching centre. Eastward, within 2 m., there are two great British camps: Battlesbury, almost impregnable save on the north, where its entrenchments are double; and Scratchbury, a line of outworks encircling an area of some 40 acres, with three entrances and a citadel in the midst. Barrows are numerous. Longleat, a seat of the marquesses of Bath, lies 5 m. S.E., surrounded by its deer park, crossed from N. to S. by a long and narrow mere. The house is one of the largest and most beautiful examples in the county, dating from the close of the 15th century. Its name is derived from the "least" or command which conveyed water from Horningsham, about 1 m. south, to supply the mill and Austin priory founded here late in the 13th century. The monastic estates passed at the Dissolution to the Thynne family, who built Longleat. Sir Christopher Wren added certain staircases and a doorway. In 1670 the owner was the celebrated Thomas Thynne satirized in Dryden's Absalom and Achitophel, and Bishop Ken found a home at Longleat for twenty years after the loss of his bishopric.

WARNER, CHARLES DUDLEY (1829-1900), American essayist and novelist, was born of Puritan ancestry, in Plainfield, Massachusetts, on the 25th of September 1829. From his birth to his fourteenth year he lived in Charlemont, Mass., the scene of the experiences pictured in his delightful study of childhood, Being a Boy (1877). He removed thence to Cazenovia, New York, and in 1851 graduated from Hamilton College, Clinton, N.Y. He worked with a surveying party in Missouri; studied law at the university of Pennsylvania; practised in Chicago (1850-1860); was assistant editor (1860) and editor (1861-1867) of The Hartford Press, and after The Press was merged with the Connecticut, on whose staff he was editor in chief, he contributed to the Southern Pacific, and in 1884 he joined the editorial staff of Harper's Magazine, for which he conducted The Editor's Drawer until 1892, when he took charge of "The Editor's Study." He died in Hartford on the 20th of October 1900. He travelled widely, lectured frequently, and was actively interested in prison reform, city park supervision and other movements for the public good. He was the first president of the National Institute of Arts and Letters, and, at the time of his death, was president of the American Social Science Association. He first attracted attention by the reflective sketches entitled My Summer in a Garden (1857); first published in The Hartford Courant, popular for their abounding and refined humour and mellow personal charm, their wholesome love of outdoor things, their suggestive comment on life and affairs, and their delicately finished style, qualities that suggest the work of Washington Irving. Among his other works are Suauterings (descriptions of travel in eastern Europe, 1872) and Back-Log Studies (1872); Baddeley, and That Sort of Thing (1874), travels in Nova Scotia and elsewhere; My Winter on the Nile (1876); In the Levant (1876); In the Wilderness (1878); A Roundabout Journey, in Europe (1888); On Horsback, in 1878; he removed to New York, where, however, he was ill of little success; he then went to his father's farm in Vermont, and worked for manufacturers of silver and plated ware as well
as makers of mantel ornaments. He attracted the attention of Daniel Cottier, of the Cottier Art Galleries of New York, where Warner's work was exhibited, and some commissions gradually secured for him recognition. They were followed by busts of Alden Weir, the artist, and of Maud Morgan, the musician; some decorations for the Long Island Historical Society; statues of Governor Buckingham at the State Capitol, Hartford, Conn.; William Lloyd Garrison, Benjamin Franklin, General Charles Gates, and more, all done in the reliefs of several striking North American Indian types; a fountain for Portland, Oregon, and the designs for the bronze doors, "Tradition" and "Writing," of the Congressional Library at Washington, of which he lived to complete only the former, which contains the beautiful figures of "Imagination" and "Memory." Warner died in New York City on the 14th of August 1896. He was one of the five charter members of the Society of American Artists (1877), and in 1889 became an academician, National Academy of Design, New York. One of his best-known works is a "Diana." He designed the souvenier silver half-dollar piece for the Columbia Fair at Chicago, in 1893, making also some colossal heads of great artists for the art palace, and busts of Governors Clinton and Flower, of New York State.

WARNER, SETH (1733-1784), American Revolutionary soldier, was born in Roxbury, Connecticut, on the 17th of May 1743. He removed with his father to the "New Hampshire Grants." In 1763, and became prominent among the young men who forcibly resisted New York's claim to the territory (see Vermont). At the outbreak of the War of Independence, he led the rangers of "Green Mountain Boys," which captured Crown Point (q.v.) on the 11th of May, 1775, and took part in the unsuccessful expedition against Quebec later in the year. In July 1776 he became colonel in the Continental Army, and served throughout the war. He retired in 1782, and returned to Roxbury, where he died in 1784.

See Daniel Chipman. Life (Burlington, Vt., 1858).

WARNER, WILLIAM (1538-1609), English poet, was born in London about 1538. He was educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, but left the university without taking a degree. He practised in London as an attorney, and gained a great reputation among his contemporaries as a poet. His chief work is a long poem in fourteen-syllabled verse, entitled Albion's England (1586), and dedicated to Henry Carey, 1st Baron Hunsdon. His history of his country begins with Noah, and is brought down to Warner's own time. The chronicle is by no means continuous, and is varied by fictitious episodes, the best known of which is the idyll in the fourth book of the loves of Argentille, the daughter of the king of Deira, and the Danish prince, Curan. Here Warner's simple art shows itself at its best. His book, perhaps on account of its patriotic subject, was very popular, but it is an indispensable and how Francis Meres came to rank him with Spenser as the chief heroic poets of the day, and to institute a comparison between him and Euripides. Warner died suddenly at Amwell in Hertfordshire on the 9th of March 1600.

His other works are Pan his Syrinx, or Pipe, Compact of Seven Riddles (1585), a collection of prose tales; and a translation of the Menandres of Plutarch (1585). Albion's England consisted originally of four "books," but the number was increased in successive issues, and a posthumous edition (1612) contains sixteen books. It was reprinted (1814) in Alexander Chalmers' English Poets.

WARNSDORF, a town of Bohemia, Austria, 124 m. N.E. of Prague by rail. Pop. (1900) 31,350. Warnsdorf was founded in 1870 by uniting seven separate village communities, and is now one of the largest towns in Bohemia. It is a great industrial centre, especially for textiles.

WAROBA, a town of British India, in Chandia district of the Central Provinces, on a branch of the Great Indian Peninsula railway. Pop. (1901) 10,626. Warora gives its name to a coalfield, which was worked by the government from 1871 to 1906; a fire-clay industry under the same management also raises bricks and tiles. The pinning and pressing of cotton is an important industry.

WARRANT (Med. Lat. warrantum; O. Fr. garant, warrant, derived from O.H.G. root represented in modern German by gewähren), in English law, an authority in writing empowering a person to do an act or to execute an office. The procedure known as quo warranto (q.v.) is used to determine the right to hold certain kinds of public office. The term "warrant" occurs very early in constitutional documents: it is found in the Assize of Clarendon and the Assize of the Forest, both in the reign of Henry II., but in neither case in its modern meaning. Warrants were formerly used to settle or to challenge the right of certain great officers of state to interfere with personal liberty, especially as to offences of state. The legality of these proceedings was challenged by the judges in Elizabeth's reign. On the abolition of the Star Chamber it was enacted (16 Can c. 10) that if any person

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The warrant is a legal document (q.v.) which has been specially granted or issued by the King, and which is necessary in order to legalise an act of which otherwise it would be unlawful or invalid.

Warrant.--"Warrant" (Lat. warrantum) is an English word, which is derived from the Ger. Wortunah, wortunah ('license'), and is applied to a legal document, confirmed or given by the King, enabling a person to carry into execution some act which otherwise would be an illegal or unlawful act. It is an authority to do, or to execute an office. It is therefore, by definition, a permission, and not a prohibition, and is an instrument of public law, which distinguishes it from the private warrant, which is a private document, and is given to procure the arrest of a person by authority of a private individual, such as a sheriff, constable, or landlord.

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be imprisoned by warrant of the king in person, of the council board, or of any of the privy council, he is entitled to a writ of habeas corpus as a matter of course. The law provides for the arrest of any person found in the county, or out of the county, where the warrant was issued, by a constable or justice of the peace. The warrant must be served within 14 days after the arrest, and the person must be brought before the court within 40 days after the arrest, or be discharged by habeas corpus.

The warrant for arrest must be executed by a constable or other officer authorized by law. The warrant must be in writing and signed by the officer or justice who issued it. The warrant must state the name of the person to be arrested, the offense for which the warrant is issued, and the place where the person is to be found. The warrant must be served on the person to be arrested within 24 hours after it is issued.

In cases where the warrant is issued for the purpose of executing a sentence of imprisonment, the warrant must be served on the person to be imprisoned within 24 hours after the sentence is made.

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**WARRANT OF ATTORNEY.** A warrant of attorney to confess judgment is a security for money (now practically obsolete) in the form of an authority to a solicitor named by a creditor, empowering him to sign judgment in an action against the debtor for the sum due, with a defeasance, or clause that the judgment shall not be enforceable in case of default in paying the money secured. It was often used as a collateral security, either for the payment of an annuity or with mortgages, in any other part of the British islands (see Summary Jurisdiction).

There is also a special provision as to executing warrants in the border counties of England and Scotland. The Criminal Offenders Act 1881 provision is made for the issue of warrants in aid of foreign and colonial justice; but the foreign and colonial provisions are not applicable to the United Kingdom.

The word "warrant" is used as is to a few judicial or quasi-judicial matters of civil concern, e.g., warrant to arrest a ship in an admiralty action in rem; and in the county courts warrants to the bailiffs of the counties for the apprehension of persons specified. In either event, a judicial remedy derived from feudal relations between lord and vassal. Arrest in civil or quasi-civil proceedings is in certain cases effected by a warrant, a written order given by the judge or justice of the court for his attendance (Bankruptcy Act 1883, s. 25), and in certain cases where justices have summary jurisdiction.

Financial and Commercial.—Payment out of the treasury is generally made upon warrant. Treasury warrants are regulated by many of the acts dealing with the national debt.

Payment of dividends by trading corporations and companies is generally made by means of dividend warrants. Mercantile warrants are also known as a right to the debt of others, and are often those deposited at a dock or warehouse, and by mercantile custom regarded as documents of title to the goods to which they relate. They are known as warehouse warrants, consignment warrants, or bills of lading, in the latter case. (See Bills of Exchange.)

For payment of the principal of bonds and debentures, warrants are issued by the Secretary of State in favor of the Bank of England, or by the Bank of England in favor of the corporations or companies whose bonds and debentures are paid in the warrant form. The warrant may be for a sum of money, or for a sum of money and interest, or for the amount of the bond or debenture which is paid in the warrant form. The warrant may be in favor of a single corporation or company, or in favor of a group of corporations or companies. The warrant may be issued for the payment of the principal or interest of the bond or debenture.

Warrants for the payment of money are issued by the United States government in the form of Treasury warrants. These warrants are payable upon the presentation of the warrant to the treasurer of the United States, or to the paymaster of the United States, or to any other authorized person or officer, as the warrant may provide. The warrant must be signed by the secretary of the treasury.

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order that the mortgage, by entering up judgment, might obtain priority in the administration of the assets of the mortgagor. The Debtor's Act 1860 contained various provisions for making known to the debtor the extent of the liability incurred by him, among others that the warrant must be executed in the presence of a solicitor named in the warrant, and that it and the defiance must be written on the same paper. A warrant of attorney must be duly stamped, generally as a mortgage (q.v.), and must be registered as a judgment in the central office of the Supreme Court.

WARRANT-OFFICER. In the British navy, the name given to officers who rank next to those who hold commissions, being appointed by warrant. They include the master, pursuer, surgeon, gunner, boatswain and carpenter, the first three being of "ward-room rank," i.e. messing with the lieutenants. In the military forces a warrant-officer is an appointed office above warrant, ranks below the commissioned officers and above the non-commissioned officers. A warrant-officer often holds an honorary commission.

WARRANT, etymologically, another form of GUARANTEE (q.v.). It is used, however, in a rather different sense. The sense common to both words is that of a collateral contract, under which responsibility for an act is incurred, and for the breach of which an action for damages lies. Warranty generally expresses the responsibility of the person doing the act, guarantee the responsibility of some other person on his behalf. A warranty may be either a written or an oral declaration of an absolute, or implied statement of something which the party undertakes shall be part of the contract, and, though part of the contract, collateral to the express object of it" (Chater v. Hopkins, 1838, 4 M. & W. 404). It differs from a condition in that a condition forms the basis of the contract and a breach of it discharges from the contract, and from a representation in that the latter does not affect the contract unless made a part of it expressly, or by implication as in contracts of insurance and other contracts uberrimae fidei, or unless it be fraudulent. These distinctions are not always accurately maintained. Thus in the Real Property Act 1845, § 4, a condition seems to be used for warranty.

Warranty as it affected the law of real property was, before the passing of the Real Property Limitation Act 1833 and the Fines and Recoveries Act 1833, a matter of the highest importance. A warranty in a conveyance was a covenant real annexed to an estate of inheritance or to an estate in possession, and in a lease was a warranty implied in cases where a feudal relation might exist between feoffor and feoffee. The warranty, as described by Littleton, § 697, was an obligation to render good and sufficient title to the land.

At the time of Glanvill the heir was bound to warrant the reasonable donations of his ancestor. Warranty was one of the elements in Bracton's definition of homage, 78b, "4 juni versum, qui hominem dominum deductum atque acquietandum tenetem sui in sequa, ens." For an express warranty the word warranty or warranty was necessary. The word warranty is used instead of a certain kinds of partition. In order to bind heirs a clause of warranty was required. This was either lineal, collateral or commencing by devise. The differences between the three kinds were very technical, and depended on abstruse and obsolete learning. They are treated at great length in old works on real property, especially Coke upon Littleton by Butler, 3646. The feoffor or his heirs were bound by voucher to warranty or judgment in a writ of warranty where the warranty is the subject of the suit and not merely the subject of the voucher. Vouching to warranty was a part of the old fictitious proceedings in a common recovery in use for the purpose of barring an execution, as in the Fines and Recoveries Act 1833, in the Land Registry and in the Law of Nature, as far as it relates to the conveyance of real estate, though not actually abolished in all possible cases, is now superseded by covenants for title. The more usual of these are now by the Conveyance instead of warranty is used to express the idea of warranty. For the different warranties of title and quality see SALE OF GOODS. Vouching to warranty was at one time important in the law of personality as well as of reality. The procedure is fully described in Glanvill. The right of calling on the holder of lost or stolen goods to vouch to warranty (intercitate), i.e. to give up the name of the person from whom he received them, under pain of forfeiture, was often granted in cases which involved a personal liability, as it exists as present in the law of personality, is either express or implied. There is no general rule as to what constitutes a warranty. It is not necessary that an express warranty should be in writing, the law being that every agreement by which the security of one's chattels is a warranty, provided that it appears to have been so intended. The principal cases of implied warranty occur in the contracts of sale and hire, and shelter and hire of a ship. In other cases of implied warranty the warranty may be excluded by the specific terms of the contract, such as a warranty of condition may be brought directly, or the breach may be used as ground for a counter claim or for reduction of damages, but the breach will not terminate the contract. A warranty may be implied by a rescission of the contract. Thus in a sale the property passes although the warranty be broken. In some cases warranties on sale are the subject of statutory enactments, as the Merchandise Marks and Sale of Food and Drugs Acts. In some other acts, such as the Bills of Exchange Act 1882, the term warranty does not occur, but the practical effect is the same.

Scotland.—The term corresponding to warranty in the law of heritable property is warandice, strictly speaking, seems confined to movables. Warrandice appears early in Scots law, the heir by Regiam Majestatem being bound to warrant the reasonable donations of his ancestor. Warrandice in the existing law is either real or personal. Real warrandice is that whereby warrandice lands are made over, as indemnity for those conveyed, to assure the person to whom they were conveyed from loss by the appearance of a superior title. Real warrandice is implied in ex-cambion. Its effect is that the exchanger, in case of eviction, may recover possession of his original lands. This is not in accordance with the English law in exchange. Personal warrandice is either express or implied. Express warrandice is either simple, against the future acts of the persons, or general, against the acts of all persons. It is implied, or in the absence of positive law, or against all persons, or against everyone, or against all persons, or against all. It is on any ground existing before the sale. A clause of warrandice is the Scottish equivalent of the English covenants for title. By the Titles to Land Consolidation (Scotland) Amendment Act 1869 a clause of warrandice in a charter is given in the schedule to the act imports absolute warrandice as regards the lands and the title-deeds thereof, and warrandice from fact and deed as regards the rents.

United States.—Warranty in conveyances of real estate is expressly abjured by statute in many states. In some states warranty is implied on the transfer and indorsement of negotiable instruments. (J. W.)

WARREN, GOUVENEUR KEMBLE (1820-1882), American soldier, was born at Coldspring, New York, on the 8th of February 1820, and entered West Point in 1846, graduating in 1850. He was assigned to the engineers, and for several years was employed in survey work in the West, where he took part in some expeditions against the Indians. In 1859 he was made assistant instructor in mathematics at West Point. But two years later, at the outbreak of the Civil War, the scientific subaltern was made lieutenant-colonel of volunteers and posted to the newly raised 4th New York Volunteer Infantry. He was fully equal to the task, for his regiment was very soon brought into a state of marked efficiency. In August he was promoted colonel. He led a brigade at Gaines's Mill, Second Bull Run and Antietam, and was shortly afterwards promoted brigadier-general of Volunteers. During the Fredericksburg campaign he was on the engineer staff of the Army of the Potomac, but after Chancellorsville he was appointed chief of engineers in that army, and in that capacity rendered brilliant services at Gettysburg (q.v.), his reward being promotion to major-general U.S.V. and the brevet of colonel in the regular army. When the Army of the Potomac was reorganized in the spring of 1864 Warren returned to the V. corps as its commander.

His service in the V. corps (q.v.) campaigns proved his fitness for this large and responsible command, but his naturally lively imagination and the engineer's inbred habit of caution combined to make him a brilliant but somewhat unsafe subordinate. He would have become one of the great chiefs of staff of history, or even a successful army commander, but he sometimes failed where a less highly gifted man would have succeeded. He was at his best when the military situation depended on his exercising his initiative, as on the first day in the Wilderness, in which his action saved the army, at his worst when, as on the 10th of May at Spotsylvania, he missed his chance to strike a decisive blow. On the latter occasion both Grant and Meade threatened to relieve him of his command, and Humphreys, the chief of staff of the army, was actually sent to control the movements of the V. corps. Similar incidents took place in later stages of
the campaign, and at last, at the critical moment preceding the battle of Five Forks, Sheridan, who was in charge of the operations, was authorized by Grant to relieve Warren of his command (1864-5). The thoughtful Warren and the eager, violent Sheridan were ill-matched. At the outset the V. corps, being no longer composed of the solid troops of 1862 and 1863, fell into confusion, which Warren exerted himself to remedy, and in the event the battle was an important Union victory. But after it had ended Sheridan sent for Warren and, with no attempt to soften the blow, relieved him of his command. A court of inquiry was subsequently held, which entirely exonerated Warren from the reckless charges of apathy, almost of cowardice, which Sheridan brought against him. Shortly after Five Forks Warren resigned his volunteer commission, and received the brevet of brigadier-general in the regular army. After the war he was employed, in the substantive rank of major (1879 lieutenant-colonel) of engineers, in survey work and harbour improvements. General Warren died on the 8th of August 1892 at Newport, R.I. A statue to his memory was erected at Round Top, on the field of Gettysburg, on the sixth anniversary of his death.

WARREN, SIR JOHN BORLASE, Bart. (1753-1822), English admiral, was born at Stapleford, Nottinghamshire, on the 2nd of November (1752), being the son of John Borlase Warren (d. 1750) of Stapleford and Little Marlow. He was educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and in 1773 entered the navy as an able seaman; in 1774 he became member of parliament for Marlow; and in 1775 he was created a baronet, the baronetcy held by his ancestors, the Borlases, having become extinct in 1689. His career as a seaman really began in 1777, and two years later he obtained command of a ship. In April 1794, in charge of a squadron of frigates, Warren captured three French frigates, and in similar ways he did excellent service for some time in protecting British trade. In 1796 he was raised to the rank ofcaptained or destroyed 220 vessels. Perhaps his best deed in the service was the defeat in October 1798 of a French fleet, carrying 3000 men, which it was intended to land in Ireland, a plan which he completely frustrated. In 1802 he was sent to St Petersburg as ambassador extraordinary, but he did not forsake the sea, and in 1806 he captured a large French warship, the "Marengo." He became an admiral in 1810, and was commander-in-chief on the North American station in 1813-1814. He died on the 27th of February 1852. His two sons preceded their father, and his daughter and heiress, Frances Mary, married George Charles Vanables-Vernon, 4th Lord Vernon (1779-1853). Their son was George John Warren Vernon, 5th Lord Vernon (1803-1860).

WARREN, JOSEPH (1741-1775), American politician, was born at Roxbury, Massachusetts, on the 11th of July 1741. He graduated from Harvard College in 1759, taught in a school at Roxbury in 1760-1761, studied medicine, and began to practise in Boston in 1764. The Stamp Act agitation aroused his interest in public questions. He soon became associated with Samuel Adams, John Adams and Josiah Quincy, Jr., as a leader of the popular party, and contributed articles and letters to the Boston Gazette over the signature "True Patriot." The efforts of Samuel Adams to secure the appointment of committees of correspondence met with his hearty support, and he and Adams were the two leading members of the first Boston committee of correspondence, chosen in 1772. As chairman of a committee appointed for the purpose, he drafted the famous "Suffolk Resolves," which were unanimously adopted by a convention at Milton (26th) on the 9th of September 1774. These " resolves" urged forcible opposition to Great Britain if it should prove to be necessary, pledged submission to such measures as the Continental Congress might recommend, and favoured the calling of a provincial congress. Warren was a member of the first three provincial congresses (1774-1775), president of the third, and an active member of the committee of public safety. He took an active part in the fighting on the 19th of April, was appointed major-general of the Massachusetts troops, next in rank to Artemas Ward, on the 14th of June 1775; and three days later, before his commission was made out, he took part as a volunteer, under the orders of Putnam and Prescott, in the battle of Bunker Hill (Breed's Hill), where he was killed. Next to the Adamses, Warren was the most influential leader of the extreme Whig faction in Massachusetts. His tragic death strengthened their zeal for the popular cause and helped to prepare the way for the acceptance of the Declaration of Independence. Warren's speeches are typical examples of the old style of American political eloquence. His best-known orations were those delivered in Old South Church on the second and fifth anniversaries (1777 and 1775) of the "Boston Massacre."

The standard biography is Richard Frothingham's Life and Times of Joseph Warren (Boston, 1856).

WARREN, MERCY (1728-1814), American writer, sister of James Otis (q.v.), was born at Barnstable, Mass., and in 1754 married James Warren (1726-1808) of Plymouth Mass., a college friend of her brother. Her literary inclinations were fostered by both these men, and she began early to write poems and prose essays. As member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives (1756-1774) and its speaker (1756-1777 and 1787-1788), member (1776 and 1775) and president (1775) of the Provincial Congress, and paymaster-general in 1777, James Warren played a prominent part in the events of the American revolutionary period, and his wife followed its progress with keen interest. Her gifts of satire were utilized in her critical works, The Adulator (1775) and The Group (1775); and John Adams, whose wife Abigail was Mercy Warren's close friend, encouraged her to further efforts. Her tragedies, "The Sack of Rome" and "The Ladies of Castle," were included in her Poems, Dramatic and Miscellaneous (1790), dedicated to General Washington, as being the opening part of the events of American literature. Mercy Warren's poems have no permanent value. In 1801 she published a History of the American Revolution (1775-1783; new ed., 1803) and his Life of John Adams (1772-1803); both of which were extensively reprinted to form part of the Whig party's platforms, and which were bitterly resented by John Adams (see his correspondence, published by the Massachusetts Historical Society, 1878). James Warren died in 1808, and his wife followed him on the 19th of October 1814.

See Elizabeth F. Ellet, Women of the Revolution (1856; new ed., 1900); an article by Annie Russell Marble in the New England Magazine (April 1903); Alice Brown, Mercy Warren (New York, 1903).

WARREN, MINTON (1855-1907), American classical scholar, was born at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, on the 29th of January 1850, a descendent of Richard Warren, who sailed in the "Mayflower" in 1620. He was educated at Tufts College and subsequently at Yale. After three years as a schoolmaster, he went to Germany to complete his studies in comparative philology and especially in Latin language and literature. Having taken the degree of doctor of philosophy at Strassburg in 1879, he returned to the United States as Latin professor at Johns Hopkins University. In 1899 he was appointed Latin professor at Harvard. His life-work was a new edition of Terence, which, however, he left unfinished at his death. He was director of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome (1890-1891), and president of the American Philological Association (1898). Among his publications are: "Enctic Ne in Early Latin" (Strassburg dissert., reprinted in Amer. Journ. of Philol., 1881); On Latin Glossaries, with especial reference to the Codex Sangen- lensis (St Gall Glossary) (Cambridge, U.S.A., 1885); The Siete Inscription in the Roman Forest (Amer. Journ. of Philol., vol. xxvii. No. 3, and separately in 1898). He died on the 26th of November 1907.


WARREN, SAMUEL (1807-1877), English lawyer and author, son of Dr Samuel Warren, rector of All Souls', Ancots, Manchester, was born near Wrexham in Denbighshire on the 23rd of May 1807. The elder Samuel Warren (1781-1862) became a Wesleyan minister, but was expelled by Conference in 1835 on account of his attitude towards proposals for the establishment of a theological training college at Manchester. He formed a
WARREN, W.—WARRENSBURG

new association, the members of which were nicknamed Warrenites, and this developed into the United Methodist Free Churches. Warren himself took orders in the Church of England. His son, the younger Samuel Warren, studied medicine at the University of Edinburgh, but abandoned this to study for the English bar. He entered the Inner Temple in 1828, and was successful in his profession. He took silk in 1831, was made recorder of Hull in 1832, represented Midhurst in parliament for three years (1835-1859) and was rewarded in 1859 with a mastership in lunacy. He had already written a good deal on the subject of insanity in its legal aspects, and he was always a determined opponent of the rising school of medical alienists who were more and more in favour of reducing certain forms of crime to a state of mental aberration which should not be punished outside of asylums. Meantime he had made much more brilliant success in fiction. Very early in his career he had begun to write for Blackwood. His Passages from the Diary of a Late Physician were published in that magazine between August 1830 and August 1837, and appeared in collected form in 1838. These realistic short stories, with a somewhat morbid interest shielded under a moral purpose, were extremely popular. Warren's brief experience as a medical student thus stood him good stead. But his great success was Ten Thousand a Year, which ran in Blackwood from October 1830 to August 1841, and was published separately immediately on its conclusion. Critics complained of the coarse workmanship, the banality of the moralizing, the crudeness of the pathos, the farcical extravagance of the humour; but meantime the work proved one of the most popular novels of the century. Of the higher qualities of imagination and passion Warren was destitute, but his sketches of character, especially farcical character—Tittlebat Titmouse, Oily Gammon, Mr Quicksilver (an open caricature of Lord Brougham)—are bold and strong, forcibly impressed on the memory, and the interest of the story is made to run with a powerful current. From 1841 to 1846 Warren was known as the author of Ten Thousand a Year, and many tales were told of his open pride in the achievement. In 1847 he made another venture, but Now and Then was not a success. The Lily and the Bee, a squib on the Crystal Palace, published in 1851, though it had the honours of translation into Italian, was a signal failure. A pessimistic dissertation on The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Age, published in 1853, also fell flat, and thenceforward Warren, after publishing his Works: Critical and Imaginative, in four volumes in 1854, retired on his laurels. He died in London on the 29th of July 1877.

Warren also wrote several legal works of repute—Introduction to Law Studies (1835), Extracts from Blackstone (1837), Manual of Parliamentary Law (1852).

WARREN, WILLIAM (1812-1888), American actor, was born in Philadelphia on the 17th of November 1812, the son of an English actor (1767-1832) of the same name. His first stage appearance was made there as Young Norval in Home's Dogues in 1832. A dozen years of wandering theatrical life followed, giving him a wide experience in every kind of part, the last few in comedy in a company headed by his brother-in-law, J. B. Rice. In 1846 he made his first appearance in O'Tigger in The Rivals at the Howard Athenaeum, and in the next season he became a member of the Boston Museum, in which stock company he remained for thirty-five years. Here he held his "Golden Jubilee" on the 28th of October 1882. He died on the 21st of September 1888.

WARREN, a city and the county-seat of Trumbull county, Ohio, U.S.A., in the N.E. part of the state, on the Mahoning river, about 30 m. S.E. of Cleveland, and 14 m. N.W. of Youngstown. Pop. (1890) 973, (1900) 829 (1671 foreign-born); (1910) 11,891. Warren is served by the Erie, the Pennsylvania, and the Baltimore & Ohio railways. The city has a public library and a hospital. The surrounding country is devoted to farming, dairying and coal and iron mining. The total value of the factory products in 1905 was $2,447,370. The first permanent white settlement on the site of Warren (then owned by Connecticut) was made in 1799 by settlers from Washington county, Pennsylvania. Warren was named in honour of a surveyor—Moses Warren, of New Lyme, Connecticut—employed by the Connecticut Land Company, which sold the land to the first settlers. The county was named in honour of Governor Jonathan Trumbull of Connecticut. Warren was chartered as a city in 1834. For several years before September 1909 Warren was the national headquarters of the National American Woman's Suffrage Association.

See History of Trumbull and Mahoning Counties (2 vols., Cleveland, Ohio, 1882), and H. T. Upton, History of Trumbull County (Chicago, 1910).

WARREN, a borough and the county-seat of Warren county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the N. side of the Allegheny river at the mouth of the Conewango river, about 35 m. N.E. of Titusville. Pop. (1880) 2818; (1890) 4332; (1900) 8043, of whom 1259 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 11,050. The foreign element is largely Swedish, Danish and Slavish. Warren is served by the Pennsylvania and the Dunkirk, Allegheny Valley & Pittsburg railways, and by electric railway to Jamestown, New York. Among the public buildings and institutions are the county court house, a state hospital for the insane (established 1873), a Y.M.C.A. building and a state armory. Warren is situated at the southern foot of a high sheer ridge, in a region rich in natural gas; the borough shires and refining oil, and has various manufactures. The total value of its factory product in 1905 was $5,976,002 (62.4% more than in 1899), of which $3,068,504 was the value of refined oil and $1,220,165 the value of foundry and machine-shop products. The borough owns and operates the water-works and the electric lighting plant. The town site of Warren was laid out by commissioners appointed by Governor Thomas Millinn in 1795, and Warren was incorporated as a borough in 1832; it was named in honour of Joseph Warren, the American patriot. In 1805 part of Glade township was annexed.

See J. S. Schenck and W. S. Rahn, History of Warren County, Pennsylvania (Syracuse, N.Y., 1887).

WARREN, properly an old term of the English forest law, derived from the O. Fr. warene, varenne, garcine (med. Lat. warena, warir, to guard, cf. "ward"), and applied to one of the three lesser franchises, together with "chase" and "park," included under the highest franchise, the "forest," and ranking last in order of importance. The "beasts of warren" were the hare, the coney (i.e. rabbit), the pheasant and the partridge. The word thus became used of a piece of ground preserved for these beasts of warren. It is now applied loosely to any piece of ground, whether preserved or not, where rabbits breed (see FOREST LAWS).

WARRENS POINTE, a seaport and watering-place of county Down, Ireland, the terminus of a branch of the Great Northern railway, by which it is 501 m. S.S.W. of Belfast. Pop. (1901) 1817. It lies on the northern shore of the beautiful Carlingford Lough; behind it rise the Mourne Mountains, while across the lough are the Carlingford Hills, with Sleive Gullion. These hills afford shelter from inclement winds, and give Warrenpoint and other neighbouring watering-places on the lough a climate which renders them as popular in winter as in summer. There is a quay here where large vessels can discharge, and agricultural produce is exported. The shores of the lough are studded with country seats lying picturesquely on the well-wooded hill slopes; and nearly 3 m. E. of Warrenpoint (connected by tramway) is Rosstrevor, one of the most noted watering-places in Ireland, charmingly situated in a position open to the sea, but enclosed on the north and east.

WARRENSBURG, a city and the county-seat of Johnson county, Missouri, U.S.A., on a hilly site near the Blackwater Fork of the La Mine river, in the west central part of the state, about 65 m. S.E. of Kansas City. Pop. (1880) 4766; (1900) 4724, including 556 negroes and 127 foreign-born; (1910) 4680. It is served by the Missouri Pacific railway. The city is the seat of a state normal school (opened in 1872), and among the prominent buildings are the court house and the railway station, both built of local sandstone. Pertle Springs, about 1 1/2 m. S.,
WARRINGTON—WARRINGTON, LORD

is a summer resort. Warrensburg is a shipping and supply point for a rich farming region. In the immediate vicinity there are extensive quarries of a blue sandstone, one of the best building stones of the state. Warrensburg was made the county and seat in 1836. Its settlement dates from a little earlier. The present city is not on the site of the original settlement, but is near it; the old town was abandoned in 1837, when the railway passed by it. During the Civil War Warrensburg was a Union post.

WARRINGTON, a market town and municipal and parliamentary borough of Lancashire, England, on the river Mersey, midway between Manchester and Liverpool, and 182 m. N.W. by N. from London by the London & North-Western railway. Pop. (1801) 53,588; (1901) 64,242. It has extensive local connotations by way of the Cheshire lines. The church of St Elphin is a fine cruciform building with lofty central tower and spire. The style is Decorated, but restoration has been heavy. A much earlier church formerly occupied the site, and of this the crypt remains beneath the existing chancel. The town hall, a classical building of the 18th century, was formerly a residence, and was purchased by the corporation in 1872, while the park in which it stands was devoted to public use. The other chief buildings are the museum and free library, with together some 17,000 volumes and 200,000 sheets. The educational institutions include a free grammar school, founded by one of the Boteler family in 1526, and a blue-coat school (1663). A few half-timbered houses of the 17th century remain in the streets. A wide system of electric tramways and district light railways is maintained by the borough. Warrington and the neighbourhood are an important centre of the tanning industry. There are also iron bar, hoop and wire works, tool, soap, glass and chemical works, foundries and cotton mills. Considerable agricultural markets and fairs are held. The parliamentary borough (1832), returning one member, extends into Cheshire. The town is governed by a corporation consisting of a mayor, 9 aldermen and 27 councillors. Area 3,628 acres.

Warrington (otherwise Walton, Wirrington, Wirtington) is supposed to be of British origin, and the great Roman road from Chester to the north passed through it. There was a Romano-British village—perhaps also a military post—at Wilderspool. It is mentioned in Domesday Book as the head of a hundred. After the Conquest it became one of the possessions of Roger de Poitou. In Henry I.'s reign a barony was formed for Pain de Vilears, of which Warrington was the head and to which it was added the town and city. The barony passed to the Botelers or Butlers, who first established their residence on the mote hill and before 1280 built Bewsey in Burton wood. The Butlers held both barony and manor till 1536, when the barony lapsed and the manor passed after some vicissitudes to the Irelands of Bewsey, then to the Booths and in 1769 to the Blackburns. In 1255 William le Boteler obtained a charter from Henry III. for an annual fair to last three days from the eve of St Thomas the Martyr (8th July). In 1277 Edward I. granted a charter for a weekly market on Friday and an annual fair of eight days beginning on the eve of St Andrew (30th Nov.), and in 1285 another charter changing the market day from Friday to Wednesday and extending the summer fair to eight days. The market and fairs had, however, existed before the granting of these charters. Blome in 1673 speaks of Warrington market as an important one "for linen cloth, corn, cattle, provisions and fish, being much resorted to by the Welshmen," and in 1730 Defoe says the market was especially famous for "a sort of table linen called Huk-a-back or Huk-a-buk." The fairs are still held, as well as the Wednesday chartered market, besides a Saturday market which is probably customary. In the 18th and early 19th centuries the chief industries were huckabacks and coarse cloths, canvases, fustians, pins, glass, sugar-refining and copper. During the Civil War the inhabitants embraced the royalist cause and the earl of Derby occupied the town and made it for some time his headquarters in order to secure the passage of the Mersey. In April 1643 the parliamentary forces attacked it, but had to raise the siege, as Lord Derby began to set the town on fire. Lord Derby left Colonel Edward Norris in command and in May the parliamentarians again attacked the town, which was forced to surrender after a six days' siege owing to lack of provisions. In 1648, after the royalist defeat at Winwick by Cromwell, part of the royal forces under General Baillie rallied at Warrington, hoping to effect the passage of the bridge, but failed, and the general with 4,000 men capitulated. In August 1659 Sir George Booth, lord of the manor, was defeated at Winnington, and part of his forces surrendered at Warrington to the parliamentary garrison. During the Rebellion of 1745, on the approach of Prince Charles Edward from Manchester, the bridge was cut down and the few stragglers who ventured that way seized. A borough was created by William le Boteler about 1320 by a charter which has since been preserved; but its growing strength alarmed the lord who contrived to repress it before 1300, and for over 500 years Warrington was governed by the lord's manor court. A charter of incorporation was granted in 1837. By the Reform Act of 1832 the town returns one member to parliament. The church dedicated to St Elphin is mentioned in Domesday Book, and was in early times head of the ancient deanery of Warrington. There was a friary of Augustine or Hermit Friars here founded apparently about 1280.

B校友, THOMAS, 1st BISHOP JOHNSTON, LORD (1611-1663), Scottish judge and statesman, son of James Johnston (d. 1617), a merchant burgess of Edinburgh, was baptized on the 28th of March 1611, educated at Glasgow, and passed advocate at the Scottish bar in 1633. He first came into public notice in 1637, during the attempt of Charles I. to force the English liturgy upon Scotland, when as the chief adviser of the Covenanting leaders he drew up their remonstrances. On the 28th of February 1638, in reply to a royal proclamation, he read to an enormous multitude assembled in Greyfriars churchyard at Edinburgh and in presence of the heralds, a strong protestation, and together with William Alexander, Earl of Danby, proposed a national form of church government. After the Declaration of Indulgence of 1638, drawing up himself the second part, which consisted in a recapitulation of all the acts of parliament condemning "popery" and asserting the liberties of the Scottish church. He was appointed clerk to the tables, and also clerk and afterwards procurator or counsel to the general assembly held at Glasgow the same year, when he was the means of restoring several missing volumes of records. In June 1639 he took part in the negotiations leading to the treaty of Berwick, when his firm attitude was extremely displeasing to the king. He opposed Charles I.'s desire to ​​form the east in an assembly, since this would restrict all future assemblies, to which Charles replied "that the devil himself could not make a more uncharitable construction or give a more bitter expression," and on Johnston's continuing his speech ordered him to be silent and declared he would speak to more reasonable men.\(^1\) In August he read a paper before the Scottish parliament, strongly condemning its prorogation. In the following year he was appointed to attend the general of the army and the committee, and on the 23rd of June, when the Scottish forces were preparing to invade England, he wrote to Lord Savile asking for definite support from the leading opposition peers in England and their acceptance of the National Covenant, which drew from the other side at first nothing but vague assurances and subsequently the engagement forced by Lord Savile with the signatures of the peers. In October he was a commissioner for negotiating the treaty of Ripon and went to London. He continued after the peace to urge the punishment of the incendiaries, and especially of Traquair, and in a private interview with the king strongly opposed the proposed act of general oblivion. On the king's arrival in Scotland in 1641 he led the opposition from the important constitutional point of the control of state appointments, supporting the claims of the parliament by an appeal to the state records, which he had succeeded in recovering.

In September Johnston received public thanks for his services from the Scottish parliament, and, in accordance with the policy of conciliation then pursued for a short time by the king, was awarded a pension of £200 a year and an annual salary of £50. However, he continued to hold the position of a commissioner for the treaty of Ripon and went to England in July 1641. He was then appointed to attend the general assembly of the army and the committee, and on the 23rd of June, when the Scottish forces were preparing to invade England, he wrote to Lord Savile asking for support. This was the first support that the opposition peers in England were ready to offer, and Johnston continued to urge the punishment of the incendiaries and especially of Traquair. In 1641 he led the opposition from the important constitutional point of the control of state appointments, supporting the claims of the parliament by an appeal to the state records, which he had succeeded in recovering.

1 Johnston's "Diary" in Scottish Hist. Soc. Publ., xxxvi. 84.
appointed on the 13th of November 1641, a lord of session, with the title of Lord Warriston (a name derived from an estate purchased by him near Edinburgh in 1636), was knighted, and was given a pension of £200 a year. The same month he was appointed a commissioner at Westminster by the parliament for settling the affairs of Scotland. He was a chief agent in concluding the treaty with the English parliament in the autumn of 1643, and was appointed a member of the committee of both kingdoms in London which directed the military operations, and in this capacity went on several missions to the parliamentary generals. He took his seat early in 1644 in the Assembly of Divines, to which he had been nominated, and vehemently opposed measures tolerating independency or giving powers to laymen in ecclesiastical affairs. The articles of the unsuccessful treaty of Uxbridge were, for the most part, drawn up by him the same year. Besides his public duties in England he sat in the Scottish parliament for the county of Edinburgh from 1643 till 1647, was speaker of the barons, and served on various committees. After the final defeat of Charles, when he had surrendered himself to the Scots, Johnstone was made in October 1646 king's advocate, and the same year was voted £3000 by the estates for his services. He continued to oppose unwise concessions to Charles, and strongly disapproved of the “engagement” concluded in 1648 by the predominant party with Charles at Carisbrooke, which, while securing little for Presbyterianism, committed the Scots to hostilities with the followers of Cromwell. His having become the leader of the remonstrants, the party opposed to the “engagement,” and during the ascendency of the engagers retired to Cantyre as the guest of Argyll. He returned again after the Whiggamor Raid, met Cromwell at Edinburgh in October after the defeat of the engagers at Preston, and in conjunction with Argyll promoted the act of Classes, passed on the 23rd of January 1649, disqualifying the royalists. The good relations now formed with Cromwell, however, were soon broken off by the king's execution, and Johnstone was present officially at the proclamation of Charles II. as king at Edinburgh, on the 5th of February 1649. On the 10th of March he was appointed lord clerk register. In May he pronounced the vindictive sentence on Montrose, and he is said to have witnessed with Argyll the victim being drawn to the place of execution. He was present at the battle of Dunbar (3rd of September 1650) as a member of the committee of estates, to which body is ascribed the responsibility for Leslie's fatal abandonment of his position on Doon Hill. After the defeat he urged the removal of David Leslie, afterwards Lord Newark, from the command, and on the 21st of September delivered a violent speech in Charles's presence, attributing all the late misfortunes to the Stuarts and to their opposition to the Reformation.

His first object in life being the defence of Presbyterianism, Johnstone could join neither of the two great parties, and now committed himself to the faction of the remonstrants who desired to exclude the king, in opposition to the resolutioners who accepted Charles. The latter for some time maintained their superiority in the kingdom, Johnstone being reduced to poverty and neglect. In the autumn of 1650 Johnstone went to London as representative of the remonstrants, and soon afterwards, on the 7th of July 1657, he was restored by Cromwell to his office of lord clerk register, and on the 3rd of November was appointed a commissioner for the administration of justice in Scotland, henceforth remaining a member of the government till the Restoration. In January 1658 he was included by Cromwell in his new House of Lords, and sat also in the upper chamber in Richard Cromwell's parliament. On the latter's abdication and the restoration of the Rump, he was chosen a member of the council of state, and continued in the administration as a member of the committee of public safety, maintaining consistently his attitude against religious toleration. At the Restoration he was singled out for punishment. He avoided capture, escaping to Holland and thence to Germany, and was condemned to death in his absence on the 13th of May 1661. In 1663, having ventured into France, he was discovered at Rouen, and with the consent of Louis XIV. was brought to trial and imprisoned in the Tower of London. In June he was taken to Edinburgh and confined in the Tolbooth. He was hanged on the 22nd of July at the Market Cross, Edinburgh, the scene of many of his triumphs, and a few yards from his own house in High Street, which stood on the east side of what is now known as Warriston's Close. His head was exposed on the Netherbow and afterwards buried with his body in Greyfriars churchyard.

Johnston was a man of great energy, industry and ability, and the successful defence of their religion by the Scots was probably owing to him more than to any other man. He is described by his contemporary Robert Baillie as “one of the most faithful and diligent and able servants that our church and kingdom has had all the tymes of our troubles.” He was learned in the Scottish law, eloquent and deeply religious. His passionate devotion to the cause of the Scottish church amounted almost to fanaticism. According to the History by his nephew Bishop Burnet, “he looked on the Covenant as the setting Christ on his throne.” He had by nature no republican leanings; all the Royalists in Scotland,” writes Baillie as late as 1646, “could not have pleaded so much for the crown and the king's just powers as he, or spake or written as he did for Presbyterianism.” When, however, Presbyterianism was attacked and menaced by the sovereign, he desired, like Pym, to restrict the royal prerogative by a parliamentary constitution, and endeavoured to found his arguments on law and ancient precedents. His acceptance of office under Cromwell hardly deserves the severe censure it has received. He stood nearer both in politics and religion to Cromwell than to the royalists, and was able in office to serve usefully the state and the church, but his own scrupulous conscience caused him to condemn his speech, and he afterwards in his History described the act which he regarded as a moral fault committed in order to provide for his numerous family, and the remembrance of which disturbed his last hours. Johnstone was wanting in tact and in consideration for his opponents, confessing himself that his “natural temper (or rather distemper) hath been hasty and passionate.” He was hated by Charles I., whose statecraft was vanquished by his inflexible purpose, and by Charles II., whom he rebuked for his dissolute conduct; but he was beloved by Baillie, associated in private friendship and public life with Argyll, and lamented by the nation whose cause he had championed.

He had a large family, the most famous of his sons being James Johnstone (1655-1732), called “secretary Johnstone.” Having taken refuge in Holland after his father's execution, Johnstone crossed over to England in the interests of William of Orange just before the revolution of 1688. In 1692 he was appointed one of the secretaries for Scotland, but he was dismissed from office in 1696. Under Anne, however, he began again to take part in public affairs, and was made lord clerk register. Johnstone's later years were passed mainly at his residence, Oronsay House, Twickenham, and he died at Bath in May 1737.

See W. Morison, Johnstone of Warriston (1901).

WARRNAMBOOL, a seaport of Villiers county, Victoria, Australia, 166 m. by rail W.S.W. of Melbourne. Top. (1901) 6410. The town lies on an eminence, on the shores of Warrnambool Bay, in a rich pastoral and agricultural district. Race meetings are held here, and the steeplechase course is considered the finest in the colony. Warrnambool has a fine port with a viaduct and breakwater pier 2200 ft. in length, and a jetty 860 ft. in length, on to which the railway runs. Large quantities of dairy produce, wool and live stock are exported, and there is much activity of flourishing industries in the town, including brewing, flour-milling, tanning and boot and biscuit manufacturing. Sandstone

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1 This was the name given to a successful raid on Edinburgh by a band of Argyll's partisans gathered mainly from the west of Scotland. It took place in September 1657, just after the death of Hamilton at Preston. The term Whiggam is said to be derived from Whiggam, a word used by the ploughmen in the west of Scotland to encourage their horses. See S. R. Gardiner, Great Civil War, vol. iii. (1891).

2 Baillie, Letters and Journals (Bannatyne Club, 1841.)
WARSAW

abounds in the district and is extensively quarried. The summer climate is the coolest in the Australian states.

WARSAW, a government of Russian Poland, occupying a narrow strip of land west of the lower Bug and west of the Vistula from its confluence with the Bug to the Prussian frontier. It is bounded by the Polish governments of Plock and Lomza on the N., Siedlce on the E., and Radom, Piotrkow and Kalisz on the S. Area 565 sq. m.; estimated pop. (1906) 2,269,000. It occupies the great plain of central Poland, and is low and flat, with only a few hills in the south, and along the course of the Vistula in the north-west, where the terraces on the left bank descend by steep slopes to the river. Terrible inundations often devastate the region adjacent to the confluence of the Vistula with the Narew and Bug, and marshes gather in the low-lying grounds. The soil, which consists chiefly of boulder clay, lacustrine clays, and sandy fluvialite deposits, is not particularly fertile. The government is divided into thirteen districts, the chief towns of which are Warsaw, Blonie, Gostynin, Grojec, Kutno, Lowicz, Nieszawa, Nove-Minek, Plonsk, Radzymin, Slkierzewiecz, Sochaczew and Wlodawiec. In spite of the unfertile soil, agriculture is prosecuted with considerable success. Manufacturing industries have also greatly developed.

WARSAW (Polish Warszawa, Ger. Warschau, Fr. Varsovie), the capital of Poland and chief town of the government of Warsaw. It is beautifully situated on the left bank of the Vistula, 387 m. by rail E. of Berlin, and 605 m. S.W. of St Petersburg. It stands on a terrace 120 to 150 ft. above the river, to which it descends by steep slopes, leaving a broad bench at its base. The suburb of Praga on the right bank of the Vistula, here 450 to 660 yds. broad, is connected with Warsaw by two bridges—the railway bridge which passes close under the guns of the Alexander citadel to the north, and the Alexander bridge (1666 ft. long; built in 1865 at a cost of f634,000) in the centre of the town. With its large population, its beautiful river, its ample communications and commerce, its university and scientific societies, its palaces and numerous places of amusement, Warsaw is one of the most pleasant as well as one of the most animated cities of eastern Europe. From a military point of view Warsaw is the chief stronghold for the defence of Poland; the Alexander citadel has been much improved, and the bridge across the Vistula is defended by a strong fort, Sliwicki.

Situated in a fertile plain, on a great navigable river, below its confluence with the Pilica and Wigrz, which drain southern Poland, and above its confluence with the Narew and Bug, which tap a wide region in the east, Warsaw became in medieval times the chief entrepot for the trade of those fertile and populous valleys with western Europe. Owing to its position in the territory of Mazovia, which was neither Polish nor Lithuanian, and so to new European political conditions, which constituted the United kingdom, it became the capital of both, and secured advantages over the purely Polish Cracow and the Lithuanian Vilna. And now, connected as it is by six trunk lines with Vienna, Kiev and south-western Russia, Moscow, St Petersburg, Danzig and Berlin, it is one of the most important commercial cities of eastern Europe. The south-western railway connects it with Lodz, the Manchester of Poland, and with the productive mineral region of Piotrkow and Kielce, which supply its steadily growing manufactures with coal and iron, so that Warsaw and its neighbourhood have become a centre for all kinds of manufactures. The iron and steel industry has greatly developed, and produces large quantities of rails. The machinery works have suffered to some extent from competition with those of southern Russia, and find the high price of land a great obstacle in the way of extension. But the manufactures of plated silver, carriages, boots and shoes (annual turnover £8,457,000), millinery, hosiery, gloves, tobacco, sugar, and all sorts of small artistic house decorations, are of considerable importance, chiefly owing to the skill of the workers. Trade is principally in the goods enumerated above, but the city is also a centre for trade in corn, leather and coal, and its two fairs (wool and hops) have a great reputation throughout western Russia. The wholesale deportations of Warsaw artisans after the Polish insurrections of 1794, 1831 and 1863 considerably checked, but by no means stopped, the industrial progress of the town. The barrier of custom-houses all round Poland, and the Russian rule, which militates against the progress of Polish science, technology and art, are so many obstacles to the development of its natural resources. The population has nevertheless grown rapidly, from 161,000 in 1860, 276,000 in 1872 and 436,750 in 1887, to 756,456 in 1901; of these more than 25,000 are Germans, and one-third are Jews. The Russian garrison numbers over 30,000 men. Warsaw is the see of the Bishop of the Greek Orthodox and Roman Catholic churches, and the headquarters of the V., VI. and XV. Army Corps.

The streets of Warsaw are adorned with many fine buildings, partly palaces exhibiting the Polish nobility's love of display, partly churches and cathedrals, and partly public buildings erected by the town or by the Fine public gardens and several monuments further embellish the city. The university (with 1500 students), founded in 1816 but closed in 1832, was again opened in 1869 as a Russian institution, the teaching being in Russian; it has a remarkable library of more than 100,000 volumes, rich in natural history collections, a fine botanic garden and an astronomical observatory. The medical school enjoys high repute in the scientific world. The school of arts, the academy of agriculture and forestry, and the university and private technical schools are very extensive. The association of the friends of science and the historical and agricultural societies of Warsaw were once well known, but were suppressed after the insurrections, though restored in 1863.

The theatre for Polish drama and the ballet is a fine building, which includes two theatres under the same roof: but the pride of Warsaw is its theatre in the Lazienki gardens, which were laid out in 1665 in an extensive park of the Vistula. The building, by Stanislaus Wodzicki, and have beautiful shady alleys, artificial ponds, an elegant little palace with ceilings painted by Racciarelli, several imperial apartments (1789) to John Sobieski, king of Poland, who delivered Vienna from the Turks in 1683. Here an artificial ruin on an island makes an open-air theatre. Two other public gardens, with alleys of old chestnut trees, are situated in the centre of the town. Of these, the Park Oliwski, a spacious garden which has a summer theatre and fine old trees, is one of the most beautiful in Europe; it is the resort of the Warsaw aristocracy. The Krasiiski garden is the favourite promenade of the Jews. The oval point of the town is the castle (Zamek Krolicki) on Sigismund Square. It was built by the dukes of Mazovia, enlarged by Sigismund III. (whose memorial stands opposite), and Ladislaus IV., and embellished by John Sobieski and Stanislaus Pomatowski. At present it is inhabited by the "governor-general of the provinces on the Vistula" (i.e. Poland), and by the military authorities. Most of its pictures and other art treasures are removed from it to the National Museum. The Park of Remembrance, one of the most beautiful places in Europe, has several thousand trees, and through the Emerson radiates from it; one, the Krakowski Przedmiescie, the best street in Warsaw, runs southward. It is continued by the Nowy Świat and the Ujazdowska Aleja, which leads to the Lazienki gardens, Mazowska Aleja, which leads to two streets: the church of St Anne (1543), which belonged formerly to a Bernardine monastery; the agricultural and industrial museum, the national museum, the memorial house of the national poet Adam Mickiewicz (1798-1855); the Alexander Nevsky cathedral of the Orthodox Greek Church, built in 1854 and following years on the Saxton Square in the Byzantine style, with five gilded cupolas and a detached campanile, 238 ft. high; close beside it, the former palace of the residence of the Polish kings but now used as military administrative offices; the Lutheran church, finished in 1799, one of the most conspicuous in Warsaw; a monument (1811) to the Polish generals who held with Russia in 1840 and were therefore shot by their compatriots, removed to the Zielony Square in 1868; the buildings of the Art Association, opened in 1856, a substantial building; the Republican Theatre (opened 1878); the Palace of the Holy Ghost (1682-1696), with the heart and monument of the musician F. F. Chopin; a monument (1830) to the astronomer N. Kopernicus (1473-1543); the palaces of the families Zamoyski and Staszicowski (now the Polish gallery); the building of the Philharmonic Society (1899-1901); and the church of St Alexander, built in 1826 and splendidly restored in 1891. The Ujazdowska Aleja avenue, planted with lice-trees and bordered with cafes and places of amusement, is the Champs Elysées of Warsaw. It leads to the Lazienki park and to the Belvedere palace (1822), now the summer residence of the governor-general, and farther west to the Podzamcze palace, which is the residence of the Dukes of Warsaw, and west by the manufacturing district. Another principal street, the Marszalkowska, runs parallel to the Ujazdowska from the Saxton garden to this parade ground, on the south-east of which are the royal barracks. Another street, the Ferdynand, is another series running west and east, the chief of them being the Senators, which begins at Sigismund Square and contains the best shops. The palace of the archbishop of Warsaw, the Renaissance (Russian) Bank, formerly the Bank of Poland; the town hall (1725),
burned in 1863, but rebuilt in 1870; the small Pod Blacha palace, now occupied by a chancery; the theatre (1833); the old mint; the beautiful Reformed church (1882); the Orthodox Greek cathedral of the Trinity, rebuilt in 1872; the Palace of the Potocki family, now the Supreme Court; the church of the Transfiguration, a thank-offering by John Sobieski for his victory of 1683, and containing his tomb. The palaces and several palaces are grouped in or near Senators' Street and Miodowa Street.

To the west Senators' Street is continued by Electors' Street, where is the very elegant church (1849) of St Charles Borromeo, and the palace where Prince Wola, who was killed in the battle field where the kings of Poland used to be elected. In Leshno Street, which branches off from Senators' Street, are the Zelazna Bra, or the market-place the bazaar, the arsenal and the Wielopolski barracks.

To the north of Sigismund Square is the old town—Stare Miasto—the Jewish quarter, and farther north still the Alexander citadel. The old town very much recalls old Germany by its narrow streets and antique buildings, the cathedral of St John, the most ancient church in Warsaw, having been built in the 11th century and restored in the 17th. The citadel, erected in 1832-1835 as a punishment for the insurrection of 1831, is of the old type, with six forts too close to the walls of the fortress to be useful in modern warfare. The suburb of Praga, on the right bank of the Vistula, is not poorly built, but has the disadvantage which its position had at the capture in 1794 by the Russians under Suworov, and in 1831 by Paskevich, give it a name in history.

In the outskirts of Warsaw are various more or less noteworthy villages. The beautiful aparments in the palace of the Sobieski, afterwards belonging to Count X. Branicki, was partly built in 1678-1694 by Turkish prisoners in a fine Italian style, and is now renowned for its historical relics, portraits and pictures. It is in the old part of Warsaw, together with the present church of the Franciscan order, built by Prince Stanislaus Lubomirski in 1651, and many other fine villas (Morynneik, Napolin, Krolkornia, which also has a picture gallery, Wierzbno and Motowit). Marymont, an old country residence of the wife of John Sobieski, and the Kaskada, much visited by the inhabitants of Warsaw, in the north, the Sussex Kempa on the right bank of the Vistula, and the castle of Jabłonna down the Vistula towards the Pogoria, are among others that deserve a visit. The castle and forest of Bielany (4 m.), on the bank of the Vistula, are a popular holiday resort in the spring.

On the southern outskirts the nobility of the neighborhood built the palace of Grochow as the residence of the Polish troops were defeated in 1831, and Wawer in the same quarter (E. of Praga), where Prince Joseph Poniatowski defeated the Austrians in the war of 1809; at Maciejowice, 50 m. up the Vistula, Kosciusko was wounded and taken by the Russians in 1794; and 20 m. down the river stands the fortress of Modlin, now Novogrodevich.

History.—The history of Warsaw from the 16th century onwards is intimately connected with that of Poland. The precise date of the foundation of the town is not known; but it is supposed that Conrad, duke of Mazovia, erected a castle on the present site of Warsaw as early as the 9th century. Casimir the Just is supposed to have fortified it in the 11th century, but Warsaw is not mentioned in annals before 1224. Until 1526 it was the residence of the dukes of Mazovia, but when their dynasty became extinct it was annexed to Poland. When Poland and Lithuania were united, Warsaw was chosen as the royal residence. Sigismund Augustus (Wasa) made it (1556) the real capital of Poland, and from 1572 onwards the election of the kings of Poland took place on the field of Wola, on the W. outskirts of the city. From the 17th century possession of it was continually disputed between the Swedes, the Russians, the Brandenburgers and the Austrians. Charles Gustavus of Sweden took it in 1655 and kept it for a year; the Poles retook it in July 1656, but lost it again almost immediately. Augustus II. and Augustus III. did much for its embellishment, but it had much to suffer during the war with Charles XII. of Sweden, who captured it in 1707; but in the following year peace was made, and it became free again. The discussions of charity which followed led to the death of Augustus III, in 1763 opened a field for Russian intrigue, and in 1764 the Russians took possession of the town and secured the election of Stanislaus Poniatowski, which led in 1773 to the first partition of Poland. In November 1794 the Russians took it again, after the bloody assault on Praga, but next year, in the third partition of Poland, Warsaw was given to Prussia. In November 1806 the town was occupied by the troops of Napoleon, and after the peace of Tilsit (1807) was made the capital of the independent duchy of Warsaw; but the Austrians seized it on the 21st of April 1809, and kept possession of it till the 2nd of June, when it once more became independent. The Russians finally took it on the 8th of February 1813. On the 29th of November 1830, Warsaw gave the signal for the unsuccessful insurrection which lasted nearly one year; the city was captured after great bloodshed by Paskevich, on the 7th of September 1831. Deportations on a large scale, executions, and confiscation of the domains of the nobility followed, and until 1856 Warsaw remained under severe military rule.

In 1862 a series of demonstrations began to be made in favour of the independence of Poland, and after a bloody repression a general insurrection broke out. By March 1863, the Russians remaining, however, masters of the situation. Executions, banishment to the convict prisons of Siberia, and confiscation of estates followed. Deportation to Siberia and the interior of Russia was carried out on an unheard-of scale. Scientific societies and high schools were closed; monasteries and nunneries were emptied. Hundreds of Russian officials were called in to fill the administrative posts, and to teach in the schools and the university; the Russian language was made obligatory in all official acts, in all legal proceedings, and even, to a certain extent, in the home. The right of correspondence was expunged from official writings, and, while the old institutions were abolished, the Russian tribunals and administrative institutions were introduced. The serfs were liberated. Much rioting and lawless bloodshed took place in the city in 1905-1906.

WARSAW, a city and the county-seat of Kosciusko county, Indiana, U.S.A., on the Tippecanoe river, about 110 m. E. of Chicago. Pop. (1890) 3,547; (1900) 3,687, including 102 foreign-born; (1910) 4,430. Warsaw is served by the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago (Pennsylvania system) and the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis railways, and by interurban electric lines. It is picturesquely situated in the lake country of Indiana on Center, Pike and Winona lakes. Immediately E. of the city, on Winona (formerly Eagle) Lake, which is about 2 by 3 m. and has an average depth of 30 ft., is Winona (formerly Spring Fountain) Park (incorporated 1895 largely by Presbyterians), which primarily aims to combine the advantages of Northfield, Massachusetts, and Chautauqua, New York. There is excellent boating and bathing here, and there are mineral springs in the park; when in the summer there are Chautauqua course lasting for six weeks, a normal school, a Bible school, a school of missions, an International Training School for Sunday School Workers, a conference of temperance workers and nature study and other regular summer school courses; and in other months of the year courses are given here by the Winona Normal School and Agricultural Institute, Winona Academy (for boys) and Winona Conservatory of Music, and the Winona Park School for Young Women. The control of the Park is inter-denominational—the Winona Federated Church was organized in 1905. Under practically the same control is the Winona Technical Institute & Chicago (Indiansylvania system) and the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis railways, and by interurban electric lines. The surrounding country is devoted to farming and stock raising. Warsaw was first platted in 1856, and became a city in 1875.

WART (Lat. verruca), a papillary excrescence of the skin, or mucous membrane. The ordinary flat warts of the skin occur mostly upon the hands of children and young persons; a long pendulous variety occurs about the chin or neck of delicate children, and on the scalp in adults. Warts are apt to come out in numbers at a time; a crop of them suddenly appears, to disappear after a time with equal suddenness. Hence the suppos- e e' efficiency of charms. A single wart will sometimes remain when the general eruption has vanished. The liability of growths of warts runs in families. In life a wart on the hands or fingers is usually brought on by some irritation, often repeated, even if it be slight. Warts often occur on the wrists and knuckles of slaughter-house men and of those much occupied with ana- tomical dissection; they are often of tuberculous origin (butchers' warts). Chimney-sweeps and workers in coal-tar, petroleum, &c., are subject to warts, which often become cancerous. Warts occur singly in later life on the nose or lips or other parts of the
face, sometimes on the tongue; they are very apt to become malignant. Towards old age broad and flattened patches of warts of a greyish consistence and brownish colour often occur on the back and shoulders. They also are apt to become malignant. Indeed, warts occurring on the lip or tongue, or on any part of the body of a person advanced in life, should be suspected of malignant associations and dealt with accordingly. Venereal warts occur as the result of gonorrhoeal irritation or syphilitic infection.

A wart consists of a delicate framework of blood-vessels supported by fibrous tissue, with a covering of epidermic scales. When the wart is young, the surface is smooth; as it gets older, it becomes rough and projects a little. The head of the wart, whose outgrowth from the surface makes the wart, may be in a cluster of parallel loops, as in the common sessile wart, or the vessels may branch from a single stem, making the long, pendulous warts of the chin and neck. The same kinds of warts also occur on mucous surfaces. It is owing to its vascularity that a wart is liable to come back after being shaved off; the vessels are cut down to the level of the skin, but the blood is still forced into the stem, and the branches are thrown out beyond the surface as before. This fact has a bearing on the treatment of warts; if these are snipped off, the blood-vessels of the stem should be destroyed at the same time by a hot wire or some other caustic, or made to shrivel by an astringent. The same end is served by a gradually tightening ligature (such as a thread of elastic) round the base of the wart. Glacial acetic or carbolic acid may be applied on the end of a glass rod, or by a camel-hair brush, care being taken not to touch the adjoining skin. A solution of perchloride of iron is also effective in the same way. Nitrate of silver is objectionable, owing to the black stains left by it. A simple domestic remedy, often effectual, is the astringent and acid juice of the common stinging nettle, rubbed into the wart, time after time, from the freshly gathered herb.

The result of these various applications is that the wart loses its firmness, shrivels up, and falls off. Malignant and tuberculous warts should be removed by the scalpel or sharp spoon, their bases, if thought advisable, being treated by pure carbolic acid.

A peculiar form of wart, known as verrugas, occurs endemically in the Andes. It is believed to have been one of the causes of the excessive mortality from haemorrhages of the skin among the troops of Pizarro. Attention was called to it by Dr Archibald Smith in 1847; in 1874, during the making of the Trans-Andean railway, it caused considerable loss of life among English navvies and engineers. (E. O.)

WARTBURG, THE, a castle near Eisenach in the grand-duchy of Saxe-Weimar. It is magnificently situated on the top of a precipitous hill, and is remarkable not only for its historical associations but as containing one of the few well-preserved Romanesque palaces in existence. The original castle, of which some parts—including a portion of the above-mentioned palace (Landgrafenhaus)—still exist, was built by the landgrave Louis I (the Springer) (d. 1233), and from his time until 1440 it remained the seat of the Thuringian landgraves. Under the landgrave Hermann I., the Wartburg was the home of a boisterous court to which minstrels and "wandering folk" of all descriptions streamed; and it was here that in 1207 took place the minstrels' contest (Sängerkrieg) immortalized in Wagner's Tannhäuser. Some years later it became the home of the saintly Elizabeth of Hungary (q.v.) on her marriage to Louis the Saint (d. 1227), to whom she was betrothed in 1211 at the age of four. It was to the Wartburg, too, that on the 4th of May 1521, Luther was brought for safety at the instance of Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony, and it was during his ten months' residence here (under the inscrito de Junker Jörg) that he completed his translation of the New Testament.

From this time the castle was allowed gradually to decay. It was restored in the 18th century in the questionable taste of

1 Walther von der Vogelweide (ed. F. Pfeiffer 1880, No. 99) and Wolfram von Eschenbach (Parzival vi. 226 and Willehalm iv. 26) both refer to the notion of constant crush of crowds passing in and out at the Wartburg "night and day."

2 Wagner, with a poet's licence, has placed the Sängerkrieg during Elizabeth's residence at the Wartburg.

the period; but its present magnificence it owes to the grand-duke Charles Alexander of Saxe-Weimar, with whom at certain seasons of the year it was a favourite residence. The most interesting part of the castle is the Romanesque Landgrafenhaus. This, besides a chapel, contains two magnificent halls known as the Sängersaal (hall of the minstrels)—in which Wagner placed the setting of his memorable First Act of his celebrated four-post bed Sängersaal is decorated with a fine fresco, representing the minstrels' contest, by Moritz von Schwind, who also executed the frescoes in other parts of the building illustrating the legends of St Elizabeth and of the founding of the castle by Louis the Springer. The Festsaal has frescoes illustrating the triumphs of Christianity, by Weler. In the buildings of the outer court of the castle is the room once occupied by Luther, containing a much mutilated four-post bed and other relics of the reformer. The famous blot caused by Luther's hurling his ink-pot at the devil has long since become a mere hole in the wall, owing— it is said—to the passion of American tourists for souvenirs.

The armoury (Rüstkammer) contains a fine collection of armour, including suits formerly belonging to Henry II. of France, the elector Frederick the Wise and Pope Julius II. The great watch-tower of the castle commands a magnificent view of the Thuringian forest on the one side and the plain on the other.

WARTHE (Polish, Warta), a river of Poland and Germany, and the chief affluent of the Oder. It rises on the north slope of the Carpathian Mountains N.W. of Cracow, flows north as far as Krakow, where it bends west, and then curves south and reaches Kola, where it again turns west, crosses the frontier into the Prussian province of Posen, where it takes a northerly direction past the town of Posen. Then once more bending west, it flows past Schwerin and Landsberg and enters the Oder from the right at Custrin. Its total length is 445 m. of which 215 are in Poland and 230 in Prussia; it is navigable up to Konin in West Poland, a distance of 265 m. Its banks are mostly low and flat, its lower course especially running through drained and cultivated marshes. It is connected with the Vistula through its tributary the Nidzica and the Bromberg canal. The area of its drainage basin is 17,400 sq. m.

WART-HOG, the designation of certain hideous African wild swine (see SWINE), characterized by the presence of large warty protuberances on the face, the large size of the tusks in both sexes, especially the upper pair, which are larger and stouter than the lower ones and are not worn at their summits, and the complexity and great size of the last pair of molar teeth in each jaw. The adults have frequently no teeth except those just mentioned, and nearly bare skins; and the young are uniformly coloured. Two species are thus named. The southern Phacochoerus aethiopicus, which formerly ranged as far south as the Cape, and the northern P. africanus, which extends to the mountains of Abyssinia, where it has been found at a high elevation. In South and East Africa wart-hogs frequent more or less open country, near water, and dwell in holes, generally those of the aard-vark. In Abyssinia, on the other hand, they spend the day among bushes, or in ravines, feeding at night.

WARTON, JOSEPH (1722-1800), English critic and poet, eldest son of Thomas Warton (see below), was baptized at Dunsfold, Surrey, on the 22nd of April 1722, and entered Winchester school on the foundation of 1738. William Collins was already there, and the two formed a friendship which was maintained through their Oxford career. They read Milton and Spenser together, and wrote verses, which, published in the Gentleman's Magazine, attracted the attention of Dr Johnson. Warton went to Oriel College, Oxford, in 1740, and took his B.A. degree in 1744. He took holy orders, and during his father's lifetime acted as his curate at Basingstoke. He then went to Chelsea, London; but eventually returned to Basingstoke. He married, became rector of Winalde (1748), of Tunworth (1754), in 1755 he was appointed a sub-dean of Salisbury, and served that diocese in 1766. He was not a successful schoolmaster, and when the boys mutinied against him for the third time he wisely resigned his position (1793).

His leisure was devoted to literature. Warton was far from having the genius of Collins, but they were at one in their impatience under the prevailing taste for moral and ethical poetry. Whoever wishes to understand how early the reaction against Pope's style began should read Warton's The Enthusiast,
or The Lover of Nature, and remember that it was printed in 1744, the year of Pope's death. "As he is convinced," he wrote in the preface (1746) to his Odes printed in Oxford, "that the fashion of moralizing in verse has been carried too far, and as he looks upon invention and imagination to be the chief faculties of a poet, so he will be happy if the following odes may be looked upon as an attempt to bring back poetry into its right channel." He published an edition (1753) in Latin and English of Virgil. This contained Christopher Pitt's version of the Aeneid, his own rendering of the Elegories and Georgics in the heroic measure, and essays by Warburton and others. Warton himself appended essays on epic and didactic poetry, a life of Virgil and an account of the "noble" life of Dr John Donne and wrote papers on Shakespeare and Homer in The Adventurer; and in 1757 he published the first part of an Essay on the Genius and Writings of Pope, an essay regarded at the time as revolutionary, by Johnson at least, because it put Pope in the second rank to Shakespeare, Spenser and Milton, on the ground that moral and ethical poetry, however excellent, is an inferior species. He held his own against Johnson in the Literary Club; and after enduring many jests about the promised second part of the essay and the delay in its appearance, published it at last, retracting nothing, in 1782. Warton's edition of Pope was published in 1759-1763, and a second edition, long delayed, was completed and published by his son in 1811. Warton was a prebendary of St Paul's and of Winchester Cathedrals, and held the livings of Upham and of Wickham, Hampshire, where he died on the 23rd of February 1800.

See Biographical Memoirs of the Late Rev. Joseph Warton, by John Woolf (vol. i., 1806, no more published).

WARTON, THOMAS (c. 1688-1745), English author; professor of poetry at Oxford, son of Anthony Warton, was born at Godalming about 1688. He was educated at Hart Hall and Magdalen College, Oxford, and was satirized in one of his verses by Nicholas Amhurst in Terrae flatus as "squinting Tom of Mauldin." He was vicar of Basingstoke, Hampshire, and master of the grammar-school of the town, where he had among his pupils Gilbert White, the naturalist. He received further preferments in the church, and died at Basingstoke on the 10th of September 1745. He published nothing during his lifetime, but after his death his son Joseph published some of his poetry under the title of Poems on Several Occasions (1748).

WATSON, Thomas (1728-1790), English poet-laureate and historian of poetry, younger son of Thomas Warton (see above), was born at Basingstoke on the 9th of January 1728. He was still more precocious as a poet than his brother—translated one of Martial's epigrams at nine, and wrote The Pleasures of Molendony at seventeen—and he showed exactly the same bent, Milton and Spenser being his favourite poets, though he "did not fail to cultivate his mind with the soft thrillings of the tragic muse" of Shakespeare.

In a poem written in 1745 he shows the delight in Gothic churches and ruined castles which inspired so much of his subsequent work in romantic revival. Most of his best verse is humorous and serious—and the humorous mock-heroic was better within his powers than serious verse—was written before the age of twenty-three, when he took his M.A. degree and became a fellow of his college (Trinity, Oxford). He did not altogether abandon verse; his sonnets, especially, which are the best of his poems, were written later. But his main energies were given to omnivorous poetical reading and criticism. He was the first to turn to literary account the medieval treasures of the Bodleian Library. It was through him, in fact, that the medal in the edition of 1746 was furnished to Oxford first materials, still in its inaction, and to claim an influence in the modern world. Warton, like his brother, entered the church, and held one after another, various livings, but he did not marry. He gave little attention to his clerical duties, and Oxford always remained his home. In 1749 he published an heroic poem in praise of Oxford, The Triumph of Isis. He was a very convivial as well as a very learned don, with a taste for pothouses and crowds, as well as dim aisles and romances in manuscript and black letter. The first proof that he gave of his scholarly interest was his Observations on the Poetry of Spenser (1754). Three years later he was appointed professor of poetry, and held the office for ten years, sending round, according to the story, at the beginning of term to inquire whether anybody wished him to lecture. The first volume of his monumental work, The History of English Poetry, appeared twenty years later, in 1774, the second volume in 1778, and the third in 1781. A work of such enormous labour and research could proceed but slowly, and it was no wonder that Warton flagged in the execution of it, and stopped to refresh himself by annotating (1785) the minor poems of Milton, pouring out in this delightful work the accumulated suggestions of forty years.

In 1783 he became Camden professor of history, and was made poet-laureate in the same year. Among his minor works were an edition of Theocritus, a selection of Latin and Greek inscriptions, the humorous Oxford Companion to the Guide and Guide to the Companion (1763); The Oxford Sausage (1764); an edition of Theocritus (1770); lives of Sir Thomas Pope and Ralph Bathurst, college benefactors; A History of the Antiquities of Kidington Parish, of which he held the living (1781); and An Introduction to the Study of the Poems attributed to Thomas Rowley (1782). His busy and convivial life was ended by a paralytic stroke in May 1790.

Warton's poems were first collected in 1777, and he was engaged at the time of his death on a corrected edition, which appeared in 1791, with a memoir by his friend and admirer, Richard Mant. They were first printed in the British Poets, by S. W. Singer. The History of English Poetry from the close of the 11th to the Commencement of the 18th Century, to which are prefixed two Dissertations: I. On the Origin of Romanick Poetry in England. II. On introducing English Poetry from the close of the 11th to the close of the 16th century. It was criticized by J. Ritson in 1782 in A Familiar Letter to the Author. A new edition came out in 1823, with an elaborate index and an appendix by the editor, who added to the text comments and emendations from Joseph Ritson, Francis Douce, George Ashby, Thomas Park and himself. Another edition of this, stated to be "further improved by the corrections and additions of several eminent antiquaries," appeared in 1840. In 1871 the book was subjected to a radical revision by Mr W. C. Hadlitt. He cut out passages in which Warton had been led into gross errors by misreading his authorities or relying on false information, and supplied with brackets information on authors or works omitted. Warton's matter, which was somewhat scattered, although he worked on a chronological plan, was in some cases revised by the modern editor, but much of the plan was cut down, although new information was added by the editor and his associates, Sir Frederick Madden, Thomas Wright, W. Aldis Wright, W. W. Skeat, Richard Morris and F. J. Furnivall. When the work has been before the world it has been regarded as a valuable work, and the unsatisfactory nature of his general plan, the fact remains that his book is still indispensable to the student of English poetry. Moreover, much that may seem commonplace in his criticisms is entirely fresh and even revolutionary in his own day. Warton directed the attention of readers to early English literature, and in, view of the want of texts, rendered inestimable service by transcribing large extracts from early writers. Of the poets of the 16th century he was an extremely sympathetic critic and has not been superseded.

See J. Warton and Machyn's Diary, by H. E. D. Blakiston in the English Historical Review (April 1896) for illustrations of his inaccurate methods.

WARWICK, EARLS OF. John Rous (c. 1411-1491), the historian of the earls of Warwick, gives an account of them from Brutus their founder through many mythical ancestors, among whom is the Guy of romance. The 1st earl of Warwick was Henry de Newburgh (d. 1123), lord of Newburgh in Normandy and son of Roger de Beaumont. He became constable of Warwick Castle in 1115, and through the false proof that he and Henry de Beaumont, comte de Meulan, fought at Hastings. He apparently spent most of his time in Normandy, and was a baron of the Norman exchequer. He was created earl of Warwick early in the reign of William II. receiving a grant of the great estates of the Saxon, Thurkill of Arden, in Warwickshire. He was attached throughout his life to Henry I., and both the Beaumont brothers were faithful to the king at the time of the
conspiracy of the Norman noble in 1101. By his wife Margaret, daughter of Geoffrey II, count of Perche, he had five sons and two daughters. He died on the 2oth of June 1123, and was buried in the Norman abbey of Préaux, near Pont-Audemer, a family foundation of which he and his brother were patrons. At Warwick he founded the priory of the Austin Canons, and endowed the church of St Mary.

Of his sons Roger de Newburgh became 2nd earl of Warwick and died in 1153; Rotrou (d. 1190) became archbishop of Rouen; and Robert, seneschal and justiciar of Normandy, died in 1185 in the abbey of Bec, of which he was a benefactor. The estates of Warwick were inherited by his brother William II (d. 1184) and Walader (d. 1204). Henry de Newburgh, 5th earl of Warwick (1192-1229), took the royal side in the civil wars of the reigns of John and Henry III. The 6th earl, Thomas de Newburgh (c. 1213-1297), left no heirs, and was succeeded by his sister Margaret, countess of Warwick in her own right, who was twice married, but left no heirs. Her second husband, John du Plessis, assumed the title of earl of Warwick in 1245, and in 1256 received a grant of his wife's lands for life. He was succeeded in 1263 by Countess Margaret's cousin and heir Sir William de Beauchamp (c. 1220-1270), 1st earl of Warwick. Mauduit's sister and heiress, Isabel de Beauchamp, had apparently adopted the religious life at the time of her brother's death, and her son William de Beauchamp became 9th earl of Warwick.

His son Guy de Beauchamp, 10th earl of Warwick (1278-1315), received grants of land in Scotland for his services at Falkirk, and in 1301 was one of the signatories of the letter to the pope denying the papal right to interfere in Scottish affairs. He was with Edward I. at the time of his death, and is said to have been warned by him against Piers Gaveston. He was one of the lords ordainers of 1310, and was concerned in the capture of Gaveston, though he declined to countenance his execution. He died on the 10th of August 1315. His son, Thomas de Beauchamp, 11th earl (1313-1360), was marshal of England in 1344, and of the English army in France in 1346. He fought at Crecy and Poitiers, and was one of the original knights of the Garter.

Thomas de Beauchamp, 12th earl (c. 1345-1401), was about twenty-four years old when he succeeded his father. He served on the lords' committee of reform in the Good Parliament in 1376, and again in 1377, and was a member of the commission of inquire in 1379. Appointed governor to Richard II. in February 1381, he joined the nobles who sought to impose their authority on the king, and was one of the lords appellant in 1388. After the overthrow of his party in 1389 Warwick lived in retirement, but although he had for the moment escaped Richard's vengeance he was not forgiven. Being invited with Gloucester and Arundel to a banquet at court on the 10th of July 1397 he alone of the three was imprudent enough to obey the summons. He was immediately arrested and imprisoned in the Tower of London, in that part of the fortress since known as the Beauchamp Tower. Warwick made a full confession in parliament; his honours were forfeited and he himself banished. He was again in the Tower in 1398, but was liberated and restored to his honours on the accession of Henry IV. His son Richard Beauchamp, 13th earl of Warwick, is separately noticed.

Henry, 14th earl of Warwick (1423-1449), Earl Richard's son, a descendant, through his mother Constence le Despenser, of Edmund, duke of York, fifth son of Edward III., received a patent making him premier earl in 1444. A year later he was created duke of Warwick with precedence next after the Duke of Norfolk. He was created by his brother Duke of Buckingham. The assertion that he was crowned king of the Isle of Wight seems to have no foundation in fact. The 14th earl, whose honours were probably due to his father's services, died in his twenty-second year, leaving a daughter Anne, who died in 1440. On her death the earldom lapsed to the crown. The estates passed to Sir Richard Neville (see Warwick, Richard Neville, earl of), right of his wife Anne, sister of Henry Beauchamp, duke of Warwick. He and his wife were created earl and countess of Warwick each for life in 1450, with remainder to Anne's heirs, and, these failing, to Margaret, countess of Shrewsbury, half-sister of the countess Anne. After the death of her husband, the Kingmaker, at Barnet in 1471, the rights of the countess, heiress of the Beauchamp estates, were set aside "as if the said countess were nowe naturally dade" (act of 13 Edward IV. 1473) in favour of her daughters, Isabel, wife of George, duke of Clarence, and Anne, who, after the murder of her first husband Edward prince of Wales in 1471, married Richard, duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III. Their mother was allowed to resume her estates in 1485, but only to settle them on the crown. She was succeeded in 1493 in the earldom by her grandson Edward (c. 1475-1494), 7th earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence, and therefore the Yorkists took to the crown. He was imprisoned in 1484, his sole offence being his birth, and was executed in 1499 on a charge of conspiracy with his fellow-prisoner, Perkin Warbeck. He was the last representative of the male line of the Plantagenets. His honours were forfeited, and his estates passed to his sister Margaret, countess of Salisbury in her own right, the unfortunate lady who was executed in 1541.

The next bearer of the title was John Dudley, Viscount Lisle, afterwards duke of Northumberland (q.v.), who was created earl of Warwick in 1547, on account of his descent from Margaret, countess of Shrewsbury, daughter of Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick. The earldom became extinct with his son John Dudley, 20th earl of Warwick (c. 1528-1554), who was condemned to death for having signed the letters patent making his sister-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, heir apparent. He was released from prison in October 1554, but died in the same month. His brother, Ambrose Dudley (c. 1528-1590), who fought at St Quentin in 1557, secured the reversal of the attainder of himself and his brother consequent on the attempt to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne, and in 1561 was created Baron Lisle and earl of Warwick. He was in high favour with Elizabeth, as was his third wife Anne, daughter of Francis Russell, 2nd earl of Bedford. His brother Robert, earl of Leicester, having predeceased him his honours became extinct on his death in 1590.

The earldom was revived in 1618 in favour of Robert Rich, 3rd Baron Rich (c. 1560-1610), grandson of Lord Chancellor Rich, who died shortly after his elevation. His wife Penelope, Lady Rich, is separately noticed. He was succeeded in 1619 by his eldest son Robert Rich, 2nd or 3rd earl of Warwick (q.v.), whose two sons Robert (1611-1650) and Charles (1619-1673) succeeded him in the earldom and died leaving no male issue. The 5th or 26th earl of Warwick was their cousin Robert Rich (1620-1672), eldest son of Henry, 1st earl of Holland. His grandson, the 7th or 28th earl, left no issue, and the title became extinct on the death, on the 5th of September 1759, of his kinsman Edward Rich, 8th or 29th earl. It was revived two months later, when Francis Greville, Baron Brooke of Beauchamps Court (1719-1773), who had in 1746 been created Earl Brooke of Warwick Castle, became earl of Warwick. Greville was descended from Robert Greville, the 2nd baron, who was killed at Lichfield during the civil war and he represented a cadet branch of the Beauchamp family. His son George (1746-1816) became the 2nd earl of this line, and the earldom has remained with his descendants, Francis Richard (b. 1853) becoming the 5th earl in 1803. His wife, Frances Evelyn, countess of Warwick, daughter of Colonel the Hon. C. H. Maynard (d. 1865), inherited the estates of her grandfather, Henry Maynard, 5th and last Viscount Maynard (1788-1865). She became well known in society later and was known as Lady Maynard of Warwick. She died in 1880.

WARWICK, SIR PHILIP (1600-1653), English writer and politician, was the son of Thomas Warwick, or Warrick, a musician, and was born in Westminster on the 24th of December 1600. Educated at Eton, he travelled abroad for some time and in 1636 became secretary to the lord high treasurer, William Juxon; later he was a member of the Long Parliament, being one of those who voted against the attainer of Strafford and who followed Charles I. to Oxford. He fought at Edgehill and was one of the King's secretaries during the negotiations with the
parliament at Hampton Court, and also during those at Newport, Charles speaking very highly of his services just before his execution. Remaining in England, Warwick was passively loyal to Charles II. during the Commonwealth and enjoyed the confidence of the royalist leaders. In 1660 the king made him a knight, and in 1661 he became a member of parliament and secretary, and represented Warwicke, Townsend, Holwell, Earle of Southampton, retaining this post until the treasury was put into commission on Southampton's death in May 1667. He died on the 15th of January 1683. Warwick's only son, the younger Philip Warwick (d. 1683), was evoked to Sweden in 1680.  

Warwick is chiefly known for his Memoirs of the reign of King Charles II. with a continuation to the happy restoration of King Charles II., written between 1675 and 1676 and published in London in 1701.  

WARWICK, RICHARD NEVILLE, EARL OF (1428-1471), called "the king-maker," was eldest son of Richard Neville, earl of Salisbury, by Alice, one daughter and heirress of Thomas, the last Montacute earl of Salisbury. He was born in the second week of November 1428, and whilst still a boy betrothed to Anne, daughter of Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick. When her brother's daughter died in 1449, Anne, as only sister of the whole blood, brought her husband the title and chief share of the Warwick estates. Richard Neville thus became the premier earl, and both in power and position excelled his father. Richard, duke of York, was his uncle, so when York became protector in 1453, and Salisbury was made chancellor, it was natural that Warwick should be of the council. After the king's recovery in 1455 Warwick and his father took York's support. Their victory at St Albans on the 22nd of May 1459 was due to the fierce energy with which Warwick assaulted and broke the Lancastrian centre. He was rewarded with the important office of captain of Calais; to his position there he owed his strength during the next five years. Even when York was displaced at home, Warwick retained his post, and in 1457 he was also made admiral. He was present in February 1458 at the professed reconciliation of the two parties in a lovefeast at St Paul's, London. During the previous year he had done some good fighting on the march of Calais by land, and kept the French with vigour; now on his return he distinguished himself in a great fight with Spanish ships off Calais on the 28th of May, and in the autumn by capturing a German salt-ship on its way to Lübeck. These exploits brought him a prestige and popularity that were distasteful to the home government. Moreover, England was at war neither with Castile nor with the Hanse. Warwick's action may possibly have formed part of some Yorkist design for frustrating the foreign policy of their rivals. At all events there was pretext enough for recalling him to make his defence. Whilst he was at the Court at Westminster, some difficulty occurred between his retainers and some of the royal household. Warwick himself escaped with difficulty, and went back to Calais, alleging that his life had been deliberately attempted. When in the following year a renewal of the war was imminent, Warwick crossed over to England with his trained soldiers from Calais under Sir Andrew Trollope. But at Ludlow on the 12th of October Trollope and his men deserted, and left the Yorkists helpless. Warwick, with his father, his cousin the young Edward of York, and only three followers, made his way to Barnstaple. There they hired a little fishing vessel. The master pleaded that he did not know the Channel, but Warwick resourcefully took command and himself steered a successful course to Calais. He arrived just in time to anticipate the duke of Somerset, whom the Lancastrians had sent to supersede him. During the winter Warwick held Calais against Somerset, and sent out a fleet which seized Sandwich and captured Lord Rivers. In the spring he went to Ireland to concert plans with Richard of York. On his return voyage he encountered a superior Lancastrian fleet in the Channel. But Exeter, the rival commander, could not trust his crews and dared not fight.  

From Calais Warwick, Salisbury and Edward of York crossed to Sandwich on the 26th of June. A few days later they entered London, whence Warwick at once marched north. On the 10th of July they routed the Lancastrians at Northampton, and took the king prisoner. For the order to spare the commons and slay the lords Warwick was responsible, as also for some later executions at London. Yet when Richard of York was disposed to claim the crown, it was, according to Warrin, Warwick who decided the discussion in favour of a compromise, perhaps from loyalty to Henry, or perhaps from the wish not to change a weak sovereign for a strong. Warwick was in charge of London at the
time when Richard and Salisbury were defeated and slain at Wakefield. The Lancastrians won a second victory at St Albans on the 17th of February 1461, possibly through lack of generalship on Warwick's part. But in his plans to retrieve the disaster, Warwick showed skill and decision. He met Edward of York in Oxfordshire, brought him in triumph to London, had him proclaimed king, and within a month of his defeat at St Albans was marching north in pursuit of the Lancastrians. The good generalship which won the victory of Towton may have been due to Edward rather than to Warwick, but the new king was of the creation of the powerful earl, who now had his reward. For four years the government was centred undisputedly in the hands of Warwick and his friends. The energy of his brother John, Lord Montagu, frustrated the various attempts of the Lancastrians in the north. In another sphere Warwick himself was determining the lines of English policy on the basis of an alliance with France. The power of the Nevilles seemed to be completed by the promotion of the Overthrow of the Woodvilles, and he was appointed archbishop of York. The first check came with the announcement in September 1463 of the king's secret marriage to Elizabeth Woodville. This was particularly distasteful to Warwick, who had but just pledged Edward to a French match. For the time being, however, there was no open breach. The trouble began in 1466, when Edward first made Rivers, the queen's father, treasurer, and afterwards threw obstacles in the way of an intended marriage between Warwick's daughter Isabel and George of Clarence, his own next brother. Still in May 1469 Warwick went again with the king's assent to conclude a treaty with France. He returned for But now it is abundantly clear that Edward, under the influence, had committed himself definitely to the Burgundian alliance. Warwick retired in dudgeon to his estates, and began to plot in secret for his revenge. In the summer of 1469 he went over to Calais, where Isabel and Clarence were married without the king's knowledge. Meantime he had stirred up the rebellion of Robin of Redesdale in Yorkshire; and when Edward was drawn north, Warwick invaded England in arms. The king, outmatched and outnumbered, had to yield himself prisoner, whilst Rivers and his son John were executed. Warwick was appointed protector with the Overthrow of the Woodvilles, and believed that he had secured Edward's submission. In March 1470 a rebellion in Lincolnshire gave Edward an opportunity to gather an army of his own. When the king alleged that he had found proof of Warwick's complicity, the earl, taken by surprise, fled with Clarence to France. There, through the instrumentality of Louis XI., he was with some difficulty reconciled to Margaret of Anjou, and agreed to marry his second daughter to her son. In September Warwick and Clarence, with the Lancastrian lords, landed at Dartmouth. Edward in his turn had to fly overseas, and for six months Warwick ruled England. He was deposed by the queen mother, and Henry VI., who was restored from the prison in the Tower to a nominal throne. But the Lancastrian restoration was unwelcome to Clarence, who began to intrigue with his brother. When in March 1471 Edward landed at Ravenspur, Clarence found an opportunity to join him. Warwick was completely outgeneraled, and at Barnet on the 14th of April was defeated and slain.

Warwick has been made famous by Lytton as "The Last of the Barons." The title suits him as a great feudal lord, who was a good fighter but a poor general, who had more sympathy with the order than with the new culture. But he was more than this. He had some of the qualities of a strong ruler, and the power to command popularity. He was a skilled diplomatist and an adroit politician. These qualities, with his position as the head of a great family, the chief representative of Beauchamp, Despenser, Montacute and Neville, made him during ten years "the king-maker."

Warwick's only children were his two daughters. Anne, the younger, was married after his death to Richard of Gloucester, the future Richard III. Their husbands shared his inheritance and squabbled over its division.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Warwick of course fills a great place in contemporary authorities, for a note on the chief of them see under Edward IV. For modern authorities see especially C. W. Oman's brilliant but enthusiastic Warwick the King-Maker, Sir John Ramsay's Lancaster and York, and Stubbs's Constitutional History.

(C. L. K.)

WARWICK, SIR ROBERT RICH, 2ND EARL OF (1587–1638), colonial administrator and admiral, was the eldest son of Robert Rich, earl of Warwick (see above) and his wife Penelope Rich (q.v.), and succeeded to the title in 1610. Early interested in colonial ventures, he joined the Bermudas, Guinea, New England and Virginia companies. His enterprises involved him in disputes with the East India Company (1617) and with the Virginia Company, which in 1624 was suppressed through his action. In 1627 he commanded an unsuccessful privateering expedition against the Spaniards. His Puritan connexions and sympathies, while gradually estranging him from the court, promoted his association with the New England colonies. In 1628 he indirectly procured the patent for the Massachusetts colony, and in 1630, when he secured the "Saybrook" patent in Connecticut. Compelled the same year to resign the presidency of the New England Company, he continued to manage the Bermudas and Providence Companies, the latter of which, founded in 1636, administered Old Providence on the Mosquito coast. Meanwhile in England Warwick opposed the forced loan of 1626, the payment of ship-money and Laud's church policy, and with his brother the first lord Holland (q.v.) came to be recognized as one of the heads of the Puritans. In March 1642 the Commons, in spite of the king's veto, appointed him admiral of the fleet, and in July he gained the whole navy for the parliament. He raised a fleet in Norfolk and Essex on the outbreak of the war, and in 1649, when appointed lord high admiral (1643–1645) he did good service in intercepting the king's ships and relieving threatened ports. In 1643 he was appointed head of a commission for the government of the colonies, which the next year incorporated Providence Plantations, afterwards Rhode Island, and in this capacity he exerted himself to secure religious liberty. Reappointed lord high admiral in May 1648, in the vain hope that his influence with the sailors would win back the nine ships which had revolted to the king, he collected a new fleet and blockaded them at Helvoetsluys. Dismissed from office on the abolition of the House of Lords in 1649, he retired from public life, but was intimately associated with Cromwell, whose daughter Frances married his grandson and heir Robert Rich in 1657. He died on the 14th of April 1658. The suspicions cast by his enemies on his religious sincerity and political fidelity appear to be baseless.

WARWICK, a town of Merivale county, Queensland, Australia, 169 m. by rail S.W. of Brisbane. Pop. (1901) 3550. It lies on the bank of the river Contadamine, in the heart of one of the best agricultural districts in Queensland, and is perhaps the most fruitful of all the sugar-growing areas, and is well laid out with many substantial public and private buildings, and has two large parks, besides smaller recreation grounds. The district is famous for its vineyards, and quantities of excellent wine are made; wheat and maize are the principal crops, but tobacco, oats and lucerne are largely grown. Coal is found near the town, as are also marble, good building stone and brick clay.

WARWICK, a municipal and parliamentary borough, and the county town of Warwickshire, England; finely situated on the river Avon, the Warwick & Nantwich and Birmingham canals, 95 m. N.W. from London. Pop. (1901) 11,889. It is served by the Great Western and the London & North Western railways. The parliamentary borough was united with that of Leamington in 1885, and returns one member. Leaming- ton lies 2 m. E., and the towns are united by the suburb of New Milverton.

The magnificent castle of the earls of Warwick stands in a commanding and picturesque position on a rocky eminence above the river. Its walls, enclosing a lovely lawn and gardens, are flanked by towers, of which Caesar's tower, 147 ft. high, the Gateway tower and Guy's tower are the chief, dating from the 15th century. The residential portion lies on the river side. Excepting a few traces of earlier work, its appearance is that of a princely mansion of the 17th century. There is
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a famous collection of pictures. The Great Hall and other apartments suffered from fire in 1871, but were restored. A vase of marble attributed to the 4th century A.D. is preserved here; it was discovered near Hadrian's Villa at Tivoli in Italy. Below the castle the Avon, with thickly wooded banks, affords one of the most exquisite reaches of river scenery in England. The church of St Mary is principally, as it stands, a rebuilding of the time of Queen Anne, after a fire in 1694. It appears from Domesday that a church existed before the Conquest. It was made collegiate by Roger de Newburgh, the second Norman earl, in 1123. At the Dissolution Henry VIII. granted the manors and burgesses of the town. The Beauchamp Chapel survived the fire; it is a beautiful example of Perpendicular work, founded by the will of Earl Richard Beauchamp, and built between 1443 and 1454. The fine tomb of the earl stands in the centre. There are only scanty traces of the old town walls, but the east and west gates remain, rendered picturesque by chapels built above them. The priory of St Sepulchre was founded by Henry de Newburgh and completed in the reign of Henry I., on the site of an ancient church, for a society of canons regular. It is now a private residence. Leicester Hospital, established by Bishop John of Conisbrough in 1130, preserved an pile of half-timber building. It was originally used as the hall of the united gilds of the Holy Trinity, the Blessed Virgin and St George the Martyr. The earl of Leicester, by an act of incorporation obtained in 1571, founded the hospital for the reception of twelve poor men possessing not more than £5 a year, and a master. The first master, appointed by the earl himself, was the famous Puritan, Thomas Cartwright. St John's Hospital, a foundation of the time of Henry II., is represented by a beautiful Jacobean mansion. There are numerous charities in the town, the principal being those of Henry VIII., Sir Thomas White and Thomas Oken. The first is devoted to ecclesiastical and municipal stipends and to the King's School. By the charity of Sir Thomas White, the sum of £100 is lent, without interest, to young tradesmen for a period of nine years. The King's School, an important foundation for boys, dates from the reign of Edward the Confessor. It occupies modern buildings. Upon the same foundation are the high school for girls and the King's middle school. Among public buildings are a shire hall, free library and museum. Industries include gelatine and brick-making, and there are ironworks. The parliamentary borough returns one member. Area, 1076 acres.

A famous site in the vicinity of Warwick is Guy's Cliffe, where a modern mansion, embodying ancient remains, crowns the precipitous rocky bank of the Avon. Here was the hermitage of the first Guy, earl of Warwick. Blacklow Hill in the vicinity was the scene of the execution of Piers Gaveston, the favourite courtier of Edward II., in 1312.

Warwick (Warwick, Warwicki, Warrewyke) is said to have been a Roman station, and was later fortified by Ethelfleda, the lady of Mercia, against the Danes. At the time of the Domesday Survey, Warwick was the royal borough, containing 261 houses, of which 130 were in the king's hands, while 10 belonged to burgesses who enjoyed all the privileges they had in the time of Edward the Confessor. The Conqueror granted the borough to Henry of Newburgh, who was created earl of Warwick, and in all probability built the castle on the site of Ethelfleda's fortification. The Beauchamps, successors of Henry of Newburgh as earls of Warwick, held the borough of the king in chief. Although the borough owed its early importance to the castle of the earls of Warwick as well as to its position and site, the right of a fair from John earl of Warwick, in 1261, it seems to have developed independently of them, and received no charter until it was incorporated under the title of the burgesses of Warwick in 1546 after it had come into the king's hands by the attainder of Edward, earl of Warwick, in 1490. Other charters were granted in 1553, 1665, 1684 and 1694, of which that of 1553 allowed the appointment of assistant burgesses, though this was discontinued in 1698 because through their means a candidate for the borough was elected not supported by the recorder and aldermen. The charter of 1694 conferred the title of "Mayor, Aldermen and Burgesses" on the corporation, and appointed the offices of the borough. The mayor, aldermen and assistant burgesses were to assemble yearly at Michaelmas, and in the presence of all the burgesses nominate two aldermen, who should elect the new mayor and other officers. A mayor refusing office was to be fined £20, an alderman £10 and an assistant burgess £5. In 1882 the borough was divided into three wards, and the corporation consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 town councillors. Warwick returned two members to parliament from 1295, but in 1885 the number was reduced to one. A grant to a fair granted by the earl, to the burgesses in 1261, he himself held by prescriptive right a yearly fair in August and a market every Wednesday. Another fair was granted in 1290, and in 1413 the fair held at Michaelmas was changed to the feast of St Bartholomew. Fairs are now held on the 12th of October and on the Monday before St Thomas's day. A market is held every Saturday, the first charter for this being granted in 1545. A goal is mentioned here as early as 1200 in a pipe roll of that year.

Warwick, a township of Kent county, Rhode Island, U.S.A., and part of Providence proper. It is on the W. side of Narragansett Bay (here called Providence river) and crossed by the Pawtuxet river, which is in its lower course a part of the township's northern boundary. Pop. (1890) 17,261; (1900) 21,316, of whom 7702 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 26,620. The township is crossed by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and electric lines serve most of its twenty-seven rather scattered villages. The larger villages are: on the river, Pontic, Natick, River Point (at the junction of the two upper branches of the Pawtuxet), Phoenix, Centreville and Crompton; on Greenwich Bay, Apponaug and Warwick; and on Providence river, Shawomet, Warwick Neck, Oak Hill Beach, Buttonwoods, Cominicut and Long Meadow, which are summer resorts. Water power is provided by the Pawtuxet river, and much cotton and some woolen and print goods are manufactured. The value of the factory product in 1905 was $7,051,971 (17.1% more than in 1900); of the total, nine-tenths was the value of textile products. Warwick, originally called Shawomet (Shawmut), its Indian name, was settled in 1634 by Samuel Gorton (g.) and a few followers. Gorton quarrelled with the Indians, was carried off to Boston, was tried there for heresy, was convicted, and imprisoned; was released with orders to leave the colony in March 1644, went to England, and under the patronage of the earl of Warwick returned to his settlement in 1648 and renamed it in honour of the earl. In 1647 the settlement entered into a union with Providence, Newport and Portsmouth under the Warwick (or Williams) charter of 1644, but during 1651-1654 Warwick and Providence were temporarily separated from the other two towns. Warwick was the birthplace of General Nathanael Greene.
WARWICKSHIRE

The East and West Junction railway, from Blisworth in Northamptonshire, serves Stratford-on-Avon and terminates at Broom Junction on the Evesham line of the Midland. Water communications through the east of the county is afforded by the Oxford and Coventry canals. The Warwick & Napton canal joins the Oxford at Napton; the Warwick & Birmingham joins these towns, and the Stratford-on-Avon is a branch from it. The Fazeley canal runs N.E. from Birmingham. None of the rivers is of commercial value for navigation.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 577,462 acres, with a population in 1891 of 805,072, and in 1901 of 897,835, the chief centres of increase lying naturally in the parts about Birmingham and Coventry. The area of the administrative county is 579,885 acres. The municipal boroughs are: Aston Manor (pop. 77,326), Birmingham (522,304), Coventry (69,978), Leamington, officially Royal Leamington Spa (26,888), Nuneaton (24,906), Stratford-on-Avon (8310), Sutton Coldfield (14,264), and Warwick (11,886), the county town. The urban districts are: Bulkington (1548), Erdington (16,368), Kenilworth (4544) and Rugby (16,830). Among the towns not appearing in these lists there should be mentioned: Alcester (3263), Atherstone (5248), Bedworth (7160), Comlish (2532), Foleshill (5514) and Solihull (7577). Warwickshire is in the midland circuit, and assizes are held at Warwick. It has one county bench; there are 14 petty sessionsal divisions. The boroughs of Birmingham, Coventry, Royal Leamington Spa, Stratford-on-Avon, Sutton Coldfield and Warwick have separate commissions of the peace, and the boroughs of Birmingham and Warwick have, in addition, separate courts of quarter sessions. The total number of civil parishes is 267. The county, which is mostly in the diocese of Worcester, but also extends into those of Lichfield, Gloucester, Peterborough and Oxford, contains 207 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. Warwickshire has four parliamentary divisions—Northern or Tamworth, North-eastern or Rugby, Central or Stratford-on-Avon, and South-western (Warwick). Each returning one member.

The parliamentary boroughs of Aston Manor, Coventry and Warwick return one member each, and that of Birmingham has seven divisions, each returning one member.

Birmingham is the seat of a university, of the large grammar school of King Edward VI., and of other important educational institutions. At Rugby is one of the most famous of English public schools. The King's School, Warwick, is a large boys' school, and the Leamington High School is for girls. There is a daily public train from the large railway collecting centres at Rugby and Warwick, in connexion with Mason University College, Birmingham. Among other institutions there may be mentioned the Lady Warwick College for the instruction of women in the higher branches of agriculture, &c., founded by Frances, countess of Warwick, at Reading in 1861, and subsequently removed to Studley Castle in the county, where there is accommodation for 50 students.

History.—The earliest English settlers in the district now known as Warwickshire were a tribe of Hwicas who, pushing up the Severn valley in the 6th century, made their way along the passages afforded by the Avon valley and the Roman Fosse Way, the extent of their settlement being indicated by the ancient limits of the diocese of Worcester. The vast forest of Arden, stretching from the Avon to the site of the modern Birmingham, barred any progress northwards, at the same time affording protection to the Anglo-Saxon tribes who were already settled about Atherstone, and it was only after the battle of Cirencester in 628 that the whole of the Hwican territory was comprised in Mercia. In 675 Cosford was included in the endowment of Edburh, and in 757 Ethelfled placed it in his gift to Sigeheard, in a battle with the West Saxons. The shire of Warwick originated in the 10th century about Æthelflæd's new burgh at Warwick, and is mentioned by name in the Saxon Chronicle in 1016, when it was harried by Canute. The Danes made frequent incursions in the district in the 10th and 11th centuries, but no traces of their settlements occur south of Rugby.

The Shire offered little resistance to the Conqueror, who was

south-eastern boundary runs the highest line of hills in the county, reaching some 800 ft., and including Edge Hill (which gives name to the county), and Nuneaton and Alcester, Stratford and Leamington, and the Shuckburgh hills. The county boundary has been pencilled across the highest line of hills, to include the headwaters of some of the feeders of the Cherwell, and thus a small part of the drainage area of the Thames. These hills rise abruptly, and command wide views over the countryside. The finest silvan scenery is found on the banks of the Avon; the position of Guy's Cliffe and of Warwick Castle are well-known examples. It is not difficult to trace the influence of the scenic characteristics of the county in the writings of its most famous son, William Shakespeare.

Geology.—The Arkean rocks are represented by some volcanic ashstones, and by some eroded rocks (the Caldeaton Series), which are confined to the north-west of Nuneaton. They dip south-westward under the Cambrian beds—Harshill Quartzite and Stockingford Shales—which give rise to high grassland; the latter, which is opened up in numerous large redstone quarries, contains towards its summit a fauna suggesting that of the Olenellus zone, one of the oldest faunas known. The quartzite as well as the overlying shales is seen to have intrusive dykes of diorite, which transform the formation, and include the oldest rocks, which are the equivalents of the Keble Beds of Staffordshire, and like them should be grouped with the Coal Measures. The general altitude is lower in the north than in the south, and in the centre is a considerable range of hills; the highest, the Birmingham, and the second highest, the South Warwick, is but a hill. Coventry, at the foot of the former, and at Coley form high ground (625 ft.); in several places shafts have been sunk through them to the productive Coal Measures below. The rest of the county is occupied in the northern half by the Trias, a rock of great extent and in the south by the Lias. Of the Trias the Bunter (soft red sandstones with pebble-beds) is represented only by Birmingham and Sutton Coldfield, where it is succeeded by the Keuper Sandstone, which is occasionally exposed above and the edge of the coalfield (Trowleswell, Covercote, and Maxtoke); the Keuper Marl occupies a large area in the centre of the county, while some sandstones in them form picturesque scarp near Tamworth. The highest point in southwest Warwickshire is Rugby, where the Lias are seldom exposed. The Lower Lias limestones are worked for cement (as near Rugby) and abound in amonites. The Middle Lias sands and limestones follow, and form escarpments (as at Edge Hill, 710 ft.); but these and the lowest members of the Oolite series scarcely cross the county boundary from Oxfordshire. Glacial drifts—boulder-clay, sand and gravel—overspread large areas of the older rocks; their composition shows them to have been derived from the ice-sheets which crept the mineral from the Irish Sea, from North Wales and from the North Sea. Later fluvial and glacial gravels of the Avon valley have yielded mammalian remains, and the Hauptmann, in the middle member of the rocks, and elsewhere, have been found in the old gravels of the Daugavpils near Birmingham. Coal, ironstone, lime and cement are the chief mineral products; manganese ore was formerly got from the Cannock rocks.

Climate and Agriculture.—The climate is generally mild and healthy. The soil is on the whole good, and consists of various loams, sands, gravels, silt, and gravel, with considerable chalk for most of the area. It is rich in pasture-land, and dairy-farming is increasing. It has excellent orchards and market-gardens, and possesses some of the finest woodlands in England. About five-sixths of the total area, a high proportion, is under cultivation, and of the rest about three-fifths is in permanent pasture. Oats and wheat occupy the greater part of the area under grain crops. In connexion with the cattle-rearing and dairy-farming, over half the acreage under green crops is in grass and clover, the chief grasses being white clover and red clover. There are important industries.

Industries.—The industrial part of the county is the northern part, which includes the greatest manufacturing centre of the Midland Counties, though a large part of the industry has been transferred into Staffordshire and Worcestershire. Metal-working in all branches is prosecuted here, besides other industries. Coventry is noted for cycle-making, and, with Bedworth and Nuneaton and the intervening villages, is a seat of the ribbon and tape-makers. A small iron and coalfield occurs in the north-east, extending outside the county northward from Coventry. Clay, limestone and other stone are quarried at various points, and an appreciable amount of iron ore is extracted.

Communications.—The main line of the London & North-Western railway runs within the county, near the N.E. boundary, by Rugby, Nuneaton, Atherstone, Tamworth, with branches to Leamington and Warwick, Coventry and Birmingham, and cross-branches. The northern line of the Great Western railway runs through Leamington and Warwick to Birmingham, with branches to Stratford-on-Avon and Henley-in-Arden. The Leamington and Nuneaton to Stratford line of the Midland railway crosses the north of the county by Nuneaton, and the Birmingham-Evesham line of this company serves Alcester.
at Warwick in 1668, and Thurlkill the sheriff was one of the few Englishmen to retain large estates which he had held before the conquest, his family long continuing in the county under the name of Arden. The fortification which he had raised at Warwick William entrusted to Henry, son of Roger de Beaumont, afterwards earl of Warwick, and Robert, count of Meulan, Henry's elder brother, had an important seat. Coventry Minster was richly endowed, and in 1285 the prior claimed among other privileges to have an independent coroner and to hold two courts a year. The earldom and castle of Warwick subsequently passed to the Beauchamps, and in the reign of Henry VI. to the Nevilles. The Clontons, founders of the castles and priories at Maxstoke and Kenilworth, enjoyed large estates in the county during the Norman period.

The ten Domesday hundreds of Warwickshire are now reduced to four, all of which are mentioned in the 12th century. Hemmington represents the Domesday hundred of Coleshill; Knightlow, the Domesday hundreds of Bemelau, Meretone and Stanlely; Kineton, the Domesday hundreds of Tremelau, Honesberic, Fexholke and Berricestone; Barlichway, the Domesday hundreds of Ferncumbe and Patela. Coleshill took its name from Coleshill, a town near the junction of the Cole and the Blythe; Hemmington from a ford over the Tame near Kingsbury; Kineton, from a ford or brook near the Dunt in Warwickshire; Stanleli from the villages of Marton and Stoneleigh; Berricestone from Barcheston on the Stour; Barlichway from a plot of ground on a hill between Haselor and Burton. Patela hundred, which derived its name from a tumulus between Wooton Waven and Stratford-on-Avon, was a liberty of the bishops of Worcester, and in the 17th century, though reckoned part of Barlichway hundred, possessed a court leet and court baron. The boundaries of Warwickshire have remained practically unchanged since the Domesday Survey, but Spilsbury, now in Oxfordshire, Romsey, Shipley, Quat and Rudge, now in Shropshire, were assessed under this county, while Sawbridge, Berkswell, Whitacre, Over and Whichford, now in this county, were assessed under Northamptonshire. Warwickshire was united with Leicestershire under one sheriff until 1566, the shire court for the former being held at Warwick.

In the 13th century Warwickshire included the deaneries of Warwick and Kineton within the archdeaconry and diocese of Worcester; the rest of the county constituting the archdeaconry of Coventry within the Lichfield diocese, with the deaneries of Coventry, Stoneley, Merion and Arden. In 1286 the archdeaconry of Coventry was annexed to the diocese of Worcester, and in 1534 its deaneries were entirely reconstituted and made thirteen in number. In 1681 the deanery of Alcester was formed within the archdeaconry of Worcester, and Kineton was divided into North Kineton and South Kineton. In 1804 the deaneries of Aston, Birmingham, Coleshill, Northfield, Polesworth, Solihull and Sutton Coldfield were formed into the archdeaconry of Birmingham, the archdeaconry of Coventry now including the deaneries of Atherstone, Baginton, Coventry, Dascott Magna, Dunchurch, Leamington, Monks Kirby, Rugby and Selwood.

In the wars of the reign of Henry III. Simon de Montfort placed Kenilworth Castle in charge of Sir John Giffard, who in 1264 attacked Warwick Castle and took prisoner the earl and countess of Warwick, who had supported the king. During the Wars of the Roses the Neville, represented by the earl of Warwick, supported the Yorkist cause, while Coventry was a Lancastrian stronghold. On the outbreak of the Civil War of the 17th century Warwickshire and Staffordshire were associated for the parliament by Lord Brooke. On the battle of Edgehill, this was argued in 1642, and in 1643 Birmingham, then a small town noted for its Puritanism, was sacked by Prince Rupert. Coventry endured a siege in 1642, and skirmishes took place at Southam and Warwick.

At the time of the Domesday Survey the industries of Warwickshire were almost exclusively agricultural, the extensive woodlands north of the Avon affording pasture for sheep, while meadows and water-mills were numerous in the river valleys. The woolen industry flourished in Norman times, and Coventry was famed for its wool and broadcloths in the reign of Edward III. Coal was probably dug at Griff in the 12th century, but the Warwickshire collieries only came into prominence in the 17th century, when John Briggs of Bedworth made an attempt to monopolize the coal trade. Birmingham was already famous for its smiths and cutlers in the 17th century. In the early 17th century the depopulation and distress caused by the enclosures of land for pasture led to frequent riots. The silk industry at Coventry and the needle industry about Alcester both flourished in the 18th century.

Warwickshire returned two members to the parliament of 1290, and in 1295 Coventry and Warwick were each represented by two members. Tamworth returned two members in 1584. Under the Reform Act of 1832 the county returned four members in two divisions; Birmingham was represented by two members, and Tamworth was disfranchised. Under the act of 1868 the representation of Birmingham was increased to three members.

Antiquities.—Of pre-Norman architecture some traces appear in the church of Wootton-Warwick in the Arden (or west) district. Otherwise the type is scarce, but Saxon remains, such as burial urns and jewelry, have been found in several places, as near Bensford Bridge on Watling Street; St. John's Church at Warstone and its apses are famous, and among village churches there are many fine examples. Of those retaining Norman portions may be mentioned: Wolston and Berkwell in the Coventry district; Gateley, formerly of St. Leonard's and Chaderton, and Chelford and, in the south, in the neighbourhood of Edgehill, Burton Dassett, a very noteworthy building, and Warmington, where there is a remarkable specimen of domus inclusi or architect's chamber. There are also fine examples of Decorated work, such as Knowle, Solihull and Temple Balsall in Arden, and Brailes under the southern hills. Among the numerous religious houses in the county several have left remains: Sunbury, Eardige and Hertford, all in the Coventry, of the 12th century, adjoining the mansion of that name in a beautiful park; of Merevale near Atherstone; and of Stoneleigh near Kenilworth, also adjoining a famous mansion. This abbey was a 12th-century foundation, but a majestic gatehouse of the 14th century also stands. Maxstoke Priory, in Arden, was a foundation for Augustinian canons of the 14th century. Worxall Abbey was a Benedictine nunnery of the 12th century; but the name is given to a modern mansion. In view of the large share the county has had in war, it is not surprising to find many examples of great fortified houses or castles. Warwick Castle and Kenilworth are still a splendid testimony to the older style of ruin, are described under those towns. At Harthill (the birthplace of Michael Drayton the poet) there is a fragment of a Norman castle. Among fortified mansions Maxstoke Castle is of the 14th century; Rockingham, now in Northampton, but once near Barlby, and Chillington, now in Staffordshire, were assessed under this county, while Sawbridge, Berkswell, Whitacre, Over and Whichford, now in this county, were assessed under Northamptonshire. Warwickshire was united with Leicestershire under one sheriff until 1566, the shire court for the former being held at Warwick.


WASH, THE, a shallow bay of the North Sea, on the Lincolnshire and Norfolk coast of England. It is roughly square in shape, penetrating the land for 22 m., and being 20 m. wide at the head and 12 at the mouth. Through the sandbanks which form its bed there are two main channels into deep water; one, Boston Deep, is kept open by the waters of the Witham and Witham Deep. There is another, Lincoln Deep, between the Nene and the Great Ouse. The Wash is the remnant of a much larger bay, which covered a large part of the Fens which now border it; it is gradually filling with the deposits of the rivers, and from time to time small portions are reclaimed (see Fens). The flat bordering lands are protected by sea-walls. The formerly dangerous passage of the marsh-lands, which were liable to irrigations of the tide, is illustrated by the accident to
WASHINGTON, C. C.—WASHINGTON, GEORGE

WASHINGTON, BOOKER TAILIFERRO (c. 1809—) American negro teacher and reformer, was born on a plantation near Hale's Ford, Franklin county, Virginia. Soon after the Civil War he went to Malden, West Virginia, where he worked in a salt furnace and then in a coal mine. He obtained an educational appointment at night schools, and worked as a house servant in a family where his ambition for knowledge was encouraged. In 1872, "by walking, begging rides both in wagons and in the cars," he travelled 500 m. to the Hampton (Virginia) Normal and Agricultural Institute, where he remained three years, working as janitor for his board and education, and graduated in 1875. For two years he taught at Malden, West Virginia, and studied for eight months (1878-1879) at the Wayland Seminary in Washington, D.C. In 1879 he became instructor at the Hampton Institute, where he trained about twenty-five American Indians with whom General S. C. Armstrong was carrying on an educational experiment, and he developed the night school, which became one of the most important features of the institution. In 1881 he was appointed organizer and principal of a negro normal school at Tuskegee, Alabama (q.v.), for which the state legislature had made an annual appropriation of $2,000. Opened in July 1881 in a little shanty and church, the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute became, under Washington's presidency, the foremost exponent of industrial education for the negro. To promote its interests and to establish better understanding between whites and negroes, Washington, in 1887, was appointed a special ambassador from the United States, notably a speech in 1895 at the opening of the Atlanta Cotton States and International Exposition. In 1900 at Boston, Massachusetts, he organized the National Negro Business League. Harvard conferred upon him the honorary degree of A.M. in 1896, and Dartmouth that of LL.D. in 1901.

Among his publications are a remarkable autobiography, Up from Slavery (1901), The Future of the American Negro (1899), Sowing and Reaping (1900), Character Building (1903). Working with the Hands (1910), Tuskegee and its People (1905), Putting the Most into Life (1906), Life of Frederick Douglas (1907), The Negro in Business (1910), The Story of the Negro (1910),

WASHINGTON, BUSHROD (1762-1829), American jurist, nephew of George Washington, was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, on the 13th of June 1762. He graduated in 1778 at the College of William and Mary, where he was an original member of the Phi Beta Kappa Society; was a member of a volunteer cavalry troop in 1780; studied law in Philadelphia in 1781, and began practice in his native county. He served in the House of Delegates in 1787, and in the following year sat in the convention which ratified for Virginia the Federal Constitution. After living in Alexandria for a short time he removed to Richmond and in 1788 was appointed a jurist of the United States Supreme Court by President John Adams. He was George Washington's literary executor, and supervised the preparation of John Marshall's Life of Washington (5 vols., 1804-1807); and on Mrs Washington's death in 1802 he inherited Mount Vernon and a part of the estate. He died in Philadelphia on the 26th of November 1829.

WASHINGTON, GEORGE (1732-1799), the first president of the United States, was born at Bridges Creek, Westmoreland county, Virginia, on the 22nd (Old Style) of February 1732. He was the grandson of Mr Henry E. Waters, who seems to have established the connexion of the family with the Washingtons of Sulgrave, Northamptonshire, England. The brothers John and Lawrence Washington appear in Virginia in 1638. John took up land at Bridges Creek, became a member of the House of Burgesses in 1666, and died in 1676. His eldest son, Lawrence, married Mildred Warner, by whom he had three children—John, Augustine (1664-1743) and Mildred. Augustine Washington married twice. By the first marriage, with Jane Butler, there were four children, two of whom, Lawrence and Augustine, grew to manhood. By the second marriage, in 1739, with Mary Ball, descendant of a family which migrated to Virginia in 1657, there were six children—George, Betty, Samuel, John, Charles and Mildred. Upon the death of the father, Lawrence inherited the estate at Hunting Creek, on the Potomac,
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later known as Mount Vernon, and George the estate on the Rappahannock, nearly opposite Fredericksburg, where his father usually lived.

Of Washington's early life little is known, probably because there was little unusual to tell. The story of the hatchet and the cherry-tree, and similar tales, are undoubtedly apocryphal, having been coined by Washington's most popular biographer, Mason Weems (d. 1825). There is nothing to show that the boy's life was markedly different from that common to Virginia families in easy circumstances; plantation affairs, hunting, fishing, and a little reading making up its substance. From 1735 to 1739 he lived at what is now called Mount Vernon, and afterwards at the estate on the Rappahannock. His education was one of leisure rather than of duty, and he was allowed to pursue a course in which he was largely self-taught; and although at his death he left a considerable library, he was never an assiduous reader. Although he had throughout his life a good deal of official contact with the French, he never mastered their language. Some careful reading of good books there must have been, however, for in spite of pervading illiteracy, common in that age, in matters of grammar and spelling, he acquired a dignified and effective English style. The texts of his writings, as published by Jared Sparks, have been so edited in these respects as to destroy their value as evidence; but the text of his son is as joyously free as that of his father, and the opposition of the boy's mother put an end to the scheme, seems to lack proof. In 1748, however, through the influence of Thomas Lord Fairfax, the head of the family, who had come to America to live, Washington, then only sixteen years of age, was appointed surveyor of the Fairfax property; and an appointment as public surveyor soon followed. The next three years were spent in this service, most of the time on the frontier. He always retained a disposition to speculate in western lands, the ultimate value of which he early appreciated; many of his later investments of this character are treated in C. W. Butterfield's "Washington-Crawford Letters" (1877). He seems, too, to have impressed others already with his force of mind and character. In 1751 he accompanied his half-brother Lawrence, who was stricken with consumption, to the West Indies, where he had an attack of small-pox which left him marked for life. Lawrence died in the following year, making George executor under the will and residuary heir of Mount Vernon; and the latter estate became his in 1761.

In October 1753, on the eve of the last French and Indian war, Washington was chosen by Governor Robert Dinwiddie as the agent to warn the French away from their new posts on the Ohio, in western Pennsylvania. He accomplished the winter journey safely, though with considerable danger and hardship; and shortly after his return was appointed lieutenant-colonel of a Virginia regiment, under Colonel Joshua Fry. In April 1754, he set out with two companies for the Ohio, defeated (28th May) a force of French and Indians at Great Meadows (in the present Fayette county, Pennsylvania), but at Fort Necessity in this vicinity was forced to capitulate (3rd July), though only after a vigorous defense of his small force. In these services he received the thanks of the House of Burgesses. When General Edward Braddock arrived in Virginia in February 1755, Washington wrote him a diplomatically worded letter, and was presently made a member of the staff, with the rank of colonel. His personal relations with Braddock were friendly throughout, and in the calamitous defeat he showed for the first time that fiery energy which always lay hidden beneath his calm and unruffled exterior. He ranged the whole field on horseback, making himself the most conspicuous target for Indian bullets, and, in spite of what he called the "dastardly behaviour" of the regular troops, saved the expedition from annihilation, and brought the remnant of his Virginians out of action in fair order. In spite of his reckless exposure, he was one of the few unwounded officers. In August, after his return, he was commissioned commander of the Virginia forces, being then twenty-three years old. For about two years his task was that of "defending a frontier of more than 350 m. with 700 men," a task rendered the more difficult by the insubordination and irregular service of his soldiers, and by irritating controversies over official precedence. To settle the latter question he made a journey to Boston, in 1756, to confer with Governor William Shirley. In the winter of 1757 his health broke down, but in the next year he had the pleasure of commanding the advance guard of the expedition under General John Forbes which occupied Fort Duquesne and renamed it Fort Pitt. (See PITTSBURG: History.) At the end of the year he resigned his commission, the war in Virginia being at an end, and married Martha Dandridge (1732-1803), widow of Daniel Parke Custis.

For the next fifteen years Washington's life at Mount Vernon, where he made his home after his marriage, was that of a typical Virginia planter of the more prosperous sort, a consistent member and vestryman of the Established (Episcopal) Church, a large slave-holder, a strict but considerate master, and a widely trusted man of affairs. His extraordinary escape in Braddock's defeat had led a colonial preacher to declare in a sermon his belief that the young man had been preserved to be "the savior of his country"; but if there was any such impression it soon died away, and Washington gave his associates no reason to consider him a man of uncommon endowments. His marriage brought him an increase of about $100,000 in his property, making him one of the richest men in the colonies; and he was able to develop his plantation and enlarge its extent. His attitude towards slavery had been much discussed, but it does not seem to have been different from that of many other planters of that day: he did not think highly of the system, but had no invincible repugnance to it, and saw no way of getting rid of it. In his treatment of slaves he was exacting, but not harsh, and was willing, when employing them, to give them a minute methodical conduct of business, generous indulgence in hunting, comparatively little reading and a wide acquaintance with the leading men of the colonies, but no marked indications of what is usually considered to be "greatness." As in the case of Lincoln, he was educated into greatness by the increasing weight of his responsibilities and the manner in which he met them. Like others of the dominant planter class in Virginia, he was repeatedly elected to the House of Burgesses, but the business which came before the colonial assembly was for some years of only local importance, and he is not known to have made any set speeches in the House, or to have said anything beyond a statement of his opinion and the reasons for it. He was present on the 20th of May 1765, when Patrick Henry introduced his famous resolutions against the Stamp Act. That he thought a great deal on public questions, and took full advantage of his legislative experience as a means of political education, is shown by his letter of the 3rd of April 1766 to his neighbour, George Mason, communicating the Philadelphia non-importation resolutions, which had just reached him. In this he considers briefly the hard and the ease of peaceable resistance to the policy of the ministry, but even at that early date faces frankly and fully the probable final necessity of resisting by force, and endorses it, though only as a last resort. In May following, when the House of Burgesses was dissolved, he was among the members who met at the Raleigh tavern and adopted a non-importation agreement; and he himself kept the agreement when others did not. Though on friendly terms with Governor Norborne Berkeley, Baron...
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Botetourt and his successor, John Murray, earl of Dunmore, he nevertheless took a prominent part, though without speechmaking, in the struggles of the Assembly against Dunmore, and his position was always a radical one. As the breach widened, he even opposed petitions to the king and parliament, on the grounds that the claim to taxation and control had been put forward by the ministry on the basis of right, not of expediency, that the ministry could not abandon the claim of right and the colonies could not admit it, and that petitions must be, as they already had been, rejected. "Shall we," he writes in a letter, "after this whine and cry for relief?"

On the 5th of August 1774 the Virginia convention appointed Washington as one of seven delegates to the first Continental Congress, which met at Philadelphia on the 5th of September, and with this appointment his national career, which was to continue with but two brief intervals until his death, begins. His letters during his service in Congress show that he had fully grasped the questions at issue, that he was under no delusions as to the outcome of the struggle over taxation, and that he expected war. "More blood will be spilled on this occasion," he wrote, "if the ministry are determined to push matters to extremity, than history has ever yet furnished instances of in the annals of North America." His associates in Congress at once recognized his military ability, and although he was not a member of any of the committees of the Congress, he seems to have aided materially in securing the endorsement by Congress of the Suffield county (Mass.) looking toward organized resistance. On the adjournment of the Congress he returned to Virginia, where he continued to be active, as a member of the House of Burgesses, in urging on the organization, equipment and training of troops, and even undertook in person to drill volunteers. His attitude towards the mother country at this time, however, must not be misunderstood. Much as he expected war, he was not yet ready to declare in favour of independence, and he did not ally himself with the party of independence until the course of events made the adoption of any other course impossible.

In March 1775 he was appointed a delegate from Virginia to the second Continental Congress, where he served on committees for fortifying New York, collecting ammunition, raising money and formulating army rules. It seems to have been generally understood that, in case of war, Virginia would expect him to act as her commander-in-chief, and it was noticed that, in the second Congress, he was the only member who habitually appeared in uniform. History, however, was to settle the matter on broader lines. The two most powerful colonies were Virginia and New York, New York's selection (June 1775) of General John Adams of Massachusetts, of Washington as commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the United Colonies. Refusing any salary and asking only the reimbursement of his expenses, he accepted the position, asking "every gentleman in the room," however, to remember his declaration that he did not believe himself to be equal to the command, and that he accepted it only as a duty made imperative by the unanimity of the call. He reiterated this belief in private letters even to his wife; and there seems to be no doubt that, to the day of his death, he was the most determined sceptic as to his fitness for the positions to which he was successively called. He was commissioned on the 17th of June 1775, set out at once for Cambridge, Mass., and on the 3rd of July took command of the levies there assembled for action against the British garrison in Boston. The battle of Bunker Hill had already taken place, news of it reaching him on the way north. Until the following March, Washington's work was to bring about some semblance of military organization and discipline, to collect ammunition and military stores, to correspond with Congress and the colonial authorities, to guide military operations in widely separate parts of the country, to create a military system for the people there, to indirectly turn to such a thing and impatient and suspicious under it, and to bend the course of events steadily towards driving the British out of Boston. He planned the expeditions against Canada under Richard Montgomery and Benedict Arnold, and sent out privateers to harass British commerce. It is not easy to see how Washington survived the year 1775; the colonial poverty, the exasperating annoyances, the outspoken criticism of those who demanded active operations, the personal and party dispassions in Congress, the selfishness or stupidity which cropped out again and again among some of the latter parties was enough to have broken down most men. They completed his training. The change in this one winter is very evident. If he was not a great man when he went to Cambridge, he was both a general and a statesman in the fullest sense when he drove the British out of Boston in March 1776. From that time until his death he was admittedly the foremost man of the continent.

The military operations of the remainder of the War of Independence are described elsewhere (see American War of Independence). Washington's retreat through New Jersey; the retreat of the army which was defeated at Brandywine, Terence and Princeton, and then established himself at Morristown, so as to make the way to Philadelphia impassable; the vigil with which he handled his army at the Brandywine and Germantown; the persistence with which he held the strategic position of Valley Forge through the dreadful winter of 1776-1777, in spite of the misery of his men, the clamours of the people and the impotence and meddling of the fugitive Congress—all went to show that the fibre of his public character had been hardened to its permanent quality. "These are the times that try men's souls," wrote Thomas Paine at the beginning of 1776, and the words had added meaning in each year that followed; but Washington had no need to fear the test. The spirit which culminated in the treason of Benedict Arnold was a serious addition to his burdens; for what Arnold did others were almost ready to do. Many of the American officers, too, had taken offence at the close personal friendship which had sprung up between the marquis de Lafayette and Washington, and at the diplomatic deference which the commander-in-chief felt compelled to show to other foreign officers. Some of the foreign volunteers were eventually dissatisfied by the slow and steady progress of the American movement and could not be found for them. The name of one of them, Thomas Conway, an Irish soldier of fortune from the French service, is attached to what is called "Conway's Cabal," a scheme for superseding Washington by General Horatio Gates, who in October 1777 succeeded in forcing Burgoyne to capitulate at Saratoga, and who had been persistent in his depreciation of the commander-in-chief and in intriguing with members of Congress. A number of officers, as well as of men in civil life, were mixed up in the plot, while the methods employed were the lowest forms of the infamous slander; but at the first breath of exposure every one concerned hurried to cover up his part in it, leaving Conway to shoulder both the responsibility and the disgrace. The treaty of alliance of 1778 with France, following the surrender of Burgoyne, put an end to all such plans. It was absurd to expect foreign nations to deal with a second-rate man as commander-in-chief while Washington was in the field, and he seems to have had no further trouble of this kind. The prompt and vigorous pursuit of Sir Henry Clinton across New Jersey towards New York, and the battle of Monmouth, in which the plan of battle was thwarted by Charles Lee, another foreign recruit of popular reputation, closed the military record of Washington, so far as active campaigning was concerned, until the end of the war. The British confined their operations to other parts of the continent, and Washington, alive as ever to the importance of keeping up connexion with New England,
devoted himself to watching the British in and about New York City. It was in every way fitting, however, that he who had been the mainspring of the war from the beginning, and had borne far more than his share of its burdens and discouragements, should end it with the campaign of and 1783. After the surrender of Cornwallis (October 1781). Although peace was not concluded until September 1783, there was no more important fighting. Washington retained his commission until the 23rd of December 1783, when, in a memorable scene, he returned it to Congress, then in session at Annapolis, Md., and retired to Mount Vernon. His expenses during the war, including secret service money, aggregated about $64,000; in addition he expended a considerable amount from his private fortune, for which he made no claim to reimbursement.

By this time the popular canonization of Washington had fairly begun. He occupied a position in American public life and in the American political system which no man could possibly hold again. He may be said to have become a political element quite apart from the Union, or the states, or the people of either. In a country in which newspapers had at best only a local circulation, and where communication was still slow and difficult, the knowledge that Washington favoured anything superseded, with very many men, both argument and the necessity of information. His constant correspondence with the governors of the states gave him a quasi-paternal attitude towards government in general. Moreover, he did much to persuade them that he was able to do what no other man could have done with either propriety or safety; he addressed a circular letter to the governors, pointing out changes in the existing form of government which he believed to be necessary, and urging "an indissoluble union of the states under one federal head," "a regard to public justice," the adoption of a suitable military establishment for a time of peace, and the making of "those mutual concessions which are requisite to the general prosperity." His refusal to accept a salary, either as commander-in-chief or as president, might have been taken as affectation or impertinence in any one else; it seemed natural and proper enough in the case of Washington, but it was his peculiar privilege. It is even possible that he might have had a crown, had he been willing to accept it. The army, at the end of the war, was justly dissatisfied with its treatment. The officers were called to meet at Newburgh, and it was the avowed purpose of the leaders of the movement to march the army westward, appropriate vacant public lands as part compensation for arrears of pay; leave Congress to negotiate for peace without an army, and to make "the unanimous voice of the army" prevail in all. Less publicly avowed was the purpose to make their commander-in-chief king, if he could be persuaded to aid in establishing a monarchy. Washington put a summary stop to the whole proceeding. A letter written to him by Colonel Lewis Nicola, on behalf of this coterie, detailed the weakness of a republican form of government as they had experienced it, their desire for "mixed government," with him at its head, and their belief that the title of king would be objectionable to but few and of material advantage to the country. His reply was peremptory and indignant. In plain terms he stated his abhorrence of the proposal; he was at a loss to conceive what part of his conduct could have encouraged their address; they could not have found "a person to whom their schemes were more disagreeable"; and he charged them, "if you have any regard for yourself or posterity, or respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind, and never communicate, as from yourself or any one else, a sentiment of the like nature." His influence, and his alone, secured the quiet disbanding of the discontented army. That influence was as powerful after he had retired to Mount Vernon as before the resignation of his command. The Society of the Cincinnati, an organization composed of officers of the late war, chose him as its first president; but he insisted that the Society should abandon its plan of hereditary membership, and change other features of the organization against which there had been public clamour. When the legislature of Virginia gave him 150 shares of stock in companies formed for the improvement of the Potomac and James rivers, and he was unable to refuse them lest his action should be misinterpreted, he extricated himself by giving them to educational institutions. His voluminous correspondence shows his continued concern for a standing army and elected him for a second time in former military posts, and his interest in the development of the western territory. From public men in all parts of the country he received such a store of suggestions as came to no other man, digested it, and was enabled by means of it to speak with what seemed infallible wisdom. In the midst of a burden of letter-writing, the minute details in his diaries of tree-planting and rotation of crops, and his increasing reading on the political side of history, he found time to entertain a stream of visitors from all parts of the United States and from abroad. Among of his visits in March 1785, at Annapolis, Md., and Alexandria (MD), he met at Alexandria (MD) to frame a commercial code for Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac, and made an opportunity to visit Mount Vernon. From that moment the current of events, leading into the Annapolis Convention (see ANNA-
polis, Md.) of 1786 and the Federal Convention of the following year, shows Washington's close supervision at every point.

When the Federal Convention met at Philadelphia in May 1787 to frame the present constitution, Washington was present as a delegate from Virginia, though much against his will; and a unanimous vote at once made him the presiding officer. Natural-ly, therefore, he did not participate in debate; and he seems to have spoken but once, and then to favour an amendment reducing from 40,000 to 30,000 the minimum population required as a basis of representation in the House. The mere suggestion, coming from him, was sufficient, and the change was at once agreed to. He approved the constitution which was decided upon, believing, as he said, "that it was the best constitution which could be obtained at that epoch, and that this or a dissolution awaits our choice, and is the only alternative. As president of the convention he signed the constitution, and kept the papers of the convention until the adoption of the new government, when they were deposited in the Department of State. All his vast influence was given to secure the ratification of the new instrument, and his influence was probably decisive. When enough states had ratified to assure the success of the new government, and the time came to elect a president, there was no hesitation. The office of president had been "cut to fit the measure of George Washington," and no one thought of any other person in connexion with it. The unanimous vote of the electors made him the first president of the United States; and, as president, he continued to receive an annual salary of 3,000; and even after he had positively refused to serve for a third term, two electors voted for him in 1796-1797. The public events of his presidency are given elsewhere (see UNITED STATES, § History). While the success of the new government was the work of many men and many causes, one cannot resist the conviction that the factor of chief importance was the existence, at the head of the executive department, of such a character as Washington. It was he who gave to official intercourse formal dignity and distinction. It was he who secured for the president the power of removal from office without the intervention of the Senate. His support of Hamilton's financial plans not only insured a speedy restoration of public credit, but also, and even more important, gave the new government constitutional ground on which to stand; while his firmness in dealing with the "Whisky Insurrection taught a much-needed and wholesome lesson of respect for the Federal power. His official visits to New England in 1786, to Rhode Island in 1790 and to the South in 1791 enabled him to test public opinion at the same time that they increased popular interest in the national government. Himself not a political partisan, he held the two natural parties apart, and prevented party contest until the government had become too firmly established to be shaken by them. Perhaps the final result would not in any case have failed, even had "blood and iron" been necessary to bring it about; but the quiet attainment of the result was due to the personality of Washington, as well as to the political sense of the American people.
Washington, George

It would be a great mistake to suppose, however, that the influence of the president was fairly appreciated during his term of office, or that he himself was uniformly respected. Washington seems never to have understood fully either the nature, the significance, or the inevitable necessity of party government in a republic. Instead, he attempted to balance party against party, selected representatives of opposing political views to serve in his first cabinet, and sought in that way to neutralize the effects of parties. The consequence was that the two leading members of the cabinet, Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson, exponents for the most part of diametrically opposite political doctrines, soon occupied the position, to use the words of one of them, of “two game-cocks in a pit.”

The unconscious drift of Washington’s mind was toward the Federalist party; his letters to La Fayette and to Patrick Henry, in December 1798 and January 1799, make that evident even without the record of his earlier career as president. It is inconceivable that, to a man with his type of mind and his extraordinary experience, the practical sagacity, foresight, and aggressive courage of the Federalists should not have seemed to embody the best political wisdom, however little he may have been disposed to ally himself with any party group or subscribe to any comprehensive creed. Accordingly, when the Democratic-Republican party came to be formed, about 1793, it was not to be expected that its leaders would long submit with patience to the continual interposition of Washington’s name and influence between themselves and their opponents; but they maintained a calm exterior. Some of their fellow-citizens of less discernment, the president included, wavered in the problem of neutrality, in the war between England and France, excited them to anger; his support of Jay’s treaty with Great Britain roused them to fury. His firmness in thwarting the activities of Edmond Charles Edouard Genet, minister from France, alienated the partisans of France; his suppression of the “Whisky Insurrection” aroused in some the fear of a military despotism. Forged letters, purporting to show his desire to abandon the revolutionary struggle, were published; he was accused of drawing more than his salary; his manners were ridiculed as “aping monarchy”; hints of the propriety of a guillotine for his benefit began to appear; he was spoken of as the “stepfather of his country.” The brutal attacks, exceeding in virulence anything that would be tolerated to-day, embittered his presidency, especially during his second term: in 1793 he is reported to have declared, in a cabinet meeting, that “he would rather be in his grave than in his present situation,” and that “he had never repented but once the having slipped the moment of resigning his office, and that was every moment since.”

The most unpleasant portions of Jefferson’s 77c7 are those in which, with an air of psychological dissection of the president, in which the war was driven by the newspaper attacks upon him. There is no reason to believe, however, that these attacks represented the feeling of any save a small minority of the politicians; the people never wavered in their devotion to the president, and his election would have been unanimous in 1796, as in 1792 and 1789, had he been willing to serve.

He retired from the presidency in 1797 and returned to Mount Vernon, his journey thither being marked by popular demonstrations of affection and esteem. At Mount Vernon, which had suffered from neglect during his absence, he resumed the plantation life which he loved, the society of his family, and the care of his slaves. He had resolved some time before never to obtain another slave, and “wished from his soul” that Virginia could be persuaded to abolish slavery; “it might prevent much future mischief”; but the unprecedented profitableness of the cotton industry, under the impetus of the recently invented cotton gin, had already begun to change public sentiment regarding slavery, and Washington was too old to attempt further innovations. Visitors continued to flock to him, and his correspondence, as always, took a wide range. In 1798 he was made commander-in-chief of the quasimilitary army raised in anticipating war with France, and was fretted almost beyond endurance by the quarrels of Federalist politicians over the distribution of commissions. In the midst of these military preparations he was struck down by sudden illness, which lasted but for a day, and died at Mount Vernon on the 14th of December 1799. His disorder was an oedematous affection of the wind-pipe, contracted by exposure during a long ride in a snowstorm, and aggravated by neglect of due personal remedies as bleeding, gargles of “molasses, vinegar and butter” and “vinegar and sage tea,” which “almost suffocated him,” and a blister of cantharides on the throat. He died as simply as he had lived; his last words were only business directions, affectionate remembrances to relatives, and repeated apologies to the physicians and attendants for the trouble he was giving them. Just before he died, says his secretary, Tobias Lear, he felt his own pulse; his countenance changed; the attending physician placed his hands over the eyes of the dying man, “and he expired without a struggle or a sigh.” The third of the series of resolutions introduced in the House of Representatives five days after his death, by John Marshall of Virginia, later chief-justice of the Supreme Court, states exactly, if somewhat rhetorically, the position of Washington in American history: “first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.”


1 He had previously, under date of the 17th of September 1796, issued a notable “Farewell Address” to the American people.

2 This characterization originated with Henry Lee.
WASHINGTON, a city and the capital of the United States of America, coeval with the District of Columbia, on the north-east bank of the Potomac river at the head of tide and navigation, 40 m. S.W. of Baltimore, 135 m. S.W. of Philadelphia, and 225 m. S.W. of New York. Area, 60 sq. m. (exclusive of 10 sq. m. of water surface). Pop. in (1930) 350,149, of whom 200,110 were foreign-born and 87,186 were negroes; (1910) 337,600. The city proper covers only about 10 sq. m. lying between the Anacostia river and Rock Creek, and rising from the low bank of the Potomac, which is here nearly 1 m. wide; above are encircling hills and a broken plateau, which rise to a maximum height of 420 ft. and contain the former city of Georgetown, the villages of Anaotastia, Brightwood, Tennytown, and other suburban districts.

**Streets and Parks.**—The original plan of the city, which was prepared by Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant (1755-1825), under the supervision of President Washington and Thomas Jefferson, was a masterpiece in landscape architecture and in the main it has been preserved. Besides streets running east and west, which are named by the letters of the alphabet, and streets running north and south, which are numbered, there are avenues named for various states, which radiate from two foci—the Capitol and the White House—or traverse the city without any fixed plan. North and south of the Capitol they are numbered; east and west from it streets are lettered, but streets are distinguished by annexing to the letter or lettering the name of the quarter or S.E., and the city is divided into these four parts by North Capitol, East Capitol, South Capitol streets, which intersect at the Capitol. The width of the avenues is from 120 to 160 ft. and the width of the streets from 80 to 120 ft. More than one-half the area of the city is comprised in its streets, avenues and public parks. Among the principal residence streets are Massachusetts, especially between Dupont and Sheridan circles, New Hampshire, Connecticut and Vermont Avenues and 16th Street, all in the N.W. quarter of the city. The principal business streets are Pennsylvania Avenue (especially that between the Capitol and the White House) and 14th, 16th and F streets. Streets and avenues for the most part are paved with a smooth asphalt pavement, and many of them have two and occasionally four rows of overarched shade trees and private lawns on either side. At nearly every intersection of two avenues is a circle or square in which is the statue of some notable American whose name the square bears. At the intersection of a street with an avenue there is usually the reservation of a small triangular grass plot at least. In L'Enfant's plan a park or mall was to extend from the Capitol to the White House. Instead of this the mall extends from the Capitol to the Monument, which stands near the intersection of lines west from the Capitol and south from the White House. In 1901, however, a commission (Daniel Hudson Burnham, C. F. McKim, Augustus St Gaudens and F. L. Olmsted, Jr.) was appointed by authority of the United States Senate to prepare plans for the beautification of the city and this body, seeking in the main to return to L'Enfant's plan, has submitted a design for a park-like treatment of the entire district between Pennsylvania and Maryland Avenues from the Capitol to the White House and between lower New York and Virginia avenue from the White House to the Capitol, with an expanse of 300 ft. wide bisecting the park from the Capitol to the Monument, with a group of official and scientific buildings fronting the mall on either side, with a group of municipal buildings between the mall and Pennsylvania Avenue, and with a Lincoln memorial on the bank of the Potomac. Potomac Park (740 acres), a portion of which is embraced in this design, has already been reclaimed from the Potomac river. On Rock Creek, above Georgetown, is the National Zoological Park (under the control of the Smithsonian Institution), embracing 170 acres in a picturesque site. North of this and extending the boundary of the city was done by Andrew Ellicott (1754-1820), a civil engineer, who had been employed in many boundary disputes, who became surveyor-general of the United States in 1792, and from 1812 till his death was professor of mathematics at the United States Military Academy at West Point.

District, and including both banks of Rock Creek, with its wild and picturesque beauty, is a tract of 1600 acres, known as Rock Creek Park.

The Climate of Washington is characterized by great humidity, long-continued and somewhat oppressive heat in summer, and mild winters. During a period of thirty-three years ending December 1903 the mean winter temperature (December, January and February) was 35° F. (January and February, 32° F., July and August) 75°; the mean of the winter minimum was 27°, and the mean of the summer maximum 85°. Extremes ranged, however, from an absolute maximum of 106° to an absolute minimum of 7° F.

There is an average annual precipitation of 45 in., which is quite evenly distributed throughout the year. Although snowstorms are infrequent and snow never lies long on the ground, there is an abundance of snow in the winter; the storm of January, 1886, being the most severe in recent years. Many of the rivers and streams in the vicinity have been drained and their floodwaters are utilized for irrigation. The river, which flows parallel to the Potomac, is nearly 1 m. wide, and forms a scenic branch of the river.

**Buildings.**—In a dignified landscape setting on the bower of a hill that is itself nearly 100 ft. above the Potomac stands the Capitol (built 1793-1827; architect, William Thornton (d. 1827), superintended by J. H. Latrobe and Charles Bulfinch; wings and dome added 1851-1865). It consists of a central building of Virginia sandstone, flanked when necessary by two wings of white Massachusetts marble. Its length is 751 ft. and its breadth ranges in different parts from 121 to 324 ft. The main building is surmounted by an iron dome, designed by Thomas Ustie Walter, which rises to a height of 268 ft., and is 141 ft. in diameter at its base. The interior contains the Senate chamber, the House of Representatives, the Library of Congress, the Supreme Court, the House wings and the Senate wings. The building is in the form of a Greek cross and has a portico in front with a semicircular pediment. The Library of Congress is the largest in the world, containing upwards of 8,000,000 volumes. The Government Office Building is an imposing brick edifice (completed 1908) with a distinguished portico and large dome. Thevasa-Burrington and the present office of the Department of the Navy are also notable.

The Executive Mansion, more commonly called the White House, the official residence of the president, is a two-story building of Virginia freestone, painted white since 1814 to hide the marks of the snowstorms which have raged against it for years. At the West front are the wings built during the administration of George Washington. The East wing was built during the administration of John Adams; the South wing, during the administration of Andrew Jackson; and the North wing, during the administration of Thomas Jefferson. The East and West wings have porticoes supported by columns, and the North wing has a Doric portico, supported by columns joined by a pediment.

The Smithsonian Institution, the first national institution for the improvement of the arts and sciences, was founded in 1846, and is located in a building (1855) designed by Robert Mills (1781-1855). The museum contains a vast collection of scientific and historical objects, including paintings, statuary, and models. The national capital has several other important buildings, including the United States Supreme Court, the Federal Hall, the Library of Congress, and the National Archives. The Washington Monument, a tall obelisk, was built in honor of George Washington and stands in the middle of the Mall. The White House, the residence of the President of the United States, is one of the most famous buildings in the world. The Jefferson Building of the Library of Congress is a beautiful example of American architecture. The United States Capitol, prominently located in the center of the city, is a magnificent edifice. The Lincoln Memorial, dedicated to the memory of Abraham Lincoln, is a large monument set in the Mall. The United States Supreme Court Building is a beautiful example of American architecture. The National Cathedral, also known as Washington National Cathedral, is a magnificent example of Gothic Revival architecture. The National Archives Building, which houses the National Archives, is a beautiful example of American architecture. The Washington Monument, dedicated to the memory of George Washington, is a tall obelisk.

The United States Capitol, designed by Thomas Jefferson and James Hoban, was completed in 1800 and is the third building on the site. The current building was completed in 1859 and is the most famous building in Washington. The National Cathedral, designed by George Washington, is the largest cathedral in the United States and is located in the center of the city. The United States Supreme Court Building, designed by Cass Gilbert, was completed in 1935 and is a beautiful example of American architecture.

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WASHINGTON

interior courts are of Maryland granite and white enamelled bricks. The arcades and second-storied doorways without, and the interior elaborately decorated with paintings, sculpture, coloured marbles and gilding. Two squares north of the Senate office-building is the Union Station, built in 1845 by 80 ft.; cost, $4,900,000. Designed by Daniel Hudson Burnham, consisting of a main building of white granite (from Bethel, Vermont) and two wings, and facing a beautiful plaza. On Pennsylvania Avenue, north of the Capitol Hill is the White House, the old nine-storey Post Office (1899; with a tower 300 ft. high), housing the United States Post Office Department and the City Post Office. A few squares north of it are the General Land Office, the building housing the largest public document (a copy of the Patent Office), with Doric portico; the Pension Office, in which the Inauguration Ball is held on the evening of each president's taking of office; the Government Printing Office (within a few tall office-buildings in the city); the City Hall, or District Court House; and the District Building (1908), another building of the local government. On the heights north of Georgetown is the United States Naval Academy, the best-equipped institutions of the kind; from it Washington time is telegraphed daily to all parts of the United States. Near Rock Creek, west of Georgetown, is the Signal Office and headquarters of the United States Weather Service. In the Mall are the building of the Department of Agriculture, the Smithsonian Institution (q.v.), the National Museum (1910), the Army Medical Museum and the Bureau of History, the latter bearing a fine collection of paintings, statuary, and engravings, and a magnificent building of white marble and cement. On the north side of the Mall, facing the United States Capitol is a section of the Mall, a gray granite building with Doric portico, the official residence of the President of the United States. In the Mall is the United States Capitol, a huge, somewhat more elaborate building of the same style as the Senate office (q.v.) and the Treasury Building. The Capitol was occupied by the government in 1857.

A bronze fountain, "The Court of Neptune," in front of the Library of Congress, is by Hutton Perry. Granite bust portraits of great authors occupy niches in windows near the entrance; these are by S. H. Hartley, Herbert Adams and F. W. Ruckstuhl. The allegorical figures of "Liberty," "Science," "Politics," "Literature" and "Science" are by Olin Warner and Frederick MacMonnies. Among the mural paintings are series by John W. Alexander, Kenyon Cox, E. H. Blashfield, Henry Oliver Walker (b. 1833), Walker McEwen, Elie Hébert, Henry Mosler (E. H. Houdon's) and George G. Lewis (b. 1825). George Willoughby Maynard (b. 1843), Robert Reid (b. 1862), George R. Barse, Jr. (b. 1861), W. A. Mackay, F. W. Beers, J. V. Wilson, W. T. Shinn (1858), Gari Melchers (b. 1860), W. De L. Dodge (b. 1867) and others. The statues are by Abbott Thayer, John Gourley, H. H. Rogers (b. 1875), and others.

The site is said to have been chosen by Washington himself—Congress had planned a marble monument in 1783. In 1833 the Washington National Monument Society was formed and a petition for subscription was taken. The obelisk was designed by Robert Mills, whose original plan included a "Pantheon" 100 ft. high with a colonnade and a colossal statue of Washington. After 1877 the work was carried on by an appropriation made by Congress. See Frederick L. Harvey, History of the Washington Monument and the National Monument Society (Washington, 1893).

one of General George B. McClellan, by Frederick MacMonnies; and statues of Lincoln, by Scott Flannery and (in Lincoln Park) Thomas Ball, of Joseph Henry (by W. W. Story) in the grounds of the Smithsonian Institution, of John Marshall (by Story) on the steps of the building of the United States Supreme Court, by Clark Mills; and, in Lafayette Square, of the Marquis de Lafayette (by F. Haim) and of Baron von Steuben (1891). In Pennsylvania Avenue, at the west end of the Patent Office Building, is the Memorial to the 35,000 officers and men who died in the Civil War, a stone obelisk, 208 ft. high, in memory of officers, seamen and marines of the U.S. Navy killed in the Civil War.

Cemeteries.—On the opposite side of the Potomac, in Virginia, are the National Cemetery, on the grounds of the Capitol, of General Andrew Jackson (by Clark Mills) and, in Lafayette Square, of the Marquis de Lafayette (by F. Haim) and of Baron von Steuben (1891). In Pennsylvania Avenue, at the west end of the Patent Office Building, is the Memorial to the 35,000 officers and men who died in the Civil War, a stone obelisk, 208 ft. high, in memory of officers, seamen and marines of the U.S. Navy killed in the Civil War.

The City Hall, a magnificent building of marble and granite, is the official residence of the President of the United States. The Capitol, a huge, somewhat more elaborate building of the same style as the Senate office (q.v.) and the Treasury Building. The Capitol was occupied by the government in 1857.

A bronze fountain, "The Court of Neptune," in front of the Library of Congress, is by Hutton Perry. Granite bust portraits of great authors occupy niches in windows near the entrance; these are by S. H. Hartley, Herbert Adams and F. W. Ruckstuhl. The allegorical figures of "Liberty," "Science," "Politics," "Literature" and "Science" are by Olin Warner and Frederick MacMonnies. Among the mural paintings are series by John W. Alexander, Kenyon Cox, E. H. Blashfield, Henry Oliver Walker (b. 1833), Walker McEwen, Elie Hébert, Henry Mosler (E. H. Houdon's) and George G. Lewis (b. 1825). George Willoughby Maynard (b. 1843), Robert Reid (b. 1862), George R. Barse, Jr. (b. 1861), W. A. Mackay, F. W. Beers, J. V. Wilson, W. T. Shinn (1858), Gari Melchers (b. 1860), W. De L. Dodge (b. 1867) and others. The statues are by Abbott Thayer, John Gourley, H. H. Rogers (b. 1875), and others.

The site is said to have been chosen by Washington himself—Congress had planned a marble monument in 1783. In 1833 the Washington National Monument Society was formed and a petition for subscription was taken. The obelisk was designed by Robert Mills, whose original plan included a "Pantheon" 100 ft. high with a colonnade and a colossal statue of Washington. After 1877 the work was carried on by an appropriation made by Congress. See Frederick L. Harvey, History of the Washington Monument and the National Monument Society (Washington, 1893).

A Lincoln memorial is to be erected on the Mall W. of the Washington monument.

The name was changed when the offer of the George Washington Memorial Association to build a $500,000 memorial building was accepted.
and Sciences with a graduate department (1893), a College of the Political Sciences (1907), Washington College of Engineering, divisions of architecture and education (1907), a Department of Law (first organized in 1826; closed in 1827; reorganized in 1865), a Department of Fine Arts (1885), and the public school system (established by Act of Congress, 1862), with several affiliated hospitals, a Department of Dentistry (1887), the National College of Pharmacy (united with the National Pharmaceutical Society in 1891), and the National School of Science. In 1900 this University had 185 instructors and 1,520 students. Georgetown University is in Georgetown (q.v.). The Catholic University of America (incorporated 1887; opened 1889), with buildings near the Potomac, publishes the Catholic Historical Review, the Catholic University of America Press, and the Catholica. The Roman Catholic colleges in the Catholic schools in America. Although designed especially for advanced theological studies, it comprises a School of the Sacred Sciences, a School of Philosophy, a School of Letters, a School of Philosophy of Science, and a School of Social Sciences, a School of Jurisprudence, a School of Law and a School of Technological Sciences. In 1909 its faculty numbered 42 and its students 1,000. The Catholic University plans to maintain the Marist houses, and Trinity College for girls are affiliated with the Catholic University. The American University (chartered 1893), under Methodists Episcopal control, designed to bear a relation to the Protestant churches similar to that of the Catholic University to the Catholic Church, with a campus of 94 acres at the north-west end of the city, in 1910 had not been opened to students. Howard University (1867), for the higher education of negroes, is situated south of the Potomac River. The University was founded in 1867 by General Oliver Otis Howard, one of its founders and (in 1869-1873) its president; it has a small endowment, and is supported by Congress. Another institution is the University of the District of Columbia (1871). It comprises the academy, a college of arts and sciences, a teachers' college, a school of theology, a school of law, a school of medicine, a pharmaceutical college, a dental college, a school of pharmacy, and a school of technology. The Washington Commercial College (1909) had 121 instructors and 1,523 students. The Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb (see Deaf and Dumb, Institutions for, U.S.) was a school for deaf and dumb children, composed of Kendall school (a secondary school) and of Gallaudet College (called in 1864-1893 the National Deaf Mute College; the present name is in honour of Dr T. H. Gallaudet); it was the first institution to give collegiate courses to the deaf, and it is maintained by Congressional appropriations, though it is a private foundation. Washington has also several academies, seminaries and small colleges; among the latter are St John's College (Roman Catholic, 1871), which is open to both male and female students, and the College of St Mary, founded in 1851. The Washington College of Law (1896) is an evening school especially for women. A School of Art is maintained in the Corcoran Gallery of Art.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington, founded by Andrew Carnegie in 1902 and endowed by him with $22,000,000 ($10,000,000 in 1902; $12,000,000 later), is designed "to encourage in the brotherhood of nations, the progress of knowledge and its application to the improvement of mankind; and in particular to conduct, endow and assist investigation in any department of science, literature, or art, and to this end to form self-supporting institutions, boards, and societies, and give endowments to schools, learned societies and individuals; to appoint committees of experts to direct special lines of research; to publish and distribute documents; to give grants in aid of specific investigations; to establish and maintain a library. It is under the control of a board of twenty-four trustees, vacancies in which are filled by the remaining members. In 1908 ten departments had been organized: Botanical Research, with a "desert laboratory" (1903) at Tucson, Arizona; Economics and Sociology (1904); Experimental Evolution, with a station (1904) at Cold Spring Harbor, New York (see HUNTINGTON, N.Y.); Geophysical Research, with a laboratory (1906-1907); Geology—investigations have been carried on by the U.S. Geological Survey and at McGill University, Toronto; Historical Research (1903); Marine Biology, with a laboratory (1904) at Annapolis, Md., and work in Ohio, Florida and the Carolinas, especially at Dudley Observatory, Albany, New York; Research in Nutrition, with a laboratory (1906) at Boston, Massachusetts—investigations (1904) had been carried on at Yale and Wesleyan universities; Solar Physics, with observatories (1909) on Mount Wilson, California, and workshops at Pasadena, California, and Terrestrial Magnetism (1903; headquarters in Washington); the institution had assisted Luther Burbank in his horticultural experiments since 1903, and had published the Index Medicus since 1903; and it makes occasional grants for minor research and tentative investigations. The several societies of Washington are at a large degree more national than local in their character; among them are: the Washington Academy of Sciences (1868), a "federal head" of most of the local bodies; the American Ethnological Society (founded 1879; incorporated 1887), which has published Proceedings (1879 sq.), with the co-operation of the Smithsonian Institution) and The American Anthropologist (1888-1898; since 1898 published by the American Anthropological Association); the National Geographic Society (1888), which since 1903 has occupied the Hubbard Memorial Building, which sent scientific expeditions to Alaska, Mont Pelée and La Souffrière, and which publishes the National Geographic Magazine (1888 sqq.), National Geographic Monographs (1895) and various special maps; the Philosophical Society of Washington (1871; incorporated 1901), devoted especially to philosophical studies; the National Audubon Society (a separate group), which publishes Proceedings (1880 sqq.); the Botanical Society of Washington (1901); the Geological Society of Washington (1893); the Water Resources and Geographical Society (1897); the American Association for the Advancement of Science (1874; Proceedings 1884 sqq.); the Chemical Society (1881); the Records of the Past Exploration Society (1901), which publishes Records of the Past (1902 sqq.); the Southern History Association (1896); and the Military Historical Society of America (1905).

Communications.—Seven railways enter the city: the Philadelphia, Baltimore & Washington division of the Pennsylvania System, the Baltimore & Ohio, the Southern, the Cynsaye & Ohio, the Washing- ton & Alexandria & Mt Vernon. Steamboats ply daily from the foot of Seventh Street to Alexandria, Mt Vernon, Old Point Comfort and Norfolk, and at Old Point Comfort there is connexion with boats for New York. There is also an omnibus service to Alexandria, and at irregular intervals there are boats direct to Balti- more, Philadelphia, New York and Boston. The street railways, and tramcars, by which the residents, with their outlying and suburban dwellings, are conveyed to and from the city, and the suburbs, connect at several points with interurban railways in Maryland and Virginia.

Industries.—The city's manufactures and commerce are of little importance; the capital is devoted more to manufactures and manufactures for local consumption are all at large. In 1905 the government's printing and publishing cost $5,993,906; its ordnance and ordnance stores (in the Navy Yard on the bank of the Anacostia river), $5,331,59; and its engraving and plate printing, $3,499,57. The total value of the products of all the factories in the District which were operated under private ownership (including the Flour Milling operations, which were conducted for the United States) was approximately $182,000,000. This sum, which was returned by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, was the value of printing and publishing, bread and other bakery products, gas and hotel liquors.

Government.—Washington is the seat of the federal government of the United States and as such is not self-governed, but governed by the Federal Congress. The city was chartered in 1801 and has, as such, no judicial jurisdiction over the District of Columbia. As a national government it has no legislative power. Only its population is 150,000. Only one-half the expenses of the government of Washington is paid
by the District of Columbia and one-half by the United States. The revenue of the District, which is derived from a property tax and from various licences, is paid into the United States Treasury; appropriations, always specific and based on estimates prepared by the commissioners, are made only by Congress; and all accounts are audited by the Treasury Department.

The government owns the waterworks, by which an abundant supply of water is taken from the Potomac at the Great Falls, conducted for 12 m. through an aqueduct 9 ft. in diameter and filtered through a sand filtration plant.

The government of the District has been uniformly excellent, and the laws therefor have been modern in their tendency. The employment of children under fourteen years of age in any factory, workshop, mercantile establishment, store, business office, telegraph or telephone office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, club, theatre, bootblack stand, or in the distribution or transmission of merchandise or messages is forbidden, except that a child between twelve and fourteen years of age may with the permission of the judge of the juvenile court be employed at an occupation not dangerous or injurious to his health or morals if necessary for his support or for the assistance of a disabled, ill or invalid parent, a younger brother or sister, or a widowed mother. No child under fourteen years of age may be employed in any work whatever before six o'clock in the morning, after seven o'clock in the evening, or during the hours when the public schools are in session.

History.—During the War of Independence Philadelphia was the principal seat of the Continental Congress, but it was driven thence in 1778 by mutinous soldiers, and for the succeeding seven years the discussion of a permanent site for the national capital was characterized by sectional jealousy, and there was a strong sentiment against choosing a state capital or a large city lest it should interfere with the Federal government. The Constitution, drafted in 1787, authorized Congress "to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding 10 sq. m.) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States." Virginia and Maryland promised such a cession and both held conventions to choose a site of a site on the Potomac, and in July 1790 Alexander Hamilton, in return for Thomas Jefferson's assistance in passing the bill for the assumption of the state war debts by the Federal government, helped Jefferson to pass a bill for establishing the capital on the Potomac, by which the president was authorized to select a site anywhere along the Potomac between the Eastern Branch (Anacostia) and the Conococheague river, a distance of about 80 m., and to appoint three commissioners who under his direction should make the necessary surveys and provide accommodations for the reception of Congress before the 1st of October, 1800. Thomas Jefferson (1752-1814) and Daniel Carroll (1756-1829) of Maryland and Dr. David Stuart of Virginia—gave the city its name; Major L'Enfant drew its plan, and Andrew Ellicott laid it out. When, in 1800, the government was removed to Washington it was "a backwoods settlement in the wilderness"; as a city it existed principally on paper, and the magnificence of the design only served to emphasize the poverty of the execution. One wing of the Capitol and the President's House were nearly completed, but much of the land surrounding the Capitol was a marsh. There were years when the roads were very bad, and the members of Congress were obliged to lodge in Georgetown. For many years such characterizations as "Wilderness City," "Capital of Miserable Huts," "Capital of Streets without Houses," "City of Magnificent Distances" and "A Mudhole almost Equal to the Great Serbonian Bog" were common. Resolutions were frequently offered by some disgusted member of Congress for the removal of the capital. In 1814, during the second war with Great Britain, the British, after defeating on the 24th of August an American force at Bladensburg, Prince George county, Maryland, about 6 m. N.E. of Washington, occupied the city and burned the Capitol, the President's House, some of the public offices, and the Navy Yard. In the following year when a bill appropriating $500,000 for rebuilding was before Congress it met with formidable opposition from the "capital movers." The question of removal was again to the front when, in 1848, the Virginia portion of the District was retroceded to that state in response to the appeal of Alexandria, which had suffered from the neglect of Congress. The lethargy of the nation toward its capital suddenly vanished at the outbreak of the Civil War. At the close of the first day's bombardment of Fort Sumter (April 12th, 1861) Leroy P. Walker (1817-1884), the Confederate Secretary of War, boasted that before the 1st of May the Confederate flag would float over the Capitol. The North, alarmed at the threat, speedily transformed Washington into a great military post and protected it on all sides with strong earthworks. Throughout the war it was the centre of the military operations of the North: here the armies were officered and marshalled, from here they marched on their campaigns against the South, here they rested their force after the longest duration of any war. Several hospitals for the care of the wounded. Although several times threatened by the South, Washington was never really in danger except in July 1864 when General Jubal A. Early advanced against it with 12,000 veterans, defeated General Lew Wallace with about 3500 men at Monocacy Bridge on the 6th, and on the 11th appeared before the fortifications, which were at the time defended by only a few thousand raw troops; the city was saved by the timely arrival of some of Grant's veterans. In the city, on the 23rd and 24th of May 1865, President Abraham Lincoln reviewed the returning soldiers of the Union Army.

The population of Washington increased from 61,122 to 100,190 or 78.6% in the decade from 1860 to 1870, and the stirring effects of the Civil War were far-reaching. The city had been founded on too elaborate and extensive a plan to be left to the initiative and unaided resources of its citizens. But under the new form of government which was instituted in 1871 a wonderful transformation was begun under the direction of Alexander R. Shepherd (1835-1902), the governor of the District and president of the board of public works. The Tidal Basin financial embarrassment followed, but when the Federal government had taken upon itself half the burden and established the economic administration of the commissioners, the problem of beautifying the nation's capital was solved.


WASHINGTON, a city and county-seat of Daviess county, Indiana, U.S.A., about 50 m. N.E. of Evansville. Pop. (1890) 6064, (1900) 8551, of whom 391 were foreign born and 255 negroes, (1910 census) 11,404. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio and Ohio Southern Western (which has repair shops here) and the Evansville & Indianapolis railroads. The city has a public library and a city park of 14 acres. It is the center of the surrounding farming, stock-raising and coal-mining region, and there are deposits of kaolin and fireclay in the vicinity. The total value of the factory product in 1905 was $1,166,749 (48.6% more than in 1900). The municipality owns and operates the electric lighting plant. Washington was settled in 1816 and chartered as a city in 1870.

WASHINGTON (or Washington Court House), a city and the county-seat of Fayette county, Ohio, U.S.A., on Paint Creek, 35 m. S.E. of Springfield. Pop. (1880) 3789, (1890) 5744, (1900) 5778 (708 negroes); (1910) 7377. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Cincinnati & Muskingum Valley (Pennsylvania Lines), the Detroit, Toledo & Ironton, and the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton railways. It is in a rich farming and stock and poultry-raising region, has a large poultry-packing house and various manufactures. Washington, or Washington Court House as it is often called to distinguish it from the
village of Washington in Guernsey county, Ohio, was laid out in 1810 and was chartered as a city in 1888.

WASHINGTON, a borough and the county-seat of Washington county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., about 23 m. S.W. of Pittsburg and about 30 m. N.E. of Wheeling, West Virginia, on Chartiers Creek; Washington was 500, of whom 455 were foreign-born and 684 were negroes; (1910) 18,728. Washington is served by the main line of the Baltimore & Ohio, the Chartiers Valley branch of the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago & St Louis (Pennsylvania system) and the Waynesburg & Washington railways and a connecting line for freight service, and by electric railway to Pittsburg. Among its public buildings and institutions are the county court-house (in which are the rooms of the Washington County Historical Society), the Federal building, two hospitals, a Y.M.C.A. building and a public library. It is the seat of Washington and Jefferson College, of Washington Seminary (1836) for girls and of a school of business. Washington and Jefferson College was incorporated, in 1865, by the consolidation of two rival institutions, Washington Academy and Jefferson College. Washington Academy (incorporated in 1782) and endowed by the legislature of Pennsylvania, which was opened in 1789, was incorporated as Washington College in 1806, and in 1832 became a synodical college of the Presbyterian Church, under the direction of the synod of Wheeling. Jefferson College, which was an outgrowth of Canonsburg Academy at Canonsburg, 7 m. from Washington, was chartered in 1794, and incorporated as Washington College in 1838. The Medical College of Philadelphia was its medical department. In 1896, by an act of the legislature, all departments were located at Washington. In 1872 a chair of engineering and applied mathematics and one of biology were established with an endowment of $40,000, the gift of Dr Francis J. LeMoyne, and the chair of Greek and of Latin was endowed by the Rev. C. C. Beatty with $60,000. In 1909-1910 Washington and Jefferson College (including Washington and Jefferson Academy) had 29 instructors, 413 students, about 20,000 volumes in its library, and an endowment of $2,600,000. Washington is in a hithertounknown coal and natural gas region, and there are manufactories of glass, iron tubing and pipe, tin plate, steel, &c. The site was part of a tract bought in 1771 by David Hoge and was known at first as Catfish camp after an Indian chief, Tingoqua or Catfish. It was platted in October 1781 and called Bennettstown in honor of Richard Bassett (d. 1815), a member of the Federal constitutional convention of 1787 and of the United States Senate in 1789-1793, and governor of Delaware in 1798-1801. The village was replatted in November 1784 and renamed in honor of George Washington who, before from a large part of the site had belonged. The early settlers were chiefly Scotch-Irish. At first a part of Strabane township, one of the original townships of Washington county, in February 1786 Washington was made a separate election district; it was incorporated as a town in 1812, was chartered as a borough and enlarged in 1832, and its limits were extended in 1854 and 1855. Since 1900 there have been added to the borough North and South Washington and the industrial suburb of Tyrlerdale, East and West Washington, although practically one with the borough, remaining under separate administration. The location of Washington and of the railroad gave it importance long before the advent of railways. At the LeMoyne crematory established here by Dr Francis Julius LeMoyne, on the 6th of December 1876, took place the first public cremation in the United States; the body burned was that of Baron Joseph Henry Louis de Palm (1809-1876), a Bavarian nobleman who had emigrated to the United States in 1862 and had been active in the Thespeian Society in New York.

LeMoyne (1798-1879) was the son of a French refugee, and was an ardent abolitionist. In 1840 he was the Liberty party's candidate for the vice-presidency on a normal school of negroes near Memphis, Tennessee, and gave the name of Washington College, at which he had graduated in 1815. Largely through LeMoyne's influence Washington became an important point on the "underground railroad" for assisting runaway slaves to Canada.

WASHINGTON, the most north-western state of the United States of America. It lies between latitudes 45° to 49° N. and between longitudes 116° 57' and 124° 48' W. On the N. it is bounded by British Columbia, along the 49th parallel as far W. as the middle of the Strait of Georgia and then down the middle of this strait and Haro Strait, and along the middle of the channel of the Strait of Juan de Fuca, which separate it from Vancouver Island; on the E. the south portion of its boundary is the Snake river, a tributary of the Columbia, which separate it from Oregon; on the S. the Columbia river separates it from Oregon; and on the W. the state is bounded by the Pacific Ocean. The state has a maximum length, from E. to W., of 360 m. and a maximum width of 240 m.; area, 60,177 sq. m., of which 2,925 sq. m. are water surface.

Physical Features.—The western half of Washington lies in the Pacific States; the eastern portion forms part of the Cascade range, separated by a broad basin known as the Sound Valley. The eastern half of the state is occupied in the north by a westward extension of the Rocky Mountains, and in the centre and south by the north-western portion of the Columbia Plateau. The most prominent physical feature of the state is the Cascade mountain range, which with a N.N.E. and S.S.W. trend crosses the state from 40 m. to 50 m. It is the highest of the range, and the mountain range occupies a tract about 50 m. in width, and to the northward it widens to 100 m. or more. The general height of the ridge and peaks is about 8000 ft. above the sea, but there are five prominent volcanoes which equal or exceed 10,000 ft. These are Mount Rainier or Tacoma (14,936 ft.), Mount Adams (12,770 ft.), Mount Baker (10,630 ft.) and Mount St Helens (15,000 ft.). Glaciers are common both in the N. and in the S. region, even on the higher elevations. Both slopes of the Cascades are cut deep by valleys. Along the Pacific Coast the ridges of the Coast range are only about 1500 ft. in height in the S. part of the state, but they rise northward in the Olympic Mountains and reach a maximum of elevation on Mount Olympus of 8190 ft. The Olympics meet the ocean along a rather straight line, but farther S. the coast line is broken by Gray's Harbour and Willapa Bay. Washington was bounded lower on the S. by the Coos and Columbia rivers which enclose the Willamette Valley, an extension of the Willamette Trench, and the Cascade Mountains on the E. and the Olympic Mountains and Coast range on the W. left between them the Puget Sound Basin, the gently sloping sides of which descend in the central portion to about 1500 ft. from sea-level. A still greater submergence north produced Puget Sound. East of the Cascade Mountains the Columbia and Spokane rivers mark the boundary between the state and Idaho, and are followed to the southward. The Okanogan Highlands, an outlier of the Rocky Mountains extending westward from the Cœur d'Alene Mountains in Idaho, reach heights of 5000 to 6000 ft. above the sea, but are characterized by long gentle slopes, rounded divides and wide stream basins. In some of the larger valleys there are glacial terraces. The Columbia plateau consists of horizontal beds of lava having a total thickness of several thousand feet, and its surface has a general elevation of 1000 to 2000 ft. above sea-level. West of the Columbia river the plain is broken by several monoclinal ridges rising 2000 to 3000 ft. above it and extending eastward 50 to 75 m. The prairies of the Puget Lowland are made up of some parts, especially in Douglas and Grant counties) within the Big Bend of the Columbia, the plain is frequently cut by canyons, or abandoned river channels, some of them 500 to 600 ft. deep and with very precipitous walls. The Okanogan river, which enters the Columbia from the N.E., is shut off during the glacial period, when its regular channel was blocked with ice. There are also several canyons which have been cut by the rivers through the mountainous areas which separate the Snake river and its tributaries. The S.W. corner of the state is occupied by mountains, which rise about 7000 ft. above the sea and are cut deep by canyons. About 11,000 sq. m. in Washington have a maximum elevation less than 500 ft. and the mean elevation of the entire state is 1700 ft. The Okanogan Highlands, the Columbia plain, the E. slope of the Cascades, and the outer portions of the Puget Lowland are drained by the Columbia and its tributaries. This large river enters the N.E. corner of the state from the N., traverses it in a winding course from N. to S., forms the greater portion of its S. boundary, and discharges into the Pacific Ocean. The Snake (in
the S.E., a little W. of the 119th parallel), the Spokane (in the east central part) and the Pend Oreille (on the N. boundary) are their principal tributaries from the E.; the Yakima (a little above the mouth of the Snake River, on the W.) and the Okanogan (on the Okanogan River, south of the state), from the N. A portion of the Puget Sound Basin and a portion of the Coast range are drained by the Chehalis river, which has cut a channel through the Coast range and discharges into Puget Sound at Harbot. The Columbia river, along with most of the E. slope of the Olympics and the N. portion of the Puget Sound Basin are drained by a great number of small rivers into the Puget Sound; and the W. slope of the Olympics and Coast range are drained by several other streams into Puget Sound. But the Cascade Mountains, at the heads of streams, are a number of lakes of glacial origin, the largest of which is Lake Chelan on the E. slope of the Cascades. This is 24 ft. deep and about 14 mi. wide. At the upper end it is about 1400 ft. deep, but it is shallow at the lower end where the water is held back by a morainal dam, and where only 33 ft. from the Columbia river it is about 400 ft. deep. The is a quite number of lakes on and near the Cascades. The destruction of cougars, lynx ("wildcats") coyotes and wolves is encouraged by bounty. Coyotes and jack-rabbits are the most numerous denizens of the Columbia plains. Muskrats and beavers are most abundant west of the Cascade range, and partridge and prairie-chickens are the principal game birds. The sage-hen is common on the Columbia plain. The Japanese pheasant and the California quail have increased in numbers under the protection of the state. Army antelope, black-tailed deer, and black bear are usually seen on the Olympic Peninsula. The habit of the otter is found on the lower Columbia river, in Gray's and Willapa harbours, and in Puget Sound; oyster fisheries in Gray's and Willapa harbours and in Puget Sound; cod, perch, and flounder in the Puget Sound; and salmon, whitefish, lake trout, and sturgeon on the Columbia river. The fisheries of the state are of great importance. The salmon run in the river and on the Columbia is about 40,000,000. The Columbia river is navigable for 500 miles from its mouth;

Fauna.—Many species of wild animals still inhabit the state, but the number of each species has been much reduced. The caribou, moose, antelope, mountain sheep, beaver, otter and mink are scarce. Few elk are found except in the inaccessible districts on the Olympic Mountains. White- and black-tailed deer and black bear inhabit the eastern, and the black-tailed deer the western part of the state. The black-capped chickadee and the Oregon jay are the only birds of significant abundance. The Columbia plains are inhabited by the bobcat, the lynx, the coyote, and the black-tailed deer. The sage-hen is common on the Columbia plain. The Japanese pheasant and the California quail have increased in numbers under the protection of the state. Army antelope, black-tailed deer, and black bear are usually seen on the Olympic Peninsula. The habit of the otter is found on the lower Columbia river, in Gray's and Willapa harbours, and in Puget Sound; oyster fisheries in Gray's and Willapa harbours and in Puget Sound; cod, perch, and flounder in the Puget Sound; and salmon, whitefish, lake trout, and sturgeon on the Columbia river. The fisheries of the state are of great importance. The salmon run in the river and on the Columbia is about 40,000,000. The Columbia river is navigable for 500 miles from its mouth;

Flora.—The Puget Sound Basin and the neighboring slopes of the Olympic Mountains are the most forested for their forests, consisting mainly of giant Douglas fir or Oregon pine (Pseudotsuga Douglasii), but containing also some cedar, spruce, and hemlock, a smaller representation of a few other species and a dense undergrowth. Near the Pacific Coast the forests consist principally of hemlock, cedar and Sitka spruce. At an altitude of about 3000 ft. on the W. slope of the Cascades the red fir ceases to be the dominant tree species. The upper limit of the region of evergreen forests is on a few of the highest peaks, rise a succession of forest zones, containing principally: (1) yellow pine, red and yellow fir, white fir and cedar; (2) lodgepole pine, white pine, Engelmann spruce and yellow pine; (3) lodgepole pine, fir, oak and fir; (4) Douglas fir and cedar and tamarack; (5) white-bark pine, Patent hemlock, alpine larch and creeping juniper. Deciduous trees and shrubs are represe. The Columbia plains are inhabited by the bobcat, the lynx, the coyote, and the black-tailed deer. The sage-hen is common on the Columbia plain. The Japanese pheasant and the California quail have increased in numbers under the protection of the state. Army antelope, black-tailed deer, and black bear are usually seen on the Olympic Peninsula. The habit of the otter is found on the lower Columbia river, in Gray's and Willapa harbours, and in Puget Sound; oyster fisheries in Gray's and Willapa harbours and in Puget Sound; cod, perch, and flounder in the Puget Sound; and salmon, whitefish, lake trout, and sturgeon on the Columbia river. The fisheries of the state are of great importance. The salmon run in the river and on the Columbia is about 40,000,000. The Columbia river is navigable for 500 miles from its mouth;

Climate.—In western Washington, where the ocean greatly influences the climate and the mountains condense the moisture of vapour-bearing winds, the climate is equable and moist. Eastern Washington, too, usually has a mild temperature, but occasionally some regions in this part of the state are visited by continental extremes, and as the winds from the ocean lose most of their moisture in passing over the Cascades, the climate is either dry or arid according to elevation. Along the coast the temperature is rarely above 92° F. at night; the mean temperature for January is about 60°, for January 30°, and for the entire year 50°. In the Puget Sound Basin an occasional cold east wind during a dry period in winter is sufficient to lower the temperature to fall below zero. At Centralia, on the Chehalis Valley, the temperature for January 50°; but the mean temperature for January is 34° in the N. portion of the basin and 40° in the S. portion; for July it is 60° in the north and 55° in the south; and for the entire year it is 46° in the north and 42° in the south. During April and October the temperatures in eastern Washington are nearly the same as those in western Washington, but during July the temperatures in eastern Washington are subject to a range from 40° to 110°, and during January from 65° to 30°. However, the climate is so dry in eastern Washington that the temperatures are not as high as those recorded by the thermometer. In the south-eastern Washington heat waves are mild, with the exception of an occasional cold period, and the summers are hot. The rainfall on the W. slope of the Olympics, the Cascades and the Olympic Peninsula is much larger than in the eastern part of the state. In the Puget Sound Basin it is from 25 to 60 in., being least on the N.E. or leeward side of the Olympics. About three-fourths of the rain in the western Washington falls during the wet season, which extends from December to April inclusive. On the Columbia river the rain falls almost equally throughout the year, but during winter they occasionally blow with great violence. In eastern Washington hot winds from the north or east are occasionally injurious to the growing wheat in June or July. Light hailstorms are common in the eastern part of the state, but they do little injury. The snowfall in eastern Washington is usually sufficient to raise the level of the lakes or chains of alkali lakes in the coulees on the Columbia plateau. Soils.—The soils of western Washington are chiefly glacial, those of eastern Washington chiefly volcanic. In the low tidewater district of the Puget Sound, large exceptions to the glacial origin of the soil occur on the Puget Sound islands and the Olympic Peninsula, along the Pacific coast, and on the Puget marshes. On the Columbia plateau the soil is practically volcanic ash and decomposed lava; it is almost wholly volcanic ash in the more arid districts, but elsewhere it consists of gravel and sand, and some vegetable loam is mixed with the ash. On the E. slopes of the Cascades and the Okanogan Highlands glacial deposits of clay, gravel or sand, as well as vegetable loam, are mixed with the volcanic substances.

Fishes.—Washington's many waterways, both fresh and salt, and especially those which indent or are near the coast, make the fisheries resources of great value. The catch and canning of salmon and halibut are the most important. In 1905 the value of canned salmon was $2,431,605 (26,601,429 lb.).

Forests.—In 1907 the estimated area of standing timber in Wash-ington was 11,720,000 acres. The state now has 39 large state parks (all of which were opened in 1907 and 1908) is 18,850-7 sq. m., or about three-eighths of the total area of the state.

Irrigation.—The principal Federal irrigation undertakings in 1910 were known as the Okanogan project and the Yakima project. The former (authorized in 1905) provided for the irrigation of about 10,000 acres in Okanogan county by means of two reservoirs of an aggregate area of 650 acres, main canals and main laterals 20 m. long and small laterals 30 m. long, the water being taken from the Salmon river. In 1909 about 3000 acres in this project were watered and under cultivation. The Yakima project involved the irrigation of 60,000 acres in the future Yakima river. In 1906 the aggregate area of 800,000 acre-feet, and was undertaken by the United States government in 1905.

Agriculture.—The development of the agricultural resources of Washington was exceedingly rapid after 1880. The wheat crop in 1909 was 35,780,000 bushels, valued at $33,275,000; oats, 9,808,000 bushels, valued at $1,751,000; barley, 7,186,000 bushels, valued at $790,000; Indian corn, 417,000 bushels, valued at $359,000. The principal wheat-producing region is the south-eastern part of the state. Western Washington has large hay crops; in the E. part of the state the hay is mostly harvested in Okanogan county. In 1910 Washington peas were raised for forage.

Vegetable crops are successfully grown in low alluvial lands of the W. part of the state, but the interior lowlands of eastern Washington are too arid for the most part. Apple-growing in the Columbia valley has been a failure, and the raising of other fruits have increased rapidly. Small fruits are more successful in the W. part of the state. Grapes are grown on the mountain sites, and cherries on the hog lands near the coast, and nuts in the S.E. parts.

Live-stock and dairy products are important factors in the
agricultural wealth of Washington, but the raising of live-stock on ranges is less common than when large herds grazed free on government lands. The production from grazing, has much increased in importance in recent years.

Minerals.—The mineral wealth of Washington is large, but its resources have been only slightly developed, and had hardly begun to be explored. Great and valuable deposits of all mineral products was $5,393,659; in 1907 it was $11,617,706 and in 1908 $11,610,224.

The coal deposits of Washington are the only important ones in the state, and in Washington only, of the Pacific states, is there any coking coal. In the Cowlitz Valley an inferior coal was found in 1848. The first important mining was near Bellingham Bay, and in 1853, a deposit of the same was made near the Cedar River. The capacity of the most important was 5,024,943 tons (valued at $6,690,412) in 1898, when nearly one half (1,411,621 tons) of the total was from Kittitas county and most of the remainder from the counties of King (931,635 tons) and Pierce (551,678 tons). There are large deposits of glacial and residual clays and clay shales throughout the state. Serpentine marble with seamcd markings has been found in Adams and Stevens counties. Granite is found about Puget Sound and in the extreme eastern part of the state; it is largely used in riprap on the coast. Sandstone is found in portions of Yakima, N.W. in Whatcom and San Juan counties; it is used for paving blocks. Limestone also is found most plentifully in the north and northwest parts of the state.

Gold, silver, copper, lead and a little iron (almost entirely brown ore) are the principal ores of commercial importance found in Washington. The total value of gold, silver, copper and lead in 1908 was $1,765,646, copper lead $45,318. The largest output of each of these ores in 1908 was in Stevens county; Ferry, King and Okanogan counties ranked next in the output of gold; Okanogan and Ferry counties in the output of silver; King, Okanogan, Kittitas and Chelan counties in the output of copper; and King in the output of lead. About nine-tenths of the gold was got from dry or siliceous ores and about 8% from placer mines; about two-thirds of the silver from dry or siliceous ores, about two-ninths from copper ores. The bulk of the lead ores are galena. The copper is mostly a copper glance passing into chalcocyprite; it is found in fissure veins with galena. A small quantity of zinc (7 tons in 1906) is occasionally produced. Tungsten is found as wolframite in Stevens county near Deer Trail and Bliss, in Okanogan county near Loonis, in Whatcom county near the international boundary, and (with some scheelite) at Silver Hill, near Spokane. Tin has been found in King and Ferry counties, and in molybdenum near Davenport, Lincoln county. There is chromite in the black sands of the sea-coast and the banks of the larger rivers. Antimony deposits were first worked in 1906. Arsenic is found.

Lumbering.—The lumbering industries of Washington between 1880 and 1905, due primarily to the extraordinary development of its lumber industry. In 1870 the output of the state was $1,714,734; in 1880 the output was $5,734,742; by 1905 the value had increased to $30,572,512, and Washington now ranked first. The greatest increase in output has been in the manufacture of planed wood, doors and blinds, an important industry, the products being valued in 1905 at $6,173,422.

Next in commercial importance to lumber and timber products are flour and grit mill products, valued in 1905 at $1,465,612. Other important manufactures are: slaughtering and meat packing (wholesale), $6,251,705 in 1905; malt liquors, $4,471,777; and furniture, $7,374,015.

Transportation and Commerce.—Puget Sound has formed a natural port for several transcontinental railways, the cities of Seattle and Tacoma on its shores affording outlets to the commerce of the Pacific for the Northern United States, and the Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul & Pacific, which enter these cities with their own tracks. The Union Pacific and the Canadian Pacific reach Seattle over the tracks of other roads. The Northern Pacific, the first of the transcontinental roads to touch the coast, runs down the eastern side of the state, parallel to the coast road and the Northern Pacific; and paralleling the Great Northern, runs the recently constructed Chicago, Milwaukee & Puget Sound line. The Northern Pacific sends a branch line from Chicago, Ml. incl. to St. Paul. The Northern Pacific serves the coast Portland on the Columbia river, where it meets the Southern Pacific and the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company's line (a subsidiary of the Union Pacific), thus affording communication southwards, and up the valley of the Columbia to the east. Entering the south-east corner of the state, the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company extends a line northwards to Spokane, and a branch of the Great Northern, leaving the main line at this city, runs north-westward into British Columbia. The Spokane, Portland & Seattle railway connects the three cities named by way of the Idaho and Montana. The Northern Pacific sends a line eastward into Idaho to the Cœur d'Alene and a line westward, the southern part of the state into Nevada. In 1880 the railway mileage was 398; in 1905, 2,088; in 1900, 1,890. Seattle and Tacoma are among the four leading ports of the United States on the Pacific. Other harbors on Puget Sound of commercial importance are Olympia, Everett and Bellingham. Port Townsend is the port of entry for Puget Sound. Gray's Harbour, on the western coast, is of importance in lumber traffic.

Population.—The population in 1860 was 11,594; in 1870, 23,925; in 1880, 75,116; in 1890, 349,390, an increase within the decade of 365% percent; in 1900, 581,103, an increase of about 45%. In 1910, according to the U.S. census returns, the total population of the state reached 1,141,996. Of the total population in 1900, 394,179 were native whites, 111,384 or 21.5% were foreign-born, 10,139 (of whom 251 were not taxed) were Indians, 2734 were conditional aliens, 32,750 were Mexican citizens, 1,022 were Chinese, 15,777 were Japanese, and 10,428 were other foreign-born. The Indians on reservations in 1900 were chiefly those on Colville Reservation (1,297,000 acres unallotted), in the N.E. part of the state, and the Yakima Reservation (837,753 acres unallotted), in the S. part; they belonged to many small tribes chiefly of the Salishan, Athapascan, Chinookan and Shoshonan stocks. Of the foreign-born, 18,385 were English-Canadians, 16,686 Germans, 12,757 Swedes, 10,481 natives of England, 891 Norwegians and 7,652 Irish. Of the total population 241,388 were of foreign parentage (i.e. either one or both parents were foreign-born), and of these 108,860 or 45% of a given nationality. 34,490 were of German, 10,359 of Swedes, 31,716 of Irish, 16,950 of Norwegians and 16,833 of English parentage. The Roman Catholic Church in 1906 had more members than any other religious denomination, 74,951 out of the total of 191,976 in all denominations; there were 31,700 Methodists, 13,464 Lutherans, 11,316 Baptists, 16,628 Disciples of Christ, 10,223 Congregationalists and 16780 Protestant Episcopalians.

Government.—Washington is governed under its original constitution, which was adopted on the 1st of October 1888. An amendment may be proposed by either branch of the legislature; the initiative and referendum, and recall of elected officials, by the voters. Amendments may be made by two-thirds vote of each house of the legislature, and subsequently, at the next general election, by a majority of the people who vote on the question it becomes a part of the constitution. Five amendments have been adopted: one in 1884, one in 1886, one in 1900, one in 1904, and one in 1910.

Sufrage is conferred upon all adult citizens of the United States (including women, 1910) who have lived in the state one year, in the county ninety days, and in the city, town, ward or precinct thirty days immediately preceding the election, and are able to read and speak the English language; Indians who are not taxed, idiots, insane persons and convicts are debarred. General elections are held biennially, in even-numbered years, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November, and candidates, except those for the supreme court bench and a few local offices, are nominated at a direct primary election, held the second Tuesday in September.

The governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, superintendent of public instruction and commissioner of public lands are elected for a term of four years; the members of the administrative board and the Supreme Court, for terms of six years, and the legislature, for terms of two years. The governor's salary is $6000 a year, which is maximum allowed by the constitution.

The legislature consists of a House of Representatives and a Senate and a House of Representatives, and the constitution provides that the number of representatives shall not be less than sixty-three nor more than ninety-nine, and the number of senators not more than one-half nor less than one-quarter of the number of representatives. Senators are elected for single districts for a term of four years, a portion retiring every two years; representatives are elected, one, two or three from a district, for a term of two years. Regular sessions of the legislature are held biennially, in odd-numbered years, and begin on the second Monday
in January. Any bill or any item or items of any bill which has
passed both houses may be vetoed by the governor, and to override
a veto, two-thirds vote of the members present in each house
is required. No law other than appropriation bills can go into ef
fect until ninety days after the adjournment of the legislature, except
in case of a national emergency, or two-thirds vote of the mem-
bers. The members of the legislature are paid $5 for each day's
attendance during the session, besides an allowance for travelling
expenses.

The law is administered principally by a supreme court,
court of appeals, and the courts of civil and criminal juris-
dictions. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and six
judges elected in each district, and the concurrence of a majority
of the judges is necessary to determine any case. The
authority of the judges may be reviewed by the supreme court,
or to the court of civil appeals. The chief justice or any four
of his associates may at any time convene the court of civil
appeals, and if so convened at least five of the judges must be
present, and the concurrence of at least three is necessary to a
decision. The supreme court has original jurisdiction in habeas
corpus, quo warranto and mandamus proceedings against all state officers; and it has appellate
jurisdiction in civil actions for the recovery of personal property, in which
the original amount in controversy does not exceed $200, and which at
the same time do not involve the legality of a tax, imposition, assessment,
toll or municipal line, or the validity of contracts, judgments, or
debts of any county, or for two or more counties jointly are elected
for a term of four years. They have original jurisdiction in all
cases in equity, in all cases at law which involve the title or possession,
or the right to the use of the same or the income derived therefrom,
toll or municipal line, and in all other cases at law in which the
amount in controversy is $100 or more, in nearly all criminal cases, in matters
of valuation of personal property for purposes of taxation or of
valuation in various civil actions, and they have appellate jurisdiction
of cases originally tried before a justice of the peace or other inferior courts
where the amount in controversy is more than $20. Justices of the peace,
one or more in each city or town, are elected for a term of two years.
They have jurisdiction of various civil actions in which the amount in
controversy is less than $100, and concurrent jurisdiction with the
supreme court in cases of minor importance, but not exceeding
$500, imprisonment for six months, and elsewhere a fine of
$100 or imprisonment for thirty days.

Local Government.—The government of each county is vested
principally in a board of three commissioners elected by a county,
and the term for each is for two years. The

...
grades. Washington has three state normal schools: one at Cheney, one at Bellingham, and one at Ellensburg, and each of them is under the management of a board of three trustees appointed by the governor for a term of six years, one every two years. The State College of Washington (1890) at Pullman, for instruction in agriculture, mechanical arts and natural sciences, includes an agricultural college, an experiment station and a laboratory school. The University of Washington (1862) at Seattle embraces a college of liberal arts, a college of engineering and schools of law, pharmacy, mines and forestry. Whitman College (Congrega- tional) at Walla Walla, Gonzaga College (Roman Catholic) at Spokane, Whitworth College (Presbyterian, 1890) at Tacoma and the University of Puget Sound (Methodist Episcopal, 1903) at Tacoma are institutions of higher learning maintained and controlled by religious denominations.

Finance.—The revenue for state, county and municipal purposes is derived principally from a general property tax, a privilege tax levied on the gross receipts of express companies and private circulating libraries, inheritance tax and license fees for the sale of intoxicating liquors. Real property is assessed biennially; personal property, annually. For the two years ending the 1st of October 1908 the total receipts into the state treasury amounted to $10,854,281.42 and the total disbursements amounted to $11,053,375.13. The net state debt on the 1st of October 1908 amounted to $607,576.38.

History.—The early exploration of the western coast of North America grew out of the search for a supposed passage, sometimes called the "Strait of Anian" between the Pacific and the Atlantic. In "Purchas his Pilgrimes" (1625) was published the story of Juan de Fuca, a Greek mariner whose real name was Apostolos Valerianos, who claimed to have discovered the passage and to have sailed in it more than twenty days. Though the story was a fabrication, the strait south of Vancouver Island was named for account of the various Spanish and English explorers who had already been under Oregon and need not be repeated at length here.

In 1787 a company of Boston merchants sent two vessels, the "Columbia" and the "Washington" under John Kendrick and Robert Gray (1755-1806) to investigate the possibility of establishing trading posts. They reached Nootka Sound in September 1788, and in July 1789 Captain Gray in the "Columbia" began the homeward voyage by way of China. Captain Kendrick remained, erected a fort on Nootka Sound, demonstrated that Vancouver was an island and in 1791 purchased from the Indians large tracts of land between 47° and 52° N. lat. for his employers. On the homeward voyage he was accidentally killed and his vessel was lost. Meanwhile Captain Gray in September 1790 sailed from Boston on a second voyage. During the winter of 1791-1792 he built another fort on Nootka Sound and mounted four cannon from the ship. With the coming of spring he sailed southward, determined to settle definitely the existence of the great river, which he had vainly attempted to enter the previous summer. Captain George Vancouver (1759-1790), in charge of a British exploring expedition then engaged in mapping the coast (1790-1794), was sceptical of the existence of the river, but Captain Gray, undiscouraged, persisted in the search and on the 11th of May 1792 anchored in the river which he named Columbia in honour of his ship. The later claim of the United States to all the territory drained by the river was based chiefly upon this discovery by Captain Gray, who had succeeded where Spanish and British had failed. The territory became known as Oregon (q.v.).

The first white man certainly known to have approached the region from the east was Alexander Mackenzie of the Northwest Fur Company, who reached the coast at about lat. 52° in July 1793. With the purchase of Louisiana (4th April 1803, the United States gained a clear title to the land between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains as far north as 49° and, because of contiguity, a shadowy claim to the region west of the mountains. In 1810 Spain specifically renounced any claim she might have to the coast north of 42°, strengthening thereby the position of the United States. Just before the purchase of Louisiana, President Jefferson had recommended to Congress (28th January 1803) the sending of an expedition to the headwaters of the Missouri, cross the Rockies and follow the streams to the Pacific. In accordance with the recommendation Meriwether Lewis (q.v.) and William Clark, both officers of the United States Army, with a considerable party left St Louis on the 14th of May 1804, ascended the Missouri to the headwaters, crossed the Rockies and, following the Columbia river, reached the ocean in November 1805. The return journey over nearly the same route was begun on the 23rd of March 1806, and on the 23rd of September they reached St Louis.

The story of the struggle of the rival British and American companies to control the fur trade, with the final dominance by the American, who had been told under Oregon and need not be repeated. Since the country was considered to be of little value the question of boundaries was not pressed either by Great Britain or the United States after the War of 1812, and by a treaty concluded on the 26th of October 1818 it was agreed that "any country that may be claimed by either party on the north-west coast of North America, westward of the Stony (Rocky) Mountains shall be free and open for the term of ten years from the date of the signature of the present convention to the vessels, citizens and subjects of the two powers." On the 5th of August 1827 the convention was continued in force indefinitely with the proviso that the parties might again agree on a line of boundary. Meanwhile Russia (17th April 1824) agreed to make no settlement south of 54° 40' and the United States agreed to make none north of that line. In February 1835 Great Britain and Russia made a similar agreement. This left only Great Britain and the United States as the contestants for that territory west of the Rocky Mountains between 42° and 54° 40', which by this time was commonly known as the Oregon country. American settlers in considerable numbers soon began to enter the region south of the Columbia river, and in 1841, and again in 1843, these settlers attempted to form a provisional government. A fundamental code was adopted in 1845 and a provisional government was established, to endure until "the United States of America extend their jurisdiction over us." North of the river, the Hudson Bay Company discouraged settlement, believing that the final determination of the boundary controversy would make that stream the dividing line. Though there were a few mission stations in the eastern part of the present state of Washington (see WHITMAN, MARCUS), the first permanent American settlement north of the Columbia was made in 1845 on the Des Chutes river, at the foot of Puget Sound at the present city of Oregon City. The Oregon Treaty of 1846 followed in spite of the efforts of the chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company, Dr John M'Loughlin, and these permanent settlers finally carried the day.

Interest in the Oregon country developed with the increase of settlers and of knowledge and a demand for the settlement of the boundary dispute arose. The report of Captain Charles Wilkes, who visited the coast in 1841-1842 in charge of the United States exploring expedition helped to excite this interest. In the presidential campaign of 1844 one of the Democratic demands was "Fifty-four forty or fight." By a treaty negotiated by James Buchanan, on the part of the United States, and Richard Pakenham, on the part of Great Britain, and ratified on the 17th of July 1846, the boundary was fixed at 49° to the middle of the channel separating the continent from Vancouver Island and thence "southerly through the middle of the said channel and of Fuca's Straits to the Pacific Ocean." A dispute later arose over this water-line. The act establishing a territorial government for Oregon was approved on the 14th of August 1848, and the first governor, Joseph Lane (1801-1851), assumed the 6th government on the 3rd of March 1849. Following the increase of population north of the Columbia, the territory was divided, and Washington Territory was established on the 2nd of March 1853, with the river as the southern boundary to the point where it is intercepted by the forty-sixth parallel, and thence along that parallel to the summit of the Rocky Mountains, thereby including portions of the present states of Idaho and Montana. The first governor, Major Isaac I. Stevens, of the United States Army, took charge on the 20th of September 1853, and a census indicated a population of 3065 of whom 1682 were voters. Olympia was chosen as the temporary seat of
government, and Governor Stevens at once set to work to extinguish the Indian titles to land and to survey a route for a railway, which was later to become the Northern Pacific. The Indians, alarmed by the rapid growth of the white population, attempted to destroy the scattered settlements and the wandering prospectors for gold, which had been discovered in eastern Washington in 1855. Between 1855 and 1859, after many sharp contests, the Indians were partially subdued.

Shortly after 1846, the British began to assert that the Rosario Strait and not Puget Strait (as the Americans held) was the channel separating the mainland and Vancouver Island, and thus claiming the Haro Archipelago of which San Juan was the principal island. Conflict of authority arose, and in 1859 San Juan was occupied by U.S. troops commanded by Captain George E. Pickett (1825-1879), and for a time hostilities seemed imminent. By agreement joint occupation followed until, by the Treaty of Washington (May 8, 1871), the question was left to the German emperor, who decided (October 21, 1872) in favour of the United States. Meanwhile Oregon was admitted as a state (February 14, 1859), with the present boundaries, and the remnant of the territory, including portions of what are now Idaho and Wyoming, was added to Washington. The discovery of gold in this region, however, brought such a rush of population that the Territory of Idaho was set off (March 3, 1860) and Washington was reduced to its present limits. Rapid growth in population and wealth led to agitation for statehood, and a constitution was adopted in 1878, but Congress declined to pass an enabling act. The development of Alaska and the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad to the coast (1883) brought a great increase in population. A large number of Chinese coolies who had been introduced to construct the railway congregated in the towns on the completion of the work, and in 1885 serious anti-Chinese riots led to the declaration of martial law by the governor and to the use of United States troops. Finally the long-desired admission to statehood was granted by Congress (February 22, 1889) and President Benjamin Harrison (November 11, 1889) formally announced the admission complete.

Since admission the progress of the state has continued with increasing rapidity. The Alaska-Yukon Exposition, designed to exhibit the resources of western America, held at Seattle June-October 1909, was a complete success. In politics the state has been Republican in national elections, except in 1896, when it was carried by a fusion of Democrats and Populists. A Populist was elected governor and was re-elected in 1900.

**GOVERNORS OF WASHINGTON**

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<th>Territorial</th>
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<tr>
<td>Isaac I. Stevens</td>
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<td>C. H. Mason (acting)</td>
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<td>Fayette McMullen</td>
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<td>C. H. Mason (acting)</td>
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<td>Richard D. Gholson</td>
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<td>Wm. H. Wallace</td>
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Elbsha P. Ferry, Republican, 1889-1893
John H. McGraw, 1893-1897
J. R. Rogers, 1897-1901
Henry C. McBride, Republican (acting), 1901-1905
Albert E. Mood, Republican, 1905-1909
Samuel G. Cosgrove, Republican, 1909-1913
M. E. Hay, Republican (acting), 1913-1919


**WASHINGTON,** a table or stand containing furnishings for personal ablations. In its 18th-century form it was called a "bath stand" or "bath frame," and is still sometimes described as a "wash-hand stand." Its direct, but remote, ancestor was the monastic lavabo, ranges of basins of stone, lead or marble in continuous lines. They were usually of primitive conception, and a trough common to all was probably more frequent than separate basins. Very occasionally they were of bronze adorned with enamels and blazoned with heraldry. Very similar usages obtained in castles and palaces, fixed lavatories being constructed in the thickness of the walls for the use of their more important residents. These arrangements were obviously intended only for the summary ablutions which, until a very late date, sufficed to even the high-born. By degrees the lavabo became portable, and a "bath frame" is mentioned as early as the middle of the 17th century, as early as date of others earlier than the third or fourth decade of the 18th century are, however, virtually unknown. Thenceforward, until about the end of that century, this piece of furniture was usually literally a "stand." It was supported upon a tripod; a circular orifice in the top received the basin, and smaller ones were provided for a soap dish and a water-bottle. Sometimes a stand for the water-jug when the basin was in use was provided below, and very commonly there was a drawer, sometimes even two drawers, below the basin. Great numbers of these stands were made to fit into corners, and a "corner wash stand" is still one of the commonest objects in an old furniture shop. Chipendale designed such stands in an elaborate rococo fashion, as well as in simpler form. As the 18th century drew to its close the custom of using the same apartment as reception room by day and sleeping room by night produced a demand for what was called "harlequin furniture"—pieces which were contrived a double or triple debt to pay. Thus a variety of complicated combination washstands and dressing tables were made, and fitted with mirrors and sometimes with writing conveniences and drawers for clothes. Sheraton developed astonishing ingenuity in devising a type of furniture which, if we may judge by the large number of examples still existing, must have become highly popular. With the beginning of the 19th century and the expansion of ideas of personal cleanliness, the washstand grew in size and importance. It acquired the form of an oblong wooden table provided, like its smaller predecessors, with orifices for basins and fitted with a broad shelf-like stretcher upon which the jugs were placed when they were removed from the basins. Ample space was provided for soap-dishes and water-bottles. These tables were single or double, for the use of one or two persons. The washstand, as we know it in the 20th century, took its final form when the wooden top was replaced by marble, unpierced, the basins being placed upon the slab, which, in the beginning almost invariably white, is now often of red or other warm-tinted marble.

**WASP (Lat. vespa),** the common name for a well-known sort of stinging insect. The order Hymenoptera is divided into two sub-orders, the Symphyta and the Apocrita. The latter is subdivided into several sections, one of which, the Vespidae, includes all the true wasps; in addition to the ruby wasps and many of the "Fossores" or digging wasps.

The true wasps (forming the old section Diploptera) are in turn divided into three families—(1) the Vespidae, (2) the
Eumenidae, and the Masaridae, which together comprise some 1300 different species. They are characterized by their wings, which are pinnate, both sexes and also in the most females or antennae, being longitudinally folded when at rest, except in the Masaridae. The antennae are usually elobated, and contain twelve or thirteen joints; in some cases they are clavate. A pair of notched facetted eyes are present, and three ocelli in the top of the head. The mouth-parts are arranged for sucking, but have not reached that degree of perfection found amongst the bees. Hence wasps cannot obtain the sugary secretion from deep-seated nectaries, and their visits to flowers are confined to such as are shallow or widely opened; they particularly frequent the tubular flowers, and the campion and biotoon. Besides a slender, elongated, maxillary palp six-jointed. The labium is prolonged centrally into a "tongue," which is glandular at the tip; the paraglossae are linear. The labial palp has three or four joints. The pro-thorax is oval, and its sides are prolonged backward to the base of the wings. The fore wing has two or three submarginal cells. The legs are not provided with any adaptations for collecting pollen. The abdomen is sometimes pedunculated, its second (apparently first) segment being drawn out into a long stalk, which connects it with the alitrunk, made up of the thorax and the first abdominal segment. The quadrate of the last joint of the second abdominal segment is long and slender. The usual colour of these insects is black, relieved to a greater or less degree by spots and patches of yellow or buff.

The Diploptera may be subdivided into two groups in accordance with the habits of life of the insects comprising the section. One of the groups includes the family Vespidae, which is composed of social wasps, and includes the hornet (Vespa crabro) and the common wasp (V. vulgaris). The other group contains two smaller families, the Eumenidae and the Masaridae, the members of which resemble each other far more than the wasps.

Fig. 1.—Vespa crabro. In addition to their social habits the members of this family are characterized by certain structural features. The anterior wings have three submarginal cells. The labium is prolonged centrally into a "tongue," which is glandular at the tip; the paraglossae are linear. The labial palp has three or four joints. The pro-thorax is oval, and its sides are prolonged backward to the base of the wings. The fore wing has two or three submarginal cells. The legs are not provided with any adaptations for collecting pollen. The abdomen is sometimes pedunculated, its second (apparently first) segment being drawn out into a long stalk, which connects it with the alitrunk, made up of the thorax and the first abdominal segment. The quadrate of the last joint of the second abdominal segment is long and slender. The usual colour of these insects is black, relieved to a greater or less degree by spots and patches of yellow or buff.

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The Wasp.

It opens like a box lid, or gnaws a round hole through it. As soon as the cell is vacated it is cleaned out and another egg deposited. In this way two or three larvae occupy successively the same cell during the summer. The first wasps that appear in a nest are workers, and throughout the hot season workers are in the majority of the females or antennae, being longitudinally folded when at rest, except in the Masaridae. The antennae are usually elobated, and contain twelve or thirteen joints; in some cases they are clavate. A pair of notched facetted eyes are present, and three ocelli in the top of the head. The mouth-parts are arranged for sucking, but have not reached that degree of perfection found amongst the bees. Hence wasps cannot obtain the sugary secretion from deep-seated nectaries, and their visits to flowers are confined to such as are shallow or widely opened; they particularly frequent the tubular flowers, and the campion and biotoon. Besides a slender, elongated, maxillary palp six-jointed. The labium is prolonged centrally into a "tongue," which is glandular at the tip; the paraglossae are linear. The labial palp has three or four joints. The pro-thorax is oval, and its sides are prolonged backward to the base of the wings. The fore wing has two or three submarginal cells. The legs are not provided with any adaptations for collecting pollen. The abdomen is sometimes pedunculated, its second (apparently first) segment being drawn out into a long stalk, which connects it with the alitrunk, made up of the thorax and the first abdominal segment. The quadrate of the last joint of the second abdominal segment is long and slender. The usual colour of these insects is black, relieved to a greater or less degree by spots and patches of yellow or buff.

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Fig. 1.—Vespa crabro.
The genus *Vespa* is very widely spread; it contains over forty species, distributed all over the world. Some of the largest and handsomest come from eastern Asia. *V. mandarina* of China and Japan, and *V. magnifica* of the East Indies and Nepal, measure 2 in. across the wings; *V. orientalis*, found in Greece, Egypt and the East, builds its nest of clay.

The only other genus of *Vespidae* which is found in Europe is *Polistes*, which occurs in the countries bordering the Mediterranean. The colonies of this genus are much smaller than those of *Vespa*. Each nest consists of a single tier of cells in the form of a round plate, supported in the middle by a single stalk. This comb is sometimes vertical, the cells then being horizontal or slightly oblique. Some of the members of this genus store up honey, which in the case of a South American species is poisonous, from the nature of the flowers from which it is made. Some others build their nests of mud. Like some of the species of *Eumenes*, they are up paralysed Lepidopterous and Chrysomelid larvae as food for their carnivorous grubs.

Family 3. **Masaridae.**—The members of the third family, the *Masaridae*, are sharply distinguished by the possession of only two submarginal cells in the fore wing, which folds imperfectly or not at all when at rest. Their antennae are frequently clavate, particularly in the larger species, in which they are twice-jointed, but as the terminal joints are almost fused they appear to be composed of only eight joints. The wings are not so completely folded as in the other two families, and the abdomen is but slightly contractile. The maxillae are short and the palp very small, but with three or four joints.

The number of genera comprised in this family is small; none occur in Britain, but in southern Europe some species are found. They make their nest in cavities in the earth, generally in a bank, and construct an irregular gallery leading down to it.

During hot fine summers wasps cause a good deal of loss to market gardeners and fruit growers. During this time of year they live almost exclusively upon the sweet juices of ripe fruit, occasionally carrying off small particles of the flesh. At the same time they have not entirely lost their carnivorous tastes, for they frequently attack the meat in butcher's shops, but render compensation by killing and carrying off to feed their grubs, countless numbers of scarabaeid grubs. Wasps also perform an important service in keeping down the numbers of caterpillars. The larvae are almost exclusively carnivorous, living upon insects captured by their parents and reduced by them to a pulp before being given to the young. During the spring the first broods that appear live largely upon honey; and this forms the staple food of the genus *Polistes* throughout their whole life.

In attempting to rid a district of wasps, unless the nest can be taken, there is little good in killing stray members of the community. On the other hand, the killing of queen-wasps in early spring probably means that the formation of a nest and the invention of a society whose members are counted by thousands is in each case prevented.

The number of wasps is kept down by numerous enemies. The most effective of these live in the nests and devour the larvae; among them are two species of beetle, *Rhizophorus paradoxus* and *Lebia lineatus*. Two species of *Ichneumon*, and a species of *Anthomyia*, also infest the nests of wasps and prey upon the grubs. The larvae of the syphid flies *Volucella*, found in the nests of both wasps and bees, are now believed to be scavengers rather than parasites. In the tropics some species are attacked by fungi, the hyphae of which protrude between

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**Fig. 2.** Nest of *Vespa sylvestris*.

**Fig. 3.** *Polistes tepidus* and nest.

**Fig. 4.** *Eumenes smithii*.

**Fig. 5.** *Masaridae vestiformis.*

Mexico and South America, is also pendent, but the combs are horizontal; the opening from the exterior is at the side, and the passage from one gallery to another is also lateral.

The external appearance of the nest of *Nectarina*, found in Brazil and other parts of South America, resembles that of the common wasp, but is rougher. Internally the combs are arranged concentri
cally, more or less parallel with the external covering which affords them support.

The members of the two remaining families, the Eumenidae and the *Masaridae*, resemble one another in their solitary mode of life; only males and normal females exist—no workers being found.

Family 2. **Eumenidae.**—Solitary species, with three submarginal cells in the fore wings; antennae with thirteen joints in the male, twelve in the female; abdomen sometimes pellucund, posterior segments contractile. In the foregoing structural features the Eumenidae resemble the *Vespidae*, but they differ in having bulbous...
the segments of the abdomen, and give the wasp a very extraordinary appearance.


WASSAIL (O. Eng. was hdt, "be whole," be well), primarily the ancient form of "toasting," the term being applied later to the Christmas feasting and revelries and particularly to the bowl of spiced ale or wine which was a feature of the medieval Christmas. One of the earliest references to the wassail-bowl in English history is in the description of the reception of King Vortigern by Hengist, when Rowena "carried into the king's presence, with a cup of gold filled with wine in her hand, and making a low reverence unto the king said, 'Waes hael hlaflord Cynyng," which is 'Be of health, Lord King." In a collection of ordinances for the regulations of the royal household in Henry VII. s reign, the steward on Twelfth Night was to cry "wassail" three times on entering with the bowl, the royal chaplain responding with a song. Wassailing was as much a custom in the monasteries as in laymen's houses, the bowl being known as poculum Carillat. What was popularly known as wassailing was the drinking of the initials of the name of a bowl which was carried round the streets by young girls singing carols at Christmas and the New Year. This ancient custom still survives here and there, especially in Yorkshire, where the bowl is known as the "vessel cup," and is made of holly and evergreens, inside which are placed one or two dolls trimmed with ribbons. This cup is borne on a stick by children who go from house to house singing Christmas carols. In Devonshire and elsewhere it was the custom to wassail the orchards on Christmas and New Year's eve. Pitchers of ale or cider would be carried over the roots of the trees to the accompaniment of a rhyming toast to their health.

WASTE (O. Fr. wast, gusst, gast, gaste; Lat. vastus, vast, desolate), a term used in English law in several senses, of which four are the most important. (1) "Waste of a manor" is that part of a manor subject to rights of common, as distinguished from the lord's demesne (see Commons, MANOR). (2) "Year, day, and waste" was a part of the royal prerogative, acknowledged by a statute of Edward II., De Praerogativa Regis. The king had the profits of freehold lands of those attainted of felony and petty treason, for a year and a day, with a right of committing waste in sense (3) thereon. After the expiration of a year and a day the lands returned to the lord of the fee. This species of waste was abolished by the Corruption of Blood Act 1814 (see Felony, TREASON). (3) The most usual significations of the word is "any unauthorized act of a tenant, for a freehold estate not of inheritance, or for any lesser interest, which substantially alters the permanent character of the thing demised (I.) by diminishing its value, (ii.) by increasing the burden on it, (iii.) by impairing the evidence of title and thereby injuring the "inheritance." (West Ham Charity Board v. East London W.W., 1900, 1 Ch. 624, 637; cf. Pollock, Law of Trusts, 7th ed., 345). (4) Waste in sense (3) either voluntary or permissive. Voluntary waste is by act of commission, as by pulling down a house, wrongly removing fixtures (q.e.), cutting down timber trees, i.e. oak, ash, elm, twenty years old, and such other trees, g. beech, as by special custom are counted timber, in the district, opening new quarries, mines (but not continuing the working of existing ones), or doing anything which— for this is the modern test—alter the nature of the thing demised, such as conversion into meadow land. Although an act may technically be waste, it will not as a rule constitute actionable waste, or be restrained by injunction, in the absence of some prohibitive stipulation if it is "ameliorating," i.e. if it improves the value of the land. See Meurig, G. Cobley, 1892, 2 Ch. 253, 263). In the case of "timber estates" upon which trees of various kinds are cultivated solely for their produce and the profit derived from this wild growth, the cutting of the timber is not considered as part of the inheritance but as the compensation of the estate, and an exception arises in favour of the tenant for life (see Dashwood v. Magniac. 1891, 3 Ch. 306). Under the Settled Land Act 1882 a tenant for life may grant building, mining and other leases for the prescribed terms "for any purpose whatever, whether involving waste or not." Permissive waste is by act of omission, allowing building, mining or repairs to be done which are not prohibited by the terms of the lease, which here includes "all who held by lease for life or lives, or for years by deed or without deed" by the statute of Marlborough (1267)—may not commit waste without licence in writing from the vewser. In the same manner for life or for any smaller interest holds (as is often the case by the terms of a will or settlement) "without impeachment of waste" (saeu impeachement de wast, i.e. without liability to have his goods challenged on account of waste) or, as stated in the 1882 Act, "what is called equitable waste, that is, pull down or deface the mansion or destroy timber planted or left for ornament or shelter (Veld-Blundell v. Wolesley, 1903, 2 Ch. 664). Acts of equitable waste were prohibited by the Agricultural Holdings Act 1900, but the Judicature Act 1873, s. 25 (1), in the absence of special provisions to that effect an estate for life without impeachment of waste does not confer upon the tenant for life any legal right to commit substantial waste. A copy-holder may not commit waste unless allowed to do so by the custom of the manor. The penalty for waste is forfeiture of the copyhold; Galbreath v. Eyton, 1905, 2 K.B. 258 (see Copy- holder). The Agricultural Holdings Acts 1900 and 1908, by virtue of their provisions giving compensation for improvement, as regards the holdings to which they apply, override some of the old common law doctrines as to waste. The act of 1900 provides (s. 2) that when the tenant, who can claim improvement, has wrongfully been guilty of waste, either voluntary or permissive, the landlord shall be entitled to set off the sums due to him in respect of such waste, and to have damages assessed against him by the courts provided by the acts of 1900 and 1906. Under the act of 1900 the tenant is permitted to disregard the terms of his tenancy as to the mode of cropping on arable land, but if he exercises his statutory freedom of cropping in such a manner as to cause injury, the landlord is entitled to recover damages for such injury, &c. (s. 3).

Waste; Remedies for.—Various remedies for waste have been given to the overseer at different periods in the history of English law. At common law only single damages seem to have been recoverable. This was altered by the legislature, and for some centuries waste was a "single" or quasi-civil action. More recently, a guardian committing waste of the lands in his custody should make amends and lose his office. The statute of Marlborough (1267) made a " fermor " (as above defined) committing waste liable to great damages as well as to damages, and followed Magno Carta in forbidding waste by a guardian. The statute of Gloucester (1278) enacted that a writ of waste might be granted against a tenant for life or for years or in courtesy or dower, and on being attainted of felony the tenant was to forfeit the land wasted and to pay three times the amount of the waste. This statute was repealed by the Civil Procedure Acts Repeal Act 1879. In addition to the writ of waste the term estrepement or estrepement of a copyhold, (and to be connected with the French estropier, to lame), lays to prevent injury to an estate to which the title was disposed. This writ has long been obsolete. Numerous other statutes dealt with remedies for waste. The writ of galee in the medieval time was the " mixed action " of waste (itself abolished by the Real Property Limitation Act 1833), and by the action of trespass on the case (see TRESPASS). The court of chancery also intervened by injunction to restrain equitable waste. At present proceedings may be taken either by action for damages, or by application for an injunction, or by both combined, and either in the king's bench or in the chancery divisions. By the Judicature Act 1873, s. 25 (8), the old jurisdiction to grant injunctions to prevent threatened waste is considerably enlarged. The Rules of the Supreme Court, Ord. xvi. r. 37, enable a representative action to be brought for the protection of waste. In an action for waste, damages are given only to the person of whose own pockets as far as they have or might have had assets of the deceased (see EXECUTORS AND ADMINISTRATORS). Executors and administrators may consider the county court for waste of assets (County Courts Act 1888, s. 95).

Scotland.—In Scots law waste " is not used as a technical term, but the respective rights of far and life-tenant are much the same as in English. As a general rule, a life-tenant has no right to cut timber, even though planted by himself. An exception is admitted in the case of coppice wood, which is cut at regular intervals and allowed to grow again from the roots.

Grown timber is also available.
to the life-renter for the purpose of keeping up the estate or repairing buildings. Before making use of mature timber for estate purposes, the life-renter should give notice thereto in writing. He is also entitled to the use of the unimproved woods. Exceptional windfalls and storms are treated as grown timber. Life-renters by "constitutions" (i.e., by grant from the proprietor) as opposed to life-renters by "reservation" (where the estate is left to itself in conveying the fee to another) have, as a rule, no right to coals or minerals underground if they are not expressed in the grant or appear to have been intended by a testator to pass by his settlement, for instance. Where coals or minerals are expressly mentioned in the grant, and also in cases of life-rent by "reservation," the life-renter may work any mine which had been opened before the beginning of his right, provided he does not employ a greater number of men or a greater quantity of minerals than the unburdened proprietor did. All life-renters are entitled to such minerals as are required for domestic use and estate purposes.

The Passafore-French law (in force in Mauritius) and has been followed in substance in the civil codes of Quebec (art. 455) and St. Lucia (art. 406). In most of the other colonies the rules of English law are followed, and in many of them there has been legislation on the lines of the English Settled Land Acts. In India the law as to waste is included to some extent in the Transfer of Property Act (No. IV. of 1882) and its amendments. Section 168 deals with the liabilities of lessees for waste, which may be varied by the terms of the lease or by local usage. The liabilities for waste of persons having under Hindu or Mahomedan law limited interests in realty depend in the main upon those laws and not on Indian state laws.

United States.—"In the United States, especially in the Western states, many acts have been passed by the legislature for the purpose of using and improving the land—clearing wild woods, for example, in Indiana, or even in the Eastern states in a more general way" (Pollack, Torts, 7th ed., 345). Thus Virginia, North Carolina, Vermont and Tennessee have devised in favour of the tenant and lessee, while Massachusetts has adopted to them (Ruling Cases, tit. "Waste," xxv. 380, American notes). In certain states, e.g., Minnesota, Oregon and Washington (ibid., p. 381), the action of waste is regulated by statute.

England.—The French Civil Code provides (art. 591) that the usurious may cut timber in plantations that are laid out for cutting, and are cut at regular intervals, although he is bound to lower expenses than the former proprietors as to the price of timber. This provision is found in Belgium and Germany (art. 593). Analogous provisions are to be found in the civil codes of Holland (art. 814), Spain (art. 485), Italy (art. 486), and in the German Civil Code, art. 158a.


WATCH

(Watch) (In O. Eng. wacce, a keeping guard or watching, from wacian, to guard, watch, wacen, to wake), a portable time-piece. This is the most common meaning of the word in its substantial form, and is the subject of the present article. The word, by derivation, means that which keeps watchful or wakeful observation or attention over anything, and hence is used of a person or number of persons whose duty it is to protect anything by vigilance, a guard or a sentry; it is thus the term for the body of persons who patrolled the streets, called the hours, and performed the duties of the modern police. The application of the term to a period of time is due to the military division of the night into hours ("hours" and "vigilae") marked by the change of sentinels; similarly, on shipboard, time is also reckoned by "watches," and the crew is divided into two portions, the starboard and port watches, taking duty alternately. The transference of the word to that which marks the changing hours is easy.

In the British navy the twelve hours of the night are divided into three watches of four hours—eight from twelve to two, the first watch, from twelve to four the middle watch, and from four to eight the last watch. The twelve hours of the day are divided into four watches, two of four hours—eight to midday, midday to four P.M., and two of two hours, from four to six and six to eight. These are the "dog watches," and their purpose is to change the turn of the watch. The first-four watches of the day and night, from eight to midnight on one hand, shall watch from midnight till 4 A.M. on the next. The "watch bill" is the list of the men appointed to the watch, who are mustered by the officers. The time was originally kept by an hour-glass, every half-hour; the number of the half-hour...

The invention of portable timepieces dates from the end of the 15th century, and the earliest manufacture of them was in Germany. They were originally small clocks with mainsprings enclosed in boxes; sometimes they were of a globular form and were often called "Nuremberg eggs." Being too large for the pocket they were frequently hung from the girdle. The difficulty with these early watches was the inequality of action of the mainspring. An attempt to remedy this was provided by a central device called the stack-freed, which was little more than a sort of rude auxiliary spring. The problem was solved about the years 1535-1540 by the invention of the fusee. By this contrivance the mainspring is made to turn a barrel on which is wound a piece of catgut, which in the latter part of the 16th century was replaced by a chain. The other end of the catgut band is wound upon a spiral drum, so contrived that as the spring runs down and becomes weaker the leverage on the axis of the spiral increases, and thus gives a stronger impulse to the works (fig. 1).

In early watches the escapement was the same as in early clocks, namely, a crown wheel and pallets with a balance ending in small weights. Such an escapement was, of course, very imperfect, for since the angular force acting on the balance does not vary with the displacement, the time of oscillation varies with the arc, and this again varies with every variation of the driving force. An immense improvement was therefore effected when the hair-spring was added to the balance, which was replaced by a wheel. This was done about the end of the 17th century. During the 18th century a series of escapements were invented to replace the old crown wheel, ending in the chronometer escapement, and though great improvements in detail have since been made, yet the watch, even as it is to-day, may be called an 18th-century invention.

The watches of the 16th century were usually enclosed in cases ornamented with the beautiful art of that period. Sometimes the case was fashioned like a skull, and the watches were made in the form of octagonal jewels, crosses, purses, little books, dogs, sea-shells, &c., in almost every instance being finely engraved. Queen Elizabeth was very fond of receiving presents, and, as she was also fond of clocks, a number of the gifts presented to her took the form of jewelled watches.

The man to whom watch-making owes perhaps most was Thomas Tompion (1639-1713), who invented the first dead-beat escapement for watches (fig. 2). It consisted of a balance-wheel mounted on an axis of semi-cylindrical form with a notch in it, and a projecting stud. When the teeth of the scape-wheel came against the cylindrical part of the axis they were held from going forward, but when the back of the axis was reversed, the teeth slipped past the notch and struck the projection, thus giving an impulse. This escapement was afterwards developed by George Graham (1673-1751) into the horizontal cylindrical escapement and into the well-known dead-beat escapement for clocks.

The development of escapements in the 18th century greatly is shown by striking the watch bell, hanging on a beam of the forecastle, or by the mainmast, with the clapper. One stroke is given for each half-hour. Thus 12.30 A.M. is one bell in the middle watch. The bell was also used to indicate the course of a ship in a fog. A vessel on the starboard tack tolled the bell. A vessel on the port tack beat a drum. The watch guns were fired when setting the watch in the evening and relieving it in the morning. The gun is now only fired at sundown.
improved watches. But a defect still remained, namely, the influence of temperature upon the hair-spring of the balance-wheel. Many attempts were made to provide a remedy. John Harrison proposed a curb, so arranged that alterations of temperature caused unequal expansion in two pieces of metal, and thus actuated an arm which moved and mechanically altered the length of the hairspring, thus compensating the effect of its altered elasticity. But the best solution of the problem was ultimately provided by the French, Pierre le Roy (1717–1788) and perfected by Thomas Earnshaw (1749–1829). This was to diminish the inertia of the balance-wheel in proportion to the increase of temperature, by means of the unequal expansion of the metals composing the rim.

Invention in watches was greatly stimulated by the need of a good timepiece for finding longitudes at sea, and many successive rewards were offered by the government for watches which would keep accurate time and yet be able to bear the rocking motion of a ship. The difficulty ended by the invention of the chronometer, which was so perfected towards the early part of the 18th century as to have even now undergone but little change of form. In fact the only great triumph of later years has been the invention of watch-making machinery, whereby the price is so lowered that an excellent watch (in a brass case) can now be purchased for about £2 and a really accurate time-keeper for about £18.

A modern watch consists of a case and framework containing the four essential parts of every timepiece, namely, a mainspring and apparatus for winding it up, a train of wheels with hands and a face, an escapement and a balance-wheel and hairspring. We shall consider each in turn.

The Mainspring.—As has been said, the mainspring of an old-fashioned watch was provided with a drum and fusee so as to equalise its action on the train. An arrangement was provided to prevent overwinding, by an ingenious locking of a book when the chain was nearly wound up was pushed aside so as to engage a pin, and thus prevent further winding (see fig. 1). Another arrangement for watches without a fusee, called a Geneva stop, consists of a wheel with one tooth after the other, and the balance-wheel is wound up in stages of four or five teeth. This allows the barrel arbour only to be turned round four or five times.

The going-barrel, which is fitted to modern watches, contains no fusee, but the spring is delicately made to diminish in size from one end to the other, and it is wound up for only a few turns, so that the force derived from it does not vary very substantially. The uneveness of drive is in modern watches sought to be counteracted by the construction of the escapement and balance-wheel.

Watches used formerly to be wound with a separate key. They are now wound by a key permanently fixed to the case. The dependence of a small knob gears the winding key with the hands so as to enable them to be set. With this contrivance watches are well protected against the entry of dust and damp.

With respect to escapements that have come into practical use are: (1) the old vertical escapement, now disused; (2) the lever, very much the most common in English watches; (3) the horizontal or cylinder, which is equally common in foreign watches, that is, the balance-wheel is fixed on a cylinder and driven by a very strong rack and pinion, which engages the teeth of the balance-wheel and makes it go round in an almost uniform motion. This escapement is also made with four or five teeth, and is the most common in carriage watches. The cylinder is fixed on the balance-wheel and the wheel is wound up by a key so that the cylinder will rotate round the balance-wheel in a vertical position; the particles of metal constituting the balance-wheel are universally fixed in the same way, but are raised on short stems above the plane of the wheel; and still more of the cylinder than the portion of the cylinder which belongs to the escapement, it is quite common; it is in practice even more common. The cylinder itself has to pass through the level of the wheel, which is very delicate; and probably this is the main reason why, although it is an English invention, it has been most entirely abandoned by the English watch-makers in favour of the lever, which was originally a French invention; though very much improved by Mudge, for before his invention the lever had a rack or portion of a toothed wheel on its end, working into a pinion on the balance-plate, and consequently it was affected by the dead friction, and that of this wheel and pinion besides. This used to be called the rack lever, and Mudge's the detached lever; but, the rack lever being in use in the part of the escapement called the cylinder, which has become confounded with the escapement of the cylinder, to which it is more appropriate, as will be seen presently. The Swiss watches have almost universally the horizontal escapement. It is found, and has been found, to be a great advantage, and is apparently unknown, as the rule certainly does not hold in cases seemingly analogous—a steel plane-escapement acts better in this escapement than a brass one, although in other cases steel is better. This escapement is the one to which the balance-wheel is wound up by a key and which engages the teeth of the balance-wheel and makes it go round in an almost uniform motion. When the balance is turning in the direction marked by the arrow, and it comes to the position in which the pallet of the lever P has its point against the triangular notch V, the tooth end slips into the notch, and, as the verge turns farther, the tooth engages in the next notch and goes on with it till at last it escapes when the tooth has got into the position A; and by that time the long tooth of the pallet which projects from the balance-wheel has been moved from p to P, and just come in front of the pin P, which stands on the rim of the s')ape-wheel, and which now begins to push against P, and so gives the impulse until it also escapes when it has arrived at the position A. The tooth B having got into the position b, with its point resting against the verge, and there is dead friction between them, and this friction is lessened by the

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

The lever escapement, as it is now universally made, was brought into use late in the 18th century by Thomas Mudge. Fig. 4 shows its action. The pallets, which lie in the plane of the paper, are immaterial in principle, and is only a question of convenience in the arrangement; but it is generally such as we have given. The manner in which the pallets are operated is interesting, with the advantage that there is no friction on the dead faces of the pallets beyond what is necessary for locking. The reason why this friction cannot be avoided with a pendulum is that its arc of vibration is so small. If you imagine that a pendulum attached to the ends of the two circles described by the end S of the lever and any pin in the pendulum which would work it; whereas, in a watch, the pin P, which is set in a cylinder on the verge of the balance, does not generally slip off the neck in the end of the lever until the balance has got 35° past its middle position. The pallets are under-cut a little, as it is called, i.e. the dead faces are so sloped as to give a little recoil the wrong way, or slightly to resist the unlocking, because otherwise there would be a risk that a shake of the watch might let a tooth escape, because the pin S on the lever fits as they pass; but when the notch has got past the cylinder it would prevent the lever from returning, because the safety-pin S cannot pass through the notch, which is only in the position for letting it pass at the same time that the impulse-pin is engaged in the lever. In the lever escapement (except lead and cheap ones) are always jewelled, and the s'ape-wheel is of brass. The staff of the lever also has jewelled pivotings, for the insensible wear of the s'ape-wheel has in all good ones. The holes for the balance-pivots are now always jewelled.

The s'ape-wheel in this and most of the watch escapements generally beats five times in a second, in large chronometers four times; and the wheel next to the s'ape-wheel carries the seconds-hand.

Fig. 5 is a plan of the horizontal or cylinder escapement, cutting through the cylinder, which is on the verge of the balance, at the point that the top of the teeth of the s'ape-wheel, for the triangular pieces A, B are not flat projections in the same plane as the teeth, but are raised on short stems above the plane of the wheel; and still more of the cylinder than the portion of the cylinder which belongs to the escapement does, though much less in appearance, because in this escapement there is a free friction of the cylinder, first on the outside, as here represented, and then on the inside, as shewn by the dotted lines, during the whole vibration of the balance-wheel. The cylinder is fixed on the balance-plate, and consequently it was affected by the dead friction, and that of this wheel and pinion besides. This used to be called the rack lever, and Mudge's the detached lever; but, the rack lever being in use in the part of the escapement called the cylinder, which has become confounded with the escapement of the cylinder, to which it is more appropriate, as will be seen presently. The Swiss watches have almost universally the horizontal escapement. It is found, and has been found, to be a great advantage, and is apparently unknown, as the rule certainly does not hold in cases seemingly analogous—a steel s'ape-escapement acts better in this escapement than a brass one, although in other cases steel is better. This escapement is the one to which the balance-wheel is wound up by a key and which engages the teeth of the balance-wheel and makes it go round in an almost uniform motion. When the balance is turning in the direction marked by the arrow, and it comes to the position in which the pallet of the lever P has its point against the triangular notch V, the tooth end slips into the notch, and, as the verge turns farther, the tooth engages in the next notch and goes on with it till at last it escapes when the tooth has got into the position A; and by that time the long tooth of the pallet which projects from the balance-wheel has been moved from p to P, and just come in front of the pin P, which stands on the rim of the s'ape-wheel, and which now begins to push against P, and so gives the impulse until it also escapes when it has arrived at the position A. The tooth B having got into the position b, with its point resting against the verge, and there is dead friction between them, and this friction is lessened by the...
distance of the points of the long teeth from the centre of the escapement. As the balance turns back, the nick V goes past the end of the catenary V, and in so doing the escapement is visibly affecting the motion of the escape-wheel, though of course it does produce a very slight shake in passing. It is evident that, if it did not pass, the tooth could not get into the nick for the next escape. The objection to the escape-wheel is, however, the delicacy of adjustment, and the watch also requires to be worn carefully; for, if by accident the balance is once stopped from swinging back far enough to cause the molecules of the tooth to start it, it is impossible to bring them altogether, as it will lose still more of its vibration the next time from receiving no impulse. The performance of this escapement, when well made, and its independence of oil, are nearly equal to those of the detached escapement; but, when, on the other hand, it is sufficiently good for all but astronomical purposes, for which chronometers are used, and they are cheaper both to make and to mend than duplex ones, the manufacture of duplex watches has almost disappeared.

The chronometer or detached escapement shown at fig. 7, in the form in which it was brought by Earnshaw, and in which it has remained ever since, with the very slight difference that the pallet P, on which the impulse is given (corresponding exactly to the pallet P in the duplex escapement), is now generally set in a radial direction from the verge, whereas Earnshaw made it sloped backward, or undercut, like the sedge-wheel teeth. The early history of escapements on this principle does not seem to be very clear. They appear to have originated in France; but there is no doubt that they were conceived in an idea by the first user, Mr. Mudge, who invented in 1799 Earnshaw's watches, however, generally beat his in trials.

In fig. 7, the small tooth or cam V, on the verge of the balance, is just on the point of unlocking the detent DT from the tooth T of the sedge-wheel; and the tooth T of the sedge-wheel is just on the impulse on the pallet P, which, in good chronometers, is always a jewel set in the cylinder; the tooth V is also a jewel. This part of the action is so evident as to require no further notice. When the balance returns, the tooth V has to get past the end of the detent DT and come in closer to the tooth T for another impulse to be given. If it should have been unlocked, it falls against the banking-pin E, and is ready to receive the next tooth B, and must stay there until it is again unlocked by the tooth T. Now, a stiffish spring, which is screwed to the block D on the watch frame, so that it moves without any friction of any kind, like a pendulum. If the tooth T is not done by means of an arm VT, called the passing spring, which can be pushed away from the body of the detent towards the left, but cannot be pushed the other way without carrying the detent with it. In the back vibration, therefore, as in the duplex escapement, the balance receives no impulse, and it has to overcome the slight resistance of the passing spring besides; but it has no other friction, and is entirely detached from the escape-wheel for the same time, during the whole time it is not unlocked.

That is also the case in the lever escapement; but the impulse in that escapement is given obliquely, and consequently with a good deal of friction. The advantage of the sedge-wheel over all other escapements, the timing of the action of the different parts requires great care, i.e. the adjusting them so that each may be ready to act exactly at the right time; and it is curious that the arrangement which would be geometrically correct, or suitable for a very slow motion of the balance, will not do for the real motion. If the pallet P were really set so as just to point to the tooth A in both escapements at the moment of unlocking (as it has been drawn, because otherwise it would look as if it could not act at all), it would run away some distance before the tooth could catch it, because in the duplex escapement the escape-wheel is then only moving slowly, and in the sedge-wheel at all. This is, of course, the start of the pallet P is therefore, in fact, set a little farther back, so that it may arrive at the tooth A just at the time when A is ready for it, without wasting time and force required to unlock the detent. The detached escapement has also been made on the duplex plan of having long teeth for the locking and short ones or pins nearer the centre for the impulse; but the advantages do not appear to be worth the additional trouble and risk of care required for the detent unlocked, diminished by the arrangement, as the spring D must in any case be fairly still, to provide against the watch being carried in the position in which the weight of the detent helps to unlock it.

If the tooth T is set so as to catch the teeth several times in succession, which implies that it has never come into general use. It is a combination of the lever as to the locking and the chronometer as to the impulse, and involves the disadvantage of the escape-wheel, because the nearer they are to the crossbar the less distance they will move over as the rim bends with them. The timing is done in two steps, one at the ends of the crossbar, and one by the ends of the crossbar, and consequently not affected by the bending of the rim; other screws are also provided round the rim for adjusting the moment of inertia and centre of gravity of the balance-wheel. The compensation may be done approximately by
the known results of previous experience with similar balances; and many watches are sold with compensation balances which have never been tried or adjusted, and then these balances with a mere sham compensation balance, not even cut through.

Secondary Compensation. — When chronometers had been brought to great perfection it was perceived that there was a residuary error, which was due to changes of temperature, and the maker of the compensation would correct. The cause of the secondary error is that as the temperature rises the elasticity of the spring increases, and the moment of inertia of the balance-wheel diminishes. Hence the watch tends to slow.

In order to compensate this the split rim of the balance-wheel is made with the more expansible metal on the outside, and therefore tends to curl inward with increase of temperature, thus diminishing the moment of inertia of the wheel. Now the rate of error caused by the increase of temperature of the spring varies approximately with the temperature according to a certain law, but the rate of correction due to the diminution of the moment of inertia of the rim changes very much less, and the form of the rim of the wheel does not alter proportionally, but according to a more complex law of its own, varying more rapidly with cold than with heat, so that if the rate of the chronometer is correct, say, at to°F, and also at 50°F, it will gain at all intermediate temperatures, the spring being thus under-corrected for high temperatures and over-corrected for low. Attempts have been made by alterations of shape of the balance-wheel to harmonize the progress of the error with the progress of the correction, but not with very conspicuous success.

We shall give a short description of the principal classes of inventions for this purpose. The first disclosed was that of J. S. Effe (sometimes attributed to Robert Molyneux), which was communicated to the astronomer-royal in 1835. In one of several methods proposed by him a compensation is introduced in the spring. J. S. Effe, though, for the reasons given before, this will not answer for the primary compensation, it may for the secondary, where the motion required is very much smaller. In another the primary compensation bar is fixed to the case, and this device is of little weight attached at some mean temperature, and, as it bent farther in, it carried this secondary compensation weight along with it. The obvious objection to this is that it is discontinuous; but the whole motion is so small, not more than the thickness of a piece of paper, that this and other compensations on the same principle appear to have been on some occasions quite successful.

A similar device is the the brass and steel cylinder, which may be represented by E. J. Dent’s, which came next in order of time. He described several forms of his invention; the following description applies to the one he thought the best. In fig. 9 the flat cross- bar \( p \) is itself a compensating device, and the small weight attached to it would act partly as a pendulum, so that the time would vary according as the watch was placed in different positions. It is exceedingly difficult to adjust a watch so that these positions, the three principal ones, and the others, can be so proportioned that they neutralize their effect by mounting the balance-wheel and hairspring upon a revolving carriage which shall slowly rotate, so that in succession every possible position of the balance-wheel and spring is tried, and the errors are averaged and mutually destroy one another. This is called the tourbillon escapement. There are several forms of it, and watches fitted with it often keep extremely well.

Stop watches or chronographs are of several kinds. In the usual and simplest form there is a centre seconds hand which normally remains at rest, but which, when the winding handle is pressed in, and the spring is wound up, revolves at the rate of one revolution per second, usually to fifths. A second pressure arrests its path, enabling the time to be taken since the start. A third pressure almost instantaneously brings the seconds hand back to zero, this result being effected by a spring which, when the hand presses on it instantaneously, flies round to zero position. The number of complete revolutions of the seconds hand, i.e., minutes, is recorded on a separate dial.

Calendar work on watches is, of course, fatal to great accuracy of time-keeping, and is very complicated. A watch is made to record days of the week and month, and to take account of leap years. The method of proceeding is to alter the position of the escape wheel by a couple of teeth varying in the proper ratio to the variation of the intensity of the spring. The cylindrical spring stands above the crossbar and between the staples.

Fig. 10 represents E. T. Lorryeby’s mercurial compensation balance.

Besides the weights D, D, set near the end of the primary compensation bars B, B, there are small bent tubes F, F with mercury in them, like a thermometer, the bulbs being at P, P. As the heat increases, not only do the primary compensation bars become longer, but the F, F approach the centre of the balance, but some of the mercury is driven forward, and sometimes much more than is lost, and the tube takes its weight towards the centre, at a ratio increasing more rapidly than the temperature. The whole is enclosed in an iron case, which is fitted with a little air included. The action is here equally continuous throughout, and the hair spring has a primary and secondary compensation are apparently more independent of each other; and this is much more true of Lorryeby’s use of mercury for compensated balances (which does not appear to have answered) is certainly very elegant and ingenious. Nevertheless an analysis of the Greenwich lists shows that this hypothesis has not proved that the advantage of this method over the others was more theoretical than practical; Dent’s compensation was the most successful of all in three years out of the seven, and Lorryeby’s in only one.

Lorryeby’s method has never been adopted by any other chronicmerkaker, though the principles both of Effe’s and of Dent’s methods have been adopted by other makers.

A few chronometers have been made with glass balance-springs, which have the advantage of requiring very little primary and no secondary compensation, on the other hand, they are liable to Wilhelm, comparatively with springs of steel or any other metal.

One of the most important and interesting attempts to correct the temperature errors of a hair-spring by a series of corresponding corrections, has been made by means of the use of the nickel-steel compound called invar, which, on account of its very small coefficient of expansion, has been of great use for pendulum rods. In a memoir published in 1890 at Geneva, Dr. Charles Guillaume, the inventor of invar, shows that in order to get a true secondary compensation what is wanted is a material having the property of causing the curve of the rim of the wheel to change at a rate proportional to the temperature. This is found in those specimens of invar in which the second coefficient of expansion is negative, i.e., which are less dilatable at higher temperatures than at lower ones. It is satisfactory to add that such balance-springs have been tried successfully on chronometers, and notably in a deck watch by Paul Ditisheim of Neuchâtel, who has made a chronometer with a tourbillon escapement and an invar balance-wheel, which holds the highest record ever obtained by a watch of its class.

It is obvious that in order that a watch may keep good time the centre of gravity of the balance-wheel and hair-spring must be quite close; any change of position would act partly like a pendulum, so that the time would vary according as the watch was placed in different positions. It is exceedingly difficult to adjust a watch so that these positions, the three principal ones, and the others, can be so proportioned that they neutralize their effect by mounting the balance-wheel and hairspring upon a revolving carriage which shall slowly rotate, so that in succession every possible position of the balance-wheel and spring is tried, and the errors are averaged and mutually destroy one another. This is called the tourbillon escapement. There are several forms of it, and watches fitted with it often keep excellent time.

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WATER

not an easy thing to secure this result, for as the machines are used the cutting is left to the winding and binding at the mill. Hence a gold is not allowed to make more than a given quantity of parts without being examined and readjusted, and from time to time the pieces being put out are tested with calipers. The parts then go back to the men who are skilled in binding and giving the right size, which is then given over to the watch-adjusters, who put the parts together and make the watch go. The work of adjustment for common watches is a simple matter. But expert adjusters have a special trick for their trade, and they are trained for it. The finest watches are thus largely machine-made, but hand-finished. The prejudice against machine-made watches has been very strong in England, but is dying away, largely because of the trouble and cost of the latter. A flourishing watch industry exists in Switzerland in the neighbourhood of Neuchâtel. A watch in a stamped steel case can now be made for about five shillings. There is no reason why in such a country as Birmingham as the English watch industry should not revive.

The use of jewelled bearings for watch pivots was introduced by Nicholas Fatio about the beginning of the 18th century. Diamonds and sapphires are usually employed and pinned either by diamond drills or by drills covered with diamond dust. Rubies are not a very favourite stone for jewels, but as they and sapphires can now be machine-made by being cut artificially for about two shillings a carat, the difficulty of obtaining material for watch jewelling has nearly disappeared.

Watches have also been fitted with machinery whereby electric contacts are made by them at intervals, so that if wires are led to any of the pinions from an electric current the latter will then start and thus mark dots at regular intervals on a moving strip of paper.

As in the case of clocks, the accuracy of going of a watch is estimated by observation of the variations of mean daily departures. For this purpose the Observatories at Greenwich, Department of the Post Office, and near Richmond, and also for admiral purposes at Greenwich. At Richmond watches are divided into two classes, A and B. For an A certificate the trials last for four weeks and the watch is required to keep time within ±5 seconds (on average) from 9 to 90 °F., going in every position with dial vertical, face up and face down. The average daily departure from the mean daily rate, that is the average error due to irregular departures from the average going rate, must not exceed 2 seconds a day except where due to position, when it may amount to 5 seconds. The errors should not increase more than ±3 seconds a day for each 1 °F. The trial for the B certificate is somewhat similar but less severe. One very remarkable thing about watches is that their average error from mean rate is expected not to exceed ±5 seconds per diem. The fees for these tests are various sums from two guineas downwards. In estimating the time-keeping qualities of a watch or clock, the error of rate is of no consequence. It is simply due to the time-keeper going too fast or too slow, and this can easily be corrected. What is wanted for a good watch is that the rate, whatever it is, shall be constant. The daily error is of no account provided it is a uniform daily error and not an irregular one. Hence the object of the trials is to determine not merely the daily rate but the variations of the daily rate, and on the smallness of these the value of a watch, and as a time-keeper (G. H. H.C.)

WATER

Strictly speaking, water is the oxide of hydrogen which is usually stated to have the formula H2O (see below), but in popular use the term is applied to a great variety of different substances, all of which agree, however, in being the water of the chemist modified differently in the several varieties by the nature or proportion of impurities. In all ordinary waters, such as are used for primary purposes, the impurities amount to very little by weight—as a rule to less than 1/80th of 1%. Of all natural stores of water the ocean is by far the most abundant, and from it all other water may be said to be derived. From the surface of the ocean a continuous stream of vapour is rising up into the atmosphere to be condensed in colder regions and precipitated as rain, snow or sleet, etc. Some 2/8ths of these precipitates of course return directly to the ocean; the rest, falling on land, collects into pools, lakes, rivers, &c., or else penetrates into the earth, perhaps to reappear as springs or wells. As all the saline components of the ocean are non-volatile, rain water, in its natural state, can be contaminated only with the ordinary atmospheric gases—oxygen, nitrogen and carbon dioxide. Rain water also contains perceptible traces of ammonia, combined as a rule, at least partly, with the nitric acid, which is produced wherever an electric discharge pervades the atmosphere.

Lake waters, as a class, are relatively pure, especially if the mountain slopes over which the rain collects into a lake are relatively free of soluble components. For example, the water of Loch Katrine (Scotland) is almost chemically pure, apart from small, perceptible, traces of richly carboniferous matter taken up from the peat of the surrounding hills, and which impart to it a faint brownish hue, while really pure water is blue when viewed in a leaden basin. Rivers water varies much in composition even in the same bed, as a river in the course of its journey towards the ocean passes from one kind of earth to others; while, compared with spring waters, relatively poor in dissolved salts, rivers are liable to be contaminated with more or less of suspended matter.

Spring waters, having been filtered through more or less considerable strata of earth, are, as a class, clear of suspended, but rich in dissolved, mineral and organic matter, and may also contain gases in solution. Of the latter, the carbonic acid in particular is one of the most important; it is present in large measure, in both carbonic acid, and sulphate and common salt are most widely diffused. Common salt, however, in its natural occurrence is very much localized; and so it comes that spring and well waters are contaminated chiefly with calcium carbonate and sulphate. Of these two salts, however, the former is held in solution only by the carbonic acid of the water, as calcium bicarbonate. But a carbonate-of-lime water, if exposed to the atmosphere, even at ordinary temperatures, loses its carbonic acid, and the calcium carbonate is precipitated. The saltsalicates (q.v.) are usually adsorbed by native rocks, or occasionally produced in this manner. Many waters are valuable medicinal agents owing to their contained gases and salts (see MINERAL WATERS).

In addition to its natural components, water is liable to be contaminated through accidental influxes of foreign matter. Thus, in certain seasons, all the Scottish Highland lochs are brown through the presence in them of dissolved peaty matter. Rivers flowing through, or wells sunk in, populous districts may be contaminated with excrementitious matter, discharges from industrial establishments. The presence of especially nutritious organic matter is a serious source of danger, inasmuch as such matter forms the natural food or soil for the development of micro-organisms, including those which are of the nature of the so-called infectious diseases. Happily nature has provided a remedy. The nitrogenous organic matter dissolved in (say) a river speedily suffers disintegration by the action of certain kinds of bacteria, with formation of ammonia and other (harmless) products; and the ammonia, again, is no sooner formed than, by the conjoint action of other bacteria and atmospheric oxygen, it passes first into (salts of) nitrous and then nitric acid. A water which contains combined nitrogen in the form of nitrates only is, as a rule, safe organically; if nitrates are present it becomes liable to suspicion; the presence of ammonia is a worse symptom; and if actual nitrogenous organic matter is found in water, in the form of ammoniac, the presence of water is possibly (not necessarily) a dangerous water to drink.

All waters, unless very impure, become safe by boiling, which process kills any bacteria or germs that may be present.

Ordinary saline components of waters, soluble magnesia and calcium salts are the only ones which are objectionable sanitorily if present in relatively large proportion. Calcium carbonate is harmless; but, on the other hand, the presence of this component adds to the value of a water as a drinking water is a mistake. The farinaceous part of food alone is sufficient to supply all the lime the body needs; besides, it is questionable whether lime introduced in any other form than that of phosphate is available for the formation of, for instance, bone tissue.

The fitness of a water for washing is determined by its degree of softness. A water which contains lime or magnesium salts decomposes soap with formation of insoluble lime or magnesium salts of the fatty acids of the soap used. So much of the soap is simply wasted; only the surplus can effect any detergent action. Several methods for determining whether a water is soft or not. One of these is the method is to determine the lime and magnesia gravimetrically or by alkalimetry; or by Clark's soap test, but this process frequently gives inaccurate results. In this method, which, however, is largely used by means of a water of a known degree of hardness prepared from a known weight of carbonate of lime by converting it into neutral chloride of calcium, dissolving this in water and diluting to a certain volume. The hardness is variously expressed in terms of parts of lime per gallon of 70,000 grains; in Germany the parts of lime per 100,000 parts of water, and in France the parts of calcium carbonate per 100,000.
WATER-BOATMAN—WATERBURY

On the English scale, a water of 15° and over is hard, between 5° and 15° moderately hard, and of less than 5° soft.

A water of any hardness which is actually owing to carbonate of lime (or magnesia) can easily be removed in two ways. (1) By boiling, the free carbonic acid goes off with the steam, and the carbonate of lime, being bereft of its solvent, comes down as a precipitate, which can be collected, or by filtration, or by decantation, to settle, and decanting off the clear superfluous liquor. (2) A method of Clark's is to mix the water with just enough of milk of lime to convert the free carbonic acid into carbonates, and then, as the solution of lime are precipitated, and can be removed as in the first case.

From any uncontaminated natural water pure water is easily procured.

The specific gravity of distilled water is 1.000, and it must be taken that the steam to be condensed is dry, and if its condensation be effected within a tube made of a suitable metal (platinum or silver are best, but copper or block tin work well enough for ordinary purposes), and the steam is pure, then no impurities excepting moisture, which latter, if necessary, must be removed by boiling the distilled water in a narrow-necked flask until it begins to "bump," and then allowing it to cool in the absence of air. This latter operation ought, strictly speaking, to be performed in a silver or platinum flask, as glass is appreciably attacked by hot water. For most purposes distilled water, taken as it comes from the condenser, is sufficiently pure; the purest water is a matter of great difficulty. Stas, in his stoichiometric researches, mixed water with potassium manganate, and distilled after twenty-four hours; the product being redistilled and condensed in a platinum tube just before it was required.

Pure water, being so easily procured in any quantity, is used largely as a standard of reference in meteorology and in the quantitative determination of other substances. Thus "a gallon" is defined as the volume at 62° F. of a quantity of water whose uncorrected mass, as determined by weighing in air of 30-inch pressure and 62° F. of temperature, is equal to 10 lb avoirdupois. The kilogramme in like manner is the mass of 1 cubic decimetre of water, measured at the temperature corresponding to its maximum density (4° C.). The two fixed points of the thermometer correspond—the lower (0° C., or 32° F.) to the temperature at which ice melts, the upper (100° C., or 212° F.) to that at which the maximum tension of steam, as it rises from boiling water, is equal to 760 mm. or 30-inch mercury pressure, 30 in. being a little more than 760 mm., 212° F., is the temperature of water at 100° C., but the difference is very slight. Specific heats are customarily measured by that of water, which is taken as =1. All other specific heats of liquids or solids (with one exception, formed by a certain quantity of aqueous methyl alcohol) are less than 1. The temperature character of insular climates is greatly owing to this property of water. Another physiographically important peculiarity of water is that it expands on freezing (into ice), while most other liquids do the reverse. 11 volumes of ice fuse into only 10 volumes of water at 0° C.; and the ice-water produced, when brought up gradually to higher and higher temperatures, again exhibits the very exceptional property that it cannot be raised to 100° C. without its volume, and that of its water, expanding again by more and more per degree of increase of temperature, so that the volume at 100° C. is 1.043 times that at 4° C.

In former times water was viewed as an "element," and the notion of the ultimate elements has been important; but the time is past when it had assumed its present meaning, although cases of decomposition of water were familiar to chemists. In Boyle's time it was already well known that iron, tin, and zinc dissolve in aqueous hydrogen, or sulphuric acid with evolution of a stinking inflammable gas. Even Boyle, however, took this gas to be ordinary air contaminated with inflammable stinking oils. This view was held by all chemists until Cavendish, before 1784, showed that the gas referred to, if properly purified, is free of smell and constant in its properties, which are widely different from those of air, the most important point of difference being that the gas when kindled in air burns with a blue light, and that formation of water. Cavendish, however, did not satisfy himself with merely proving this fact qualitatively; he determined the quantitative relations, and found that it takes nearly 1000 volumes of air to burn 425 volumes of the gas. 

Cavendish, in turn, performed repeated experiments of Humboldt and Gay-Lussac, which were much more than Cavendish's to the prove that the surplus of 3 units (473 volumes instead of 400) of hydrogen was an observational error. This was confirmed by the researches of Moreton and Scott, who found that the ratio is not exactly 2.1. The gravimetric composition was determined by Berzelius and Dulong, and later by Dumas by passing gas through gold-plated tubes. It has also been determined by several other variations and methods (see HYDROGEN).

The molecular weight of liquid water has attracted much attention, for it was perceived long ago that its high boiling point, refractive index, and certain other properties were not in agreement with the formula H₂O. Cryoscopic measurements led to the probable formula H₂O₂, whilst the surface tension leads to H₂O₃. The question has been considered by H. E. Armstrong, who suggests that the simple molecule, H₂O, which he calls hydron, condenses in liquid water to form cyclic or chained compounds, containing tetravalent oxygen, resembling in structure the polymethylenes or paraflins.

WATER-BOATMAN, an aquatic hemipterous insect of the family Notonectidae, of which the best known species (Notonecta glauca) is a prominent feature in the pond-life of Great Britain. The technical name, Notonecta, meaning "back-swimmer," alludes to the habit of the insect swimming upside down, the body being propelled through the water by powerful strokes of the hind legs, which are fringed with hair and, when at rest, are extended laterally like a pair of sculls in a boat. As is the case with other water-bugs, this insect is predaceous and feeds upon aquatic grubs or worms. The body is richly supplied with long hairs, which serve to entangle bubbles of air for purposes of respiration. The eggs are laid in the stems of water plants.

WATERBUCK (Waterbok), the name of a large South African antelope (Cobus ellipsiprymnus) belonging to the subfamily Cervicaprinae, characterized by the white elliptical ring on the buttocks, and the general reddish grey colour of the long and coarse hair. They have heavily fringed necks and tufted tails; the bucks carry long sublunate and heavily fringed horns, but the hens are hornless. They seek refuge from pursuit in the water.

The name is extended to include the sing-sing or defassa waterbuck (C. defassa), a widespread species, with the white ring on the buttocks, and represented by several local races, one of which is foxy red while a second is greyish. Both species equal in size the red deer. The smaller members of the genus Cobus (which is exclusively African) are generally known as kobs. (See ANTELOPE.)

WATERBURY, a city and one of the county-seats of New Haven county, Connecticut, U.S.A., since 1900 coextensive with the township of Waterbury, on the Naugatuck river, in the west central part of the state, about 32 m. S.W. of Hartford. Pop. (1900) 51,130, of whom 15,368 were foreign-born (5866 being Irish, 2007 Italian, 1777 French Canadian, 1265 Russian, 1195 French, and 938 English); (1910 census) 73,141. Area 29 sq. m. Waterbury is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and is connected by electric lines with New Haven, Bridgeport, Thomaston, Woodbury and Watertown. It has four public parks (the Green, Chase, Hamilton and Forest), with a total acreage of 86 acres, and a Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument, designed by George E. Bissell. The most important public buildings are the Federal building, the county court house, a state armory, the Silas Bronson Public Library (1870; with an endowment of $20,000 and with 1,500 volumes in 1910), the Odd Fellows Temple, a Y.M.C.A. building and the Buckingham Music Hall (1907); and among the charitable institutions are the Southmayd Home (1898) for aged women, the Waterbury hospital (1809) and the St Mary's hospital (1868). In the city are the St Margaret's Diocesan School for Girls (Protestant Episcopal, 1875), the Waterbury Industrial School and the Academy of Notre Dame (1868). There is good water power here from the Naugatuck river and its tributaries Mad river and Great Brook. In 1905 Waterbury ranked third among the manufacturing cities of Connecticut (being surpassed only by
WATER-DEER—WATERFORD

Bridgeport and New Haven, with a factory product valued at $32,367,359 (67.7% more than in 1900). The most important manufactured are rolled brass and copper (value in 1905, $12,599,726, or 24.3% of the total for the United States), brass-ware (value in 1905, $7,387,228, or 42.2% of the total for the United States), clocks and watches—over a million watches are made here each year—and stamped ware (value in 1905, $1,037,066). The manufacture of brass-ware originated here in 1822, with the making of brass buttons; iron buttons covered with silver were first made here about 1760, block tin and pewter buttons about 1800, bone and ivory buttons about 1812, sheet brass in 1830, and pins and plated metals for daggereotypes in 1842. Old-fashioned tall wooden clocks were made in Waterbury in the latter part of the 18th century, and cheap watches were first made here in 1879; these were long distinctive of Waterbury, and were often called "Waterbury watches." The manufacture of cloth dates from 1814, and broadcloth was first made here in 1835. The city has a large wholesale trade and is a shipping point for dairy products. The municipality owns and operates the waterworks.

The township of Waterbury was incorporated in 1686, having been since its settlement in 1677 a part of Farmington township known as Mattatuck. The city of Waterbury was first chartered in 1853. The city and the township were consolidated in 1901. City elections are held biennially and the mayor, city clerk, treasurer, comptroller, city sheriff and aldermen hold office for two years. With the consent of the Board of Aldermen the mayor appoints five clerks who constitute a department of public works; appoints three electors who with the mayor, comptroller, and president of the Board of Aldermen constitute a department of finance; appoints five electors who with the mayor constitute a department of public safety; and appoints five electors who constitute a department of public health. In 1902 there was a destructive fire in the business district of the city, and during a strike of street railway employees in 1903 state troops were called out to maintain order.

WATER-DEER, a small member of the deer-tribe from northern China differing from all other Cervidae except the musk-deer (with which it has no affinity) by the absence of antlers in both sexes. To compensate for this deficiency, the bucks are armed with long sabre-like upper tusks (see DEER). The species typifies a genus, and is known as Hydraraphus (or Hydraphes) inermis; but a second form has been described from Hankow under the name of H. kreyenbergi, although further evidence as to its claim to distinction is required. Water-deer frequent the neighbourhood of the large Chinese rivers where they crouch amid the reeds and grass in such a manner as to be invisible, even when not completely concealed by the covert. When feeding, they arch their backs and scurry away in a series of short leaps. In captivity as many as thirty have been produced at a birth.

This is one of the few deer in which there are glands neither on the head nor on the skin covering the cannon-bone. These glands probably enable deer to ascertain the whereabouts of their fellows by the scent they leave on the ground and herbage. The sub-aquatic habits of the present species probably render such a function impossible, hence the absence of the glands. The tail is represented by a mere stump. (R. L.)

WATERFALL, a point in the course of a stream or river where the water descends perpendicularly or nearly so. Even a very small stream of water falling from any considerable height is a striking object in scenery. Such falls, of small volume though often of immense depth, are common, for a small stream has not the power to erode a steady slope, and thus at any considerable irregularity of level in its course it forms a fall. In many mountainous districts a stream may descend into the valley of the larger river to which it is tributary by way of a fall, its own valley having been eroded more slowly and less deeply than the main valley. Mechanical considerations apart, the usual cause of the occurrence of a waterfall is a sudden change in geological structure. For example, if there be three horizontal strata, so laid down that a hard stratum occurs between two soft ones, a river will be able to grade its course through the upper or lower soft strata, but not at the same rate through the intermediate hard stratum, over a ledge of which it will consequently fall. The same will occur if the course of the river has been interrupted by a hard barrier, such as an intrusive dyke of basalt, or by glacial or other deposits. Where a river falls over an escarpment of hard rock overlying softer strata, it powerfully erodes the soft rocks at the base of the fall and may undermine the hard rock above so that this is broken away. In this way the river gradually cuts back the point of fall, and a gorge is left below the fall. The classic example of this process is provided by the most famous falls in the world—Niagara.

WATER-FLEA, a name given by the earlier microscopists (Swammerdam, 1669) to certain minute aquatic Crustaceans of the order Cladocera, but often applied also to other members of the division Entomostraca (q.v.). The Cladocera are abundant everywhere in fresh water. One of the commonest species, Daphnia pulex, found in ponds and ditches, is less than onetenth of an inch in length and has the body enclosed in a transparent bivalved shell. The head, projecting in front of the shell, bears a pair of branched feathery antennae which are the chief swimming organs and propel the animal, in a succession of rapid bounds, through the water. There is a single large black eye. In the living animal five pairs of leaf-like limbs acting as gills can be observed in constant motion between the valves of the shell, and the pulsating heart may be seen near the dorsal surface, a little way behind the head. The body ends in a kind of tail with a double curved claw which can be protruded from the shell. The female carries the eggs in a brood chamber between the back of the body and the shell until hatching takes place. Throughout the greater part of the year only females occur and the eggs develop "parthenogenetically" without fertilization. When the small males appear, generally in the summer, they fertilize the eggs or "resting eggs" are produced which are cast adrift in a case of "ephippium" formed by a specially modified part of the shell. These resting eggs enable the race to survive the cold of winter or the drying up of the water.

For a fuller account of the Cladocera and of other organisms which sometimes share with them the name of "water-flea," see the article ENTOMOSTRACA.

(Parker and Havell's Text-Book of Zoology, by permission of Macmillan & Co.)

Daphnia (after Claus).  
E. Antennae.  
th. Brain.  
sh. g. Antenna.  
F. Swimming.  
sh. -g. Brood.  
h. Heart.  
sh. g. Shell-gland.
Mountains, reaching a height of 2504 ft. To the south of Dun- garvan there is a lower but very rugged range, called the Drum Hills. The south-eastern division of the county is for the most part level. Though Waterford benefits in its communications by the important rivers in its vicinity, the only large river it can properly claim as belonging to it is the Blackwater. This river is famous for salmon fishing, and, particularly in the stretch between Cappoquin and Lismore, flows between high, well- wooded banks, contrasting beautifully with the background of mountains. It enters the county east of Fermoy, and flows eastward to Cappoquin, the head of navigation, where it turns abruptly southward, to fall into the sea at Youghal Harbour. Waterford Harbour may be called the estuary of three important rivers, the Suir, the Nore and the Barrow, but neither of the two last touches the county. The Suir reaches it about 8 m. from Cennel, and thence forms its northern boundary with Tipperary and Kilkenny. It is navigable to Cennel, but the traffic lies mainly on the left bank, outside the county.

Geology.—The Knockmealdown Mountains are an anticline of Old Red Sandstone, cut away at the eastern end to expose Silurian strata, which are associated with an extensive series of volcanic and intrusive rocks, often crushed by earth-movement. The impressive Scarpsford Crag near Waterford and Sandhope, an elevation near the town, is called the Comeragh Mountains. The moraine-dammed cirque of Lough Cusshingaun lies in these, with a precipice 1000 ft. in height. The unconformity of the Old Red Sandstone on the Silurian strata is excellently seen on the north bank of the Suir at Waterford. Carboniferous Limestone is found in the floor of the synclines on either side of the great anticline, that is, in the Suir valley on the north, and in the green and richly-wooded valley of the River Blackwater on the south. Rapias and antiformal and synformal strata continue this structure across the country between Dunagarvan and Youghal. Rich copper-mines were worked, mainly in the 19th century, in the Silurian area near Benn- mahon, and the region remains full of mineral promises.

Industries.—The land is generally better adapted for pasturage than for tillage, although there are considerable tracts of rich soil in the county. Wheat and oats are the chief crops of tillage. The production of oats is, however, roughly as 1 to 3, though the acreage under the principal crops of oats, potatoes and turnips is on the whole fairly maintained. The numbers of cattle, sheep and poultry increase steadily, and pigs are extensively reared. The woollen manufacture, except for house use, is practically extinct, but the cotton manufacture is still of some importance. There are also breweries, distilleries and a large number of flour-mills. The valuable deep sea and coast fisheries have distinct headquarters at Waterford, and the exported salmon fisheries of the Suir and Blackwater have theirs at Waterford and Lismore respectively. Railway communication is provided by the Waterford-Dungarvan branch of the Great Southern and Western railway, traversing the county from E. to W.; and by the Waterford and Tramore railway, while the city of Waterford is approached by lines of the first-named company from the N. (from Thomastown) and the latter from Limerick.

Population and Administration.—The population (95,702 in 1831) fell to 92,060 in 1901 and decreases at a rate about equal to the average of the Irish counties, and emigration is considerable. Nearly 95% of the total are Roman Catholics, and about 7% constitute the native population. The chief towns are the city of Waterford (pop. 26,769), Dungarvan (4850), and Lismore (1583); Portlaw and Tramore, and Cappoquin are lesser towns. The county is divided into eight baronies. Down to the Union in 1800 the county returned two members, and the boroughs of Dungarvan, Lismore and Tallow each two. Thereafter, and before the Redistribution Act of 1885, the county returned two members, the boroughs of Waterford two, and Dungarvan one. The county now returns two members, for the east and west divisions respectively, while the county of the city of Waterford returns one member. Assizes are held at Waterford, and quarter sessions at Lismore, Dungarvan, and Waterford. The county is mainly in the Protestant diocese of Ossory, and the Roman Catholic diocese of Waterford and Lismore.

History and Antiquities.—In the 9th century the Danes landed in the district, and afterwards made a permanent settlement. Waterford was one of the twelve counties into which King John is said to have divided that part of Ireland which he nominally annexed to England. One of the first consequences of the convenience of the city as a landing place, many subsequent expeditions passed through the county, directed against disaffected or rebellious tribes. In 1444 the greater part of it was granted to James, earl of Desmond, and in 1447 it was bestowed on John Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, who was created earl of Waterford. The county suffered severely during the Desmond rebellion, in the reign of Elizabeth, as well as in the rebellion of 1641 and during the Cromwellian period. There are in the county a considerable number of barrows, duns, cremlechs and similar relics of the ancient inhabitants. At Ardmore, overlooking the sea from Ram Head, there is a round tower 95 ft. in height, and near it a huge rath and a large number of circular encroachments. Among the old castles special mention may be made of Lismore, originally erected in 1185, but now in great part comparatively modern. The chief ecclesiastical remains are those of the chancel and nave of the cathedral of Ardmore, where a monastery and oratory were founded by St Declan in the 7th century. The see of Ardmore was abolished in the 12th century. Here are also remains of a church and oratory, and a holy well. Mention should be made of the existing monastery of Mount Melleray, a convent of Trappists founded near Cappoquin in 1836, on the expulsion of the Irish members of this order from France. Schools, both free and boarding, are maintained; and there is a branch of the order at Roscrea (Co. Tipperary).

WATERFORD, a city, county of a city, parliamentary borough, seaport, and the chief town of Co. Waterford, Ireland. Pop. (1901) 26,769. It is finely situated on the south bank of the Suir 4 m. above its junction with the Barrow, at the head of the tidal estuary called Waterford Harbour, 111 s. m. S. W. from Dublin by the Great Southern and Western railway. This is the principal railway serving the city, having lines from Dublin and Cork, and also serving the terminals of New Ross, Tramore, Rosslare, Waterford and Cork. Waterford is also, however, the terminus of the Dublin and South-Eastern line from Dublin via New Ross, and for the Waterford and Tramore line, serving the seaside resort of Tramore, 7 m. S. The Suir is crossed by a wooden bridge of thirty-nine arches, and 832 ft. long, connecting Waterford with the suburb of Ferrybank. The city is built chiefly along the banks of the river, occupying for the most part low and level ground except at its western extremity, and excepting the quay and the Mall, which connects with the southern end of the quay, its internal appearance is hardly of a place with the beauty of its environs. The modern Protestant cathedral of the Holy Trinity, generally called Christ Church, a plain structure with a lofty spire, occupies the site of the church built by the Danes in 1066, in the Mall. Near it are the episcopal palace and deanery. There is a handsome Roman Catholic cathedral, and the training seminary for priests called St John's College deserves notice. The principal secular buildings are the town-hall, the county and city courts and prisons, the custom-house and the barracks. At the extremity of the quay is a large circular tower, called Reginald's Tower, forming at one time a portion of the city walls, and occupying the site of the tower built by Reginald the Dane in 1093. Near the summit one of the balls shot from the cannon of Cromwell while besieging the city is still embedded in the wall. Other remains of the fortifications, consisting of towers and bastions, are to be seen as in the Tramore railway sidings and in Castle Street. There are a number of hospitals and similar benevolent institutions, including the leper house founded in the reign of King John, now used practically as an infirmary. The town possesses breweries, saltn- houses, foundries and flour-mills; and there is a large export trade in cattle, sheep and pigs, and in agricultural produce. It is the headquarters of extensive salmon fisheries. Waterford is second in importance to Cork among the ports of the south coast of Ireland. There is regular communication by steamer with Cork, with Dublin and Belfast, with Fishguard, Glasgow, Liverpool, Bristol, Plymouth, Southampton, London and other ports. Local steamers ply to Duncannon, New Ross and other places on the neighbouring estuaries. Waterford Harbour is a windsing and well-sheltered bay formed by the estuary of the river Suir, and afterwards by the joint estuary of the Nore and Barrow. Its length to the sea is about 15 m. Its entrance is 3 m. wide, and is lighted by a fixed light
WATERFORD—WATERHOUSE, J. W.

on the ancient donjon of Hook Tower (130 ft. in height) and others. The quay, at which there is a depth of 22 ft. of water at low tide, was enlarged in 1705 by the removal of the city walls, and is about 1½ m. in length. At Ferrybank, on the Kilkenny side of the river, there is a shipbuilding yard with patent slip and graving dock. By the Suir there is navigation for barges to Clonmel, and for sailing vessels to Carrick-on-Suir; by the Barrow for sailing vessels to New Ross and thence for barges to Athy, and so to Dublin by a branch of the Grand Canal; and by the Nore for barges to Inistioge. The shores of the harbour are picturesque and well-wooded, studded with country residences and waterside villages of which Cuffesgrange and Duncannon are popular resorts of the citizens of Waterford.

Anciently Waterford was called Cuan-na-groith, the haven of the sun. By early writers it was named Menapia. It is supposed to have existed in very early times, but first acquired importance under the Danes, of whom it remained one of the principal strongholds until its capture by Strongbow in 1171. On the 18th of October 1172 Henry II. landed near Waterford, and here received the hostages of the people of Munster. It became a cathedral city in 1166. The Protestant dioceses of Cashel, Elphin, and Limerick were lost there, and its cathedral became that of John, afterwards king of England, who had been declared lord of Ireland in 1177, landed at Waterford in 1185. After ascending the English throne he granted it a fair in 1204, and in 1206 a charter of incorporation. He landed at Waterford in 1210, in order to establish within his nominal territories in Ireland a more distinct form of government. The city received a new charter from Henry III. in 1232. Richard II. landed at Waterford in October 1394 and again in 1399. In 1447 it was granted by Henry VI. to John Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, who was created earl of Pembroke in 1461. In 1447 it successfully resisted an attempt of Perkin Warbeck to capture it, in recognition of which it received various privileges from Henry VII., who gave it the title of urbs intacta. In 1603, after the accession of James I. to the English crown, the city, along with Cork, took a prominent part in opposition to the government and to the Protestant religion, but on the approach of Mountjoy it formally submitted. From this time, however, the magistrates whom it elected refused to take the oath of supremacy, and, as by its charter it possessed the right to refuse admission to the king’s judges, and therefore to dispense with the right of holding assizes, a rule was obtained in the Irish law courts for the seizure of its charter, which was carried into effect in 1618. In 1610 an attempt was made to induce Bristol merchants to settle in the city and undertake its government, but no one would respond to the invitation, and in 1626 the charter was restored. The city was unsuccessfully attacked by Cromwell in 1649, but surrendered to Ireton on the 10th of August 1650. After the battle of the Boyne James II. embarked at it for France (July 1690). Shortly afterwards it surrendered to William, who sailed from it to England. It sent two members to parliament from 1574 to 1855, when the number was reduced to one. In 1808 it was constituted one of the six county boroughs having separate county councils.

WATERFORD, a village of Saratoga county, New York, U.S.A., on the W. bank of the Hudson river, near the mouth of the Mohawk river, and about 10 m. N. of Albany. Pop. (1900) 3146, of whom 474 were foreign-born; (1905) 3134; (1910) 3245. Waterford is served by the Delaware & Hudson railway, and is at the junction of the Erie and the Champlain divisions of the great barge canal connecting Lake Erie and Lake Champlain. There was a settlement here probably as early as 1630, and Waterford was laid out in 1784, and was incorporated as a village in 1794.

WATERHOUSE, ALFRED (1830-1905), English architect, was born at Liverpool on the 10th of July 1830, and passed his professional pupilage under Richard Lane in Manchester. His earliest commissions were of a domestic nature, but his position as a designer of public buildings was assured as early as 1859 by success in the open competition for the Manchester assize courts. This work marked him not only as an adept in the planning of a complicated building on a large scale, but also as a champion of the Gothic cause. Nine years later, in 1868, another competition secured for Waterhouse the execution of the Manchester town-hall, where he was able to show a firmer and perhaps more original handling of the Gothic manner. The same year brought him the rebuilding of part of Caius College, Cambridge, not his first university work, for Balliol, Oxford, had been put into his hands in 1867. At Caius, out of deference to the Renaissance treatment of the older parts of the college, the Gothic element was intentionally mingled with classic detail, while Balliol and Pembroke, Cambridge, which followed in 1871, may be looked upon as typical specimens of the style of his mid career—Gothic with a touch of the Italian Renaissance. In Bury St. Edmunds, there were again marked attempts at form and design and adaptation to modern needs. Girton College, Cambridge, a building of simpler type, dates originally from the same period (1870), but has been periodically enlarged by further buildings. Two important domestic works were undertaken in 1870 and 1871 respectively—Eaton Hall for the duke, then marquis, of Westminster, and Heythrop Hall, Oxfordshire, the latter, a restoration, being of a fairly strict classic type. Iwerne Minster for Lord Wolverton was begun in 1877. In 1865 Waterhouse had removed his practice from Manchester to London, and in 1870, when he was appointed architect to the Royal Courts of Justice. He received from the government, without competition, the commission to build the Natural History Museum, South Kensington, a design which marks an epoch in the modern use of terra-cotta. The new University Club—a Gothic design—was undertaken in 1866, to be followed nearly twenty years later by the National Liberal Club, a study in Renaissance composition. Waterhouse's series of works for Victoria University, of which he was made LL.D. in 1890, dated from 1870, when he was first engaged on Owens College, Manchester; the St. Peter's Ferrybank, was begun in 1879, and Liverpool University College in 1885. St. Paul's School, Hammersmith, was begun in 1881, and in the same year the Central Technical College in Exhibition Road, London. Waterhouse's chief remaining works in London are the new Prudential Assurance Company's offices in Holborn; the new University College Hospital; the National Provincial Bank, Piccadilly, 1892; the Surveyors' Institution, Great George Street, 1896; and the Jenner Institute of Preventive Medicine, Chelsea, 1893. For the Prudential Company he designed many provincial branch offices, while for the Canadian Bank he also designed premises at Manchester. The Liverpool Institute, Waterhouse's largest hospital; and St. Mary's Hospital, Manchester, the Alexandra Hospital, Rhyll, and extensive additions at the general hospital, Nottingham, also engaged him. Among works not already mentioned are the Salford gaol; St Margaret's School, Bushley; the Metropole Hotel, Brighton; Hove town-hall; Alloa town-hall; St Elizabeth's church, Reddish; the Weigh House chapel, Mayfair; and Hutton Hall, Yorks. He died on the 22nd of August, 1905.

Waterhouse became a fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects in 1861, and president from 1888 to 1901. He obtained a grand prix for architecture at the Paris Exposition of 1867, and a Rappel in 1876. In the same year he received the Royal Gold Medal of the Royal Institute of British Architects, and was made an associate of the Royal Academy, of which body he became a full member in 1885 and treasurer in 1898. He became a member of the academies of Vienna (1886), Brussels (1886), Antwerp (1887), Milan (1888) and Berlin (1889), and a corresponding member of the Institut de France (1893). After 1886 he was constantly called upon to act as assessor in architectural competitions, and was a member of the international jury appointed to judge the designs for the west front of Milan Cathedral in 1887. In 1890 he served as architectural member of the Royal Commission on the proposed enlargement of Westminster Abbey as a place of burial. From 1891 to 1902 his work was conducted in partnership with his son, Paul Waterhouse.

WATERHOUSE, JOHN WILLIAM (1847— ), English painter, was the son of an artist, by whom he was mainly trained. As a figure-painter he shows in his work much imaginative power and a very personal style, and his pictures are for the most part illustrations of classic myths treated with attractive fantasy. An able draughtsman and a fine colourist, he must be ranked among the best artists of the British school. He was
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elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1885 and academ-


WATER-LILY, a name somewhat vaguely given to almost any floating plant with conspicuous flowers, but applying more especially to the species of Nymphaea, Nuphar, and other members of the order Nymphaeaceae. These are aquatic plants with thick fleshy rootstocks or tubers embedded in the mud, and throwing up to the surface circular shield-like leaves, and leafless flower-stalks, each terminated by a single flower, often of great beauty, and consisting of four segments, Carpals, and numerous oval or round petals, clasping into the very numerous stamens without any definite line of demarcation between them. The ovary consists of numerous carpels united together and free, or more or less embedded in the top of the flower-stalk. The ovary has many cavities with a large number of ova exclusively attached to its walls, and is surmounted by a flat stigma of many radiating rows as in a poppy. The fruit is berry-like, and the seeds are remarkable for having their embryo surrounded by an endosperm as well as by a perisperm. The anatomical construction of these plants presents many peculiarities. There is, in the distribution of the flowers, a notable alternation of the order among the dicotyledons or among the monocotyledons, the general balance of opinion being in favour of the former view. The leaf-stalks and flower-stalks are traversed by longitudinal air-passages, whose disposition varies in different species. The species of Nymphaea are found in every quarter of the globe. Their flowers range from white to rose-coloured, yellow and blue. Some expand in the evening only, others close soon after noon. Nymphaea alba (Castalia alba) is common in some parts of Britain, as is also the yellow Nuphar luteum (Nymphaea lutea). The seeds and the rhizomes contain an abundance of starch, which renders them serviceable in some places for food.

Of recent years great strides have been made in the culture of new varieties of water-lilies in the open air. Many beautiful Nymphaea hybrids have been raised between the tender and hardy varieties of different colours, and there are now in commerce lovely forms having not only white, but also yellow, rose, pink and carmine flowers. In many gardens open-air tanks have been fitted up with hot-water pipes running through them to keep the water sufficiently warm in severe weather. Open-air tanks in the Royal Gardens, Kew, is one of the latest and most up-to-date in construction. These coloured hybrids were originated by M. Latour Marliac, of Temple-sur-Lot, France, some of the most favoured varieties being carnea, chromo-
tella, flavomea, ignea, rosea, Robisoni, Aurora, blanda, &c.

Amongst hardy species of Nymphaea now much grown are candida, nuda, odorata, pygmaea and tuberosa, all with white, more or less sweet-scented flowers; flavo, yellow, and sphaerocephala, rose-carmine. Amongst the tender or hothouse Nymphaea the following are most noted: blando, white; devoennis, scarlet (a hybrid between N. Lotus and N. rubra); alba, white; elegans, yellowish white and purple; gigantes, blue; kemensis, rose-carmine (a hybrid between N. devoennis and N. Lotus); Lotus, red, white; pubescens, white; scutio, bright blue; stellata, blue, with several varieties; and Sundara, rose-carmine, Chiefs of the ancient Egyptian and Arabian empires, and the Roman emperors, were all fond of the lotus. It is still cultivated in Egypt and the Levant, as a means of purifying the body and the mind. Under the general head of water-lily are included the lotus of Egypt, Nymphaea lotus, and the sacred lotus of India and China, Nelumbium speciosum, formerly a native of the Nile, as shown by Egyptian sculptures and other evidence, but no longer found in that river. The gigantic Victoria regia, with leaves 6 to 7 ft. in diameter and flowers 8 to 16 in. across, also belongs to this group. It grows in the backwaters of the Amazon, often covering the surface for miles; the seeds are eaten under the name water maize.

WATERLOO, a city and the county-seat of Black Hawk county, Iowa, U.S.A., on the Cedar river, about 90 m. W. of Dubuque and about 275 m. W. of Chicago. Pop. (1890) 6,674; (1900) 12,880, of whom 13,311 were foreign-born; (1910) census 26,093. It is served by the Illinois Central (which has large connecting lines) and the Missouri, Kansas & Pacific, the Chicago Great Western, and the Waterloo, Cedar Falls & Northern (from Cedar Falls to Sumner) railways. The city has several public parks, a public library (1879) with two buildings, a Y.M.C.A. building, and a good public school system, including a manual training school. There is a Chauteau park. The river here is 700 to 900 ft. wide; its clear water flows over a limestone bed through a rather evenly sloping valley in the middle of the city with enough fall to furnish valuable water power. The value of the factory product in 1905 was $6,000,000. The city is situated in a highly fertile and productive region, and is an important shipping point. Waterloo was first settled about 1846, was laid out in 1854, first chartered as a city in 1868, and became a city of the first class in 1895.

WATERLOO CAMPAIGN, 1815. On February 27, 1815, Napoleon set sail from Elba with his force of 1000 men and 4 guns, determined to reconquer the throne of France. On March 1 he landed near Cannes, and proceeded at once to march on Paris. He deliberately chose the difficult route over the Alps, and further, his recognition that his opponents would neither expect him by this route nor be able to concert combined operations in time to thwart him. Events proved the wisdom of his choice. He advanced to Paris was a series of triumphs, his power waxing with every league he covered, and when he reached Paris the Bourbons had fled. But he had soon to turn his attention to war. His sudden return, far from widening the breaches between the allies, had fused them indissolubly together, and the four powers bound themselves to put 150,000 men apiece under arms and to maintain them in the field until Napoleon had been utterly crushed. So, from the first, France was engaged in another war against an affrighted and infatuated Europe, a war in which the big battalions would be on the side of the Seventh Coalition; and to oppose their vast armies Napoleon only had in March the 150,000 men he had taken over from Louis XVIII. when the Bourbon hurriedly quitted the throne. Of this force the emperor could have drawn together some 50,000 men within ten days and struck straight at the small allied forces that were in Belgium at the moment. But he wisely refrained from taking the immediate offensive. Such an act would have proved that he desired, nay provoked a war; and further, the engagement of such small forces could lead to no decisive results. Napoleon therefore stayed his hand and proceeded to hasten forward the organization, almost the creation of an army, with which he could confront the coalition. Meanwhile he sought to detach Great Britain and Austria from the alliance. But he did not permit his political enterprise to stay his military preparations; and, by constant attention to the minutest details, by June 1 he had got together an army of 360,000 for the defence of France, one half of which was available for field service. In this army were 36,000 French and 25,000 German soldiers; for he had no allies. On his return from Elba it is true that Murat, the king of Naples, took his side; but recklessly opening an offensive campaign, Murat was beaten at Tolentino (May 2-3), and he found himself compelled to fly in disguise to France, where the emperor refused him an audience or employment. Herein Napoleon wronged France, for he deprived her of the most brilliant cavalry soldier of the period. Shorn thus of his single ally, the emperor realized that the whole eastern land-frontier of France was open to invasion, from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. By the end of May he had placed his forces as follows to protect his empire:

- D'Erlon's I. Corps cantonated between Lille and Valenciennes.
- Reille's II. Corps cantonated between Valenciennes and Avesnes.
- Vandamme's III. Corps cantonated around Royen.
- Bernadotte's IV. Corps cantonated at Metz.
- Lobau's VI. Corps cantonated at Laon.
- Grouchy's Cavalry Reserve at Guise.
- Marshal Mortier with the Imperial Guard at Paris.
- Rapp with the V. Corps (25,000) near Strassburg.

18,500 more troops under Suchet, Brune and Lecourbe guarded the S.E. frontier from Basel to Nice, and covered Lyons; 3000 men under Clausel and Desaix guarded the Pyrenean frontier; whilst Lamarque led 10,000 men into La Vendée to quell the insurrection in that quarter. In 1815 Napoleon was not supported by a united and unanimous France; the country
was weakened by internal dissensions at the very moment when it was needful to put every man in line to meet the rising tide of invasion surging against the long curving eastern frontier.

Napoleon now pondered over his plan of campaign. In Belgium, across an almost open frontier, lay an ever-increasing force of Anglo-Dutch and Prussian troops under Wellington and Blücher. The Rhine frontier was threatened by Schwarzenberg's Austrians (270,000); Barclay de Tolly's Russians (150,000) were slowly coming up; and another Austrian force menaced the S.E. frontier of France. The allies determined that they would wage a war without risks, and they were particularly anxious to avoid the risk of defeat in detail. It was accordingly arranged that Wellington and Blücher should await in Belgium the arrival of the Austrian and Russian masses on the Rhine, about July 1, before the general invasion of France was begun. Thereafter, whatever befell, the allied armies would resolutely press forward towards Paris, affording each other mutual support, and with the tremendous weight of troops at their disposal thrust back Napoleon upon his capital, force him to fight in front of it, and drive him when defeated within its works. The end would then be in sight. Thus they had planned the campaign, but Napoleon forestalled them. In fact, the threatening danger forced his hand and compelled him to strike before he had collected a sufficient army for his defensive needs. Consequently he determined to advance swiftly and secretly against Wellington and Blücher, whose forces, as Napoleon knew, were dispersed over the country of their unenthusiastic ally. Thus he designed to crush a part of the coalition before the Russians and Austrians poured over the eastern frontier. Once Wellington and Blücher were destroyed he would move southwards and meet the other allies on the Rhine. He might thus compensate for his numerical inferiority by superior mobility and superior leadership.

His information showed that Wellington held the western half of Belgium from the Brussels-Charleroi road to the Scheldt, that his base of operations was Ostend, and that his headquarters were at Brussels. Blücher, based on the Rhine at Coblenz, held the eastern half from the Brussels-Charleroi road to the Meuse, and had his headquarters at Namur. The emperor was convinced that nothing could be gained by invading Belgium from the S.E. or W.; such a stroke would surely drive the allies together, and that was never Napoleon's plan. On the other hand, if he struck straight at Charleroi—the allied junction point—he would drive the "Armée du Nord" like an armoured wedge between the allies, if only he caught them unsuspecting and unready. Forced asunder at the outset, each would (in all probability) fall back along his own line of communication, and the gap thus made between the allies would enable the emperor to manoeuvre between them and defeat them in turn. To gain the best chance of success he would have to concentrate his whole army almost within gunshot of the centre of the enemies' outposts without attracting their attention; otherwise he would lose the allies concentrated and waiting for him.

Wellington and Blücher were disposed as follows in the early days of June (Map I). The Anglo-Dutch army of 93,000 with headquarters at Brussels were cantoned: I. Corps (Prince of Orange), 30,200, headquarters Braine-le-Comte, disposed in the area Enghien-Genappe-Mons; II. Corps (Lord Hill), 27,300, headquarters Ath, distributed in the area Ath-Oudenarde-Ghent; reserve cavalry (Lord Uxbridge) 9000, in the valley of the Dendre river, between Grammont and Ninove; the reserve (under Wellington himself) 25,000, lay around Brussels. The frontier in front of Leuze and Binche was watched by the Dutch-Belgian light cavalry.
The opposing armies were of very different quality. Wellington's was a collection of many nationalities; the kernel being composed of his trusty and tenacious British and King's German Legion troops, numbering only 42,000 men. Of the remainder many were far from enthusiastic in the cause for which they had perforce to take up arms, and might prove a source of weakness should victory incline to the French eagles. Blücher's army was undoubtedly more homogeneous, and though it is doubtful if possibly any two corps of Wellington's were the best of the rest, on the other hand he had no specially weak elements.

Napoleon was at the head of a veteran army of Frenchmen, who worshipped their leader and were willing to die for France if necessity demanded. But there were lines of weakness, too, in his army. He had left Marshal Davout behind in Paris, and Murat in disgrace; Suchet was far off on the eastern frontier, and Clausewitz was in the south of France. The political reasons for these arrangements may have been cogent, but they injured France at the very outset. Marshal Soult was appointed chief of the staff, a post for which he possessed very few qualifications; and, when the campaign began, command of the left and right wings had perforce to be given to the only two marshals available, Ney and Grouchy, who did not possess the ability or strategic skill necessary for such positions. Again, the army was morally weakened by a haunting dread of treason, and some of the chiefs, Ney for example, took up the field with disturbing visions of the consequences of their late betrayal of the Bourbon cause, in case of Napoleon's defeat. Finally, the army was too small for its object. Herein Napoleon showed that he was no longer the Napoleon of Austerlitz; for he left locked up in far-distant secondary theatres 26,000 men, of whom he had collected some 30,000 to 36,000 for the decisive campaign in Belgium. Had he made in 1813 the wise distribution of his soldiers in the theatre of war which he made in his former immortal campaigns, he would have concentrated 155,000 to 160,000 of his available force opposite to Charleroi on June 14, and the issue of the campaign would hardly have been in doubt. But he failed to do so, and by taking the field with such inferior numbers he left too much to Fortune.

For his advance into Belgium in 1815 Napoleon divided his army into two wings and a reserve. As the foe would lie away to his right and left after he had passed the Sambre, one wing and a reserve would be pushed up towards Wellington and another towards Blücher; whilst the mass of the reserve would be centrally placed so as to strike on either side, as soon as a force of the enemy worth destroying was encountered and gripped. To this end he had, on the 14th, massed his left wing (Reille and D'Erlon) around Solre, and his right wing (Gérard) at Philippeville; whilst the central mass (Vandamme, Lobau, the Guard and the Cavalry Reserve) lay around Beaumont.

The orders for the French advance next day, among the finest ever issued, directed that the army should march at dawn and move to the Sambre at Marchienne and Charleroi. By evening it was expected that the whole would have crossed the Sambre, and would bivouac between the sunned allies. But at the very outset delays occurred. Owing to an accident that befell the single orderly despatched with orders for Vandamme, the III. Corps remained without other definite orders than those issued on June 13, warning them to be ready to move at 3 A.M. The corps therefore stood fast on the morning of June 15, awaiting further instructions. This was the more unfortunate as Vandamme was destined to lead the advance on Marchienne by the centre road. But the emperor regarded it merely as "an unfortunate accident," nothing more, and the advance in two wings and a reserve continued, undisturbed by such occurrences. Gérard, too, was late in starting, for his corps had not been fully concentrated over-night. Zieten's outposts on the right bank of the Sambre gained still further time, for they fought stubbornly to retard the French advance on Marchienne and Charleroi. But Zieten declined, and very wisely, to fight on the right bank, and he made the most of the screen afforded by the little river. He had to delay the French advance for 24 hours.
and give time for Blücher's concentration, at the same time retaining his own freedom of manœuvre, and this in spite of the great length of the summer day, the short distance that he lay in front of Fleurus, the tremendous numerical superiority of the French and Napoleon's personal presence at their head. When the French left wing and centre reached the Sambre bridges, Marchiennes and Charleroi, they found them held and strongly barricaded, and the cavalry were powerless to force the passage, and forced to remain behind only to reconnoitre the enemy's position in front of the Young Guard, whom he had personally hurried forward. He immediately took action, and under his direction the bridge at Charleroi was stormed shortly after noon. Almost at the same time Reille forced the passage at Marchiennes. Instead of drawing his corps together and retreating en masse up the Fleurus road, Zieten wisely withdrew on two roads, using those to Quatre Bras and Fleurus. The defenders of Marchiennes used the former, while the brigade which had held Charleroi fell back by the latter. The emperor at once began the advance along both the roads. The left wing went up the Gosselies-Quatre Bras road, and Pajol's cavalry followed the Prussians who retired along the Gilly-Fleurus road. The emperor took post at Charleroi. About 3 P.M. Marshal Ney joined the army, was given the command of the left wing, and ordered to drive the Prussians out of Gosselies, and clear the road northward of that place. Ney took over his command just when the attack on Gosselies was impending. The Prussians were driven from the town, but they managed to effect a roundabout retreat to Ligny, where they rallied. Ney pushed on his advance up the Brussels road. When he had left the front, the emperor proposed to Ney to recommend the Prussian position at Gilly; and handing over the command of the right wing to the marshal, whom he ordered to capture Gilly, Napoleon returned to Charleroi, to hasten the passage of the French army across the Sambre and mass it in the gap between the allies. But the head of Vandamme's corps had by this time crossed the river, and the emperor ordered it to assist Grouchy.

What meanwhile were the allies doing? There is no doubt that, surprised by the suddenness of the French advance, they were caught unprepared. But on the 15th the critical nature of the situation dawned on them, and naturally on Blücher first, as his headquarters were nearer to the frontier than Wellington's, and Blücher had had previous experience of Napoleon's powers. As soon as the Prussian marshal got the first real warning of imminent danger, he ordered (in accordance with the pre-arranged plan) an immediate concentration of his army on his inner flank at Sombreffe. Unfortunately for him the first orders sent to Bülow by Gneisenau, chief of the staff, at midnight June 14-15, were written in so stilted and hazy a style that Bülow did not consider any special display of energy was required. Hence the IV. Corps was not in the field after the 16th. The other two corps commanders (Pirch I. and Thielmann) received clearer orders, and acted promptly enough. They concentrated their scattered men and hastened to march to the appointed rendezvous. By nightfall Pirch I. had bivouacked the II. Corps at Mazy, only 4 m. short of Sombreffe, and Thielmann and the III. Corps had reached Namur, within easy distance of the Ligny battleground. Blücher wisely shifted his own headquarters to Sombreffe on the afternoon of the 15th.

Wellington's position at nightfall was very different, and can hardly be termed safe or even satisfactory. Definite news of the French advance only reached Brussels about 3 P.M. on the 15th; and even then the duke was by no means certain of the direction of Napoleon's main stroke. Hence the first orders he issued were for his divisions to concentrate at their respective alarm-posts, intending later to send them further orders when the situation had somewhat cleared up. For whatever reasons, Wellington thought Napoleon would attempt to turn his right and cut his line of communications. Had Napoleon attempted this he would (if successful) have driven the Anglo-Dutch army back from the Prussians, instead of separating the allies, as he actually tried to do but very nearly succeeded in doing. Failing to appreciate this fully, Wellington omitted to order an immediate concentration on his inner (left) flank as Blücher had done, and the danger of Blücher's position was thus enormously increased. Curiously enough, the allies do not appear to have decided upon the course to be taken in case they were surprised, as they virtually were, and their system of intercommunication—if system it can be called—was most imperfect. They ought to have arranged loyally and promptly to let each other know every move it was proposed to make and the reasons for moving, for not only was Blücher's advance a surprise, but there was a general opinion that the French forces were not large enough or strong enough to make a decisive action. Wellington was not aware of this belief, nor was it shared by him.

Wellington's subordinates at the critical point, however, acted with admirable boldness. Prince Bernard, in command of a brigade at Quatre Bras and Frasnes, recognizing the pressing danger that threatened on the Brussels road, retained his position there to check the French advance, instead of driving off westwards and massing with the rest of his division at Nivelles; and in this action he was firmly supported by his immediate superior. It was due to their presence of mind that Wellington maintained his hold on the important strategic point of Quatre Bras on June 15 and 16. Consequently, as Ney's wing advanced northward from Gosselies along the Brussels road, it came upon an advanced detachment of this force at Frasnes. The detachment was quickly forced to retire on its supports at the cross-roads, but here Prince Bernard firmly held his position; and by his skilful use of cover and the high standing corn he prevented the French gauging the weakness of the small force that barred their way. The day was now drawing to a close, and Ney decided wisely not to push his advance any farther. He was in truth in a force of untrained strength which appeared resolved still to stand its ground, his men were tired, and the cannon-thunder to his right rear proclaimed clearly that Grouchy had not made much headway on the Fleurus road. To push on farther might isolate the left wing among a host of allies. He therefore halted his command, and, later, made a report to the emperor.

Meanwhile two long hours had been wasted on the right whilst Grouchy and Vandamme deliberated over their plan of action in front of the Prussian brigades at Gilly; and it was not until the emperor himself again reached the front, about 5.30 P.M., that vigour replaced indecision. There was a brief bombardment, and then Vandamme's corps was sent forward with the boyau to drive out the foe. The shock was too great; the Prussians gave way immediately and were chased back into the woods by cavalry. Grouchy now pushed on towards Fleurus, which was still held by Blücher's troops, and there the advance came to a halt, as the light was failing and the troops exhausted.

Thus, thanks to Zieten's fine delaying action, Blücher by nightfall on June 15 had secured most of the ground requisite for his pre-arranged concentration; for one corps was in position, and two others were at hand. Bülow's corps was unavailable, for the reason already given, but of this fact Blücher was still necessarily ignorant. Wellington, owing to his original dispositions and the slowness of his concentration, had only retained a grip on Quatre Bras thanks to the boldness of his subordinates on the spot. His other troops were assembling: I. Corps, Nivelles, Braine-le-Comte and Enghien; II. Corps, Ath, Grammont and Sotteghem; heavy cavalry at Ninove; Reserve at Brussels. During the night of the 15th orders were sent for the divisions to move eastwards towards Nivelles, and at dawn the Reserve marched for Mt. S. Jean. Thus Wellington did not even yet realize the full significance of the emperor's opening move.

But if the intelligence which the duke rightly relied on had come to hand on the 15th, it cannot be doubted that he would have effected a more expeditious concentration on his inner flank. His trusted intelligence officer, Colonel Colquhoun Grant, was at this time in France, and it had been arranged that his reports should be received at the duke's outposts by General Dörnberg, for transmission to the duke. On June 15 Grant wrote to Wellington stating that the French were advancing, and that French officers spoke freely about a decisive action being fought within three days. But Dörnberg, arrogating to himself the right
of selecting the reports which were worth forwarding, sent it back, saying that, so far from convincing him that the emperor was advancing to give battle, it assured him of the contrary. Owing to this officer's presumptuous folly, the Grant's information only reached the duke on June 18, too late to be of use.

The Army of the North on this night was disposed as follows:—The left wing stretched from Frasnes back to the Sambre at Marchienne and Thuin. Reille's corps was to the front and was covered by the light cavalry of the Guard and Pirlé's lancers. Ney's headquarters were at Gosselies; one division (Girard's) was at Wangenies and acted as a link between the two wings. The right wing, under Grouchy, had come to a halt in front of Flers. It was covered by Fajol's and Exelmans' cavalry corps. Vandamme's was the leading infantry corps, and it hivedacked with its head at Winage. Gérard's corps (with which was Kellermann's cuirassier corps) halted astride the Sambre at Chatelet. Gérard's advance had been delayed owing to the commander of his leading division deserting with his staff to the Prussians. Consequently the IV. Corps had not assisted at all in the passage of the river; though it had only been present, it would have been magnificently placed to co-operate with Grouchy in the action of Gilly. Thus each of these strategical covering forces was itself protected by an adequate tactical and guard framework as protection for local protection. The centre (or reserve) was meanwhile disposed as follows: The Guard was bivouacked between Gilly and Charleroi; the emperor's headquarters being at the latter place. Milhaud's Cuirassier corps and Lobau's (VI.) corps were south of the Sambre, between Charleroi and Jamioux. In this particular the execution on June 15 fell short of the original conception, for at nightfall about one-third of the French army was still on the right bank of the river. This, however, signified little, for the emperor still occupied a dominant strategical position.

Napoleon had now perfected his arrangements for the invasion of Belgium, and his army was organized definitely in two wings and a reserve; the latter being so placed that it could be brought "into action on either wing as circumstances dictated." As circumstances dictated, either wing would fasten upon one of the allied armies and detain it until the reserve had time to come up and complete its destruction; the other wing meantime detaining the other allied army and preventing its commander from coming to his colleague's assistance. The emperor was not in possession of the Namur-Nivelles road. The allies were thus afforded an opportunity of combusting the very blunder which Napoleon looked for, namely to force a gap at a risky point of concentration. His dispositions on the night of the 15th-16th were skillfully calculated to encourage the allies to mass at Quatre Bras and Sommelle, and his covering force were pushed sufficiently forward—to Frasnes and Fleurus—to grip whichever way Napoleon had ventured his army first. At nightfall the Army of the North lay concentrated in a square whose sides measured 12 m. each; and it could with equal facility swing against the Prussians or the Angle-Dutch, and was already placed between them.

Early on the morning of June 16 Prince Blücher was reinforced at Quatre Bras by the rest of his division (Perponcher's) and Wellington's other troops were now all on the march eastward except the reserve, who were heading southwards and halted at the cross-road of Mt. S. Jean until the duke had resolved that their objective should be Quatre Bras. They then marched in that direction. Blücher meanwhile was making his arrangements to hold a position to the south of the Namur-Nivelles road and thus maintain uninterrupted communication with Wellington at Quatre Bras. In this way he would keep open the Namur road, and so threaten Napoleon's army.

Napoleon spent the early morning in closing up his army, and writing what proved to be the most important letter of the campaign to Ney (Charleroi, about 8 A.M.): "I have adopted as the general principle for this campaign to divide my army into two wings and a reserve. . . The Guard will form the reserve, and I shall bring it into action on either wing just as circumstances dictate. . . According to circumstances I shall weaken one wing to strengthen my reserve. . ." Here, in its simplest form, is the principle that underlies Napoleon's strategy in 1815. Only on the wing on which the reserve is brought into action will a decisive result be aimed at. The other is to be used exclusively to neutralize the other enemy, by holding him at bay.

Napoleon's original plan for the 16th was based on the assumption that the allies, who had been caught napping, would not attempt a risky forward concentration; and he intended therefore to push an advanced guard as far as Gembloux, for the purpose of 'giving a feel down' and forcing Blücher. To assist this operation the reserve would move at first to Fleurus to reinforce Grouchy, should he need assistance in driving back Blücher's troops; but, once in possession of Sommere, the emperor would swing the reserve westwards and join Ney, who it was supposed, would have in the meantime mastered Quatre Bras. In pursuance of this object Ney, to whom Kellermann was named to command, was to mass at Quatre Bras and push an advanced guard 6 m. northward of that place, with a connecting division at Marbais to link him with Grouchy. The centre and left wing together would then make a night-march to Brussels. The allies would thus be irretrievably sanded, and all that remained would be to destroy them in detail. Napoleon now awaited further information from his wing commanders at Charleroi, where he massed the VI. Corps (Lobau), to save, if possible, from a massacre. He considered it probable that it would only be wanted for the march to Brussels. Ney sent the morning in massing his two corps, and in reconnoitering the enemy at Quatre Bras, who, as he was informed, had been reinforced. But up till noon he took no serious step to capture the cross-roads, which then lay at his mercy. Grouchy meantime reported from Fleurus that Prussian masses were coming up from Namur, but Napoleon does not appear to have attached much importance to this report. He was still at Charleroi when, between 9 and 10 A.M., further news reached him from Lobau that considerable forces were visible at Quatre Bras. He at once wrote to Ney saying that a battle was on, there were to be some of Wellington's troops, and that Ney was to concentrate his force and crush what was in front of him, adding that he was to send all reports to Fleurus. Then, keeping Lobau provisionally at Charleroi, Napoleon hastened to Fleurus, arriving about 11. He found that Grouchy had made little progress beyond the town. As he surveyed the field from the windmill north of Fleurus it struck him as significant that Blücher's troops were disposed parallel to the Namur road, as if to cover a forward concentration, and not at right angles to it, as the French had done. Still, at that moment, only one corps was showing. Possibly, however, the decisive day of the campaign had come. By the emperor's arrangements Vandamme, Gérard, Fajol and Exelmans would be available after 2 P.M. to attack whatever force Blücher might command, and the Guard and Milhaud would be at hand to act as reserve. The wonder is that he did not now order Lobau to move to some intermediate position, such as Wangenies, where he would be available for either wing as circumstances dictated. At 2 P.M. Napoleon ordered Ney to master Quatre Bras, and added that the emperor would attack the corps which he saw in front of him. Whichever wing succeeded first would then wheel inwards and help the other. Not yet had Napoleon grasped the full significance of the allied movements, for the decisive flank had not yet become clear.

Blücher had already determined to fight. Meanwhile, Wellington, having reached Quatre Bras in the morning, wrote to him to concert the day's operations; then, as all was quiet in his front, he rode over to meet Blücher at Brye. The two chiefs, surveying the French army in their front, considered that no serious force was in front of Quatre Bras, and Wellington intimated the interview with the conditional promise that he would bring his army to Blücher's assistance at Ligny, if he was not attacked himself. This promise, of course, was never fulfilled, for Ney employed the duke all day at Quatre Bras; and, furthermore, the duke's tardy concentration made it quite impossible for him to help Blücher directly on the Ligny battlefield. On his return to Quatre Bras he found that a crisis had already been reached.
Ney had allowed the valuable hours to slip away when he could have stormed Quatre Bras with ease and ensured cooperation with his master. Remembering the surprises that the battles in Spain had provided for the marshals opposed to the duke, he massed nearly the whole of Reille’s corps before he advanced. The prince of Orange, in command at Quatre Bras, had only 7,500 troops. But by boldly scattering his force and by making use of the Bossu wood and the farms, he covered the cross-roads and showed a firm front to the very superior force which Ney commanded. It was then 2 P.M. The Dutch-Belgian troops to the east of the Brussels highway were at once forced back by the mass of men moved against them, and it looked as if the whole defence would crumple up. But about 3 P.M. timely succour reached the field—Van Merlen’s cavalry from Nivelles, Picton and the 5th division from Brussels—and Wellington returned and took over the command. Picton at once stopped the victorious French advance to the east of the road, but the remaining division (Jérôme) of Reille’s corps now reached the front and Ney flung it into the Bossu wood to clear that place and keep his left flank free. A fierce fight now broke out all along the line, in which Jérôme steadily made ground in the Bossu wood, while Picton showing a dauntless front maintained his position. The Brunswick contingent now reached the field, but their duke whilst leading a charge received a mortal wound and the attack failed. It was nearly 4.15 P.M. when Ney received Napoleon’s 2 P.M. order, and in obedience to it he made another attack, in which the Bossu wood was virtually cleared of its defenders. However, about 5 P.M. further reinforcements reached Wellington, Alten’s (3rd) division coming in from Nivelles. Ney now realized that he could only capture Quatre Bras with D’Erlon’s help.

But shortly afterwards (about 5.15) he heard that the I. Corps, without his direct order or knowledge, had moved eastwards to assist in the battle of Ligny. Immediately afterwards (about 5.30) he received an order from Napoleon to seize Quatre Bras and then turn eastwards to crush Blücher, who was caught at Ligny. Napoleon added, “The fate of France is in your hands.” Ney’s duty was merely to hold Wellington for certain at Quatre Bras and allow D’Erlon to carry out the movement which must ensure a decisive result at Ligny; in accordance with Napoleon’s plan of campaign. In any case D’Erlon could not come back in time to give him effectual help. But incapable of grasping the situation, and beside himself with rage, Ney sent imperative orders to D’Erlon to return at once, and immediately afterwards he ordered Kellermann to lead his one available cutassier brigade and break through Wellington’s line. The charge was admirably executed; it overthrew one British regiment which it caught in line, but being unsupported it achieved nothing further of importance, and was beaten back. When this attempt to master the cross-roads had ended in failure, Ney received a verbal message from the emperor, enjoining him that, whatever happened at Quatre Bras, D’Erlon must be allowed to carry out the movement ordered by the emperor. The bearer, Major Baudus, knowing the importance of the manœuvre which the I. Corps was carrying out, strove to induce Ney to reconsider D’Erlon’s recall; but the marshal refused and ended the discussion by plunging into the fight. Shortly afterwards (about 7 P.M.) Wellington received further reinforcements (Cook’s division of the British Guards), which brought his force up to 32,000 against Ney’s 22,000 men. The duke then attacked strenuously all along the line, and before darkness stopped the fight he drove back the French to their morning position at Frasnes. The losses were as follows: Anglo-Dutch 4,500, and French 4,300. At 9 P.M., when the battle was lost and won, D’Erlon’s corps arrived. It had already reached the edge of the Ligny battlefield when the counter-order arrived, and conceiving that he was still under Marshal Ney (for the officer who bore the pencil-note directing Ney to detach
D'Erlon, had on his own initiative ordered the I. Corps to the eastward) the general considered he ought to return to the left wing, and leaving one division at Wagnelée he withdrew his force. The incident was immeasurably unfortunate for the French. Had the I. Corps been thrown into the doubtful struggle at Quatre Bras, it must have crushed Wellington; had it been used at Ligny it would have entailed Blücher's annihilation. But oscillating between the two fields, it took part in neither. When the fighting was over, at 10 P.M., Ney had a short and somewhat one-sided account of the action to Soult.

On the other flank there had meanwhile been waged the bitterly fought battle of Ligny. As Blücher's dispositions gradually became clearer the emperor realized that the first decisive day of the campaign had actually come, and he promptly made arrangements for defeating the Prussian army in his front. Blücher, to cover the Namur road, held with the I. Corps the villages of Brye, St Amand and Ligny, whilst behind his centre was massed the II. Corps, and on his left was placed the III. Corps. Wellington and Blücher on arrival would act as general reserve. Blücher's army, as he finally disposed it, was quite visible to Napoleon on the bare open slopes which it occupied above St Amand and Ligny, the II. Corps being especially exposed. The emperor decided to bear down Blücher's centre and right with the corps of Vandamme and Gérard and with Girard's division which he had drawn into his operations, containing the Prussian left meanwhile with the squadrons of Payol and Exelmans, assisted by a few infantry. The Guard and Milhaud were in hand at Fleurus. Further, he could order up Lobau, and direct Ney to move his rearguard corps across and form a line of battle. When the battle was won, a move would crush the Prussian centre and right between the Guard and D'Erlon's corps.

It was a somewhat complicated manoeuvre; for he was attempting to outflank his enemy with a corps that he had subordinated to Marshal Ney. Much depended on whether Ney would grasp the full purport of his orders; in a similar case at Bautzen he had failed to so, and he failed as badly now. The usual Napoleonic simplicity was wanting at Ligny, and he paid in full for the want.

It was just after 2.30 P.M. when Napoleon, hearing the sound of Ney's cannon to the eastward and realizing that Wellington was galled and neutralized, commenced the battle at Ligny. Blücher's force was numerically very superior. The Prussians numbered about 83,000 men to Napoleon's 71,000 (including Lobau, who only came up at the end of the day). A fierce fight was soon raging for the villages. Vandamme and Girard attacked S. Amand, whilst Gérard attempted to storm Ligny; on the right Grouchy held Thielheimen in play, and in the centre near Fleurus were the Guard and Milhaud in reserve, close to the emperor's headquarters on the mill. At 3.15 P.M., when the battle was in full swing, Napoleon's in-division of the French was to engage "the fate of France is in your hands," and ordering the marshals to master Quatre Bras and move eastwards to assist at Ligny. Immediately afterwards, hearing that Ney had 20,000 men in front of him, he sent the "pencil note" by General La Bédoyère which directed Ney to detach D'Erlon's corps to Ligny. This, as we know, the A.D.C. in a fit of mistaken zeal took upon himself to do. Hence the corps appeared too soon, and in the wrong direction. But neither order made it sufficiently clear to Ney that co-operation at Ligny was the essential, provided that Wellington was held fast at Quatre Bras. In other words, Ney had merely to hold Wellington with part of the French army all day, and detach the remainder of his force to co-operate in the deathblow at Ligny. This is clear when we look at the letter Ney is studied with the orders, as it was meant to be; but Ney in the heat of action misread the later instructions. Meanwhile the emperor ordered Lobau to bring up his corps at once to Fleurus where he could hardly be of great service, whereas had he been directed to move on Wagnelée he might have co-operated in the last struggle far more efficiently. The fight for the villages continued to rage fiercely and incessantly, each side behaving as if its moral foe was in front. The villages were captured and recaptured, but generally the French had the better of the fighting, for they compelled Blücher to use up more and more of his reserves, and prevented the Prussians from breaking through to the southward of S. Amand. Eventually the fighting became so furious that the troops engaged literally melted away, particularly at Ligny, and the emperor was finally compelled to call on his reserve to replenish the troops first engaged. But hardly had the Young and Middle Guard marched off to reinforce Vandamme and Gérard, when Vandamme sent word that a hostile column, over 50,000 strong, was threatening the French left (in reality this was D'Erlon's corps). Vandamme's exhausted troops were unnerved at the sight of this fresh foe, and an incipient panic was only quelled by turning guns on the fugitives. It was now between 5.30 and 6. The emperor concluded that this could not be D'Erlon, because he had arrived too soon and was marching in an evidently wrong direction. He at once sent an officer to reconnoitre. Meanwhile the reinforcements which he had despatched were most opportune. The Prussians had seized the opportunity offered by the slackening of the French attacks at Fleurus and deliver a counterstroke, which was parried, after achieving a small measure of success, by the bayonets of the Young Guard. It was about 6.30 before Napoleon learned that the unknown force was actually D'Erlon's, and somewhat later he heard that it had counter-marched and withdrawn westwards. Repeated orders sent to the commander of the division left by D'Erlon failed to induce him to engage his command decisively, and thus Napoleon obtained no direct co-operation from his left wing on this, the first decisive day of the campaign. Thus relieved about his left, but realizing that D'Erlon had returned to his former position, he could no longer expect to destroy the Prussian army. Lobau's corps, too, was now arriving and forming up on the heights east of Fleurus. The artillery of the Guard, therefore, came into action above Ligny to prepare Blücher's centre for assault. Some delay was occasioned by a thunderstorm; but, as this passed over, the guns opened and the Old Guard and Milhaud's cuirassiers proceeded to form up opposite to Ligny. About 7.45 P.M. a crashing salvo of 60 guns gave the signal for a combined assault to be delivered by Gérard and the Guard, with Milhaud moving on their right flank. Blücher's worn-out soldiers could not withstand the tremendous impact of Napoleon's choicest troops, and the Prussian centre was pierced and broken. But the gallant old marshal still had some fresh squadrons in hand, and he promptly launched them to stem the French advance. While leading one of the charges in person his horse was shot and fell under him, but he was rescued and borne in a semi-conscious condition from the field. Without doubt, the personal risk to which Blücher exposed himself at this crisis was far too great; for it was essential that the command of the Prussian army should remain vested in a chief who would loyally keep in touch and act entirely in concert with his colleague. In this way only could the allies hope to obtain a decisive success against Napoleon.

By 9 P.M., the main battle was already over, and Napoleon could see the French streaming resistlessly forward. Napoleon was master of Blücher's battlefield, and the beaten Prussians had retired to the north of the Namur-Nivelles road. Under the circumstances, the late hour, the failing light and the lack of information as to events on the left wing, immediate pursuit was out of the question.

The execution had again fallen short of the conception; Blücher though beaten was not destroyed, nor was his line with Wellington cut. If the Prussians now retired northwards, parallel to the direction which Wellington would follow perfectly, to-morrow, the scope of co-operating in a decisive battle would still remain to the allies; and Gneisenau's order issued by moonlight, directing the retreat on Tilloy and Wavre, went...
far to ensuring the possibility of such combined action. However, Gneisenau was very remiss in not immediately reporting this vital move and the necessity for it to the duke, as it left the Anglo-Dutch inner flank quite exposed. Gneisenau apparently selected Wavre, not with the intention of assisting his ally, but rather to re-establish his own line of communication, and the presence of the Prussians on the field of battle at Waterloo must be put down to the immortal credit of Blücher and Grolmann, his quartermaster-general. Gneisenau at this crisis in the affairs of the allies does not appear to have subordinated everything to the one essential of manoeuvring so as to remain in communication with Blücher. It was 2 A.M. on June 18 before he received the answer to his suggestion.

Early on the 17th the Prussians drew off northwards on three roads, Thieleemann covering the withdrawal and moving via Gembloot to join hands with Billow. The French cavalry on the right, hearing troops in motion on the Namur road, dashed in pursuit down the turnpike road shortly after dawn, caught up the fugitives and captured them. They turned out to be stragglers; but their capture for a time helped to confirm the idea, prevalent in the French army, that Blücher was drawing off towards his far right, and Napoleon's deliberation was finally to be brought to a close by an unworthy suggestion of his own. The situation was still obscure, details as to what had happened on the French left were wanting, and the direction of Blücher's retreat was by no means certain. Orders, however, were sent to Ney, about 8 A.M., to take up his position at Quatre Bras, and if that was impossible he was to report at once and the emperor would co-operate. Napoleon clearly meant that Ney should attack whatever happened to be in his front. If confronted by a rear-guard he would drive it off and occupy Quatre Bras; and if Wellington was still there the marshal would promptly engage and hold fast to the best of his powers. Napoleon's last hope was that Blücher would in this case hasten up with the reserve and crush Wellington. Wellington in fact was there; but Ney did nothing whatever to retain him, and the duke began his withdrawal to Mt. S. Jean about 10 A.M. The last chance of bringing about a decisive French success was thus allowed to slip away.

Meanwhile Napoleon paid a personal visit about 10 A.M. to the Ligny battlefield, and about 11 A.M. he came to a decision. He determined to send the two cavalry corps of Pajol and Grouchy (troops of operations), and Exelmans, and the corps of Vandamme and Gérard, with Tacte's division (VII Corps), a force of 33,000 men and 110 guns, to follow the Prussians, penetrates their intentions and discover if they meditated uniting with Wellington in front of Brussels. As Exelmans' dragoons had already gained touch of the III. Prussian corps at Gembloot, the emperor directed Marshal Grouchy, to whom he handed over the command of this force, to "proceed to Gembloot." This order the marshal only too literally obeyed. After an inconceivably slow and wearisome march, in one badly arranged column moving on one road, he only reached Gembloot on June 17, and halted there until the night. Wellington effected so many roads. The Austrian's corps, which was resting at Gembloot, but the enemy was allowed to slip away and contact was lost for want of a serious effort to keep it. Grouchy did not proceed to the front, and entirely failed to appreciate the situation at this critical juncture. Pressing danger could only exist if Blücher had gone northwards, and northwards, therefore, in the Dyle valley, he should have diligently sought for traces of the Prussian retreat.1 Had Blücher gone eastwards, Grouchy, holding the Dyle, could easily have held back any future Prussian advance towards Wellington. Grouchy, however, went to Gembloot as ordered. By nightfall the situation was all in favour of the allies; for Grouchy was now actually outside the four Prussian corps, who were by this time concentrated astride the Dyle at Wavre. Their retreat having been unmolested, the Prussians were ready once more to take the field, quite twenty-four hours before Napoleon deemed it possible for the foe defeated at Ligny.

On the other flank, too, things had gone all in favour of Wellington. Although the emperor wrote to Ney again at noon, from Ligny, that troops had now been placed in position at Marbaix to second the marshal's attack on Quatre Bras, Ney replied that Wellington affected so grand and skilful a retreat that, on Napoleon's arrival at the head of his supporting corps, 1 There appears to be no reason to believe that Grouchy pushed any reconnaissances to the northward and westward of Gentimes on June 17; had he done so, touch with Blücher's retiring columns must have been established, and the direction of the Prussian retreat made clear. The right of Milhaud's cavalry corps, whilst marching from Marbaix to Quatre Bras, saw a column of Prussian infantry retiring towards Wavre, and Milhaud reported this fact about 9 P.M. to the emperor, who, however, attached little weight to it.
he found only the duke's cavalry screen and some horse artillery still in position. Can we wonder that he gave vent to his anger Napoleon's and declared that Ney had ruined France? This was the fatal mistake of the campaign, and Fortune turned now against her former favourite. Although the enflamed fires of his old energy blazed out once more and Napoleon began a rapid pursuit of the cavalry screen, which crumpled up and decamped as he advanced, yet all his efforts were powerless to entangle the Anglo-Dutch rearguard to such an extent that Wellington must turn back to its assistance. The pursuit, too, was carried out in the midst of a tropical thunderstorm which broke at the roar of the opening cannonade, and very considerably retarded the French pursuit. It was not until the light was failing that Napoleon reached the heights of Rossumme opposite to Wellington's position and, by a masterly reconnaissance in force, compelled the duke to disclose the presence of practically the whole Anglo-Dutch army. The French halted, somewhat loosened by pursuit, between Rossumme and Genappe and spent a wretched night in the sodden fields.

During the night Wellington received the reassuring news that Blücher would bring two corps certainly, and possibly four, to Waterloo, and determined to accept battle. Napoleon's plan being to penetrate between the allies and then defeat them successively, the left was really the threatened flank of the Anglo-Dutch army. Yet so far was Wellington from divining Napoleon's object that he stationed 17,000 men including Colville's British garrison at Genappe and left the right to his right, to repel the turning movement that he groundlessly anticipated and to form a rallying point for his right in case his centre was broken. By deliberately depriving himself of this detachment, on June 18, the duke ran a very grave risk. With the 67,600 men whom he had in hand, however, he took up a truly admirable "Wellingtonian" position astride the Nivelles-Brussels and Charleroi-Brussels roads which met at June 18. Mt S. Jean. He used a low ridge to screen his main defensive position, exposing comparatively few troops in front of the crest. Of his 156 guns, 78 belonged to the British artillery; but of his 67,600 men only 29,800 were British or King's German Legion troops, whereas all Napoleon's were Frenchmen and veterans. Wellington occupied Hougomont in strength, chiefly with detachments of the British Guards; and he also placed a garrison of the K.G.L. in La Haye Sainte, the tactical key of the allied position. Both these farms were strengthened; but, still nervous about his right flank, the duke occupied Hougomont in much greater force than La Haye Sainte, and massed the bulk of his troops on his right. The main position was very skilfully taken up, and care was taken to distribute the troops so that his men from hand to hand were closely supported by those who were "better disciplined and more accustomed to war." Owing to a misconception, one Dutch-Belgian brigade formed up in front of the ridge. Full arrangements were made for Blücher's co-operation through General Mülling, the Prussian attaché on the duke's staff. The duke was to stand fast to receive the attack, whilst the Russians should close round Napoleon's exposed right and support Wellington's left. The Prussians were thus the real general reserve, and it was Wellington's task to receive Napoleon's attack and prepare for the decisive battle. After Blücher's departure, Blücher loyally kept his promise to his ally; but the execution left much to be desired. He did not start his corps on their westward march until a considerable time after dawn, and then, owing to bad staff work, the rear corps of all (Blücher) was selected to lead the march. This unnecessary delay was aggravated further by a fire that broke out in Wavre and delayed the march. In spite of his hurts the old marshal was in the saddle.

Meanwhile Napoleon formed his army for the attack on Wellington's position. The wet state of the ground (largely composed of corn-fields) and the scattered bivouacs of the French army made it difficult for the attack to be accomplished as Napoleon had desired. It was therefore put off first of all until 9 A.M., and later until 11.30, to permit the sodden ground to dry sufficiently for the mounted arms to manoeuvre freely and give time to the French army to close up. During the night the emperor had received a report from Marshal Grouchy, dated Gembloix, 10 P.M., 17th, which stated that the Prussians were retiring in two columns towards Wavre and Perwez. Grouchy added that if he found that the bulk of the Prussians were moving on Wavre that would follow them and separate them from Wellington. But a glance at the map shows that this was impossible. By following the Prussians Grouchy, who had taken up a position outside the Prussian left flank, would inevitably drive the allies together. It was 10 A.M. when the emperor answered this letter, and he directed the marshal to march for Wavre, thus approaching the French army and entering the zone of the main operations. The underlying idea of maneuvering in two wings and a reserve should be kept in mind when considering this letter. Its meaning will then clearly be, that Grouchy was to endeavour to place his force on the inner Prussian flank and hold them back from Waterloo. But this is just what the despatch does not state veritably and precisely, and accordingly Grouchy, like Ney on the 16th and 17th, missed it.

The French army proceeded to form up in an imposing array some 1,200 yards from Wellington's position, and if some misgivings as to the result filled the minds of men like Soult, Reille and Foy, who had had previous experience of Wellington in the field, none at any rate dwelt in Napoleon's mind. The lateness of the hour at which the attack was delivered, and the emperor's determination to break Wellington's centre instead of moving on Wavre, as Grouchy thought he had reason to suppose, deprived him of whatever chance be still possessed of beating Wellington before Blücher could intervene. Napoleon drew up his army of 74,000 men and 246 guns in three lines, fully in view of the allies. In the first line were the corps of Reille and D'Erlon, who were destined to attack the allied line and prepare it for the final assault. In the second line were Kellermann's cuirassiers, the incomplete corps of Lobau, the squadrons of Donon and Subervie, and Milhaud's cuirassiers. In the third line was the Guard. It was an imposing array of veteran troops, and when their emperor rode along the lines they received him with extraordinary enthusiasm. The battle of Waterloo may be divided into five phases.

**Waterloo: the first phase.**

About 11.30 the first phase opened with an attack by one of Reille's divisions on Hougomont. This was a mere side-issue, destined to draw Wellington's attention away from his right, and in this it failed. About noon, however, a battery of 80 French guns unlimbered on the long spur to the S.E. of La Haye Sainte, to prepare the duke's centre for the main attack. Here the form of the ground so skilfully chosen sheltered the defence in some degree from the heavy fire that now beat against the position. After 1 P.M., and just before he gave orders for Ney to lead the main attack, the emperor scanned the battlefield, and on his right front he saw a dense dark cloud emerging from the woods at Chapelle Saint Lambert. It was soon discovered that this was Bülow's corps marching to Wellington's assistance. A letter was now awaiting despatch to Grouchy, and to it was added a postscript that the battle was raging with Wellington, that Bülow's corps had been sighted by the emperor, and that the marshal was to hasten to the field and crush Bülow. This order at least was precise and clear, but it was sent 12 hours too late, and when Grouchy received it he was unable to carry it out. To neutralize Bülow when necessity arose, the emperor now detached Lobau together with the squadrons of Donon and Subervie. The French general, however, hardly drew out far enough from the French right; otherwise the magnificent resolution he displayed and the admirable obstinacy with which his troops fought against ever-increasing odds are worthy of all praise. Thus as early as 1.30 P.M. the Prussian intervention began to devastate the symmetry of Napoleon's battle-array. It did not occur to Wellington that this was a sudden sortie to break off his own position and seek a more favourable opportunity of beating the allies in detail. He was still determined to play the game out to the bitter end, and involve Wellington and Bülow's corps in a common ruin.
Ney was therefore ordered to attack Wellington’s centre with D’Erlon’s corps. Owing to a misconception the columns used for advance were over-heavy and unwieldy, and the corps failed to achieve anything of importance. As D’Erlon’s troops advanced the Dutch-Belgian brigade in front of the ridge, which had been subjected to an overwhelming fire from the 80 French guns at close range, turned about and retired in disorder through the main position. This, however, was the solitary success secured by the I. corps; for the left division failed to storm La Haye Sainte, which was most gallantly defended, and Picton’s division met the remainder of D’Erlon’s corps face to face, engaging them in a murderous infantry duel in which Picton fell. It was during this struggle that Lord Uxbridge launched two of his cavalry brigades on the enemy; and the “Union brigade” catching the French infantry unawares rode over them, broke them up, and drove them to the bottom of the slope with the loss of two eagles. The charge, however, over-reached itself, and the British cavalry, crushed by fresh French horsemen hurled on them by the emperor, were driven back with great loss. So far no success against Wellington had been achieved, and Bülüow was still an onlooker.

Ney was now ordered to attack La Haye Sainte again, but the attack failed. A furious cannonade raged, and the Anglo-Dutch line withdrew slightly to gain more cover from the ridge. Ney misinterpreted this manoeuvre and led out, about 4 p.m., Milhaud’s and Lefebvre-Dessouet’s horsemen (43 squadrons) to charge the allied centre between the two farms. For several reasons, the cavalry could only advance at a trot. As the horsemen closed they were received with volleys of case from the guns, and the infantry formed into squares. Against the squares the horsemen were powerless, and failing to break a single square, they were finally swept off the plateau by fresh allied horsemen. Kellermann’s cuirassiers and the heavy horse of the Guard (37 fresh squadrons) now advanced to support the baffled cavalry, the latter falling in support. The whole 80 squadrons resumed the attack, but with no better result. The cavalry gradually became hopelessly entangled among the squares they were unable to break, and at last they were driven down the face of the ridge and the most dramatic part of the battle came to an end. Had these great cavalry attacks been closely supported by infantry, there can be little doubt that they must have achieved their object. But they were not. In his handling of the three arms together, Napoleon on this day failed to do justice to his reputation.

About 4.30 p.m. Bülüow at last engaged. Lobau’s men were gradually overpowered and forced back into Plancenoit, the village was stormed, and the Prussian round shot reached the main road. To set his right flank free the emperor called further on his reserve, and sent Duquesne with the Young Guard to Lobau’s support. Together, these troops drove Bülüow out of Plancenoit, and forced him back towards the Paris wood. But the Prussians had not yet changed the fate of the day.

Napoleon now ordered Ney to carry La Haye Sainte at whatever cost, and this the marshal accomplished with the wrecks of D’Erlon’s corps soon after 6 p.m. The garrison (King’s German Legion) had run out of rifle ammunition and the French bursting in seized the post. This was the first decided advantage that Napoleon had gained during
the day. The key of the duke's position was now in Napoleon's hands, Wellington's centre was dangerously shaken, the troops were exhausted, and the reserves inadequate. But the Iron Duke faced the situation unmoved. Calmly he readjusted his line and strengthened the torn centre. Happily for him, Pirch I's and Zieten's corps were now at hand. Pirch I. moved to support Billow; together they regained possession of Plancenoit, and once more the Charleroi road was swept by Prussian round shot. Napoleon, therefore, had to free his right flank before he could make use of Ney's capture. To this end he sent two battalions of the Old Guard to storm Plancenoit. The veterans did the work magnificently with the bayonet, ousted the Prussians from the place, and drove them back 600 yards beyond it. But Napoleon could not turn now on Wellington. Zieten was fast coming up on the duke's left, and the crisis was past. Zieten's advance permitted the two fresh cavalry brigades of Vivian and Vandeleur on the duke's extreme left to be moved and posted behind the depleted centre. The value of this reinforcement at this particular moment can hardly be overestimated.

The French army now fiercely attacked Wellington all along the line; and the culminating point of this phase was reached when Napoleon sent forward the Guard, less 5 battalions, to attack Wellington's centre. Delivered in three échelons, these final attacks were repulsed, the first by a Dutch line; a Dutch-Dutch division; the second and third échelons by the Guards, the 52nd, and the Royal Artillery. Thus ended the fifth phase.

As the Guard recoiled (about 8 P.M.) Zieten pierced the northeast corner of the French front, and their whole line gave way as the allies rushed forward on their now defenceless prey. Three battalions of the Guard indeed stood their ground for some time, but they were finally overwhelmed. Afterwards, amidst the ruins of their army, two battalions of officers simply defied all efforts to break them. But, with the exception of these two battalions, the French army was quickly transformed into a flying rabble. Bilow and Pirch I. now finally overpowered Lobau, once more recaptured Plancenoit, and sealed the doom of the French army. But Lobau's heroic efforts had not been in vain; they had given him master's time to make his last effort against Wellington; and when the Guard was beaten back the French troops holding Plancenoit kept free the Charleroi road, and prevented the Prussians from seizing Napoleon's line of retreat.

When Wellington learned of Lobau's defeat at 9.15 P.M. at "La Belle Alliance," the victorious French arranged that the Prussians should take up the pursuit, and they faithfully carried out the agreement. Pushing on through the night, they drove the French out of seven successive bivouacs and at length drove them over the Sambre. The campaign was virtually at an end, and the price paid was great. The French had lost over 40,000 men and almost all their artillery on June 18; the Prussians lost 7,000, and Wellington over 15,000 men. So desperate was the fighting that some 43,000 killed and wounded lay on an area of roughly 3 sq. m. At one point on the plateau the 27th (Infantry) were lying literally dead in square, and the position that the British infantry held was plainly marked by the red line of dead and wounded they left behind them.

A few words may now be bestowed on Marshal Grouchy, commanding the right wing. The marshal wrongly determined on the 18th to continue his march to Wavre in a single column, and he determined, still more wrongly, to continue it move by the right bank of the Dyle. Breaking up from bivouac long after dawn, he marched forward, via Walloons. Here he stopped to fort to the emperor some intelligence which turned out to be false, and he remained for breakfast. Hardly had he finished when the opening roar of the cannonade at Waterloo was heard. Grouchy was now urged by his generals, especially by Gérard, to march to the sound of the firing, but he refused to take their advice, and pushed on to Wavre, where he found the Prussians (Thielemann's corps of 16,000 men) holding the passages across the Dyle. A fierce fight (called the Action of Wavre) began about 4 P.M., in which the Prussians were for long victorious. Instead of concentrating his force upon one bridge over the swampy and unfordable Dyle, Grouchy scattered it in attacks upon several; and when the emperor's desperate army, saying Bilow was. Napoleon the marshal was powerless to move westward. Towards the end of the day Colonel Vallin's Hussars stormed the Limal bridge, and a large part of Grouchy's force then promptly gained the left bank. The action continued till about 11 P.M., when it died out, to recommence shortly after dawn. Thielemann was at length overborne by sheer weight of numbers, and towards 1 A.M. he was forced to retire towards Louvain. The losses were considerable, about 2,400 men on each side.

Grouchy's victory was barren. In the far higher duty of cooperation he had failed miserably. His tactical achievement could avail the emperor nothing, and it exposed his own force to considerable danger. Whilst pondering on the course he should follow, the marshal received the news of the awful disaster that had overtaken the emperor at Waterloo. In a flash he realized his danger and made prompt arrangements to begin his retreat on Namur, the only line to France that was then available. This retreat he carried out resolutely, skillfully and rapidly, slipping past Bilow and finally bringing his force to Paris. But the rapid advance of the allies gave France no time to rally. Napoleon was forced to make his preparations to escape, and Napoleon's escape was sailable (on July 14) to the British, "the most powerful, the most unwavering and the most generous of his foes."

The causes of Napoleon's failure in the Waterloo campaign were as follows:—The French army was numerically too weak for the gigantic task it undertook. Napoleon himself was no longer the Napoleon of Marengo or Austerlitz, and though he was not broken down, his physical strength was certainly impaired. Ney failed to grasp and hold Wellington on the critical 17th June; and on the 17th and 18th Grouchy's feeble and false manoeuvres enabled Bliicher to reach and join Wellington at Waterloo. Napoleon's chance of success was dangerously diminished, if not utterly destroyed, by the incompetence of the two marshals whom in an evil hour he selected for high commands. Another dominant influence in shaping the course of events was the loyalty of Bilow to his ally, and the consequent appearance of the Prussian army at Waterloo. Nor must we overlook Wellington's unwavering determination to cooperate with Bilow at all costs, and his firmness on June 18; or the invincible steadiness shown by the British troops and those of the King's German Legion.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Some of the principal books on the campaign are: Colonial Despatches and Paper, 1815; Colbrand, Le Journal de la Prusse; Colonial Despatches and Paper, 1815; N. H. H. N. P., Thielemann's Gallows, Waterloo (1851); Shaw-Kennedy, Battle of Waterloo; Captain W. Sihore, 9th Foot, History of the Waterloo Campaign; Clausewitz, Campagne de 1815; Colonel Charras, Histoire de la Campagne de 1815; Waterloo: Diaries, Dispatches and Memoirs of the Battle of Waterloo; Correspondence and Commentaires de Napoléon. In this article the writer has been greatly assisted by the advice and suggestions of Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. Hine, R.A. (A. B. F.)
WATER MOTORS. The subject of hydraulic transmission of power is treated generally under Power Transmission (Hydraulic), and the present article is confined to water motors.

Hydraulic Lifts.—The direct-acting lift is perhaps the simplest of all machines using pressure-water, but as the height of the lift increases, certain problems increase in difficulty, and become exceedingly difficult to cope with, notably those due to the great increase in the weight and displacement of the ram. In fact, with a simple ram it is not possible to lift beyond a certain height with a given pressure and load. It becomes, therefore, necessary to balance in some way the varying displacement of the ram if economy is to be secured in working: this is often done by the use of counter-weights attached to chains travelling over head sheaves, but this largely destroys the simplicity and safety of the direct-acting lift, and hence some form of hydraulic balancing is more satisfactory and more certain.

In one form, shown in fig. 1, the lift cylinder is in hydraulic connexion with a pair of short cylinders placed one above the other, the plungers working in them being connected together by a common rod. Below the piston of the upper cylinder is an annular space C (subsequently the annular space in the piston rod) with a capacity equal to the maximum displacement of the lift-ram, while the corresponding annular area C of the piston of the lower cylinder is just large enough when subjected to the working water pressure to enable the work of lifting the net load to be done and any friction to be overcome. The area B of the top side of the upper piston is proportioned in such a way that when under the full water pressure the dead weight of the ram and cage is just balanced when the former is at the bottom of its stroke. With this arrangement the lift-ram and the two balance plungers are always in equilibrium, or, in other words, the ever-changing displacement of the lift-ram is automatically in balance.

To work the lift, pressure-water is admitted to the annular space C above the lower of the two balance plungers (the space B above the upper one is always in communication with the pressure-water), and the combined pressure on the two plungers is sufficient to lift the cage, ram and load. As the ram ascends it apparently increases in weight, but this is balanced by the increased pressure on the two balance plungers as they descend, owing to the increase of the head of water acting on them. To allow the lift-ram to descend, the pressure-water in C above the lower balance piston is discharged through the exhaust into the drain, while that above the upper piston is simply pushed back into the pressure main. As an illustration of the operation of this system, it may be mentioned that in one lift having a 6-in. ram with a lift of 90 ft., the working load being 1 ton and the maximum working speed 180 ft. a minute, the quantity of pressure-water used per journey of the lift is reduced from 200 to 24 gallons by the use of this method of balancing.

In another system of hydraulic balance (fig. 2) the ram A has an annular area so proportioned that when it is connected with the water in an elevated tank (usually placed somewhere in the roof of the building), the hydraulic pressure upon it just balances the weight of the ram and cage. Here again, since the intensify of the pressure increases as the ram descends, the apparent increase of weight of the lift-ram as it rises is automatically balanced; water from the high-pressure system is admitted down the hollow ram B and does the work of lifting the live load. Since the introduction of deep-level electric railways in London and elsewhere, hydraulic passenger lifts on a large scale have been introduced to use for carrying passengers up and down from the street level to the underground stations.

Direct-acting Water Motors.—Owing to the difficulty of securing a durable motor with a simple and trustworthy means of automatically regulating the quantity of water used to the power needed at various times from the motor, not much advance has been recently made in the use of water motors with reciprocating rams or pistons. Probably the most successful one has been a rotary engine invented by Mr Arthur Rigg.

In this engine the stroke, and therefore the amount of water used, can be varied either by hand or by a governor, and the speed can also be varied, very high rates, as much as 600 revolutions a minute, being attainable without the question of shock or vibration becoming troublesome. The cylinders are cast in one piece with a circular valve, and rotate about a main stud S (fig. 3), while their plungers are connected to a disk crank which rotates above the point O, which is the centre of the main crank; O S being the crank length or half stroke of the engine, any variation in its length will vary the engine, and at the same time the quantity of water used. The movement of S is obtained by means of a relay engine, in which there are two rams of different diameters; a constant pressure is always acting on the smaller of these when the motor is at work, while the governor (or hand-ram), rotating its own water wheel from the face of the other, and the movements to and fro thus given to the two rams alter the position of the stud S, and thus change the stroke of the plungers of the main engine. Fig. 4 gives an outside view of a 30-H.P. engine capable of using water at a pressure of 700 lb per sq. in., the governor of the driving pulley shown at the right-hand end, while the working revolving cylinders are carried inside the boxed-in flywheel at the left-hand end, the relay cylinder and its attachments being fixed to the bed-plate in front of the flywheel. On a test one of these engines gave an efficiency or duty of 80%.

WATER WHEELS.—The Pelton water wheel (fig. 5) has proved a most successful motor when very high heads are available, heads of 2000 feet having been used occasionally. Such machines have been extensively employed in America, and have also lately been used in Great Britain, worked by the high-pressure water supplied in large towns.

The wheel carries a series of cups placed at equal distances around the circumference. A jet or jets of water impinge on the cups, the interiors of which are shaped in such a way that the jet is discharged parallel to its original direction. If the linear velocity of the cups in feet a second is V, and the linear velocity of the jet is V, then the velocity of the jet relative to the cup is V-V, and the velocity of the water is to be given up to the cups, the water must leave the cup with zero absolute velocity. But its velocity relative to the cup, as it passes backwards, is -(V-V), and hence the relative velocity of the cup is V-V. This will be zero when V-V, that is, if the linear velocity of the cups is one-half of the velocity of water impinging upon them. The theoretical efficiency of the wheel would then be 100%. The actual efficiency of the wheels when used with high falls is from 80 to 85%.

1 This engine was fully described in Engineering, vol. xiv, p. 61.
of 70% has been obtained, and when a dynamo is driven directly by them about 66% of the hydraulic energy has been converted into electric energy.

Pelton wheels are very sensitive to variation of load, and considerable trouble was experienced at first in securing adequate
governing when they were used to generate electric energy; but this difficulty has been overcome, and they have been rendered most efficient machines for use with high falls, where ordinary turbines would be difficult to manage owing to the excessive speed at which they would run. In a small installation in the United States water is brought in a 36-in. pipe a distance of 1800 ft., and supplies six Pelton wheels each 28 in. in diameter, running at 135 revolutions a minute under a head of 130 ft. The total power developed is 600 H.P., and though the load factor varies very greatly in this case, the differential type of governor used secures perfect control of the running of the wheels.

Turbines.—The turbine has now become one of the most efficient of the prime movers employed by man, and in the United States of America and on the continent of Europe its use has enormously increased of recent years. Though no radical changes have been made in the design of turbines for some years, an immense amount of skill and ingenuity has been shown in perfecting and improving details, and such machines of great size and power are now constantly being made, and give every satisfaction when in use.

In the "Heracles" turbine, shown in fig. 6, the flow is what is called mixed, that is, it is partly a radial inward and partly an axial flow machine. On entering, the water flows at first in a radial direction, and then gradually, as it passes through the wheel, it receives a downward component which becomes more and more important. Professor Thurston has published the results of a test

1 This and some of the other drawings have been taken from Blaine's Hydraulic Machinery.
2 The following statistics of turbine construction in Switzerland are taken from Schweizerische Bauzeitung (1901), p. 128, which, in the same volume at p. 53, contains a valuable article on the most important improvements in turbines and their regulation shown in the Paris Exhibition of 1901:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Number of Turbines</th>
<th>Total H.P.</th>
<th>Average H.P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1844-1869</td>
<td>767</td>
<td>36,894</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869-1879</td>
<td>1006</td>
<td>66,688</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879-1889</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>133,579</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889-1899</td>
<td>2231</td>
<td>490,174</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>5844</td>
<td>637,535</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


efficiency of the Francis turbine being in this case 86% at full load and 77% at half load.

A recent form of the Jonval turbine is shown in fig. 7. This turbine was designed to give 1250 H.P. with a fall of 25 ft. and an efficiency of 77%. It is fitted with a suction pipe of a circular balanced sluice for admitting and cutting off the water-supply. The wheel is 12 ft. 3 in. in diameter, and has a speed of fifty revolutions per minute, and the power generated is transmitted through bevel-gearing to a horizontal shaft from which the power is taken.

FIG. 7.—Jonval Turbine.

off for various purposes. When complete the turbine weighed about 140 tons. There is a regulating arrangement, by which one half of the guide-passages can be shut off, and with low heads from the water, and at the same time air is freely admitted into these unused passages by pipes which pass through the hinges of the controlling shutter. Tests of a turbine of this slow-moving type showed an efficiency of 82% at full gate, and one of 75% when half of the guide-blades were closed by the shutters, as described above.

As an illustration of the use of water-power, even at a considerable distance from a town, the case of Lausanne may be described. The town has secured the right of using a waterfall of 113 to 118 ft. high, by impounding the Rhône near Saint Maurice. In dry seasons this will supply 6000 H.P., and for quite ten months in an ordinary year 14,000 H.P. The plant in 1902 consisted of five turbines, having horizontal axles, and each developing 1000 H.P. when running at 300 revolutions a minute. They drive electric generators, and the current so produced is taken at a pressure of 22,000 volts on overhead wires a distance of 35 m. to Lausanne, the loss being estimated not to exceed 10% in the long transmission. Near the town is a station for reducing the voltage, and current is distributed at 125 volts for lighting purposes and at 500 volts for use on the tramways and for other power purposes.


WATER-OPPUSUM, or YAPOCK (Chironectes minimus), the single representative of the genus. This animal is distinguished from other opossums by its webbed hind-feet, non-tuberculated soles, and peculiar coloration. Its ground colour is light grey, with four or five sharply contrasted brown bands passing across its head and back, giving it a very peculiar motied appearance; the head and body together are about 14 in. long, and the tail measures a little more. It is almost wholly aquatic in its habits, living on small fish, crustaceans and other water animals; its range extends from Guatemala to southern Brazil.

WATER POLO, a game which has done much to advance swimming in popular favour and to improve the stamina of swimmers. It is played either in a bath or open water, the teams consisting of seven a side. The field of play must not exceed 30 yds. or be less than 10 yds. in length, and the width must not be more than 20 yds. The ball used must be round and fully inflated, and must not measure less than 26½, nor more than 28 in. in circumference. It must be waterproof, with no strapped seams outside, and no greasy or other objectionable substance placed on it. The goals must be 10 ft. in width, with a post 3 ft. above the surface when the water is 5 ft. or over in depth, and 8 ft. from the bottom when the water is less than 5 ft. in depth; in no case must the water in which a game is played be less than 3 ft. Goal nets are used in all important matches.

The duration of a match is supposed to be 14 minutes, seven minutes each way. The officials consist of a referee, a time-keeper and two goal scorers, the first-named official starting the game by throwing the ball into the centre of the bath. A goal is scored by the entire ball passing between the goal posts and under the crossbar.

The players have to place themselves in a line with their respective goals, and are not allowed to start swimming to the centre of the bath until the word "Go" is given. They are usually divided into 3 goals, 1 half-back, a goal-keeper, and 2 half-forwards. Each swimmer is usually assigned the place of centre-forward, and it is his duty to make all headway possible so as to reach the ball before the opposing forward of the other side, then pass rapidly back to the half or one of the backs and swim on to within close range of the opponent's goal and wait for a pass. The other forwards should rapidly follow him up and each man carefully shadow one of the goal-keepers, the ball only being allowed in to touch the ball with both hands at the same time constitutes a foul, as also does the holding of the rail or the side, during any part of the game, the standing on or touching of the bottom of the bath or the playing of the ball in any other accidental way, for touching the ball with both hands at the same time constitutes an opponent in any way, unless he be holding the ball, holding the ball under water when tackled, jumping from the bottom or pushing off from the side (except at starting or reporting) in order to play the ball or duck an opponent, holding, pushing back or pushing off from an opponent, turning on the back to kick at an opponent, assisting a player at the start or restart to get a goal push off, throwing the ball at the goakeeper from a free throw or refusing to play the ball at the command of the referee after a foul or the ball has been out of the field of play. Dribbling or striking the ball is held to be not holding, but lifting, carrying, pressing under water or placing the hand or leg over the ball or any other accidental way, as if to dribble up the bath and through the posts is permissible. There is a penalty area, 4 yds. from each goal-post, and the imaginary line across the bath is not allowed to be crossed. All Fouls are to be given as free throws, the player committing the foul to be awarded a free throw from the ball being blown for a free throw or other similar stoppage of play, or deliberately splashing an opponent in the face, are all held to be foul fouls. Whenever the whistle blows for fouls the players have to leave the water and the ball cannot be played until the player to whom the free throw was awarded. A player who has been deliberately fouled within 4 yds. of his opponent's goal line is given a penalty throw, and the consequence is that a match is broken when his goal is hoisted assaulted. In the ordinary fouls the ball must touch another player before a goal can be scored, but in penalty throw no such restriction applies. The match is divided into 2 periods of 7 minutes, during which they leave the water. Fouls, half-time and time are decided by whistle, and goals by bell.

The game requires careful practice of smart and scientific passing, side passing, back-handed through, sliding and head, and intuitive shooting. For this purpose "throwing the water-polo ball" contests are commonly held by the leading clubs, who also enter competitions on points for shooting at goal.
WATER RIGHTS

imposed upon, riparian proprietors, in addition to those falling under the head of fishery or navigation. In these matters English law is in substantial accordance with the law of other countries, most of the rules being deduced from Roman law. Perhaps the main difference is that running water is in Roman law a res communis, like the air and the sea. In England, owing to the greater value of river water for manufacturing and other purposes, it cannot be said to be common property, even though it may be used for navigation. The effect of this difference is that certain rights, public in Roman law, such as mooring and unloading cargo, bathing, drying nets, fishing for oysters, digging for sand, towing, &c., are only acquirable by prescription or custom in England. By Roman law, a but might lawfully be built on the shore of the sea or of a tidal river; in England the right to build a building on the foreshore is not legal unless by custom or prescription (Llandudno Urban Council v. Woods, 1899, 2 Ch. 705). Nor may a fisherman who dredges for oysters appropriate a part of the foreshore for storing them (Truro Corporation v. Rowe, 1902, 2 K.B. 709).

The right of use of the water of a natural stream cannot be better described than in the words of Lord Kingsdown in 1858: "By the general law applicable to running streams, every riparian proprietor has the right to draw off the water and to use it for all purposes of his land— for instance, to the reasonable use of the water for domestic purposes and for his cattle, and this without regard to the effect which such use may have in case of a deficiency upon proprietors downstream by the unreasonable use of it for any purpose, or what may be deemed the extraordinary use of it; provided he does not thereby interfere with the rights of others, either in the enjoyment of their respective rights, or in the junction of the streams. He must, in addition, may dam up a stream for the purposes of a mill, or divert the water for the purpose of irrigation. But he has no right to intercept the regular flow of the stream, if he thereby interferes with the lawful use of other proprietors. Beside the common right to use the water, such a proprietor does not arise at common law, as in the case of a natural stream, but must be established by grant or prescription. If its origin be unknown the inference appears to be that riparian proprietors have the same rights as if the stream had been a natural one (Basil v. Clark, 1902, 1 Ch. 639). The rights of a person not a riparian proprietor who uses land abutting on a river or stream by the right of the riparian proprietor, compensating the proprietor, he was a riparian proprietor, for he cannot be imposed as a riparian proprietor upon the other proprietors without their consent. The effect of this appears to be that he is not entitled to sensibly affect navigation or change the current of the river. It is to be noted that the riparian proprietor does not arises at common law, as in the case of a natural stream, but must be established by grant or prescription. If its origin be unknown the inference appears to be that riparian

See also Moore's Handybook for rules of the game and instructions for referees.

(W. Hy.)

WATER RIGHTS. By the law of England the property in the bed and water of a tidal river, as high as the tide ebbs and flows at a medium spring tide, is presumed to be in the crown, or as a franchise in the name of the crown, as the case may be, of a municipal authority or of a district council, and to be extra-parochial. The bed and water of a non-tidal river are presumed to belong to the person through whose land it flows, or, if it divide two properties, to the riparian proprietors, the rights of each extending to midstream (ad medium flum aquae). In order to give riparian rights, the river must flow in a defined channel, or at least above ground. The diminution of underground water collected by percolation, even though malicious, does not give a cause of action to the owner of the land in which it collects, it being merely damnum sine injuria, though he is entitled to have it pumped out unless a right of pollution be gained against him by prescription. The right to draw water from a-nother's well is an easement, not a profit à prendre, and is therefore acquirable by custom. As a general rule a riparian proprietor, whether on a tidal or a non-tidal river, has full rights of user of his property. Most of the statute law will be found in the Sea Fisheries Acts 1843 to 1891, and the Salmon and Freshwater Fisheries Acts 1861 to 1886. In certain cases the rights of the riparian proprietors are subject to the intervening rights of other persons. These rights vary according as the river is navigable or not, or tidal or not. For instance, all the riparian proprietors might combine to divert a navigable river, though one alone could not do so as against the others, but no combination of riparian proprietors could defeat the right of the public to have a navigable river maintained undiverted. We shall here consider shortly the rights enjoyed by, and the limitations

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WATER-SCORPION—WATERSPOUT

Pollution Act), to water cattle, &c. In some cases the validity of local riparian customs has been recognized by the legislature. The right of the riparian against encroachment and the duty of the riparian against navigation and landing-harbour rights, -the use of the river by canoes, -the use of the river by fish, and the right of passage for and over the land of riparian proprietors -was confirmed to the fishermen of Somerset, Devon and Cornwall by 1 Jac. I. c. 23. Digging sand on the shore of tidal waters for use as manure or for other purposes, was prohibited by the Mining Act, 7 Jac. I. c. 18. The public right of taking or killing rabbits in the daytime on any sea bank or river bank in the county of Lincoln, so far as it may be connected with the fishing of the same, was protected by the Larceny Act 1881. It should be noticed that rights of the public may be subject to private rights. Where the river is navigable, although the right of navigation is common to the subjects of the state, it may be prevented or restricted by contract unless the water be by act of parliament. In Hopkins v. G. N. Ry. Co., 1877, 2 Q.B.D. 224 (followed in Dibden v. Skirrow, 1907, 1 Ch. 437), it was held that the owner of a ferry cannot maintain an action for loss of traffic even though no use is made of the ferry, and that no provision for new traffic. Many ferries are now regulated by local acts.

Waters - the gorges of Domesday, the bedilus of Magna Carta, as a right to a fishery, is a nuisance. A riparian law unless granted by the crown before 1272. From the etymology of kildellus the weir was probably at first of wicker, later of timber or stone. The owner of a several fishery in tidal waters cannot maintain his claim to a weir unless the same be by act of parliament. L. C. v. Magna Carta 1875, 5 A.C. 646. The right of fishing for pilchards was granted to the town of Newlyn by the Larceny Act 1881. In such cases only sea-bathing, but Hall (p. 160) is of opinion that a right to bathe in private waters may exist by prescription or custom. There is no common-law right to bathe in the sea or to place bathing-machines on the shore. Prescription or custom is necessary to support a claim, whether the foreshore is the property of the crown or of a private owner (Brinckman v. Malley, 1904, 2 Ch. 313). Bathing in the sea or in rivers is now often regulated by the by-laws of local authority.

Scotland—The Law of Scotland is in general accordance with that of England. One of the principal differences is that in Scotland, if a charter state that the sea is the boundary of a grant, the foreshore is included in the grant, subject to the burden of crown rights for public purposes. Persons engaged in the herring fishery off the coast of Scotland have, by 11 Geo. III. c. 31, the right to use the shore for 100 yds. from high-water mark for landing and drying fish. The Royal Marines during the French war were quartered on the Mississauga under orders of the Government and had the right to use the shore for that purpose. The right of ferry is one of the regalia minora acquirable by possession on a charter of barony. Sea-gulls are private property. The right to take seaweed from another's foreshore may be prescribed as a servitude. Interference with the free passage of salmon by abstraction of water to artificial channels is restraints by Interdict (Philipson v. Defoe, 1866, 47 C.B. 478). See the Salmon Fisheries (Scotland) Acts 1828 to 1868.

In Ireland the law is in general accordance with that of England. In 12 Hen. VIII. c. 5, R. 4 L. 6, the Irish court went perhaps beyond any English practice in the case of the holding of land in the water. Leaves from the foreshore are not larceny. The Rivers Pollution Act 1876 was re-enacted for Ireland by the similar act of 1893.

Waterspout—Waterspout is a common occurrence in England. Originally, the law, the state succeeding to the right of the crown. This was no doubt sufficient in the thirteen original states, which are not traversed by rivers of the largest size, but was not generally followed when it became obvious that new conditions, unknown in England, had arisen. Accordingly the soil of navigable rivers, fresh or salt, and of lakes, is vested in the state, which has power to regulate navigation and to establish a admirality jurisdiction of the United States extends to all public navigable rivers and lakes where commerce is carried on between different states or with foreign nations. (Grieve v. Catesby, 17 Howard's Rep. 443). And in a case decided in 1875, it was held that the great lakes are "high seas" within the meaning of $ 534 of the Revised Statutes (U.S. v. Rodgers, 150 U.S. Rep. 249). A state waterway established by service and authorized dams, but if water from a dam overflow a public highway, an indelible nuisance is caused. The right of eminent domain is exercised to a greater extent than in England in the compulsory acquisition of sites for mills and the like. The terms "waterway," "watercourse" and "watercourse" have been defined by A. J. Andrus (1902). The right of first user of a water has a right by priority of occurrence. If he give notice to the public of an intention to appropriate, provided that he be competent to hold land.

Authorities—Hall's Essays on the Rights of the Crown on the Seashore (1830) has been re-edited in 1875 and 1888. See also A. S. and H. S. Moore, History and Law of Fisheries (1903). Among American authorities are the works of Angell, Gould and Pomery, on Waters and Watercourses, Washburn on Easements, Angell on the Rights of Property in Tide Waters, Kinney on Irrigation and the Report to the Senate on Irrigation (1900).

WATER-SCORPION, an aquatic hemipodous insect of the family Nepidae, so called from its superficial resemblance to a scorpion, which is due to the modification of the legs of the anterior pair for prehension, and to the presence of a long slender process, simulating a tail, at the posterior end of the abdomen. The common British species, Niphargus, lives in ponds and stagnant water, and feeds upon aquatic animal organisms principally of the insect kind. Respiration in the adult is effected by means of the caudal process, which consists of a pair of half-tubes capable of being locked together to form a siphon by means of which air is conducted to the tracheae at the apex of the abdomen when the tip of the tube is thrust above the surface of the water. In mature forms the siphon is undeveloped and breathing takes place through six pairs of abdominal spiracles. The eggs, laid in the stems of plants, are supplied with seven filamentous processes which float freely in the water.

In Neph the body is broad and flat; but in an allied water-bug, Ranatra, which contains a single British species (R. lineatus), it is long and narrow, while the legs are very slender and elongate. Certain exotic members of this group, sometimes erroneously called scorpions, live in the hot, dry regions of the tropical land. Belostomatidae, are of large size, a South American species, Belostoma grande, reaching a length of between 4 and 5 in.

WATERSHED, in physical geography, the line separating the headstreams tributary to two different river-systems or basins. Alternative terms are "water-parting" and "divide." The crest of a mountain ridge forms the most clearly marked watershed; in a plain country of gentle slope (e.g. the central plain of Ireland) the watershed is often difficult to trace, as the head-waters of different river systems may merge in marshes or lakes at the highest levels. In a mountainous country, where two streams, flowing in opposite directions but having their sources adjacent, are both gradually eroding or cutting back the land at their heads, a pass is formed. In such cases, where one stream erodes faster than the other, the stronger may ultimately "behead" the weaker, and "capture" some of its waters, whose flow is diverted from one basin to another.

WATERSPOUT, a local vortical storm occurring over a water-surface, and in origin and form similar to a tornado (q.v.) on land. A brief summary is given under that heading. When considered as a pendant from the mass of storm-cloud above, seems to grow downwards, tapering, towards the water-surface, which is violently agitated, and finally (when the spout is fully developed) appears to be drawn up to meet the cloud from above. This appearance is deceptive, as the bulk of the water carried along by the whirling spout is condensed from the atmosphere, and, even when the spout is formed over a salt-water surface, is found to be fresh. Waterspouts occur most frequently over the warm seas of the tropics, but they are not confined to the warmer tropical seasons, or even low latitudes.
WATER SUPPLY

WATER SUPPLY. This article is confined to the collection and storage of water for domestic and industrial uses and irrigation, and its purification on a large scale. The conveyance of water is dealt with in the article AQUEDUCT.

Collecting Areas

Surface Waters.—Any area, large or small, of the earth’s surface from any part of which, if the ground were impermeable, water would flow by gravitation past any point in a natural watercourse is commonly known in Europe as the “hydrographic basin” above that point. In English it has been called indifferently the “catchment basin,” the “gathering ground,” the “drainage area” and the “watershed.” The latter term, though originally equivalent to the German Wasserseheide—water-parting is the best permissible translation. The water-parting is the line bounding such an area and separating it from other watersheds. The banks of a watercourse or sides of a valley are distinguished as the right and left bank respectively, the spectator being understood to be looking down the valley.

The surface of the earth is rarely impermeable, and the structure of the rocks largely determines the direction of flow of so much of the rainfall as sinks into the ground and is not evaporated. Thus the figure and area of a surface watershed may not be coincident with that of the corresponding underground watershed; and the flow in any watercourse, especially from a small watershed, may, by means of underground flow from or into other watersheds, be disproportionately to the area apparently drained by that watercourse.

When no reservoir exists, the volume of continuous supply from any watershed area is evidently limited to the minimum, or, so-called, extreme dry weather flow of stream. This cannot be determined from the rainfall; it entirely depends upon the period of the soil and rock to store water in the particular area under consideration, and to yield it continuously to the stream by means of concentrated springs or diffused seepage. Mountain areas of 10,000 acres and upwards, largely covered with moorland, upon nearly impermeable rocks with few water-bearing fissures, yield in temperate climates, towards the end of the dry season, and therefore solely from underground, between a fifth and a third of a cubic foot per second per 1000 acres. Throughout the course of the river Severn, the head-waters of which are chiefly supplied from such formations, this rate does not materially change, even down to the city of Worcester, past which the discharge flows from 1,256,000 acres. But in smaller areas, which on the average are necessarily nearer to the water-parting, the limits are much wider, and the rate of minimum discharge is generally smaller.

Thus, for example, on 1000 acres or less, it commonly falls to one-tenth of a cubic foot, and upon an upland Silurian area of 990 acres, giving no visible sign of any peculiarity, the discharge fell, on the 21st of September 1893, to one-thirty-fifth of a cubic foot per second per 1000 acres. In this case, however, some of the water probably passed between the beds and joints of rocks to an adjoining valley lying at a lower level, and had both streams been gauged the average would probably have been considerably greater. The Thames at Teddington, fed largely from cretaceous areas, fell during ten days in September 1898 (the artificial abstractions for the supply of London being added) to about one-sixth of a cubic foot, and since 1880 the discharge has occasionally fallen, in each of six other cases, to about one-fifth of a cubic foot per second per 1000 acres. Owing, however, to the very variable permeability of the strata, the tributaries of the Thames, when separately gauged in dry seasons, yield the most divergent results. It may be taken as an axiom that the variation of minimum discharges from their mean values increases as the separate areas diminish. In the eastern and south-eastern counties of England even greater variety of dry weather flow prevails than in the west, and upon the chalk formations there are generally no surface streams, except such as burst out after wet weather and form the so-called “bournes.” On the other hand, some rocks in mountain districts, notably the granites, owing to the great quantity of water stored in their numerous fissures or joints, commonly yield a much higher proportion of so-called dry weather flow.

When, however, a reservoir is employed to equalize the flow during and before the period of dry weather, the minimum flow continuously available may be increased to a much higher figure, depending upon the capacity of that reservoir in relation to the mean flow of the stream supplying it. In such a case the first essential in determining the yield is to ascertain the rainfall. For this purpose, if there are no rain-gauges on the drainage area in question, an estimate may be formed from numerous gaugings throughout the country, most of which are published in British Rainfall, initiated by the late Mr G. J. Symons, F.R.S., and now carried on by Dr H. K. Mill. But except in the hands of those who have spent years after passing the steep bank at C D—may be readily understood. Such examples show the importance of placing any rain-gauge, so far as possible, upon a plane surface of the earth—horizontal, or so inclined that, if produced, especially in the direction of prevailing winds, it will cut the mean levels of the area whose mean rainfall is intended to be represented by that gauge. It has been commonly stated that rainfall increases with the altitude. This is broadly true. A rain-cloud raised vertically upwards expands, cools and tends to precipitate, but in the actual passage of rain-clouds over the surface of the earth other influences are at work. In fig. 2 the thick line represents the profile of a vertical section crossing two ranges of hills and one valley. The arrows indicate the directions of the prevailing winds. At the extreme left the rain-clouds are thrown up, and if this were all, they would precipitate a larger proportion of the moisture than at the right, if the rainfall were from the west.

Since the above was written, this work has been taken over by the British Rainfall Organization.
WATER SUPPLY

[COLLECTING AREAS]

they contained as the altitude increased. But until the clouds rise above the hill there is an obvious countervailing tendency to compression, and in steep slopes this may reduce or entirely prevent precipitation. Drift and mist are more frequently their result, and only when the windward side of the hill is covered with an uninterrupted layer of cloud and there is an antecedent demand for moisture, will precipitation occur. The rain will generally be in the form of a shower, and not a steady fall, as the amount of the rainfall, when it occurs, is not likely to be large, except in the case of the small and isolated hills of the central United Kingdom. The passage of the raindrops through the atmosphere is a process of evaporation, and when it has passed the cloud base it is partly converted back into water vapour. This results in the lowering of the humidity and the increase of the falling temperature. As the raindrops fall through the atmosphere, they may either evaporate in part or be entirely absorbed by the vegetation, depending on the rate of evaporation and the absorptive capacity of the vegetation. The amount of rainfall that reaches the earth's surface depends on the efficiency of the drainage system and the storage capacity of the soil. The interception of raindrops by vegetation may also reduce the amount of rainfall that reaches the ground. The amount of rainfall that is not intercepted by vegetation may be lost by evaporation, infiltration, or runoff. The runoff may be either surface runoff or subsurface runoff, depending on the permeability of the soil and the slope of the land. The surface runoff may be further reduced by the formation of rivulets and streams, which then carry the water to the nearest body of water, such as a river, lake, or sea.

Rainfall is one of the most important factors affecting the hydrology of a region. It has a direct impact on the water balance, which is the difference between the inflow and outflow of water in a given area. The water balance is affected by many factors, including precipitation, evaporation, transpiration, and runoff. The water balance is important for the operation of water resources, such as reservoirs, aquifers, and rivers. The water balance can be used to predict the availability of water for different uses, such as agriculture, domestic water supply, and industrial water supply. The water balance is also important for the management of water resources, such as irrigation, flood control, and water quality.

The amount of rainfall that falls on a given area depends on a variety of factors, including the amount of water that is received from the atmosphere, the amount of water that is lost by evaporation, and the amount of water that is stored in the soil. The amount of rainfall that falls on a given area also depends on the amount of precipitation that falls on the area, the amount of water that is stored in the soil, and the amount of water that is lost by evaporation. The amount of rainfall that falls on a given area can be estimated using a variety of methods, including rainfall gauges, satellite imagery, and models. The amount of rainfall that falls on a given area can be used to predict the availability of water for different uses, such as agriculture, domestic water supply, and industrial water supply. The amount of rainfall that falls on a given area can also be used to manage water resources, such as irrigation, flood control, and water quality.

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**WATER SUPPLY**

is concerned. In such a case most of the water is absorbed by the few upper inches of soil, only to be re-evaporated during the
next few days, and the small proportion which sinks into the
ground probably issues in springs many months later. Thus the
actual yield of rainfall to the stream depends largely upon
the mode of its time-distribution, and without a knowledge of
this it is impossible to anticipate the yield of a particular
rainfall. In estimating the evaporation to be deducted from
the rainfall for the purpose of determining the flow into a
reservoir, it is important to bear in mind that the loss from a
constant water surface is nearly one and a half times as great as
from the intermittently saturated land surface. Even neglecting
the isolated and local discharges due to excessive and generally
unrecorded rainfall, the variation in the discharge of all streams,
and especially of mountain streams, is very great. We have
seen that the average fall from mountain areas in Great Britain
towards the end of a dry season does not exceed one-fifth of a
cubic foot per second per 1000 acres. Adopting this general
minimum as the unit, we find that the flow from such areas up
to about 5000 acres, whose mean annual rainfall exceeds 50 in.,
may be expected occasionally to reach 300 cb. ft., or 1500 such
units; while from similar areas of 20,000 or 30,000 acres with
the same mean rainfall the discharge sometimes reaches 1200 or
1300 such units. It is well to compare these results with those
obtained from much larger areas but with lower mean rainfall.
The Thames at Teddington has been continuously gauged by
the Thames Conservators since 1883, and the Severn at Worcester
by the writer, on behalf of the corporation of Liverpool, during
the 10 years 1881 to 1890 inclusive. The highest flood, common
to the two periods, was that which occurred in the middle of
February 1883. On that occasion the Thames records gave a
discharge of 7-6 cb. ft. per second per 1000 acres, and the
Severn records a discharge of 8-6 cb. ft. per second per 1000
acres, or 38 and 43 respectively of the above units; while in
February 1881, before the Thames gaugings were commenced,
the Severn had risen to 47 of such units, and subsequently in
May 1888 rose to 50 such units, though the Thames, about the
same time only rose to 13. But in November 1894 the Thames
rose to about 80 such units, and old records on the Severn
bridges show that that river must on many occasions have risen
to considerably over 100 units. In both these cases the natural
maximum discharge is somewhat diminished by the storage
produced by artificial channelization of the rivers.

These illustrations of the enormous variability of discharge
serve to explain what is popularly so little understood, namely,
the advantage which riparian owners, or other persons
intending to derive fresh water from reservoirs constructed
primarily for the purpose of diverting the water of that stream—it may be to a totally
different watershed—for the purposes of a town supply. Under
modern legislation no such abstraction of water is usually allowed, even if limited to times of flood, except on condition of
an augmentation of the natural dry-weather flow, and this
condition at once involves the construction of a reservoir. The
water supplied to the stream from such a reservoir is known as
"compensation water," and is generally a first charge upon
these waters. This water is usually given a continuous and
uniform flow, when the small continuous pressure of the
water for the maintenance of the millers, as an intermittent one. In the manufacturing
districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire it generally amounts to one-third
of the whole so-called "available supply." In Wales it is usually
to about one-fourth, and elsewhere still less; but in any case it
amounts to many times the average unit of one-fifth of a cubic
foot per second per 1000 acres. Thus the benefit to the fisheries
and to the riparian owners generally is beyond all question; but the
cost to the water authority of conferring that benefit is
also very great—commonly (according to the proportion of the
natural flow intended to be rendered uniform) 20 to 35% of

The volume of compensation water is usually fixed as a given
fraction of the so-called "available supply" (which by a convention
that is most unfortunate, well is understood to be the average flow
of the stream during the three consecutive driest years).

Yield of stream with reservoir.
cumulatively by the straight line a a, its capacity must be such that it will hold not only the 11% surplus of the same year, but that, on June 10th, when this surplus has been used to satisfy the demand, it will still contain the water $c d = 19\%$ stored from a previous year; otherwise between June 10th and August 31st the reservoir will be empty and only the dry weather flow of the stream will be available for supply. In short, if the reservoir is to equalize the whole flow of this year, it must have a capacity equal to the greatest deficiency $c$ of the cumulative flow below the cumulative demand, plus the greatest excess $e$ of the cumulative flow over the cumulative demand. This capacity is represented by the height of the line $a ' a$ (drawn parallel to $a a$ from the point of maximum surplus $f$) vertically above the point of greatest deficiency $c$, and equal, on the vertical scale, to the difference between the height $c = 48\%$ and $e = 78\%$ or $30\%$ of the stream-flow during the driest year. A reservoir so proportioned to the stream-flow with a proper addition to avoid drawing off the bottom water, would probably be safe in Great Britain in any year.

After the reservoir begins to fall—in this case at the end of February—no ordinary change in the variation of demand can affect the question, subject of course to the cumulative demand not exceeding the reservoir yield from the rainfall. In assuming a demand at the beginning of the year below the mean, resulting in an overflow equal in this case to $b$ at the end of February and increasing our reservoir to meet it, we assume also that some additional supply to that reservoir beyond the $31\%$ of the average flow from the driest year can be obtained from the previous year. In relation to this supply from the previous year the most trying assumption is that the rainfall of that year, together with that of the driest year, will be the rainfall of the two consecutive years. We have already seen that while the rainfall of the driest of 50 years is about $63\%$ of the mean, that of the two driest consecutive years is about $75\%$ of the mean, and it follows, therefore, that immediately preceding the driest cannot have been less than about $87\%$ of the mean. As the loss by evaporation is a deduction lying between a constant figure and a duplicate proportional to the rainfall, we should err on the safe side in assuming the flow in the second driest year to be increased proportionally to the rainfall, by the difference which, as above stated, cannot be less than $87\%$ of the mean of 50 years—we may, as shown on fig. 3, extend our cumulative diagram of demand and flow into the reservoir from one to two years.

The whole diagram shows, by the greater gradient of the unbroken straight lines, the greater demand which can be safely assumed if the reservoir capacity is computed for a given uniform yield (represented cumulatively by a straight line corresponding with $a ' a$, but drawn over all the years instead of one), or conversely, having set up a suitable gradient at the most trying point in the line of cumulative flow ($c$ or $e$, in fig. 3—representing, in percentage of the total annual flow of the driest year, the capacity of reservoir which it may be convenient to provide) we may draw a straight line $a '' a''$ of uniform yield from the head of that vertical to the previous point of maximum excess of cumulative flow. The line $a '' a''$ drawn from zero parallel to the first line, produced to the boundaries of the diagram, will cut the vertical at the end of the first year at the percentage of the driest year’s flow which may be safely drawn continuously from the reservoir throughout the two years. It is to be observed that any irregularity in the rate of supply from the reservoir may occur between the critical periods of maximum excess of cumulative flow and maximum deficiency.
Note.—The figures in the right-hand column at the ends of the curved lines are inches of mean annual rainfall over a period of 50 years.

The co-ordinates to any point upon any curved line give respectively the required reservoir capacity and daily yield in gallons per acre of drainage area, corresponding with the mean annual rainfall represented by that curved line.

The curves have been drawn for a mean annual evaporation of 14 in. For any increased rate of evaporation 1½ in. are to be subtracted from the rainfall for each inch of evaporation above 14 in.

For any decreased rate of evaporation 1½ in. are to be added to the rainfall for each inch of evaporation below 14 in.

Any excess of evaporation from the water surface and allowance for bottom water are to be added to the storage so found.

The period over which the reservoir equalizes the flow is shown by the number of years marked on the straight radial lines.

Where the absolute minimum stream flow is known to be greater than the minimum of 7 cubic feet per second per 1000 acres (170 gallons per acre per day) assumed in the diagram, the capacity of the reservoir as taken from the diagram may be reduced by the amount corresponding to that minimum flow for the particular rainfall and evaporation.
of cumulative flow ($J$ and $r$ respectively, in the one year diagram) which does not increase the aggregate cumulative supply between those points, the line of cumulative supply from the reservoir to the line of cumulative flow into it.

From diagrams constructed upon these principles, the general diagram (fig. 4) has been produced. To illustrate its use, assume the case of a mean rainfall of 50 in., figured in the right-hand column at the top of the diagram, and of 200,000,000 gallons of evaporation, and of equal evaporation for each acre, which would result also of the yield by the proposed dam. We find on the left-hand scale that the height of the ordinate drawn to the 50-inch mean rainfall curve from 200,000 on the capacity scale, is 1,457 gallons per day per acre; and the straight radial line, which cuts the point of intersection of the curved line and the co-ordinates, tells us that the reservoir will equalize the flow of the two driest consecutive years. Similarly, if we wish to equalize the flow of the three driest consecutive years we change the co-ordinates to the radial line figured 3, and thus find that the available capacity of the reservoir must be 276,000 gallons per acre, and that in consideration of the additional expense of three driest consecutive years, we will increase the daily yield to 1,612 gallons per acre. In the same manner it will be found that by means of a reservoir having an available capacity of only 118,000 gallons per acre of the watershed, we might with the same rainfall and evaporation thus maintain a flow of 1,076 gallons per acre. In this case, the left-hand radial line passes through the point at which the coordinates meet, showing that the reservoir will just equalize the flow of all three driest years, and will yield any amount required, or the capacity required for any yield, corresponding with any mean rainfall from 30 to 100, and with the flow over any period, from the driest year to the six or more consecutive driest years, may be determined from the diagram.

It is instructive to note the ratio of increase of reservoir capacity and yield respectively for any given rainfall. Thus, assuming a mean rainfall of 60 in., during 50 years, subject to evaporation and losses equal to 14 in. throughout the dry period, we find from the diagram the following quantities (in gallons per acre of drainage area) and corresponding ratios:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years' receipt</th>
<th>Capacity of Reservoir</th>
<th>Yield of Reservoir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Net capacity per acre</td>
<td>Yield per day per</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of drainage area</td>
<td>acre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in gallons per acre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>162,000</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>256,000</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>352,000</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>431,000</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>496,000</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>541,000</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On comparing columns 3 and 6 or 4 and 7 it appears that so great is the increase in the size of a reservoir in relation to its increased receipts, that only in the most favourable places for reservoir construction, or under the most pressing need, can it be worth while to go beyond the capacity necessary to render uniform the flow of the three driest consecutive years.

It must be clearly understood that the diagram, fig. 4, does not relieve the reader from any exercise of judgment, except as regards the net capacity of reservoirs which we have hitherto assumed to have been obtained. It is merely a geometrical determination of the conditions necessarily consequent in England, Scotland and Wales, upon a given mean rainfall over many years, upon evaporation and absorption in particular years (both of which he must judge or determine for himself), and upon certain limiting variations of the rainfall, already stated to be the result of numerous records maintained in Great Britain for more than 50 years. It must also be remembered that the reservoirs of a mountainous region, or those of a large area of the same capacity, in order that in the driest seasons fish life may be maintained and no foul water may be drawn off.

The conditions of Ireland and certain parts of Great Britain, the diagram will give results rather unduly on the safe side, as the extreme annual variations of rainfall are less than in most parts of Great Britain. Throughout Europe the annual variations follow nearly the same law as in Great Britain, but in some parts the distribution of rainfall in a single year is often more trying. The droughts are longer, and the rain, when it falls, especially along the Mediternanean coast, is often concentrated into shorter periods. Moreover, it often falls upon sun-heated rocks, thus increasing the evaporation for the time; but guaghons made by the writer in the northern Apennines indicate that this loss is more than compensated by the greater rapidity of the fall and the The average volume in such regions, therefore, for reservoirs equalizing the flow of 2 or more years, the capacity necessary does not materially differ from that required in Great Britain. As the tropics are approached, even in the form of springs, the inequalities become graver, and occasionally the rainy season is entirely absent for a single year, though the mean rainfall is considerable.

We have hitherto dealt only with the collection and storage of that portion of the rainfall which flows over the surface of nearly impermeable areas. Upon such areas the loss by percolation into the ground, not retrieved in the form of springs, is the principal of interest. Thus, springs may be neglected, and the only loss to the stream that is already considered of re-evaporation into the air and of absorption by vegetation. But the crust of the earth varies from almost complete impermeability to almost complete permeability. Among the sedimentary rocks we have, for example, in the clay slates of the Silurian formations, rocks no less cracked and fissured than others, but generally quite impermeable by reason of the joints being filled with the very fine clay resulting from the rubbing of slate upon slate in the former environment of the strata. In the Old Red Sandstone, the Greensand and the upper Chalk, we find the opposite extremes; while the igneous rocks are for the most part only permeable in virtue of the open fissures they contain. Wherever, below the surface, there are pores or open fissures, water derived from rainfall is (except in the rare cases of displacement by gas) found at levels above the sea determined by the resistance of solids to its passage towards some neighbouring sea, lake or watercourse. Any such level is commonly known as the level of saturation. The positions of springs are determined by permeable depressions in the surface of the ground below. From general principles of hydrology, it is evident that the holding up of that level locally by comparatively impermeable strata, sometimes combined with a fault or a synclinal fold of the strata, forming the more permeable portion into an underground basin or channel lying within comparatively impermeable boundaries. At the lower lips or at the most permeable parts of these basins or channels such rainfall does not flow over the surface, or is not evaporated or absorbed by vegetation, and does not, while still below ground reach the level of the sea, issues as springs, and is the cause of the continued flow of rivers and streams. The times during periods of very great rainfall in dry weather, of such flow, generally reduced to terms of the fraction of a cubic foot per second, per thousand acres of the contributing area, is commonly known in water engineering as the "dry weather flow" and its volume at the end of the dry season as the "extreme dry weather flow."
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considerable depth, and by far the larger part of them through a great length of filtering material, and must have taken so long a time to reach the well that their organic character has disappeared. The principal water-bearing formations, utilized in Great Britain, are impermeable, and some of the most useful are the New Red Sandstone. The Upper and Middle Chalk are permeable almost through their mass. They hold water like a sponge, but part with it under pressure to fissures by which they are intersected, and, in the case of the Upper Chalk, to doubts following beds of flints. A well sunk in these formations without striking any fissure or water-bearing flint bed, receives water only at a very slow rate; but if, on the other hand, it strikes one or more of the natural water-ways, the quantity of water capable of being drawn from it will be greatly increased.

It is a notable fact in the fissure systems of the Middle Chalk formations that below their present valleys the underground water passes more freely than elsewhere. This is explained by the fact that the Chalk fissures are almost invariably rounded and enlarged by the erosion of carbonic acid carried from the surface by the water passing through them. These fissures take the place of the streams in an impermeable area, and those beneath the valleys must obviously be called upon to discharge more water from the surface, and thus be brought in contact with more carbonic acid, than similar fissures elsewhere. Hence the exact position for a well in the Chalk is generally that over which, if the strata were without a core of which the absorbing power of surface-water would flow. The Lower Chalk formation is for the most part impermeable, though it contains many ruptures and dislocations or smashes, in the interstices of which large bodies of water, received from the Upper and Middle Chalk, may be naturally stored, or which may merely form passages for water derived from the Upper Chalk. Thus despite the impermeability of its mass large springs are occasionally found to issue from the Lower Chalk. A striking example is that known as Lydden Spout, under Abbot's Cliff, near Dover. In practice it is usual in chalk formations to imitate artificially the action of such underground watercourses, by driving from the well small tunnels, or "adits" as they are called, below the water-level, to intercept fissures and water-bearing beds, and thus extend the collecting area.

Next in importance to the Chalk formations as a source of underground water supply comes the Trias or New Red Sandstone, consisting in Great Britain of two main divisions, the Keuper above and the Bunter below. With the exception of the Red Marls forming the upper part of the Keuper, most of the New Red Sandstone is impermeable, when saturated, even more water than solid chalk; but while as in the case of the chalk, a well or borehole in the sandstone yields very little water unless it strikes a fissure; hence, in New Red Sandstone also, it is a common thing to form underground chambers or adits in search of additional fissures, and sometimes to sink many vertical boreholes with the same object in view.

As the formation approaches the condition of pure sand, the water-bearing property of any given mass increases, but the difficulty of drawing water from it without admixture of sand also increases. In sand below water there are, of course, no open fissures, and even if adit driven, the cost of constructing and lining them through the loose sand would be prohibitive. The well itself must be lined; and its yield is therefore confined to such water as can be drawn through the sides or the bottom of the lining without setting up a sufficient velocity to cause any sand to flow with the water. Hence it arises that, in sand formations, only shallow wells or small boreholes are commonly found. Imagine for a moment that the sand grains were by any means rendered immobile without change in the permeability of their interspaces; we could then employ with the larger or brick-like lining of the well; but as there would still be no cracks or fissures to extend the area of percolating water exposed to the open well, the yield would be very small. Obviously, it must be very much smaller when the lining necessary to hold up loose sand is used. Uncemented brickwork, or perforated ironwork, are the usual materials employed for lining the well and holding up the sand, and the quantity of water drawn is kept below the comparatively small quantity necessary to produce a velocity, through the joints or orifices, capable of disturbing the sand. The rate of increase of velocity towards any isolated aperture through which water passes into the side of a well sunk in a deep bed of sand is, in the neighbourhood of that aperture, inversely proportional to the square of the distance therefrom. Thus, the velocity across a little hemisphere of sand only \( \frac{1}{2} \) in. radius covering a 1-in. orifice in the lining is more than 1000 times the mean velocity of the same water approaching the orifice radially when 16 in. therefrom. This illustration gives some idea of the enormous increase of yield of such a well, if, by any means, we can get rid of the frictional sand, even from within the 10 in. radius. We cannot do this, but happily the grains in a sand formation vary widely in diameter, and if, from the interstices between the larger grains in the neighbourhood of an orifice, we can remove the finer grains, the resistance to flow of water is at once enormously reduced. This was for the first time successfully done in a well, constructed by the Biggleswade Water Board in 1902, and now supplying water over a large area of North Bedfordshire. This well, 10 ft. diameter, was sunk through about 110 ft. of surface soil, glacial drift and impermeable gault clay and thence for a further depth of 70 ft. into the Lower Greensand formation, the outcrop of which is at the level of the floor of the Wash, passes south-westwards, and in Bedfordshire attains a thickness exceeding 250 ft. The formation is probably more or less permeable throughout; it consists largely of loose sand and takes the general south-easterly dip of British strata. The Biggleswade well was sunk by processes better known in connexion with the sinking of mine shafts and foundations of bridges across the deep sands or gravels of bays, estuaries and great rivers. Its full capacity has not been ascertained; it much exceeds the present pumping power, and is probably greater than that of any other single well assisted by adits or boreholes. This result is mainly due to the reduction of frictional resistance to the passage of water through the sand in the immediate neighbourhood of the well, by washing out the finer particles of sand and leaving only the coarser particles. For this purpose the lower 45 ft. of the cast-iron cylinders forming the well was provided with about 660 small orifices lined with gun-metal tubes or rings, each armed with numerous thicknesses of copper wire gauze, and temporarily closed with screwed plugs. On the removal of any plug, this wire gauze prevented the sand from flowing with the water into the well; but while the finer sand became washed away, the rate of flow of water through the contracted area was very small. To remove this obstruction the water was pumped out while the plugs kept the orifices closed. A flexible pipe, brought down from a steam boiler above, was then connected with any opened orifice. This pipe was provided, close to the orifice, with a three-way cock, by means of which the steam might be first discharged into the sand, and the current between the cock and the well then suddenly reversed and diverted into the well. The effect of thus alternately forcing high-pressure steam among the sand and then allowing it to escape, is to pack the sand into the well, is to break up any cohesion of the sand, and to allow all the finer particles in the neighbourhood of the orifice to rush out with the water through the wire gauze into the well. This process, in effect, leaves each orifice surrounded by a hemisphere of coarse sand across which the water flows with comparative freedom from a larger hemisphere where the corresponding velocity is very slow, and where the presence of finer and more obstructive particles is therefore unimportant. Many orifices through which water at first only dribbled were thus caused to discharge water with great force, and entirely free from sand, against the opposite side of the well, while the general result was to increase the inflow of water many times, and to entirely prevent the intrusion of sand. Where, however, a firm rock of any kind is encountered, the yield of a well (under a given head of water) can only be increased by enlargement.
of the main well in depth or diameter, or by boreholes or adits.

No rule as to the adoption of any one of these courses can be laid down, nor is it possible, without examination of each particular case, to decide whether it is better to attempt to increase the yield of the well or to construct an additional well some distance away. By lowering the head of water in any well which draws its supply from porous rock, the yield is always temporarily increased. Every well has its own particular level of water while steady pumping at a given rate is going on, and if that level is lowered by harder pumping, it may take months, or even years, for the water in the interstices of the rock to accommodate itself to the new conditions; but the permanent yield after such lowering will always be less than the quantity capable of being pumped shortly after the change. We have hitherto supposed the pumps for drawing the water to have been placed in the well at such a level as to be accessible, while the suction pipe only is below water. Pumps, however, may be (and have been) placed deep down in boreholes, so that water may be pumped from much greater depths. By this means the head of pressure in the boreholes tending to hold the water back in the rock is reduced, and the supply consequently increased; but when the cost of maintenance is included, the increased supply from the adoption of this method rarely justifies the experiment. When the water has been lowered by pumping to a lower level its passage through the sandstone or chalk in the neighbourhood of the borehole is further resisted by the smaller length of borehole below the water; and there are many instances in which repeated lowering and increased pumping, both from wells and boreholes, have had the result of reducing the water available, after a few years, nearly to the original quantity. One other method—the use of the so-called "air-lift"—should be mentioned.

Air-lift. This ingenious device originated in America. The object attained by the air-lift is precisely the same as that attained by pumping; it consists in increasing the head of the water in point of pressure, but instead of the head being reduced by means of the pump, it is reduced by mixing the water with air. A pipe is passed down the borehole to the desired depth, and connected with air-compressors at the surface. The compressors being set to work, the air is caused to issue from the lower end of the pipe and to mix in fine bubbles with the rising column of water, sometimes several hundred feet in height. The weight of the column of water, or rather of water and air mixed, is thus greatly reduced. The method will therefore always increase the yield for a given draw down by the pump, and in proportion to the reduction of weight. This, of course, means that the water of such a borehole will be more easily accessible, and its economic usefulness less than at first, but its economy must always be less than that of direct pumping.

In considering the principles of well supplies it is important to bear the following facts in mind. The crust of the earth, so far as it is permeable and above the sea-level, receives from rainfall its supply of fresh water. That supply, so far as it is not evaporated or absorbed by vegetation, passes away by the streams or rivers, or sinks into the ground. If the strata were uniformly porous the water would lie in the rock at different depths below the surface according to the previous quantity and distribution of the rainfall. It would slowly, but constantly, percolate downwards and towards the sea, and would ooze out at or below the sea-level, rarely regaining the earth's surface earlier except in deep valleys. Precisely the same thing happens in the actual crust of the earth, except that, in the formations usually met with, the strata are so irregularly permeable that no such uniform percolation occurs, and most of the water, instead of oozing out near the sea-level, meets with obstructions which cause it to issue, sometimes below the sea-level and sometimes above it, in the form of concentrated springs. After prolonged and heavy rainfall the upper boundary of the sub-soil water is, except in high ground, nearly coincident with the surface. After prolonged droughts it still retains more or less the same figure as the surface, but at lower depths and always with less pronounced differences of level.

Sedimentary rocks, formed below the sea or salt lagoons, must originally have contained salt water in their interstices. On the upheaval of such rocks above the sea-level, fresh water from rainfall began to flow over their exposed surfaces, and, so far as the strata were permeable, to lie in their interstices upon the salt water. The weight of the original salt water above the sea-level, and of the fresh water so superimposed upon it, caused an overflow towards the sea. A hill, as it were, of fresh water rested in the interstices of the rock upon the salt water, and continuing to press downwards, forced out the salt water even below the level of the sea. Subject to the rock being porous this process would be continued until the greater column of the lighter fresh water balanced the smaller head of sea water. It would conceivably take but a small fraction of the period that has in most cases elapsed since such upheaval occurred for the salt water to be thus displaced by fresh water, and for the condition to be attained as regards saturation with fresh water, in which with few exceptions we now find the porous portions of the earth's crust wherever the rainfall exceeds the evaporation. There are cases, however, as in the valley of the Jordan, where the ground is actually below the sea-level, and where, as the total evaporation is equal to or exceeds the rainfall, the lake surfaces also are below the sea-level. Thus, if there is any percolation between the Mediterranean and the Dead Sea, it must be towards the latter. There are cases also where sedimentary rocks, formed below the sea or salt lagoons, are entirely impermeable: thus the salt deposited in parts of the Upper Keuper of the New Red Sandstone, is protected by the red marls of the formation, and has never been washed out. It is now worked as an important industry in Cheshire.

Perhaps the most instructive cases of nearly uniform percolation in nature are those which occur in some islands or peninsulas formed wholly of sea sand. Here water is maintained above the sea-level by the annual rainfall, and may be drawn off by wells or bores. On such an island, in the centre of which a borehole is put down, brackish water may be reached far below the sea-level; the salt water forming a saucer, as it were, in which the fresh water lies. Such a salt-water saucer of fresh water is maintained full to overflowing by the rainfall, and owing to the frictional resistance of the sand and to capillary action and the fact that a given column of fresh water is balanced by a shorter column of sea water, the fresh water never sinks to the mean sea-level unless artificially abstracted.

Although such uniformly permeable sand is rarely met with in great masses, it is useful to consider in greater detail so simple a case. Let the irregular thick line in fig. 5 be the section of a circular island a mile and a quarter in diameter, of uniformly permeable sand.

The mean sea-level is shown by the horizontal line aa, dotted where it passes through the land, and the natural mean level of saturation be bb, above the sea-level, by a curved dot and dash line. The water, contained in the interstices of the sand above the mean sea-level, would (except in so far as a film, coating the sand particles, is held up by capillary attraction) gradually sink to the sea-level if there were no rainfall. The resistance to its passage through the sand is, however, sufficiently great to prevent this from occurring while percolation of the annual rainfall takes place.

Hence we may suppose that a condition has been attained in which the denser salt water below and around the saucer CC (greatly exaggerated in vertical scale) balances the less dense, but deeper
water whatever. Thus natural or artificial surfaces which are completely permeable to rainfall may become almost impermeable when protected by surface water from direct rainfall. Such an extent as to form a earthwork to prevent vegetation and artificial disturbance. The cause of this choking of the pores is precisely the same as that described below in the case of sand filters. But in order that the action may be possible the initial resistance to percolation of water at every part of the soil must be such that the motion of the water through it shall be insufficient to disturb the water-borne mineral and organic particles lodged on the surface or in the interstices of the soil. If, therefore, a reservoir so formed survives the first few years without serious leakage, it is not likely, in the absence of artificial disturbance, to stand much longer. However, as the survival of the fittest, there are many artificial wastes, with low dams consisting exclusively of earth—and sometimes very sandy earth—safely and satisfactorily performing their functions with no visible leakage. But it is never advisable to rely upon this action, where, as in the case of a reservoir for water supply, large portions of naturally permeable bottom are liable to be uncovered and exposed to the weather.

The most important dams are those which close the outlets of existing valleys, but a dam may be wholly below ground, and according to the commoner method of construction the rising ground is not met with at the intended boundary of a reservoir, a trench is cut along such portion, and carried down to rock or such other formation as, in the engineer's opinion, forms a sufficiently impermeable sheet beneath the whole surface to be covered with water. Into this trench so-called "puddled clay," that is, clay rendered plastic by kneading with water, is filled and thoroughly worked with special tools, and trodden in layers. In this manner an underground compartment is formed, the bottom of which is natural, and the sides partly natural and partly artificial, both offering support to the passage of water. Above ground, if the water level is to be higher than the natural boundary, the same puddle walls or cores are carried up to the required level, and are supported as they rise by embankments of earth on either side.

Fig. 6 is a typical section of a low dam of this class, impounding water upon gravel overlying impermeable clay. In such a structure the whole attention as regards water-tightness should be concentrated upon the puddle wall or core. When, as may happen in dry seasons, the puddle wall remains long above the water level, it parts with moisture and contracts. It is advisable in such cases to provide a small depression in the surface, which may possibly produce cracking. Drying is retarded, and the contraction due to a given degree of drying is greatly reduced, by the presence of sand and small stones to the requisite extent. If the surface is not thrown up, naturally contain sand and stones, 40 to 50%, by weight of which is not too much if uniformly distributed and if the clay is otherwise good. But in the lower parts of the trench, where the clay can never become dry, plasticity and ductility are, for reasons to be explained below, the first consideration, and there the proportion of grit should be lower. The resistance of clay to percolation by water depends chiefly upon the density of the clay, while the density is rapidly reduced if the clay is permitted to absorb water. Thus, if dry clay is prevented from expanding, and one side be subjected to water pressure while the other side is held up by a completely drained medium, the percolation will be exceedingly small; but if the pressure preventing the expansion is reduced the clay will swell, and the percolation will increase. On the restoration of the pressure, the density will again increased by the reduction of the
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Water-filled interstices, and the percolation will be correspondingly checked. Here the extreme importance in high dams with clay cores of loading the clay well for some time before water pressure is brought against it. If this is done, the largest possible quantity of clay will be slowly but surely forced into any space, and, being prevented from expanding, it will be unable subsequently to absorb more water. The percolation will then be very small, and the risk of disintegration will be reduced to a minimum. The embankments on either side of the puddle wall are merely to support the puddle and to keep it moist above the ground level when the reservoir is low. They may be quite permeable, but to prevent undue settlement and distortion they must, like the puddle itself, be well consolidated. In order to prevent a tendency to slip, due to sudden and partial changes of saturation, the outer embankment should always be permeable, and well drained at the base, as well as close to the puddle. The less permeable materials should be confined to the inner parts of the embankments; this is especially important in the case of the inner embankment in order that, when the water level falls, they may remain moist without becoming liable to slip. The inner slope should be protected from the action of waves by so-called "hand-pitching," consisting of roughly-squared stonework, bedded upon a layer of broken stone to prevent local disturbance of the embankment by action of the water between the joints of the larger stones.

In mountain valleys, rock, or shales, commonly the most impermeable material met with in such percolation, is sometimes not reached till considerable depths are attained. There are several cases in Great Britain where it has been necessary to carry down the puddle trench to about 200 ft. below the surface of the ground vertically above those parts. The highest dams of this class in the British islands impound water to a level of about 110 ft. above the bottom of the valley. Such great works have generally been well constructed, and there are many which after fifty years of use are perfectly sound and water-tight, and afford no evidence of deterioration. On the other hand, the partial or total failure of smaller dams of this description, to retain the reservoir water, has been much more common in the past than is generally supposed. Throughout Great Britain there are still many reservoirs, with earthen dams, which cannot safely be filled; and others, which, after remaining in a dangerous condition, have been repaired. From such cases and their successful repair valuable experience of the causes of failure may be derived.

Most of these causes are perfectly well understood by experienced engineers, but instances of

Erosion by malconstruction of recent date are still met with, and a few such cases will now be glanced at.

A puddle trench is often found to have been placed upon rock, perfectly sound in itself, but having joints which are not impermeable. The loss of water by leakage through such joints or fissures below the puddle wall may or may not be a serious matter in itself; but if at any point there is sufficient movement of water across the base of the trench to produce the slope of the juction of the clay above it, that movement almost invariably increases. The finer particles of clay in the line of the joint are washed away, while the sandy particles, which nearly all natural clays contain, remain behind and form a constantly deepening porous vein of sand crossing the base of the puddle. Percolation through this sand is thus added to the original leakage. Having passed through the puddle core the leaking water sometimes rises to the surface of the ground, producing a visible turbid spring. As erosion proceeds, the contraction of the space from which the clay is washed continues, chiefly by the sinking down of the clay above the sand. Thus the permeable vein grows vertically rather than horizontally, and ultimately assumes the form of a thin vertical sheet traversing the puddle wall, often diagonally in plan, and having a thickness which has varied in different cases from a few inches to a couple of feet or more, of almost clean sand rising to an observed height of 30 or 40 ft., and only arrested in its upward growth by the necessary lowering of the reservoir water to avoid serious danger. The settlement of the plastic clay above the eroded portion soon produces a surface depression at the top of the embankment over or

\[ \text{Fig. 8.—Leakage due to improperly formed discharge culvert through puddle wall of reservoir.} \]
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Fig. 9.—Overhanging Rock Leakage. The lesson taught by fig. 8 applies also to the ends of puddle walls where they abut against steep faces of rock. Unless such faces are so far below the surface of the puddle, and so related to the lower parts of the trench, that no tension, and consequent tensile separation of the puddle from the rock, can possibly take place, and unless abundant time is given, before the reservoir is charged, for the settlement and compression of the puddle to be completed, leakage with disastrous results may occur.

In other cases leakage and failure have arisen from allowing part of the rock bottom or end of a puddle trench to overhang, as in fig. 9. Here the straining of the original horizontal puddle in settling down is indicated in a purposely exaggerated way by the curved lines. There is considerable distortion of the clay, resulting from combined shearing and tensile stress, above each of the steps of rock, and reaching its maximum at and above the highest rise of the rock, where it has proved sufficient to produce a dangerous line of weakness. The tension at the top of the rock may be caused by actual rupture, or such increased porosity as to permit of percolation capable of keeping open the wound. In such cases as are shown in figs. 8 and 9 the growth of the sand vein is not vertical, but inclined towards the plane of maximum shearing strain. Fig. 9 also illustrates a weak place at b where the clay either never pressed hard against the overhanging rock or has actually been drawn away from it in the process of settling towards the lower part of the rock. When it is considered that a parting of the clay, sufficient to allow the thinnest film of water to pass, may start the formation of a vein of porous sand in the manner above explained, it will be readily seen the attention of the engineer, in preventing percolation, is to be directed to the placing of puddle clay deep enough to prevent the escape of water to the lower part of the reservoir.

If no considerable difference of water-pressure had been allowed between the two sides of the puddle trench in figs. 8 or 9 until the clay had ceased to settle under its own weight, it is probable that the interstices, at first formed between the puddle and the concrete or brickwork, would have been sufficiently filled to prevent injurious percolation in the future. Hence it is always safe to permit of percolation at the expense of time in order that the settlement of the clay around the rock may be decided.

Such precautions should be added to the use of concrete or brickwork tongues running longitudinally at the bottom of the trench, such as those shown at a higher level in fig. 7.

In addition to defects arising out of the condition or figure of the rock, if puddle work upon which rests the rock wall is itself defective, the original material may have been perfectly satisfactory, but if, for example, in the progress of the work a stream of water is allowed to percolate down the rock, or a wall of water is washed at the surface, gravel or sand associated with it to a sufficient extent to permit of future percolation. Unless such places are carefully dug out or re-puddled before the work of filling is resumed, the percolation may increase along the vertical plane where it is greatest, by the erosion and falling in of the clay roof, as in the other cases cited.

Two instances probably originating in some such cause are shown in fig. 11 in the relative positions in which they were found, and carefully measured, as the puddle was removed from a cleft reservoir dam. These fissures are in vertical planes stretching entirely across the puddle trench, and reaching in one case 63, nearly to the highest level at which the reservoir had been worked for nineteen years after the leakage had been discovered. The larger and older of these veins was 44 ft. high, of which 11 ft. was above the original ground level, and it is interesting to note that this portion, owing probably to easier access for the water from the reservoir and reduced compression of the puddle, was much wider than below. The little vein to the left marked 60, about 36 ft. deep, is curious. It looks like the beginning of success of an effort made by a slight percolation during the whole life of the reservoir to increase itself materially by erosion.

Fig. 11.—Vertical Vein of Leakage.

There is no reason to believe that the initial cause of such a leakage could be developed except during construction, and it is certain that once begun it must increase. Only a knowledge of the great loss of capital that has resulted from abortive reservoir construction justifies this notice of defects which can always be avoided, and are too often the direct result, not of design, but of parsimony in providing during the execution of such works, and especially here below, a sufficiency of intelligent, experienced, and conscientious supervision.

In some cases, as, for example, when a high earthen embankment ceases a gorge, and there is plenty of stone to be had, it is desirable to place the outer hard upon a toe or platform of rubble-stones, as in fig. 7, by which means the height of the earthen portion is reduced and complete drainage secured. But here again great care must be exercised in the packing and consolidation of the stones, which will otherwise crack and settle.

As with many other engineering works, the tendency to slipping of the sides of the valley or of the reservoir itself has often given trouble, and has sometimes led to serious disaster.
This, however, is a kind of failure not always attributable to want of proper supervision during construction, but rather to improper choice of the site, or treatment of the case, by those primarily responsible.

In countries where good clay or retentive earth cannot be obtained, numerous alternative expedients have been adopted with more or less success. In the mining districts of America, for example, where timber is cheap, rough stone embankments have been lined with the water face, and timber fitted to form the water-tight septum. In such a position, even if the timber can be made sufficiently water-tight to begin with, the alternate immersion and exposure to air and sunshine promotes expansion and contraction, and induces rapid disintegration, leakage and decay. Such an expedient may be justified by the doubtful future of mining centres, but would be out of the question for permanent water supply. Riveted sheets of steel have been occasionally used, and, where bedded in a sufficient thickness of concrete, with success. At the East Caliton Creek dam, Utah, the height of which is about 61 ft., above the stream, the trench below ground was filled with concrete much in the usual way, while above ground the water-tight diaphragm consists of a riveted steel plate varying in thickness from $\frac{3}{4}$ in. to 3 in. This steel septum was protected on either side by a thin wall of asphaltic concrete supported by rubble stone embankments, and owing to irregular settling of the embankments became greatly distorted, apparently, however, without causing leakage. Asphalt, whether a natural product or artificially obtained, as, for example, in some chemical manufactures, is a most useful material if properly employed, but the ordinary asphalt, under sudden impact it is brittle, and has a conchoidal fracture like glass; but under continued pressure it has the properties of a viscous fluid. The rate of flow is largely dependent upon the proportion of bitumen it contains, and is of course retarded by mixing it with sand and stone to form what is commonly called asphalt concrete. But given time, all such compounds, if they contain enough bitumen to render them water-tight, appear to settle down even at ordinary temperatures as heavy viscous fluids, retaining their fluidity permanently if not exposed to the air. Thus they not only penetrate all cavities in an exceedingly small manner, but exert pressures in all directions, which, owing to the density of the asphalt, are more than 40% greater than would be produced by a corresponding depth of water. From the neglect of these considerations numerous failures have occurred.

Elsewhere, a simple concrete or masonry wall or core has been used above as well as below ground, being carried up between embankments either of earth or rubble stone. This construction has received its highest development in America. On the Titicus, a tributary of the Croton river, an earthen dam was completed in 1805, with a concrete core wall 100 ft. high—almost wholly above the original ground level, which is said to be impermeable; but other dams of the same system, with core walls of less than 100 ft. in height, are apparently in their present condition not impermeable. Reservoir No. 4 of the Boston waterworks, completed in 1885, has a concrete core wall. The embankment is 1800 ft. long and 60 ft. high. The core wall is about 8 ft. thick at the bottom and 4 ft. thick at the top, and in the middle of the valley nearly 100 ft. in height. At irregular intervals of 150 ft. or more buttresses 3 ft. wide and 7 ft. thick break the continuity on the water side. That this work has been regarded as successful is shown by the fact that Reservoir No. 6 of the same waterworks was subsequently constructed and completed in 1894 with a similar core wall. There is no serious difficulty in so constructing walls of this kind as to be practically water-tight while they remain unbroken; but owing to the settlement of the earthen embankments and the changing level of saturation they are undoubtedly subject to irregular stresses which cannot be calculated, and under which, speaking generally, plastic materials are much safer. In Great Britain or concrete core walls have been generally confined to positions below ground. Thus placed, no serious strains are caused either by changes of temperature or of moisture or by movements of the lateral supports, and with proper ingredients and care a very thin wall wholly below ground may be made water-tight.

The next class of dam to be considered is that in which the structure as a whole is so bound together that, with certain reservations, it may be considered as a monolith subject chiefly to the overturning tendency of water-pressure resisted by the weight of the structure itself and the supporting pressure of the foundation. Masonry dams are, for the most part, merely retaining walls of exceptional size, in which the overturning pressure is water. If such a dam is sufficiently strong, and is built upon sound and moderately rough rock, it will always be incapable of sliding. Assuming also that it is incapable of crushing under its own weight and the pressure of the water, it must, in order to fail entirely, turn over on its outer toe, or upon the outer face at some higher level. It may do this in virtue of horizontal water-pressure alone, or of such pressure combined with upward pressure from intrusive water at the base in any other horizontal plane. Assume first, however, that there is no uplift from intrusive water. As the pressure of water is nil at the surface and increases in direct proportion to the depth, the overturning moment is as the cube of the depth; and the only figure which has a moment of resistance due to gravity, varying also as the cube of its depth, is a triangle. The form of stability having the least sectional area is therefore a triangle. It is obvious that the angles at the base of such a hypothetical dam must depend upon the relation between its density and that of the water. It can be shown, for example, that for masonry having a density of 3, water being 1, the figure of minimum section is a right-angled triangle, with the water against its vertical face; while for a greater density the water face must lean towards the water, and for a less density away from the water, so that the water may lie upon it. For the sections of masonry dams actually used in practice, on designed on the condition that the centre of all vertical pressures when the reservoir is full shall be, as hereafter provided, at two-thirds the width of the base from the inner toe, the least sectional area for a density of 2 also has a vertical water face. As the density of the heaviest rocks is only 3, that of a masonry dam must have its vertical water face also. For these densities, the deviation of the water face from the vertical in the figure of least sectional area is, however, so trifling that, so far as this consideration is concerned, it may be neglected.

If the right-angled triangle $abc$, fig. 12, be a profile 1 ft. thick of a monolithic dam, subject to the pressure of water against its vertical side to the full depth $ab = d$ in feet, the horizontal pressure of water against the section of the dam, increasing uniformly with the depth, is properly represented by the isocles right-angled triangle $abe$, in which $be$ is the maximum water-pressure due to the full depth $d$, while the area $\frac{1}{2}ab = \frac{1}{2}d^2$ is the total horizontal pressure against the dam, generally stated in cubic feet of water, acting at one-third its depth above the base. Then $\overline{ac}$ is the resultant horizontal pressure with an overturning moment of

$$\frac{d^2}{6}$$

(1)

If $b$ be the width of the base, and $\rho$ the density of the masonry, the weight of the masonry in terms of a cubic foot of water will be $\frac{\rho d b}{3}$ acting at its centre of gravity $g$, situated at $\frac{3}{4}b$ from the outer toe, and the moment of resistance to overturning on the outer toe,

$$\frac{\rho d b}{3}$$

(2)
Equating the moment of resistance (2) to the overturning moment (1), we have
\[
\frac{\text{axd}}{3} = d^2
\]
and
\[
x = \frac{d}{\sqrt{2p}} \quad \quad \quad (3)
\]
That is to say, for such a monolith to be on the point of overturning under the horizontal pressure due to the full depth of water, its base must be equal to that depth divided by the square root of twice the density of the monolith. For a density of 2.5 the base would therefore be 44.7% of the height.

We have now to consider what are the necessary factors of safety, and the modes of their application. In the first place, it is out of the question to allow the water to rise to the vertex \(a\) of such a masonry triangle. A minimum thickness must be adopted to give substance to the upper part; and where the dam is not used as a weir it must necessarily rise several feet above the water, and may in either event have to carry a roadway. Moreover, considerable mass is required to reduce the internal strains caused by changes of temperature. In the next place, it is necessary to confine the pressure, at every point of the masonry, to an intensity which will give a sufficient factor of safety against crushing. The upper part of the dam having been designed in the light of these conditions, the whole process of completing the design is simple enough when certain hypotheses have been adopted, though somewhat laborsious in its more obvious form. It is clear that the greatest crushing pressure must occur, either, with the reservoir empty, near the lower part of the water face \(ab\), or with the reservoir full, near the lower part of the outer face \(ac\). The principles hitherto adopted in designing masonry dams, in which the moment of resistance depends upon the figure and weight of the masonry, involves certain assumptions, which, although not quite true, have proved useful and harmless, and are so convenient that they may be continued with due regard to the modifications which recent investigations have suggested. One such assumption is that the dam is so well built, the intensity of vertical pressure will (neglecting local irregularities) vary nearly uniformly from face to face along any horizontal plane. Thus, to take the simplest case, if also (fig. 13) represents a rectangular mass already designed for the superstructure

of the dam, and \(g\) its centre of gravity, the centre of pressure upon the base will be vertically under \(g\), that is, at the centre of the base, and the load will be properly represented by the rectangle \(bfc\), of which the area represents the total load and the uniform depth of its uniform intensity. At this high part of the structure the intensity of pressure may be nearly uniform, much less than its permissible intensity. If now we assume the water to have a depth \(d\) above the base, the total water pressure represented by the triangle \(kbb\) will have its centre at \(d/3\) from the base, and by the parallelogram of forces, assuming the density of the masonry to be 2.5, we find that the centre of pressure upon the base \(bc\) is shifted from the centre of the base to a point \(j\) nearer to the outer toe \(e\), and adopting our assumption of uniform intensity of forces, the rectangular diagram of pressures will thus be distorted from the figure \(bfg\) to the figure of equal area \(bjfc\), having its centre \(o\) vertically under the point at which the resultant of all the forces cuts the base \(bc\). For any lower level the same treatment may be made, step by step, be adopted, until the maximum intensity of pressure \(e\) exceeds the assumed permissible intensity for the centre of pressure reaches an assigned distance from the outer toe \(e\), when the base must be widened until the maximum intensity of pressure or the centre of pressure, as the case may be, is brought within the prescribed limit. The resultant force of the kind shown in fig. 13.

Having thus determined the outer profile under the conditions hitherto assumed, it must be similarly ascertained that the water face is everywhere capable of resisting the vertical pressure of the masonry when the reservoir, and under the assumption of the base of each compartment must be widened if necessary in that part and the dam widened above 100 ft. in height, further adjustment of the outer profile may be required by reason of the deviation of the inner profile from the straight.

The effect of this process is to give a series of points in the horizontal planes at which the resultant of all forces above those planes respectively cut the plane. Curved lines, indicated in fig. 14, drawn through these points give the centre of pressure, for the reservoir full and empty respectively, at any horizontal plane. The general principles were given by Messrs. Grasen and Deloré of the Ponts et Chaussées, and about the year 1866 were put into practice in the Furens dam near St Etienne. In 1871 the late Professor Rankine, F.R.S., whose remarkable perception of the practical fitness of solutions, and the modesty of his over-valued conclusions gives his writings exceptional value, received from Major Tulloch, R.E., on behalf of the municipality of Bombay, a request to consider the subject generally, and with special reference to very high dams, such as had not been constructed in India. Rankine pointed out that before the vertical pressure reached the maximum pressure permissible, the pressure tangential to the slope might do so. Thus conditions of stress are conceivable in which the maximum would be tangential to the slope or nearly so, and would therefore increase the vertical stress in proportion to the coscentic squared of the slope. It is very doubtful whether this pressure is ever reached, but such a limit, rather than that of the vertical stress must be considered when the height of a dam demands it. Next, Rankine pointed out that in a structure exposed to the overturning action of forces which fluctuate in amount and direction, there should be no appreciable tension at any point of the masonry. But there is a still more important reason why this condition should be strictly adhered to as regards the inner face. We have hitherto considered only the horizontal pressure of the water; but if from originally defective construction, or from the absence of vertical pressure due to weight of masonry towards the water edge of any horizontal bed, as at \(ab\) in fig. 14, water intrudes beneath that part of the masonry more readily than it can obtain egress along \(bc\), or in any other direction towards the outer face, we shall have the uplifting and overturning pressure due to the full depth of water in the reservoir over the width \(ab\) added to the horizontal pressure, in which case all our previous calculations would be futile. The condition, therefore, that there shall be no tension is an element of design; but when we come to construction, we must be careful also that no part of the wall shall be less permeable than the water face, and in fig. 14 we have seen that the varying depth of the area \(bjfc\) approximately represents the varying distribution of the vertical stress. If, therefore, the centre of that became so far removed to the right as to make \(j\) coincident with \(s\), the diagram of forces would become the triangle \(Jfc\), and the vertical pressure at the inner face would be nil. This will evidently happen when the centre of pressure \(j\) is two-thirds from the inner toe \(b\) and one-third from the outer toe \(c\); and if we displace the diagram of forces still further to the right, the condition that the centre of the figure of the diagram shall be vertically under that centre of pressure can only be fulfilled by allowing the point \(j\) to cross the horizontal line \(bc\), and the vertical pressure will be nil.

Hence it follows that on the assumption of uniformly varying stress the line of pressures, when the reservoir is full, should not at any horizontal plane fall outside the middle third of the width of that plane. Rankine in his report adopted the prudent course of taking as the safe limits certain pressures to which, at that time, such structures would be subjected. Thus for the inner face he took, as the limiting vertical pressure, 320 ft. of water, or nearly 9 tons per sq. ft., and on the face 250 ft. of water, or about 7 tons per sq. ft.
Fig. 15. Diagrams illustrating results of Wilson and Gour's experiments on an indiarubber model dam. Reservoir full.

The two systems of lines mutually at right angles show the directions of the maximum and minimum stresses, respectively. Such stresses are termed principal stresses. Tension is indicated by broken lines and compression by full lines.

The shearing stresses are zero along the lines of principal stress and reach a maximum on lines at 45° thereto. The magnitudes of the maximum and minimum shearing stresses are connected by algebraic differences of the thicknesses of the lines of principal stress.

Line $a b$ is in such a position that the stresses along and above it are not materially affected by the more irregular stresses below that line produced by the sudden change in section at the base of the dam. The vertical distance above the line $a b$ of any point in the dotted line $d e$ is proportional to the vertical component of the compressive stress on the line $d e$ assumed to vary uniformly from line to line and similarly the vertical distance of any point in the dot-and-dash line as above the line $a b$ is proportional to the horizontal component of the stress determined experimentally. The vertical component diagrams $o b$ and $o e$ are drawn to a larger scale than the lines indicating the principal stresses.

It is obvious that experiments of the kind referred to cannot take into account all the conditions of the problem met with in actual practice, such as the effect of the rock at the sides of the valley and variations of temperature, &c., but deviations in practice from the conditions which mathematical analyses or experiments assume are nearly always present. Such analyses and experiments are not on that account the less important and useful.

So far we have only considered water-pressure against the reservoir side of the dam; but it sometimes happens that the water and earth pressure against the outer face is considerable enough to modify the lower part of the section. In dams of moderate height above the ground and considerable depth below ground there is, moreover, no reason why advantage should not be taken of the earth resistance due either to the downstream face of the trench against which the foundations are built, or to the materials excavated and properly embanked against that face above the ground level or to both. We do not always know the least resistance which it is safe to give to a retaining wall subject to the pressure of earth, or conversely; the maximum resistance to side-threat which natural or embanked earth will afford, because we wisely neglect the important but very variable element of adhesion between the particles. It is notorious among engineers that retaining walls designed in accordance with the well-known theory of conjugate pressures in earth are unnecessarily strong, and this arises mainly from the assumption that the earth is merely a loose granular mass without any such adhesion. As a result of this theory, in the case of a normal retaining wall supporting a vertical face of earth beneath an extended horizontal plane level with the top of the wall, we get

$$P = \frac{2}{a} \cdot \sin \phi \cdot \frac{1 - \sin \phi}{2}$$

2 Engineering (May 12th, 1905).
where $P$ is the horizontal pressure of the earth against the wall exerted at one-third its height, $w$ the weight of unit volume of the material, $x$ the height of the wall, and $\phi$ the angle of repose of the material. That the pressure so given exceeds the maximum possible pressure we do not doubt; and, conversely, if we put

$$P' = \frac{wx^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\sin \phi}{1 - \sin \phi} \right)$$

we may have equal confidence that $P'$ will be less than the maximum pressure which, if exerted by the wall against the earth, will be borne without disturbance. But like every pure theory the principles of conjugate pressures in earth may lead to danger if not applied with due consideration for the angle of repose of the material, the modifications brought about by the limited width of artificial embankments, the possible contraction away from the masonry, of clayey materials during dry weather for some feet in depth and the tendency of surface waters to produce scour between the wall and the embankment. Both the Neuadd and the Fisher Farm dams are largely dependent upon the support of earthen embankments with much economy and with perfectly satisfactory results.

In the construction of the Vyrnwy masonry dam Portland cement concrete was used in the joints. When more than six months old, 9 in. cubes of this material never failed under compression below 111 tons per sq. ft. with an average of 167 tons; and the mean resistance of all the blocks tested between two and three years after moulding exceeded 215 tons per sq. ft., while blocks cut from the concrete of the dam gave from 181 to 219 tons per sq. ft. It has been shown that the best hydraulic lime, or volcanic puzzolana and lime, if properly ground while slaking, and otherwise treated in the best-known manner, as well as some of the so-called natural (calcareous) cements, will yield results certainly not inferior to those obtained from Portland cement. The only objection that can in any case be urged against most of the natural products is that a longer time is required for induration; but in the case of masonry dams sufficient time necessarily passes before any load, beyond that of the very gradually increasing masonry, is brought upon the structure. The result of using properly treated natural limes is not to be judged from the careless manner in which such limes have often been used in the past. Any stone of which it is desirable to build a masonry dam would certainly possess an average strength at least as great as the above figures for concrete; the clay slate of the Lower Silurian formation, used in the case of the Vyrnwy dam, had an ultimate crushing strength of from 700 to 1000 tons per sq. ft. If, therefore, with such materials the work is well done, and is not subsequently liable to be wasted or disintegrated by expansion or contraction or other actions which in the process of time affect all exposed surfaces, it is clear that 15 to 20 tons per sq. ft. must be a perfectly safe load. There are many structures at present in existence bearing considerably greater loads than this, and the granite ashray masonry of at least one, the Bear Valley dam in California, is subject to compressive stresses, reaching, when the reservoir is full, at least 40 to 50 tons per sq. ft., while certain brickwork linings in mining shafts are subject to very high circumferential stresses, due to known water-pressures. In one case which has been investigated this circumferential pressure exceeds 26 tons per sq. ft., and the brickwork, which is 18 in. thick and 20 ft. internal diameter, is perfectly sound and water-tight. In portions of the structure liable to important changes of pressure from the rise and fall of the water and subject to the additional stresses which expansion and contraction by changes of temperature and of moisture induce, and in view of the great difficulty of securing that the average modulus of elasticity in all parts of the structure shall be approximately the same, it is probably desirable to limit the calculated load upon any external work, even of the best kind, to 15 or 20 tons per sq. ft. It is clear that the material upon which any high masonry dam is founded must also have a large factor of safety against crushing under the greatest load that the dam can impose upon it, and this consideration unfit any site for the construction of a masonry dam where sound rock, or at least a material equal in strength to the strongest shale, cannot be had; even in the case of such a material as shale the foundation must be well below the ground.
The actual construction of successful masonry dams has varied from the roughest rubble masonry to ashlar work. It is probable, however, that, all things considered, random rubble in which the flattest side of each block of stone is dressed to a fairly uniform surface, so that it may be laid as it were upon its edge, secures the true masonry approach to uniform elasticity. Such stones may be of any size subject to each of them covering only a small proportion of the width of the structure (in the Vyrnwy dam they reached 8 or 10 tons each), and the spaces between them, where large enough, must be similarly built in with smaller, but always the largest possible, stones; spaces too small for this treatment must be filled and rammed with concrete. All stones must be beaten down into their beds until the mortar squeezes up into the joints around them. The faces of the work may be of squared masonry, though these may be pointed; but, in the case of the expansion and contraction mentioned below, it is better that the face masonry should not be coursed. Generally speaking, in the excavations for the foundations springs are met with; these may be only sufficient to indicate a continuous dampness at certain beds or joints of the rock, but all such places should be connected by relief drains carried to visible points at the back of the dam. It should be impossible, in short, for any part of the rock beneath the dam to become charged with water under pressure, either directly from the water in the reservoir or from higher places in the mountain sides. For similar reasons care must be taken to ensure that the structure of the face of the dam shall be the least permeable of any part. In the best examples this has been secured by bedding the stones near to the water face in somewhat finer mortar than the rest, and sometimes by placing pads to fill the joints for several inches from the water face, so that the mortar was kept away from the face and was well held up to its work. On the removal of the pads, or the cutting out of the face of the mortar where pads were not used, the vacant joint was gradually filled with almost dry mortar, a hammer and caulking tool being used to compact it. If the water face is not impermeable, it is advisable to obtain. If the pores of the water face are thus rendered extremely fine, the surface water, carrying more or less fine detritus and organic matter, will soon close them entirely and assist in making that face the least permeable portion of the structure.

But no care in construction can prevent the compression of the mass as the superincumbent weight comes upon it. Any given yard of height measured during construction, or at any time after construction, will be less than a yard when additional weight has been placed upon it. As the ends of such a dam are placed against rock surfaces must move with respect to those surfaces when the superincumbent load comes upon them. This action is obviously much reduced where the rock sides of the valley rise slowly; but in cases where the rock is very steep, the safest course is to face the facts, and not to depend for water-tightness upon the cementing of the masonry to the rock, but rather to provide a vertical key, or dowel joint, of some material like asphalt, which will always remain water-tight. So far as the writer has been able to observe or ascertain, there are very few dams in America which have not been cracked transversely in their higher parts. They generally leak a little near the junction with the rock, and at some other joints in intermediate positions. It is necessary that the Neudd dam this difficulty was met by deliberately omitting the mortar in transverse joints at regular intervals near the top of the dam, except just at their faces, where it of course cracks harmlessly, and by filling the rest with asphalt. Serious movement from expansion and contraction does not usually extend to levels which are kept moderately damp, or to the greater masses of the dam, many feet below high-water level.

The first masonry dam of importance constructed in Great Britain was that on the river Vyrnwy, a tributary of the Severn, in connection with the Liverpool water-supply (Plate 1). Its height, subject to water-pressure, is about 134 ft., and a carriage-way is carried on arches at an elevation of about 18 ft. higher. As this dam is about 1180 ft. in length from rock to rock, it receives practically no support from the sides of the valley. Its construction drew much attention to the subject of masonry dams in England—where the earthen dam, with a wall of puddled clay, had hitherto been almost universal—and since its completion nine more masonry dams of smaller size have been completed. In connexion with the Elan and Claerwen works, in Mid-Wales, for the supply of Birmingham, six masonry dams were projected, three of which are completed, including the Caban Coch dam, 590 ft. long at the water level, and subject to a water-pressure of 152 ft. above the rock foundations and of 122 ft. above the river bed, the Craig-y-balt Coch dam subject to a head of 133 ft. The latter dam is curved in plan, the radius being 710 ft. and the chord of the arc 515 ft. In the Dervent Valley scheme, in connexion with the water supplies of Derby, Leicestershire, Nottingham and Sheffield, six more masonry dams have received parliamentary sanction. Of these the highest is the Haggle, on the Ashop, a tributary of the Dervent, which will impound water about 136 ft. above the river bed, the length from rock to rock being 980 ft. Two of these dams are now in course of construction, one of which, the Howden, will be 1080 ft. in length and will impound water to a depth of 114 ft. above the river bed. In 1892 the excavation was begun for the foundations of a masonry dam across the Croton river, in connexion with the supply of New York. The length of this dam from rock to rock at the overflow level is about 1500 ft. The water face, over the maximum depth at which dam cuts the rock foundations, is subject to a water-pressure of about 260 ft., while the height of the dam above the river bed is 165 ft. The section, shown in fig. 17, has been well considered. The masonry is of rubble masonry, and the faces are coursed ashlar.

So-called "natural cement" has been used, except during frosty weather, when Portland cement was substituted on account of its more rapid setting. An important feature in connexion with this is the provision for the allowing of the masonry to be constructed in such a manner that the masonry dam is the nature of the foundation upon which it stands. Part of the rock is schist, but the greater portion limestone, similar in physical qualities to the Carboniferous limestone of Great Britain. The lowest part of the surface of this rock was reached after excavating through alluvial deposits to a depth of about 70 ft., but owing to its fissured and cavernous nature it became necessary to excavate to much greater depths, reaching in places more than 120 ft. below the original bottom of the valley. Great pains appear to have been taken to ascertain that the cavernous portions of the rock had been cut out and built upon before the building was begun. The foundations, dam, already referred to as the easiest part of a scientifically designed structure of the kind, is subject to a pressure of about 166 ft. of water; the valley it crosses is only about 300 ft. wide at the water level, and the dam is curved in plan to a radius of 828 ft. Much discussion has taken place as to the utility of such curvature. The recent investigations already referred to indicate the desirability of curving dams in plan in order to reduce the possibility of tension and inflation of water at the upstream face. It is not necessary to go into the extremely interesting and complex problems relating to the combined action of horizontal and vertical stresses arise, and in some such cases it is evident that much may be done by means of horizontal curvature to reduce the quantity of masonry without reduction of strength. The Bear valley dam, California, is the most
THE VYRNWY VALLEY, MONTGOMERYSHIRE, June 1888.

LAKE VYRNWY, December 1889.
daring example in existence of the employment of the arch principle. Its height from the rock bed is 64 ft., and it is subject during floods to 3 ft. of water not much less. The length of the chord of the arch across the valley is about 250 ft. and the radius 335 ft. The dam was begun in 1883, with a base 20 ft. thick, narrowing to 13 ft. at a height of 16 ft. The cost of this thickness being regarded as too great, it was abruptly reduced to 8 ft. 6 in., and for the remaining 48 ft. it was tapered up to a final width of about 3 ft. The masonry is described by Mr. Schuyler as "a rough uncut granite ashlar, with a hearting of rough rubble all laid in cement mortar and gravel." This dam has been in satisfactory use since 1883, and the slight filtration through the masonry which occurred at first is said to have almost entirely ceased.

In New South Wales thirteen thin concrete dams, dependent upon horizontal curvature for their resistance to water pressure, have been constructed in narrow gorges at comparatively small cost to impound water for the use of villages. The depth of water varies from 18 ft. to 76 ft., and five of them have cracked vertically, owing apparently to the impossibility of the base of the dam partaking of the changes of curvature induced by changes of temperature and of moisture in the upper parts. It is stated, however, that these cracks close up and become practically water-tight as the water rises.

Something has been said of the failures of earthen dams. Many masonry dams have also failed, but, speaking generally, we know less of the causes which have led to such failures. The examination of one case, however, namely, the bursting in 1895 of the Bouzey dam, near Epinal, in France, by which many lives were lost, has brought out several points of great interest. It is probably the only instance in which a masonry dam has slipped upon its foundations, and also the only case in which a masonry dam has actually overturned, while curiously enough there is every probability that the two circumstances had no connexion with each other. A short time after the occurrence of the catastrophe the dam was visited by Dr. W. C. Unwin, F.R.S., and the writer, and a very careful examination of the work was made by them. Some of the blocks of rubble masonry carried down the stream weighed several hundred tons. The original section of the dam is shown by the continuous thick line in fig. 18, from which it appears that the work was subjected to a pressure of only about 65 ft. of water. In the year 1884 a length of 450 ft. of the dam, out of a total length of 1705 ft., slipped upon its foundations and was overthrown. A similar event, as shown at a, b, fig. 19, the maximum movement from the original straight line being about 1 ft. Further sliding on the base was prevented by the construction of the cross-lined portions in the section (fig. 18). These precautions were perfectly effective in securing the safety of the dam up to the height to which the counterfort was carried. As a consequence of this horizontal bending of the dam the vertical cracks shown in fig. 19 appeared and were repaired. Eleven years after this, and about fifteen years after the dam was first brought into use, it overturned on its outer edge, at about the level indicated by the dots in fig. 19, and it is not without good reason to attribute to the movement of 1884, or to the vertical cracks it caused, any influence in the overturning of 1895.

Some of the worst cases of slipping have, indeed, entirely beyond the portion overturned, which consisted of the mass 570 ft. long by 5 ft. in depth, and weighing about 20,000 tons, shown in elevation in fig. 19. The line of pressures as generally given for this dam with the reservoir full, on the hypothesis that the density of the masonry was a little over 2, is shown by long dashes in fig. 18. The latter was computed according to the density assumed at from 1 to 1 ton per square foot. This, if the dam had been thoroughly well constructed, either with hydraulic lime or Portland cement mortar, would have been easily borne. The materials, however, were poor, and it is probable that rupture by tension in a roughly horizontal plane took place. Directly this occurred, the front part of the wall was subject to an additional overturning pressure of about 35 ft. of water acting upwards, equivalent to about a ton per square foot, which would certainly, if it occurred throughout any considerable length of the dam, have immediately overturned it. But, as a matter of fact, the dam actually stood for about fifteen years. Of this circumstance there are two possible explanations. It is known that more or less leakage took place through the dam, and to moderate this the water face was from time to time coated and repaired with cement. Any cracks were thus, no doubt, temporarily closed; and as the structure of the rest of the dam was porous, no opportunity was given for the percolating water to accumulate in the horizontal fissures to anything like the head in the reservoir. But in reservoir work such coatings are not to be trusted, and a single horizontal crack might admit sufficient water to cause an uplift. Then, again, it must be remembered that although the full consequences of the facts described might arise in a section of the dam 1 ft. thick (if that section were entirely isolated), they could not arise throughout the length unless the adjoining sections were subject to like conditions. Any horizontal fissure in a weak place would, in the nature of things, strike somewhere a stronger place, and the final failure would be deferred. Time would then become an element. By reason of the constantly changing temperatures which a section of the reservoir is exposed to, the reservoir, expansion and contraction, which are always at work tending to produce relative movements wherever one portion of a structure is weaker than another, must have assisted the water-pressure in the generation of the horizontal cracks, which, growing slowly during the fifteen years, provided at last the area required to enable the intrusive water to overbalance the little remaining stability of the dam.

**RESERVOIRS**

From very ancient times in India, Ceylon and elsewhere, reservoirs of great area, but generally of small depth, have been built and used for the purposes of irrigation; and in modern times, especially in India and America, comparatively shallow reservoirs have been constructed of much greater area, and in some cases of greater capacity, than any in the United Kingdom.
WATER SUPPLY

Reservoirs unsafe from this cause still exist in the United Kingdom. Where the contributory drainage area exceeds 5000 acres, the discharge of the stream which supplies the source is allowed to exceed the rate of about 300 cub. ft. per second per 1000 acres, or 1500 times the minimum dry weather flow, taken as one-fifth of a cubic foot; and if we provide against such an occasional discharge, with a proportionate maximum, at half-hourly or hourly intervals, a proper factor of safety will be allowed. But when a reservoir is placed upon a smaller area the conditions are materially changed.

The rainfall which produces, as the average of all the rainfall stations, the largest annual rainfall in any part of Great Britain, is made up of groups of rainfall of very varying intensity, falling upon different portions of that area, so that upon any section of it the intensity of the discharge will be modified. The height to which the water is permitted to rise above the sill of the overflow depends upon the height of the embankment above that level (in the United Kingdom commonly 6 or 7 ft.), and this again is governed by the coefficient of permeability, which in open places that height is seldom more than about one and a half times the square root of the "fetch" or greatest distance in nautical miles from which the wave has travelled to the point in question; but in narrow reaches or lakes it is relatively higher. In lengths not exceeding about 2 m., twice this height may be reached, giving for a 2-mile "fetch" about 3½ ft., or 1½ ft. above the mean level. Above of a weir, the height of the wave should be allowed for, making the embankment in such a case not less than 5½ ft. above the highest water-level. If, then, we determine that the depth of overflow shall not exceed 1½ ft. we arrive at 6½ ft. as sufficient for the purpose. In the case of a weir of 6½ ft. height we may shorten the sill at the cost of extra height of embankment, but it is rarely wise to do so.

The overflow sill or weir, the shape might be a square or rounded vertical section raised a foot or more above the waste-water course, in which case for a depth of 1½ ft. it will discharge, over every foot of length, about 6 cub. ft. per second. Thus, if the drainage area exceeds 5000 acres, and we provide for the passage of 300 cub. ft. per second per 1000 acres, such a weir will be 50 ft. long for every 1000 acres. But, as smaller areas are approached, the excessive local rainfalls of short duration must be provided for, and beyond these points works of very different character are needed. If, for instance, there is no record of any event before any exact records can be made; hence we know very little of them beyond the bare fact that from 1000 acres the discharge may rise to two or three times 300 cub. ft. per second per 1000 acres. In such cases it is necessary to assume that the maximum rainfall which has ever been recorded is that which is to be met with, and the case must be compared with a rainfall of 1000 ft. per hour, or with a mountain area of 1000 acres, the rate per 1000 was for a short time certainly not less than 1000 cub. ft. per second. Nothing but long observation and experience can help the hydraulic engineer judge of the configuration of the ground favourable to such phenomena. It is only necessary, however, to provide for these exceptional discharges during very short periods, so that the rise in the water-level may be taken into consideration; but subject to this provision must be made at the bye-wash for preventing such a flood, however rare, from filling the reservoir to a dangerous height.

From the overflow sill the bye-wash channel may be gradually narrowing, and then the stream may find its way to the river being prevented from attaining undue velocity by steps of heavy masonry, or, where the gradient is not very steep, by irregularly set masonry.

PURIFICATION

When surface waters began to be used for potable purposes, some mode of arresting suspended matter, whether living or dead, became necessary. In many cases guaze strainers were at first employed, and, as an improvement, or addition to these, the water was caused to pass through a bed of gravel or sand, which, like the guaze, was regarded merely as a strainer. As such strainers were further improved, by sorting the sand and gravel, and using the fine sand only at the surface, better clarification of the water was obtained; but chemical analysis indicated, or was at the time thought to indicate, that that improvement was practically confined to clarification, as the dissolved impurities in the water were certainly very little changed. Hence such filter beds, as they were then called, were regarded as necessary to some extent, and the necessity was thus indicated that, notwithstanding the absence of chemical improvement in the water, changes did take place of a most important kind. Following upon Dr Koch's discovery of a method of isolating bacteria, and of making approximate determinations of their number in any volume of water, a most remarkable diminution in the number of microbes contained in sand-filtered water was observed; and it is now well known that when a properly constructed sand-filter bed is in its best condition, and is worked in the best-known manner, nearly the whole of the microbes
existing in the crude water will be arrested. The sand, which is nominally the filter, has interstices about thirty times as wide as the largest dimensions of the larger microbes; and the reason why these, and, still more, why organisms which were individually invisible under any magnifying power, and could only be detected as colonies, were arrested, was not understood. In process of time it became clear, however, that the worse the condition of a filter bed, and the then general unskillfulness of the operator the better it was as a microbe filter; that is to say, it was not until a fine film of mud and microbes had formed upon the surface of the sand that the best results were obtained.

Even yet medical science has not determined the effect upon the human system of water highly charged with bacteria which are not known to be individually pathogenic. In the case of the bacilli of typhoid and cholera, we know the direct effect, but apart altogether from the presence of such specific poisons, polluted water is undoubtedly injurious. Where, therefore, there is animal pollution of any kind, more especially where there is human pollution, generally indicated by the presence of *bacillus coli communis*, purification is of supreme importance, and no process has yet been devised which, except at extravagant cost, supersedes for public supplies that of properly-conducted sand filtration. Yet it cannot be too constantly urged that such filtration depends for its comparative perfection upon the surface film; that this surface film is not present when the filter is new, or when its materials have been recently washed; that it may be, and very often is, punctured by the actual working of the filters, or for the purpose of increasing their discharge; and that at the best it must be regarded as an temporary of defence, not to be depended upon as a safeguard against highly polluted waters, if a purer source of supply can possibly be found. Such filters are not, and in the nature of things cannot be, worked with the precision and continuity of a laboratory experiment.

In fig. 21 a section is shown of an efficient sand-filter bed. The thickness of sand is 3 ft. 6 in. In the older filters it was usual to support this sand upon small gravel resting upon larger gravel, and so on until the material was sufficiently open to pass the water laterally to under-drains. But a much shallower and certainly not less efficient filter can be constructed by utilizing the interstices of the sand under-drains cover the whole bottom. In fig. 21 the sand rests on small gravel of such a size that the water percolates slowly through the sand, and so that the whole of the grains would be retained on a sieve of 2 in. mesh, or 20 mesh. The filter is covered by a sieve of 3-in. mesh in the clear, supported upon a 3-in. thickness of bricks laid close together, and constituting the roof of the under-drains, which are formed by other bricks laid on this asphalt upon a concrete floor. In this arrangement the whole of the materials may be readily removed for cleansing, and a simple automatic arrangement for the measurement of the supply to each separate filter, and for the regulation of the quantity within certain limits, is adopted, and the resistance at outflow is so arranged that not more than a certain head of water, say 2 ft., can under any circumstances come upon the surface film, while a depth of several feet of water is maintained over the sand. This is a mass of material through which the water should be so supplied that it will not disturb the surface of the sand. When a filter has been emptied, and is being re-charged, the water should be introduced from a neighbouring filter, and should pass upwards in the filter to be charged, until the sand has been covered. The unfiltered water may then be allowed to flow quietly and to fill the space above the sand to a depth of 2 or 3 ft. It would appear to be impossible with any water that requires filtration to secure that the first filtrate is not impervious, but that it begins immediately after a filter is charged; and if the highest results are to be obtained, either the unfiltered water must be permitted to pass extremely slowly over the surface of the sand without passing through it, or to stand upon the sand until the surface film has formed. With waters giving little or no sediment, which are often among the best dangers of water supply, it is often inexpedient to allow the filter to act slowly until the surface film is formed, and to discard the first effluent. This course can scarcely fail to introduce into the sand much gravel, which is often the very essence of the process, and the quality of the filter is impaired; and it should not, therefore, be adopted when the source of the supply is known to be subject to human pollution. Then, too, the formation of a surface film upon the sand changes the quality of the raw water, from a few hours to a few days. Judging from the best observations that have been made on a large scale, the highest rate of efficient filtration when the surface film is in good condition is about 4 ft. 3 in. down per hour of the water if the height of the filter is a foot above the sand, equivalent to about 50 gallons per day per square foot of sand. When the surface film has once been formed, and the filter has begun its work, it should continue without interruption as the resistance to filtration becomes more imperceptible, and the necessary quantity of water being passed. That period will vary, according to the condition of the water, from eight or ten days to four weeks. The surface film, together with half an inch of the sand, is then carefully scraped off and stored for subsequent washing and use. This process may be repeated many times until the thickness of the fine sand is reduced to about 1 in., when the filter bed should be restored to its full thickness.

A lately discovered effect of sand filtration is a matter of great importance in connexion with the subject of aqueducts. A brown slimy sediment, having the appearance of coffee grounds when placed upon water, being water, and has been observed in surface waters from mountain moorlands. The deposit grows on the sides of the pipes and accumulates at the bottom, and causes much obstruction, though the presence of its physiologic effects of disease, bacteriologists do not appear to have finally determined the true nature and origin of this growth, but it is found in the impounded waters, and passes into the pipes, where it rapidly increases. It is checked by fine copper wire-cloth strainers, and when the water passes through sand-filter beds in the course of an aqueduct, the growth, though very great between the reservoir and the filter beds, is quite absent from the sand-filter beds and the town. In the growth of the well-known nodular incrustations in iron pipes is much reduced by sand filtration. From these facts it is clear that, other things being the same, the best position for the strainers and filters is as close as possible to the town.

Some water-supplies dissolve lead when bright, but cease to do so when the lead becomes tarnished. More rarely the action is continuous, and the water after being passed through lead cisterns and is a product of this process, is called "plumism." The liability to this appears to be entirely removed by efficient sand filtration.

Sand filtration, even when working in the best possible manner, fails short of the perfection necessary to prevent the passage of bacteria which may multiply after the filter is passed. Small, however, as the micro-organisms are, they are larger than the interstices of the sand, and by being pushed into the sand by pressure may be caused to percolate. It is therefore natural that attempts should have been made to construct filters which, while permitting the slow percolation of water, should preclude the passage of bacteria of any size. In this manner the American engineers are probably the first which successfully accomplished this object was produced. In this apparatus, known as the Pasteur-Chamberland-Berkeley filter, constructed of baked insufiorial earth. Both these filters arrest the organisms by purely mechanical action, and if the joints are water-tight and they have proper attention and frequent sterilization, they both give satisfactory results on a small scale for domestic purposes. The cost, however—to say nothing of the uncertainty—where large volumes of water are concerned, much exceeds the cost of obtaining initially safe water. Moreover, if a natural water is so liable to pathogenic pollution as to demand filtration of this kind, it ought at once to be discarded for an initially pure supply; not necessarily pure in an apparent or even in a chemical sense, but essentially uninfected by the several considerations both of organic and inorganic impurity, and yet be tasteless and free from pathogenic pollution.

There are several materials now in use possessing remarkable power to decolorize clarity, chemically purify and oxidize water; but they are too costly for use in connexion with public water supplies unless a rate of filtration is adopted quite inconsistent with the use of a surface filter for the destruction of micro-ororganisms. This fact does not render them less useful when applied to the arts in which they are successfully employed.

Attempts have been made, by adding certain coagulants to the water, to enable the separation of the coarse matter, and thus form a material to arrest bacteria when passing through them at much higher velocities than are possible for successful filtration by means of the surface film upon sand. The effect is to produce between the grains of sand a barrier of small particles of colloidal matter, formed by the mud and microbes upon the surface of the sand filter. Elsewhere centrifugal force, acting somewhat after its manner in the cream separator, has been called in aid.
The sedimentation tank forms a very important help to filtration. In the case of river waters liable to turbidity the water should always be passed through such tanks before being placed in the filters. They form, moreover, additional safeguards against organic impurity. Sedimentation tanks on a sufficient scale may effect the purification of the water to almost any desired extent. This is shown to be the case by the purity of some lake
waters; but the first cost of the works and the subsequent removal of the sediment are in some cases a serious matter, and any approach to the comparatively perfect action of lakes is out of the question. By the use of such tanks, however, when the condition of the water demands it, and by passing the effluent water through sand filters when in good condition, the number of microbes is found to be reduced by as much as 97% or even 99%. This, when attained, is undoubtedly a most
important reduction in the chance of pathogenic bacteria passing into the filtered water; but much more must be done than has hitherto in most places been done to ensure the constancy of such a condition before it can be assumed to represent the degree of safety attained. No public supply should be open to any such doubt as to whether, or may, deter people from drinking the water without previous domestic filtration or boiling.

**Distribution**

The earliest water supplies in Great Britain were generally distributed at low pressure by wooden pipes or stone or brick conduits. For special purposes the Romans introduced cast-lead pipes, but they were regarded as luxuries, not as necessary, and gave way to cheaper conduits made, as pump barrels had long been made, by boring out tree trunks, which are occasionally dug up in a good state of preservation. This use of tree-trunks as pipes is still common in the wooded mountain districts of Europe. Within the 19th century, however, cast iron became general in the case of large towns; but following the precedent inseparable from the use of cast iron, the water was often delivered under low pressure, rarely more than sufficient to supply taps or tanks near the level of the ground, and generally only for a short period out of each twenty-four hours. On the introduction of the Waterworks Clauses Act 1847, an impetus was given to high-pressure supplies, and the same systems of distributing mains were frequently employed for the purpose; but with few exceptions the water continued to be supplied intermittently, and cisterns or tanks were necessary to store it for use during the periods of intermission. Thus it happened that pipes and joints intended for a low-pressure supply were subjected only to the trying ordeal of suddenly varying pressures. As a rule such pipes were not renewed: the leakage was enormous, and the difficulty was met by the very inefficient method of reducing the period of supply still farther. But even in entirely new distributing systems the network is so extensive, and the number of joints so great, that the aggregate leakage is always considerable; the greatest loss being at the so-called "ferrules" connecting the mains with the house "communication" or "service" pipes, in the lead pipes, and in the household fittings. But a far greater evil than mere loss of water and inconvenience soon proved too insurmountable from intermittent supply. Imagine a hilly town with a high-pressure water supply, the water issuing at numerous points, sometimes only in exceedingly small veins, from the pipes into the sub-soil. In the ordinary course of intermittent supply or for the purpose of repairs, the water is cut off at some point in the main above the leakages; but this does not prevent the continuance of the discharge in the lower part of the town. In the upper part there is consequently a tendency to the formation of a vacuum, and some of the impure sub-soil water near the higher leakages is sucked into the mains, to be mixed with the supply when next turned on. We are indebted to the Local Government Board for having traced to such causes certain epidemics of typhoid, and there can be no manner of doubt that the evil has been very general. It is therefore of supreme importance that the pressure should be constantly maintained, and to that end, in the best-managed waterworks the supply is not now cut off even for the purpose of connecting house-service pipes, an apparatus being employed by which this is done under pressure. Constant pressure being granted, constant leakage is inevitable, and being constant it is not surprising that its total amount often exceeds the aggregate of the much greater, but shorter, draughts of water taken for various household purposes. There is therefore, even in the best cases, a wide field for the conservation and utilization of water hitherto entirely wasted.

Following upon the passing of the Waterworks Clauses Act 1847, a constant supply was attempted in many towns, with the result in some cases that, owing to the enormous arising loss from the prolongation of the period of leakage from a fraction of an hour to twenty-four hours, it was impossible to maintain the supply. Accordingly, in some places large sections of the mains and service pipes were entirely renewed, and the water consumers were put to great expense in changing their fittings to new and no doubt better types, though the old fittings were only in a fraction of the cases actually causing leakage. But whether or not such stringent methods were adopted, it was found necessary to organize a system of house-to-house visitation and constantly recurring inspection. In Manchester this was combined with a most careful examination, at a depot of the Corporation, of all fittings which were to be used. The search was extended to those fittings, and only those which complied in every respect with the prescribed regulations were stamped and permitted to be fixed within the limits of the water supply. But this did not obviate the necessity for house-to-house inspection, and although the number of different points at which leakage occurred was still great, it was always small in relation to the number of houses which were necessarily entered by the inspector; moreover, when the best had been done that possibly could be done to suppress leakage due to leakage due to defective fittings, the water was in the habit of lying below ground in the mains, ferrules and service pipes still remained, and leaks were thus made inevitable. It was clear, therefore, that in its very nature, house-to-house visitation was both wasteful and insufficient, and it remained for Liverpool to correct the difficulty by the application, in 1857, of the "Differentiating waste water meter," which has since been extensively used for the same purpose in various countries. One such instrument was placed below the roadway upon each main supplying a population of generally between 1000 and 2000 persons.

Its action is based upon the following considerations: When water is passing through a main and supplying nothing but leakage and not subject to anything that would solubly dissolve it before reaching the test, the rate of flow is immediately uniform, and any instrument which graphically represents the flow always affects the mind a full conception of the nature of the flow, and by the position of that line between the bottom and the top of a diagram the quantity of water (in gallons per hour, for example) is recorded. We have a full statement, not only of the rate of flow, but of its nature. We know, in short, that the water is not being usefully employed. In the actual instrument, the paper diagram is mounted upon a drum caused by clockwork to revolve uniformly, and is ruled with vertical hour lines, and horizontal quantity lines representing gallons per hour. Thus, while nothing but leakage occurs the uniform portion of the line is in a horizontal position. If the main is opened in any house connected with the main, the change of flow will be represented by a vertical change of position of the horizontal line, and when the tap is turned off the pencil will resume its original horizontal position, but the rate of change of the flow will be indicated by a clock over the interval during which the tap was left open. If, on the other hand, water is suddenly drawn off from a cistern supplied through a ball-cock, the flow through the ball-cock will be recorded, and will be represented by a sudden rise to a maximum, followed by a gradual decrease as the ball rises and the cistern fills; the result being a curve having its asymptote in the original horizontal line. Now, all the uses of water, of whatever kind they may be, produce some such irregular diagrams as these, which can never be confused with the uniform horizontal line of leakage, but are always superimposed upon it. It is this leakage line that the waterworks engineer wishes to ascertain the truth as to the leakage and then to put an end to it. In well-equipped waterworks each house service pipe is controlled by a stop-cock accessible from the footpath to the officials of the water authority, and the process of waste detection by inspection is a continuous one, and the amount dependent upon the inspection in conjunction with the differentiating meter. As an example of one mode of applying the system, suppose that a night inspector begins work at 11.30 p.m. in a certain district of 2000 persons, the meter of which records at the time a uniform flow of 2000 gallons an hour, showing the not uncommon rate of leakage of 24 gallons per head per day. The inspector proceeds along the footpath from house to house, and at each house, after noting the number of each house the exact time of each such operation. Having arrived at the end of the district he retraces his steps, noting, as he goes, the whole of such transactions. The meter takes it to the night complaint office, and enters the "night inspection book" the records he has made. The next morning the diagram and the "night inspection book" are in the hands of the inspector. Now, the inspector, who comes upon the diagram that the initial leakage of 2000 gallons an hour has in the course of a 48 hours' night inspection fallen to 400 gallons an hour, and that the 1600 gallons an hour is accounted for by
fifteen distinct drops of different amounts and at different times. Each drop is then located by the time and place records in the book and the time records on the diagram as belonging to a particular service pipe; so that out of possibly 300 premises the bulk of the leakage has been discovered. This gives the inspector the knowledge that a portion of the total leakage of 2000 gallons an hour is almost certainly there, and that it must be found, which is a very different thing from visiting three or four houses in one district. In some cases, where such a system of localization, the leakage might go on for years or for ever. There are many and obvious variations of the system. The leakage is generally discovered in a night. Sometimes, however, the time scale will be too close; but the ordinary diagram revolving once in 24 hours is usually quite effective in night inspections by only closing those stop-cocks which are actually passing water. This method was also first introduced in Liverpool.

The night inspector carries with him a stethoscope, often consisting merely of his steel turning-rod, with which he sounds the whole of the outside stop-cocks, but only closes those through which the sound of water is heard. An experienced man, or even a boy, if selected as possessing the necessary faculty (which is sometimes very strongly marked), can detect the smallest dribble when the stop- cocks are closed. Similar experiments may be made by means of the stop-valves on the mains are also made, and it often happens that the residual leakage (400 gallons an hour in the last case) recorded on the diagram, but not shut off by the house stop-cocks, can be heard. The leakage is localized as having been heard at a stop-cock and traced by sounding the pavement to a particular position under a particular street.

All leakages found on private property are duly notified to the tenant in the usual way, and all determinations of the time taken to ascertain if such notices have been attended to. If this work is properly organized, nearly the whole of the leakage so detected is found to be within the tenants' premises. In the case of the so-called "night readings" in a large town is most interesting and instructive. If, for example, in the case of a hundred such districts we watch the result of leaving them alone, a gradual growth of leakage occurs and the district is divided into the district while here and there a sudden increase occurs, often doubling or trebling the total supply to the district. Upon the original installation, if conducted by town, the rate of leakage and consequent total supply to the different districts is found to vary greatly, and in some districts it is usually many times as great per head as in others. An obvious and fruitful extension of the method is to employ the inspectors only in those districts which, for the time being, promise the most useful results.

In many European cities the supply of water, even for domestic purposes, is given through ordinary water meters, and paid for, according to the meter reading. Meter reading is often used as a supply of gas or electricity. By the adoption of this method great reductions in the quantity of water used are occasioned. The city of Trelleborg, for example, pays for the leakage or waste he permits to take place, as well as for the water he uses. The system, however, does not assist in the detection of the leakage which inevitably occurs between the reservoirs and the meters. The reason is simple: the whole of the joints and ferrules connecting the service pipes with the mains, and the greater parts of the service pipes, are still exposed to leakage without any compensating return to the water authority. But the worst evil of the system, and one which must always prevent its introduction into the United Kingdom, is the circumstance that it treats water as an article of commerce, to be paid for according to the quantity taken. In the organization of the best and of the best of water undertakings in the United Kingdom the free use of water is encouraged, and it is only the leakage or occasional improper employment of the water that the water authority seeks, and that such use is not encouraged. The object of the meter-payment system has, in some places, been sought to be removed by providing a fixed quantity of water, assumed to be sufficient, as the supply for a fixed maximum payment, and by using the meter to record supply for the purpose of determining what additional payment, if any, becomes due from the water tenant. Clearly, if the prices are frequent, the limit must be too low; if infrequent, the punitive effect of the penalty or recompensation involved in the system is employed to very little purpose.

The question of the distribution of water, rightly considered, resolves itself into a question of delivering water to the water tenant, without leakage on the way, and of securing that the fittings employed by the water tenant shall be such as to afford an ample and ready supply at all times of the day and night without leakage and without any unnecessary facilities for waste. If these conditions are complied with, it is probable that the total rate of supply will not exceed, even if it reaches, the rate necessary in any system, not being an oppressive and insanitary system, by which the water is paid for according to the quantity used.

Waters, Territorial. In international law "territorial waters" are the belt of sea adjacent to their shores which states respect as being under their immediate territorial jurisdiction, subject only to a right of "innocent passage" through them by vessels of all nations. As to the breadth of the belt and the exact nature of this "innocent passage" of passage, however, there is still much controversy. The 3-mile limit recognized and practised by Great Britain, France and the United States seems to have been derived from the cannon range of the period, when it was adopted as between Great Britain and the United States, and also as between France and the United States, by Bynkers, a famous Dutch jurist, whose authority at one time was almost as great in England as in his own country, in a dissertation on the "Dominion of the Sea (1792)," had devised a plausible juridical theory to support a homogeneous jurisdiction over environs waters in the place of the quite arbitrary claims made at that time, to any distance seawards, from whole seas to range of vision. Starting from the fact that fortresses can give effective protection within range of their cannon, and that in practice this effective protection was respected, he argued that the respect was not due to the reality of the presence of cannon, but to the fact that the state was in a position to enforce respect. This it could do from any point along its shore. Hence his well-known doctrine: terrae dominium finitur, ubi finitur armorum vis. The doctrine satisfied a requirement of the age and became a maxim of international law throughout northern Europe, both for the protection of shore fisheries and for the assertion of the immunity of adjacent waters of neutral states from acts of war between belligerent states. Germany still holds in principle to this varying limit of cannon range. Norway has never agreed to the 3 m., maintaining that the special configuration of her coastline states the exercise of jurisdiction over a belt of 4 m.

Spain lays claim to jurisdiction over 6 m. from her shores. The writers and specialists on the subject are quite as much divided. A British Fishery Commission in 1893 reported that "the present territorial limit of 3 m. is insufficient, and that, for fishery purposes alone, this limit should be extended, provided such extension can be effected upon an international basis and with due regard to the rights and interests of all nations." The committee recommended that a proposition on these lines should be submitted to an international conference of the powers who border on the North Sea, that it would be conducted in 1881-1882, between Great Britain, France, Belgium, Holland, Germany and Denmark, relating to the regulation of the fisheries in the North Sea, which has fixed the limit of territorial waters as between the contracting parties at 3 m. measured from low-water mark and from a straight line drawn from headland to headland at the points where they are 10 m. across. In the British Act of 29th June 1893, giving effect to a subsequent convention (16th November 1882) between the same parties for the regulation of the liquor traffic in the North Sea, "territorial waters" are declared to be as defined in the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act 1878. In this Act the "limit to which the jurisdiction of the admirals" is extended is not restricted by the waters of Her Majesty's dominions.

The territorial waters of Her Majesty's dominions in reference to the sea means such part of the sea adjacent to the coast of the United Kingdom, or the coast of some other part of Her Majesty's dominions, as is deemed by international law to be within the territorial sovereignty of Her Majesty; and for the purpose of any offence declared by this act to be within the jurisdiction of the admirals, any part of the open sea within one marine league of the coast measured from low-water mark shall be deemed the open sea within the territorial waters of Her Majesty's dominions.

This definition only restricts the operation of the 3 m. limit to offences dealt with in the act, and does not deal with bays.

The act of 1893 declares that the articles of the convention "shall be of the same force as if they were enacted in the body of the act," but this convention gives no definition of territorial waters.

The jurisdiction exercised in British territorial waters under
the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act of 1878 is asserted without distinction between them and inland waters. "All offences" committed by any person, whether a British subject or not, and whether or not committed "on board or by means of a foreign ship," "within the territorial waters of Her Majesty's dominions," are made punishable under it. No exception is made for offences committed on merely passing foreign vessels, except that there is this attenuation in their case, that no prosecution can take place without a special authorization given by certain high officers of state. It is doubtful whether any Continental state would recognize so complete a jurisdiction.

The subject has been exhaustively dealt with by both the Institute of International Law and the International Law Association, which, at the suggestion of the rapporteur of the two committees, decided that the subjects of fisheries and neutrality should be dealt with separately. The following considerations and rules were adopted in 1894 by the institute and afterwards by the association:

Whereas there is no reason to confound in a single zone the distance necessary for the exercise of sovereignty and protection of coast fisheries and the distance necessary to guarantee the neutrality of non-belligerent nations in time of war; And whereas the distance most commonly adopted of 3 m. from low-water mark has been found to be insufficient for the protection of coast fisheries; And whereas, moreover, this distance does not correspond to the real range of cannon placed on the coast; The following dispositions are adopted:

Art. I. The state has the right of sovereignty over a belt of sea along its coast subject to the right of inoffensive passage reserved in article 5. This belt is called territorial waters (mer territorial). The territorial waters extend from the low-water mark (to a degree of latitude) from low-water mark along the whole extent of its coasts.

Art. III. For bays, territorial waters follow the trend of the coast except that it is measured from a straight line drawn across the bay from the two points nearest the sea where the opening of the bay is of 12 marine m. in width, unless a greater width has become recognized by an immemorial usage.

Art. V. All ships, without distinction, have the right of inoffensive passage through territorial waters, subject to the belligerent right to regulate, and for purposes of defence to bar, the passage through the said waters for every ship, and subject to the right of notification its passage through the said waters for ships of war of all nationalities.

Art. VI. Crimes and offences committed on board foreign ships passing through territorial waters shall not be punished upon persons or things on board the same ships, are, as such, beyond the jurisdiction of the adjacent state, unless they involve a violation of the rights or interests of the adjacent state, or of its subjects or citizens, or of its territory or of its passengers.

Art. VII. Ships passing through territorial waters must conform to the special rules laid down by the adjacent state, in the interest and for the security of navigation and for the police of the sea.

Art. VIII. Ships of all nationalities, by the simple fact of being in territorial waters, unless merely passing through them, are subject to the jurisdiction of the adjacent state.

The adjacent state has the right to continue upon the high seas the pursuit of a ship confined within territorial waters, and to arrest and try it for an offence committed within the limits of its waters. In case of capture on the high seas the fact shall, however, be communicated to the state by which the ship was captured.

The pursuit is interrupted from the moment the ship enters the territorial waters of its own state or of a third power. The right of pursuit ceases from the moment the ship enters a port either of its own state or of a third power.

Art. IX. The special position of ships of war and of ships assimilated to is reserved.

Art. X. The provisions of the preceding articles are applicable to straits not exceeding 12 m. in width, with the following modifications and exceptions:

(1) Straits, the coast of which belong to different powers, form part of the territorial waters of the adjacent states, their jurisdiction respectively extending to the middle line of the straits;

(2) Straits whose coasts belong to the same state, and which are not indispensable for maritime communication between two or more states other than the state in question, form part of the territorial waters of the said state whatever the proximity of the two coasts may be;

(3) Straits through which a passage between one open sea and another can never be closed.

Art. XI. The position of straits already regulated by conventions on special usage is conserved.

The Dutch government in 1896 brought these rules to the notice of the leading European governments, and suggested the desirability of concluding an international convention on the subject. The only government which was unfavourable to the proposal was that of Great Britain. (See as to the Moray Firth Fisheries controversy, NORTH SEA FISHERIES CONVENTION.)

In the Hague Convention of 1907 respecting the rights and duties of neutral powers in naval war, the existing practice in regard to territorial waters is confirmed (see arts. 3, 5, 12, 13 and 18), but no definition of what constitutes the distance of territorial waters and the limits which the said waters and those which the next Hague Conference may deal with, inasmuch as for purposes of neutrality the difficulties connected with fishery questions do not arise.

AUTHORITIES.—Sir Thomas Barclay, Question de la mer territoriale (published by the Association Internationale de la Marine, Paris, 1902); Idem, as rapporteur on the subject in the Annales de l'institut de droit international for 1893 and 1894; Idem, Special Report of the International Law Association (replies to Questionnaire, 1893), and Report and Discussion (1895); Idem, Problems of International Practice and Diplomacy (London, 1897), pp. 199 et seq. See also Coulson and Forbes, Law relating to Waters (London, 1910), 3rd ed., pp. 5 et seq.

WATER-THYME, known botanically as Elodea canadensis, a small submerged water-weed, native of North America. It was introduced into Co. Down, Ireland, about 1836, and appeared in England in 1841, spreading through the country in ponds, ditches and streams, which were often choked with its rank growth. Elodea is a member of the monocotyledonous natural order Hydrocharitae (q.v.).

WATERTON, CHARLES (1782–1865), English naturalist and traveller, was born at Walton Hall, near Pontefract, Yorkshire, on the 3rd of June 1782. After being educated at the Roman Catholic college of Stonyhurst, and travelling a short time in Spain, he went to Demerara to manage some estates belonging to his family. He continued in this occupation for about eight years, when he began those wanderings upon the results of which his fame as a naturalist principally rests. In his first journey, which began in 1812, and the principal object of which was to collect the poison known as curare, he travelled through British Guiana by the Demerara and Essequibo rivers to the frontiers of Brazil, making many natural history collections and observations by the way. After spending some time in England he returned to South America in 1816, going by Pernambuco and Cayenne to British Guiana, where again he devoted his time to the most varied observations in natural history. For the third time, in 1820, he sailed from England for Demerara, and again he spent his time in similar pursuits. Another sojourn in England of about three years was followed by a visit to the United States in 1824; and, having touched at several of the West India islands, he again went on to Demerara, returning to England at the end of the year. In 1828 he published the results of his four journeys, under the title of Wanderings in South America—consisting largely of a collection of observations on the

The question of revising the limits fixed for Territorial Waters in the Hague Convention of 1899 was not considered at a conference held in Berlin in 1895. The conference was again held at a meeting of the International Fishery Protection Association in 1906, where a resolution was adopted in favour of maintaining the present 3-miles limit on grounds of expediency, which deserves serious consideration.
appearance, character and habits of many of the animals to be found in British Guiana. Waterton was a keen and accurate observer, and his descriptions are of a graphic and humorous character, rarely to be found in works on natural history. He married in 1820, and from that time lived mostly at Walton Hall, devoting himself to the improvement of his estate, to country pursuits, and to natural history observations. He also published three series of Essays in Natural History (1838, 1844, 1857). He died at Walton Hall on the 27th of May 1865, from the result of an accident. His only son, Edmund Waterton (1820-1887), was a zoologist, who published a part of some of those he collected are in the Victoria and Albert Museum.

WATERTOWN, a township of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Charles river, about 6 m. W. of Boston. Pop. (1890) 7073; (1900) 9706, of whom 2885 were foreign-born and 53 were negroes; (1910) census 13,875. Area, 41 sq. m. Watertown is served by the Fitchburg division of the Boston & Maine railway, and is connected with Boston, Cambridge, Newton (immediately adjacent and served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway) and neighbouring towns by express trains and trams. It is the seat of a large and many acres are within the township. The Charles river, near the Charles river, and occupies the fertile undulating plains along the river running back to a range of hills, the highest of which are Whitney Hill (200 ft.) and Meeting House Hill (250 ft.). Within the township are several noteworthy examples of colonial architecture. There are several small parks and squares, including Central Square, Beech Square, about which the business portion of the township is centred, and Saltonstall Park, in which is a monument to the memory of Watertown's soldiers who died in the Civil War, and near which are the Town House and the Free Public Library, containing a valuable collection of 60,000 books and pamphlets and historical memorials. There are two interesting old burying-grounds: one on Grove Street, near the Cambridge line, first used in 1642, contains a monument to John Coolidge, killed during the British retreat from Concord and Lexington on the 19th of April 1775; the other is near the centre of the village about the former site of the First Parish Church. In Coolidge's Tavern (still standing) Washington was entertained on his New England tour in 1789; and in a house recently moved from Mt Auburn Street to Marshall Street by the Committee of Safety a sale is held within the township are mounds and earthworks which Professor E. N. Horsford thought were the remain of a Norse settlement in the 11th century, and which include a semicircular amphitheatre of six tiers or terraces which he thought was an assembly place, at the foot of a portion of a stone wall or dam. The Federal government maintains an arsenal at Watertown one of its principal arsenals, occupying grounds of about 200 acres along the river. Several of the original low brick buildings, built between 1816 and 1820, still stand. In 1905 the value of Watertown's factory products was $15,574,675.

Watertown was one of the earliest of the Massachusetts Bay settlements, having been begun early in 1630 by a group of settlers led by Sir Richard Saltonstall and the Rev. George Phillips. The first buildings were upon land now included within the limits of Cambridge. For the first quarter century Watertown ranked next to Boston in population and area. Since then its limits have been greatly reduced. Thrice portions have been added to Cambridge, and it has contributed territory to form the new townships of Weston (1712), Waltham (1728), and Belmont (1829). In 1632 the residents of Watertown protested against being compelled to pay a tax for the erection of a stockade fort at Cambridge; this was the first protest in America against taxation without representation and led to the establishment of representative government in the colony. As early as the close of the 17th century Watertown was the chief horse and cattle market in New England and was known for its fertile gardens and fine estates. Here about 1632 was erected the first grist mill in the colony, and in 1662 one of the first woolen mills in America was built here. In the First Parish Church, the site of which is marked by a monument, the Provincial Congress, after adjournment from Concord, met from April to July 1775; the Massachusetts General Court held its sessions here from 1775 to 1778, and the Boston town meetings were held here during the siege of Boston, when many of the well-known Boston families made their homes in the neighbourhood. For several months early in the War of Independence the Committees of Safety and Correspondence made Watertown their headquarters and it was from here that General Joseph Warren set out for Bunker Hill. In 1824-1834 Theodore Parker conducted a private school here and his name is still preserved in the Park School.


WATERTOWN, a city and the county-seat of Jefferson county, New York, U.S.A., 73 m. by rail N. of Syracuse on the Black river. Pop. (1890) 14,725; (1900) 21,666, of whom 51 were foreign-born and 75 were negroes; (1910) census 26,730. Watertown is served by the New York Central & Hudson River railway. The city has several squares and public parks, one of them, City Park, having an area of about 500 acres. Among the public buildings and institutions are the city hall, the Federal building, the county court house, a state armoury, the Flower Memorial Library (erected as a memorial to Roswell P. Flower, governor of New York in 1892-1895, by his daughter, Mrs J. B. Taylor) with 25,514 vols. in 1910, the Immaculate Heart Academy (Roman Catholic), the Jefferson County Orphan Asylum (1856), the St Patrick's Orphanage (1870; under the Sisters of St Joseph), the Henry Keep Home (1879), for aged men and women, St Joachim's Hospital (1896; under the Sisters of Mercy), and the House of the Good Samaritan (1882).

Watertown is situated in a fertile agricultural and dairying region, of which it is a distributing centre, and it ships large quantities of farm produce and dairy products (especially cheese). The Black river furnishes water-power which is utilized by manufacturing establishments of diversified character. In 1905 the city's factory products were valued at $8,371,616. Watertown was settled during the late years of the 18th century. It became the county-seat in 1805, was incorporated as a village in 1816 and was first chartered as a city in 1869.

WATERTOWN, a city of Dodge and Jefferson counties, Wisconsin, U.S.A., on both banks of the Rock river, about 45 m. W.N.W. of Milwaukee. Pop. (1890) 8775; (1900) 8437, including 2447 foreign-born; (1905, state census) 8623; (1910) 8829. Watertown is served by the Chicago & North-Western and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul railways, and by an interurban electric line, connecting with Milwaukee. It is the seat of North-western University (1865; Lutheran), which includes collegiate, preparatory and academical departments, and had in 1908-1909 11 instructors and 283 students, and of the Sacred Heart College (Roman Catholic, opened in 1872 and charted in 1874), under the Congregation of the Holy Cross. There are also a Carnegie library, a Lutheran Home for the Feeble-Minded, and a City Hospital. The Rock river furnishes water-power which is utilized for manufacturing. The value of the factory product in 1905 was $2,054,487. The city is situated in a dairying and farming region. The municipality owns and operates its water the city's factory products were valued at $8,371,616. Watertown was settled about 1836 by settlers who gave it the name of their former home, Watertown, New York. Afterwards there was a great influx of Germans, particularly after the Revolution of 1848, among them being Carl Schurz, who began the practice of law here. Germans by birth or descent still constitute a majority of the population. Watertown was incorporated as a village in 1849, and was chartered as a city in 1853.

WATERVILLE, a city of Kennebec county, Maine, U.S.A., on the Kennebec river, 19 m. above Augusta. Pop. (1900)
WATERVLIET—WATSON, R.

9477, of whom 2087 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 11,458. It is served by the Wiscasset, Waterville & Farmington railway, and two lines of the Maine Central railroad. The Ticonic Falls in the river afford excellent water-power, which is used in the manufacture of cotton and woolen goods, &c. In Winslow (pop. in 1910, 2750), on the opposite side of the river and connected by bridges with Waterville, are large paper and pulp mills. Waterville has a Carnegie library and is the seat of Colby College (Baptist), which was incorporated as the Maine Literary and Theological Institution in 1813, was renamed Waterville College in 1821, was named Colby University in 1867, in honour of Gardner Colby (1810-1879), a liberal benefactor, and received its present name in 1890. Since 1871 women have been admitted on the same terms as men. In 1910 the college library contained 31,000 volumes. Waterville was settled about the middle of the 18th century. It was a part of the township of Winslow from 1771 to 1802, when it was incorporated as a separate township. It was first chartered as a city in 1883.

WATERVLIET, a city of Albany county, New York, U.S.A., on the W. bank of the Hudson river opposite Troy and about 5 m. N. of Albany. Pop. (1890) 12,967; (1900) 14,321, of whom 2754 were foreign-born and 59 were negroes; (1910 census) 15,074. Watervliet is served by the Delaware & Hudson railway and by steamboat lines on the Hudson river, and is connected with Troy by bridges and ferries, and with Albany, Troy, Cohoes and Schenectady by electric lines. The Erie and Champlain canals join the Hudson river at Watervliet; there is also a short canal from the Mill pond to the railroad depot, and a short canal to the state prison. The city is in the county seat and public school district. The city has a city hall and a public library. Watervliet is situated in a good farming country, but is chiefly a manufacturing place; in 1905 its factory products were valued at $1,884,802 (25% more than in 1900), not including the product of the United States Arsenal (1807), on the river, an important manufacturer of heavy ordnance. The place was originally called West Troy and was incorporated as a village in 1835; in 1897 it was chartered as a city under its present name; at the same time the township of Watervliet in which it was situated was divided into the townships of Colonie and Green Island. In 1776 the first settlement of Shakers (q.v.) in America was made in the township by "Mother Ann" Lee and her followers, who named it Niskayuna. Here "Mother Ann" died and is buried.

WATFORD, a market town in the Watford parliamentary division of Hertfordshire, England, 17½ m. N.W. of London by the London & North-Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1891) 17,063; (1901) 20,327. It lies on the small river Colne in a pleasant undulating and well wooded district. The church of St Mary, with embattled tower and spire, is of various dates, and contains good examples of monumental work of the early 13th century; and in the churchyard a statue of a lady, Robert Chatterton (d. 1831), author of the History and Antiquities of the County of Hertford. There are several modern churches and chapels. The chief building within the town is the Watford Public Library and School of Art. There are large breweries, also corn-mills, malt-kilns and an iron foundry. Bushey, on the south side of the Colne, lying for the most part high above it, is a suburb, chiefly residential, with a station on the North-Western line. The church of St James, extensively restored by Sir Gilbert Scott, is Early English in its oldest part, the chancel dates from 1130; the tower was added in 1490. The church was restored in 1845 under the will of Henry Herkomer, R.A., but it was closed in 1904, and subsequently revived in other hands. Other institutions are the Royal Caledonian Asylum and the London Orphan Asylum. At Aldenham, 2 m. N.E., the grammar school founded in 1590 now ranks as one of the minor English public schools.

WATKIN, SIR EDWARD WILLIAM, 1st Bt. (1810-1901), English railway manager, was born in Manchester on the 26th of September 1819. He was the son of Absalom Watkin, a merchant in Manchester, and was employed in his father's counting-house; he subsequently became a partner; but in 1845 he was appointed secretary of the Trent Valley railway, which was soon afterwards absorbed by the London & North-Western Company. He next joined the Manchester & Sheffield Company, of which he became general manager and then chairman, subsequently combining with the duties thus entailed the chairmanship of the South-Eastern (1867) and of the Metropolitan (1872). His connexion with these three railways was maintained to within a short time of his death, and they formed the material of one of his most ambitious schemes—the establishment of a through route under the management from Dover to Manchester and the north. This was the end he had in view in his successful fight for the extension of the Manchester, Sheffield & Lincolnshire railway (now the Great Central) to London; and his persistent advocacy of the Channel tunnel (q.v.) between Dover and Calais was really a further development of the same idea, for its construction would have enabled trains to be run from Paris to Lancashire and Scotland, via the East London (of which also he was for a time chairman) and the Metropolitan. The latter scheme, however, failed to obtain the necessary public and political support. Other projects had even less success. His plans for a tunnel between Shrewsbury and Ireland under the North Channel, and for a ship canal across Ireland from Galway to Dublin, did not come to anything; while the great tower at Wembley Park (near Harrow), intended to surpass the Eiffel Tower at Paris, stopped at an early stage. It was in the realms of railway politics that Watkin showed to best advantage; for the routine work of administration purely and simple he had no aptitude. He entered parliament as a Liberal, and after representing Stockport from 1864 to 1866, sat as member for Hythe for twenty-one years from 1874, becoming Speaker of the House of Commons by election in 1891. He was knighted in 1890, and subsequently acting as a "free lance." In 1868 he married a daughter of a knight and, in 1880 he was created a baronet. His death occurred at Northenden, Cheshire, on the 13th of April 1900.

WATKINS, a village and the county-seat of Schuyler county, New York, U.S.A., at the head (south end) of Seneca Lake, about 22 m. N.N.W. of Elmira. Pop. (1890) 2604; (1900) 2045; (1905) 2077; (1910) 2817. Watkins is served by the New York Central & Hudson River, the Northern Central (Pennsylvania) and the Lehigh Valley railways, by an electric line to Elmira and by a steamer line on the lake. There are mineral springs, whose waters, notably those of an iodio-bromated brine spring, are used in bath treatment for rheumatism, gout, heart, kidney and liver diseases, &c. Partly within the village limits is Watkins Glen, a narrow winding gorge about 2 m. long, with walls and precipices from 100 to 300 ft. high, through which flows a small stream, forming many falls, cascades and pools. The Glen property, about 103 acres, was opened as an excursion resort in 1863, and in 1906 was made a free state reservation or park and was placed in the custody of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society. About 5 m. S.E. is Havana Glen. At Watkins Glen the Erie and the Northern Central railways converge (see Watkins Glen, N.Y.). The first settlement in the country made in 1788, and Watkins was incorporated as a village in 1842.

WATLING STREET, the Early English name for the great road made by the Romans from London past St Albans (Roman Verulamium) to Wroxeter (Roman Viroconium) near Shrewsbury and used by the Anglo-Saxons, just as a great part of it is used to-day. According to early documents the name was at first Waelinga (or Watlinga) street; its derivation is unknown, but an English personal name may lie behind it. After the Conquest the road was included in the list of four Royal Roads in the Hundred of Northwold (see Euston Road, Northern Street). Later still, in the Elizabethan period and after it, the name Watling Street seems to have been applied by antiquaries to many Roman or reputed Roman roads in various parts of Britain, and English map-makers and inferior writers on Roman roads still perpetuate the fictions. In particular, the Roman "North Road" which ran from York through Corbridge and over Cheviot to Newstead near Melrose, and thence to the Wall of Pius, and which has largely been in use since Roman times, is now not unfrequently called Watling Street, though there is no old authority for it and throughout the middle ages the section of the road between the Tyne and the Forth was called Dere Street.

WATSON, RICHARD (1737-1816), English divine, was born in August 1737 at Heversham in Westmorland. His father, a
schoolmaster, sent him to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he was elected a fellow in 1760. About the same time he had the offer of the post of chaplain to the factory at Bengoolen, in the Straits Settlements. "You are too good," said the master of Trinity, "to die of drinking punch in the torrid zone;" and Watson, instead of becoming, as he had flattered himself, a great orientalist, remained at home to be elected professor of chemistry, a science of which he did not at the time possess the simplest rudiments. "I buried myself," he says, "in my laboratory, and in fourteen months read a course of chemical lectures to a very full audience." One of his discoveries led to the black-bulb thermometer. Not the least of his services was to procure an endowment for the chair, which served as a precedent in similar instances. In 1771 he was appointed regius professor of divinity, but did not entirely renounce the simplicity of chemistry. In 1768 he had published Institutiones metallurgicae, intended to give a scientific form to chemistry by digesting facts established by experiment into a connected series of propositions. In 1781 he followed this up with an introductory manual of Chemical Essays. In 1776 he answered Gibbon's chapters on Christianity, and had the honour of being one of the only two opponents whom Gibbon treated with respect. The same year he offended the court by a Whig sermon, but in 1779 became archdeacon of Ely. He had always opposed the American War, and in 1782 was made bishop of Llandaff, being permitted to retain his other preferments on account of the poverty of the see. Shelburne expected great service from him as a pamphleteer, but Watson proved from the ministerial point of view a most impracticable prelate. He immediately brought forward a scheme for improving the condition of the poorer clergy by equalizing the incomes of the bishops, the reception of which at the time may be imagined, though it was substantially the same that came into effect by Lord Melborne's government fifty years later. Watson now found that he had been too moderate. He had destroyed his chance of the great object of his ambition, promotion to a better diocese. Neglecting both his see and his professorship, to which latter he appointed a deputy described as highly incompetent, he withdrew to Calgarth Park, in his native county, where he occupied himself in forming plantations and in the improvement of agriculture. He also frequently came forward as a preacher and as a speaker in the House of Lords. His advice to the government in 1787 is said to have saved the country £100,000 a year in gunpowder. In 1796 he published, in answer to Thomas Paine, an Apology for the Bible, a lost, and so is the best known of his numerous writings. Watson continued to exert his pen with vigour, and in general to good purpose, denouncing the slave trade, advocating the union with Ireland, and offering financial suggestions to Pitt, who seems to have frequently consulted him. In 1798 he wrote to the People of Great Britain, enforcing resistance to French arms and French principles, ran through fourteen editions, but estranged him from many old friends, who accused him, probably with injustice, of aiming to make his peace with the government. Though querulous because of his non-preference, De Quincey tells us that "his lordship was a jovious, jovial, and cordial host." He died on the 2nd of July 1816, having occupied his latter years in the composition and revision of an autobiography (published in 1817), which, with all its egotism and partiality, is a valuable work, and the chief authority for his life.

WATSON, THOMAS (c. 1557-1592), English lyrical poet, was born in London, probably in 1557. He proceeded to Oxford, and while quite a young man enjoyed a certain reputation, even abroad, as a Latin poet. He first published "De remedia amoris," which was perhaps his earliest important work, in 1580, and on the occasion of his "piece of work written in the commendation of woman-kind," which was also in Latin verse. He came back to London and became a law-student. The earliest publication by Watson which has survived is a Latin version of the Antigone of Sophocles, issued in 1581. It is dedicated to Philip Howard, earl of Arundel, who was perhaps the patron of the poet, who seems to have spent some part of this year in Paris. Next year Watson appears for the first time as an English poet in some verses prefixed to Whetstone's Heptameron, and also in a far more important guise, as the author of the Examenum or Essay, a collection of 200 pieces, in the manner of Petrarch, celebrating the sufferings of a lover and his long farewell to love. The technical peculiarity of these interesting poems is that, although they appear and profess to be sonnets, they are really written in triple sets of common six-line stanzas, and therefore have eighteen lines each. It seems likely that Watson, who courted comparison with Petrarch, seriously desired to recommend this form to future sonneteers; but in this he had no imitators. Among those who were at this time the friends of Watson we note Matthew Royden and George Vertue. The essay, as a piece of light and easy reading, is an admirable play of Aminta, and his version was afterwards translated into English by Abraham Fraunce (1587). Watson was now, as the testimony of Nashe and others prove, regarded as the best Latin poet of England. In 1590 he published, in English and Latin verse, his Meliboeus, an elegy on the death of Sir Francis Walsingham, and a collection of Italian Madrigals, put into English by Watson and set to music by Byrd. Of the remainder of Watson's career nothing is known, save that on the 26th of September 1592 he was buried in the church of St Margaret, Westminster, where, the poet tells his son, he died a happy and good book, The Tears of Fancie, or Love Disdained (1593), was posthumously published. This is a collection of sixty sonnets, regular in form, so far at least as to have fourteen lines each. Spenser is supposed to have alluded to the untimely death of Watson in Colin Clout's Come Home Again, when he says:—

"Amyntas quite is gone and lies full low,
Having his Amaryllis left to moan."

He is mentioned by Meres in company with Shakespeare, Peele and Marlowe among "the best for tragedy," but no dramatic work of his except the translations above mentioned has come down to us. It is certain that this poet enjoyed a great reputation in his lifetime, and that he was not without a direct influence upon the youth of Shakespeare. He was the first, after the original experiment made by Wyatt and Surrey, to introduce the pure imitation of Petrarch into English poetry. He was well read in Italian, French and Greek literature. Watson died young, and he had not escaped from a certain languor and insipidity which prevent his graceful verses from producing their full effect. This demerit is less obvious in his later pieces, and, with the development of the age, Watson, whose contemporaries regarded him as the greatest poet of his age, probably have gained power and music. As it is, he has the honour of being one of the direct forerunners of Shakespeare (in Venus and Adonis and in the Sonnets), and of being the leader in the long procession of Elizabethan sonnet-cycle writers.

(E. G.)

The English works of Watson, excepting the madrigals, were first collected by Edward Arber in 1870. Thomas Watson's "Italian Madrigals Englished" (1590) were reprinted (ed. F. J. Carpenter) from the Journal of Germanic Philology (vol. ii., No. 3. p. 357) with the original Italian, in 1899. See also Mr Sidney Lee's Introduction (pp. xxxii.-xxxiii.) to Elizabethan Sonnets in the new edition (1904) of An English Garland.
WATSON, WILLIAM (c. 1559-1603), English conspirator, was a native of the north of England, and was born probably on the 23rd of April 1559. In 1586 he became a Roman Catholic priest in France; and during the concluding years of Elizabeth's reign he made several visits to England; he was imprisoned and tortured more than once. He became prominent as a champion of the secular priests in their dispute with the Jesuits, and in 1601 some writings by him on this question appeared which were answered by Robert Parsons. When Elizabeth died, Watson hastened to Scotland to assure James I. of the loyalty of his party, and to forestall the Jesuits, who were suspected of intriguing with Spain. The new king did not, however, as was hoped, cease to exact the necessary fines; and the general dissatisfaction felt by the Roman Catholics gave rise to the "Bye plot," or "Watson's plot," in which connexion this priest's name is best known, and to its sequel the Main or Cobham's plot. Watson discussed the grievances of his co-religionists with another priest, William Clark, with Sir Griffin Markham and Anthony Copley, and with a disappointed Protestant courtier, George Brooke; they took another Protestant, Thomas, 15th Lord Grey de Wilton, into their confidence, and following many Scottish precedents it was arranged that James should be surprised and seized, while they talked loudly about capturing the Tower of London, converting the king to Romanism, and making Watton lord keeper. One or two of the conspirators drew back; but Watson and his remaining colleagues arranged to assemble at Greenwich on the 24th of June 1603, and under the pretence of presenting a petition to carry out their object. The plot was a complete failure; Henry Garnet and other Jesuits betrayed it to the authorities, and its principal authors were seized, Watson being captured in August at Hay on the Welsh border. They were tried at Winchester and found guilty; Watson and Clark were executed on the 9th of December 1603, and Brooke suffered the same fate a week later. Grey and Markham were reprieved. Before the executions took place, however, the failure of the Bye plot had led to the discovery of the Main plot. Brooke's share in the earlier scheme caused suspicion to fall upon his brother Henry Brooke, Lord Cobham, the ally and brother-in-law of Sir Robert Cecil, afterwards earl of Salisbury. Cobham appears to have been in communication with Spain about the possibility of killing "the king and his cubs" and of placing Lady Arabella Stuart on the throne. He was seized, tried and condemned to death, but although led out to the scaffold he was not executed. It was on suspicion of being associated with Cobham in this matter that Sir Walter Raleigh was arrested and tried.

See the documents printed by T. G. Law in The Archpriest controversy (1896-1898); the same writer's Jesuits and Seculars (1889), and S. R. Gardiner, History of England, vol. i. (1903).

WATSON, WILLIAM (1838- ), English poet, was born on the 2nd of August 1838 at Burley-in-Wharfedale, Yorkshire, and was brought up at Liverpool, whither his father moved for business. In 1868 he published his first book The Prince's Quest, a poem showing the influence of Keats and Tennyson, but giving little indication of the author's mature style. It attracted no attention until it was republished in 1893 after Mr Watson had made a name by other work. In 1884 appeared Epigrams of Art, Life and Nature, a remarkable little volume, which already showed the change to Mr Watson's characteristic restraint and concision of manner. But it passed unnoticed. Recognition came with the publication of Wordsworth's Grave in 1890; and fame with the publication of the second edition in 1891, and the appearance in the Fortnightly Review, August 1891, of an article by Mr. T. H. Green, "W. A. New Poet." W. A. N. stands for William Anstis Newcome, which marked a reversion from the current Tennysonian and Swinburnian fashion to the meditative note of Matthew Arnold, exhibited in full maturity Mr Watson's poetical qualities; his stately diction, his fastidious taste, his epigrammatic turn, his restrained yet eloquent utterance, his remarkable gift of literary criticism in poetic form. Besides Wordsworth's Grave the volume contained Ver teubosum (originally published in the National Review for June 1885), a series of political sonnets indicating a fervour of political conviction which was later to find still more impassioned expression; also a selection with additions from the Epigrams of 1884, and among other miscellaneous pieces his tribute to Arnold, "In Laleham Churchyard." During the years 1890-1892 he contributed articles to the National Review, Spectator, Illustrated London News, Academy, Bookman and Aalantewa, which were collected and republished in 1893 as Excursions in Criticism. In 1893 he also published Lactymaei Musorum, the poem which gave the title to the volume being a fine elegy on the death of Tennyson; and it included the poem on "Shelley's Century" (both of these printed privately in 1892), and "The Dream of Man," the earliest of his philosophical poems. The same year, too, saw the publication of The Empty Angels, a serio-comic triple of small merit, dedicated to Grant Allen. During this year Mr Gladstone bestowed on him the Civil List pension of £200 available on the death of Tennyson. In 1894 followed Odes and Other Poems, and in 1895 The Father of the Forest, which contained also the fine "Hymn to the Sea" in English elegiacs (originally contributed to the Yellow Book), "The Tomb of Burns," and "Apologia," a piece of candid and just self-criticism. The volume contained also a sonnet "To the Turk in Armenia," a prelude to the series of sonnets about Armenia contributed to the Westminster Gazette and republished in a brochure called The Purple Furtse in 1896. These sonnets were republished with revision and considerable additions, and a preface by the bishop of Hereford, in The Year of Shame in 1897. Whatever view was taken of the poet's incursion into politics, no one doubted his passionate sincerity, or the excellence of the poetical rhetoric it inspired. In 1898 were published his Collected Poems and a volume of new poetry The Hope of the World, which opened with his three chief philosophical poems, the title piece, "The Unknown God," and "Ode in May." In 1902 he printed privately 50 copies of New Poems, and published his "Ode on the Coronation of King Edward VII," a favourable specimen of its class; and in 1903 besides a volume of Selected Poems a collection of poems contributed to various periodicals and called For England: Poems Written During Estrangement, a poetical defence of his impugned patriotism during the Boer War. In 1909 appeared an important volume of New Poems.

Mr Watson's poetry falls chiefly into the classes above indicated—critical, philosophical and political—to which may be added a further class of Horatian epistles to his friends. This class, wation indicates the high character and also the limitations of his poetry. It is contemplative, not dramatic, and only occasionally lyrical in impulse. In spite of the poet's plea in his "Apologia" that there is an ardour and a fire other than that of Eros or Aphrodite, ardour and fire are not conspicuous qualities of his verse. Except in his political verse there is more thought than passion. Bearing trace enough of the influence of the romantic epoch, his poetry recalls the earlier classical period in its epigrammatic phrasing and Latinized diction. By the distinction and clarity of his style and the dignity of his movement William Watson stands in the true classical tradition of great English verse, in a generation rather given over to lawlessness and experiment.

See also section on William Watson in Poets of the Younger Generation, by William Archer (1902); and for bibliography up to Aug. 1903, English Illustrated Magazine, vol. xxix. (N.S.), pp. 542 and 549. (W. F. J.)

WATT, JAMES (1736-1819), Scottish engineer, the inventor of the modern condensing steam-engine, was born at Greenock on the 10th of January 1736. His father was a small merchant who early died; his mother married a wealthy merchant named Hay, and James was early thrown on his own resources. Having a taste for mechanics he made his way to London, at the age of nineteen, to learn the business of a philosophical-instrument maker, and became apprenticed to one John Morgan, in whose service he remained for twelve months. From a child he had been extremely delicate, and the hard work and frugal living of his London puerpilage taxed his strength so severely that he was forced at the end of a year to seek rest at home, not, however,
WATT

was F. In layer the leading of piston conditions water and months in handy. He took him under its protection, and in 1757 he was established in its precepts with the title of mathematical-instrument maker to the university.

Before many months Joseph Black, the discoverer of latent heat, then lecturer on chemistry, and John Robison, then a student, afterwards professor of natural philosophy, became his intimate friends, and with them he often discussed the possibility of improving the steam-engine, of which at that time Thomas Newcomen's was the most advanced type. The engine was then applied only to pumping water—chiefly in the drainage of mines; and it was so clumsy and wasteful of fuel as to be but little used. Some early experiments of Watt in 1761 or 1762 led to no positive result, but in 1764 his attention was seriously drawn to the matter by having a model of Newcomen's engine, which formed part of the college collection of scientific apparatus, given him to examine. In order, therefore, he was at once struck with its enormous consumption of steam, and set himself to examine the cause of this and to find a remedy.

In Newcomen's engine the cylinder stood vertically under one end of the main lever or "beam" and was open at the top. Steam, at a pressure scarcely greater than that of the atmosphere, was admitted to the under side; this allowed the piston to be pulled up by a counterpoise at the other end of the beam. Communication with the boiler was then shut off, and the steam in the cylinder was condensed by injecting a jet of cold water from a cistern above. The pressure of the air on top of the piston then drove it down, raising the counterpoise and doing work. The injection water and condensed steam which had gathered in the cylinder were drained out by a pipe leading down into a well.

Watt at once noticed that the alternate heating and cooling of the cylinder in Newcomen's engine made it work with tedious slowness and excessive consumption of steam. When steam was admitted at the beginning of each stroke, it found the metal of the cylinder and piston chilled by contact with the condensed steam and cold injection water of the previous stroke, and it was wrenched to pieces. Afterward, the line was followed by the Crinan and Caledonian canals. He prepared plans for the harbours of Ayr, Port-Glasgow and Greenock, for deepening the Clyde, and for building a bridge over it at Hamilton. In the course of this work he invented a simple micrometer for measuring distances, consisting of a pair of horizontal hairs placed in the focus of a telescope, through which sights were taken to a fixed and movable target on a rod held upright at the place whose distance from the observer was to be determined. The micrometer was varied in a number of ways; and another fruit of his ingenuity about the same time was a machine to facilitate drawing in perspective.

Meanwhile the engine had not been wholly neglected. Watt had secured his patent; the Kinnell trials had given him a store of valuable experience; Roebuck had failed, but another partner was ready to take his place. In 1768 Watt had made the acquaintance of Matthew Boulton, a man of energy and capital, who owned the Soho engineering works at Birmingham. Boulton agreed to take Roebuck's share in the invention, and to join Watt in applying to parliament for an act to prolong the term of the patent. The application was successful. In 1775 an act was passed continuing the patent for twenty-five years. By this time the inventor had abandoned his civil engineering work and had settled in Birmingham, where the manufacture of steam-engines was begun by the firm of Boulton & Watt. The partnership was a singularly happy one. Boulton had the good sense to leave the work of inventing to Watt, in whose communication was made between it and the cylinder, steam would pass over from the cylinder and be condensed; the pressure in the cylinder would be as low as the pressure in the condenser, but the temperature of the metal of the cylinder would remain high, since no injection water need touch it. Without delay Watt put this idea to the test, and found that the separate condenser did act as he had anticipated. To maintain the vacuum in it he added another new organ, namely, the air-pump, the function of which is to remove the condensed steam and water of injection along with any air that gathers in the condenser.

To further his object of keeping the cylinder hot as the steam that entered it, Watt supplemented his great invention of the separate condenser by several less notable but still important improvements. In Newcomen's engine a layer of water over the piston had been used to keep it steadier, and to substitute a tighter packing lubricated by oil. In Newcomen's engine the upper end of the cylinder was open to the air; Watt covered it in, leading the piston-rod through a steam-tight stuffing box in the cover, and allowed steam instead of air to press on the top of the piston. In Newcomen's engine the cylinder had no clothing to reduce loss of heat by radiation and conduction from its outer surface; Watt not only cased it in non-conducting material, such as wood, but introduced a steam-jacket, or layer of steam, between the cylinder proper and an outer casing.

All these features were specified in his first patent (see STEAM-ENGINE), which, however, was not obtained till January 1769, nearly four years after the inventions it covers had been made. In the interval Watt had been striving to demonstrate the merits of his engine by trial on a large scale. His earliest experiments left him in debt, and, finding that his own means were quite insufficient to allow him to continue them, he agreed that Dr John Roebuck, founder of the Carron ironworks, should take two-thirds of the profits of the invention in consideration of his bearing the cost. An engine was then erected at Kinnell, near Strathmore, and this gave Watt the opportunity of facing many difficulties in details of construction. But the experiments made slow progress, for Roebuck's affairs became embarrassed, and Watt's attention was engaged by other work. He had taken to surveying, and was fast gaining reputation as a civil engineer. In 1767 he was employed to make a survey for a Fort and Clyde canal—a scheme which failed to secure parliamentary sanction. This was followed during the next six years by surveys for a canal at Monkland, for another through the valley of Strathmore from Perth to Forfar, and for various lines of canals along the Clyde valley, followed by the Crinan and Caledonian canals. He prepared plans for the harbours of Ayr, Port-Glasgow and Greenock, for deepening the Clyde, and for building a bridge over it at Hamilton. In the course of this work he invented a simple micrometer for measuring distances, consisting of a pair of horizontal hairs placed in the focus of a telescope, through which sights were taken to a fixed and movable target on a rod held upright at the place whose distance from the observer was to be determined. The micrometer was varied in a number of ways; and another fruit of his ingenuity about the same time was a machine to facilitate drawing in perspective.

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genius he had the fullest faith; on the other hand, his substantial means, his enterprise, resolution and business capacity supplied what was wanting to bring the invention to commercial success.

During the next ten years we find Watt assiduously engaged in developing and introducing the engine. Its first and for a time its only application was in pumping; it was at once put to this use in the mines of Cornwall, where Watt was now frequently engaged in superintending the erection of engines. Further inventions were required to fit it for other uses, and these followed in quick succession. Watt's second steam-engine patent is dated 1781. It describes five different methods of converting the reciprocating motion of the piston into motion of rotation, so as to adapt the engine for driving ordinary machinery. The simplest way of doing this, and the means now universally followed, is by a crank and fly-wheel; this had occurred to Watt, but had meanwhile been patented by another, and hence he devised the "sun and planet wheels" and other equivalent contrivances. A third patent, in 1782, contained two new inventions of the first importance. Up to this time the engine had been single-acting; Watt now made it double-acting; that is to say, both ends of the cylinder, instead of only one, were alternately put in communication with the boiler and the condenser. Up to this time the steam had been admitted from the boiler only at the instant when the piston was about to start its stroke, but Watt now introduced the system of expansive working, in which the admission valve is closed after a portion only of the stroke is performed, and the steam enclosed in the cylinder is then allowed to expand during the remainder of the stroke, doing additional work upon the piston without making any further demand upon the boiler until the next stroke requires a fresh admission of steam. He calculated that, as the piston advanced after admission had ceased, the pressure of the steam in the cylinder would fall in the same proportion as its volume increased — a law which, although not strictly true, does accord very closely with the actual behaviour of steam expanding in the cylinder of an engine. Recognizing that this would cause a gradual reduction of the force with which the piston pulled or pushed against the beam, Watt devised a number of contrivances for equalizing the effort throughout the stroke. He found, however, that the inertia of the pump-rods in his mine engines, and the fly-wheel in his rotative engines, served to compensate for the inequality of thrust sufficiently to make these contrivances unnecessary. His fourth patent, taken out in 1784, describes what Watt himself called "particular ingenuity of the crank and connecting rod": links by which the top of the piston-rod is connected to the beam so that it may either pull or push, and is at the same time guided to move in a sensibly straight line. "I have started a new hare," he writes to Boulton in June of that year; "I have got a glimpse of a method of causing a piston-rod to move up and down perpendicularly by only fixing it to a piece of iron upon the beam, without chains or perpendicular guides or untowardly frictions, arch-heads, or other pieces of clumsiness. I think it a very probable thing to succeed, and one of the most ingenious simple pieces of mechanism I have contrived."

A still later invention was the throttle-valve and centrifugal governor, by which the speed of rotative engines was automatically controlled. One more item in the list of Watt's contributions to the development of the steam-engine is too important to be passed without mention: the indicator, which draws a diagram of the relation of the steam's pressure to its volume as the stroke proceeds, was first used by Boulton & Watt to measure the work done by their engines, and so to give a basis on which the charges levied from their customers were adjusted. It would be difficult to exaggerate the part which the invention has played in the instrument-making of the steam-engine. The eminently philosophic notion of an indicator diagram is fundamental in the theory of thermodynamics; the instrument itself is to the steam engineer what the stethoscope is to the physician, and more, for with it he not only diagnoses the ailments of a faulty machine, whether in one or another of its organs, but gauges its power in health.

The commercial success of the engine was not long in being established. By 1783 all but one of the Newcomen pumping-engines in Cornwall had been displaced by Watt's. The mines were then far fact thriving; many were even on the point of being abandoned through want of large volumes of water; and Watt's invention, which allowed this to be done at a moderate cost, meant for many of them a new lease of life. His engine used no more than a fourth of the fuel that had formerly been needed to do the same work, and the Soho firm usually claimed by way of royalty a sum equivalent to one-third of the saving—a sum which must have been nearly equal to the cost of the fuel actually consumed. Rival manufacturers came forward, amongst whom Edward Bull and Jonathan Carter Hornblower are the most conspicuous names. Their engine was not on the same lines as Watt's, and they infringed Watt's patent by the use of a separate condenser.

When action was taken against them on that ground, they retaliated by disputing the validity of the fundamental patent of 1769. In the case of Boulton & Watt v. Bull the court was divided on this point, but in an action against Hornblower the patent was definitely affirmed to be valid by a unanimous finding of the Court of King's Bench. This was in 1799, only a year before the monopoly expired, but the decision enabled the firm to claim a large sum as arrears of patent dues. In 1800, just before Watt himself, as well as his early friends Black and Robison, drew up narratives of the invention of the steam-engine, which are of much interest to the student of its history.¹

Before Watt's time the steam-engine was exclusively a steam-pump, slow-working, cumbrous and excessively wasteful of fuel. His first patent made it quick in working, powerful and efficient, but still only as a steam-pump. His later inventions adapted it to driving machinery of all kinds, and made it virtually what it is to-day, save in three respects. In respect of mechanical arrangement the modern engine differs from Watt's chiefly in this, that the beam, an indispensable feature in the early pumping-engines, and which had held his invention at first is now generally dropped, has gradually given way to more direct modes of connecting the piston with the crank. Another difference is in the modern use of high-pressure steam. It is remarkable that Watt, notwithstanding the fact that his own invention of expansive working must have opened his eyes to the advantage of high-pressure steam, declined to admit it into his practice. He persisted in the use of pressures that were little if at all above that of the atmosphere. His rivals in Cornwall were not so squeamish. Richard Trevithick ventured as far as 120 lb. on the square inch, and a curious episode in the history of the steam-engine is an attempt which Boulton & Watt made in 1788 to raise the steam pressure to 200 lb. per square inch high enough to drive the engines of the coal mines where they were working, but it was not successful. The third and only other respect in which a great improvement has been effected is in the introduction of compound expansion. Here, too, one cannot but regret to find the Soho firm hostile, though the necessity of defending their monopoly makes their action natural enough. Hornblower had in fact stumbled on the invention of the compound engine, but as his machine employed Watt's heat sensor it was suppressed, to be revived after some years by Arthur Woolf (1766–1837). In one of his patents (1784) Watt describes a steam locomotive, but he never prosecuted this, and when William Murdoch, his chief assistant (famous as the inventor of gas-lighting), made experiments on the same lines, Watt gave him little encouragement. The notion then was to use a steam carriage on ordinary roads; its use on railways had not yet been thought of. When that idea took form later in the last years of Watt's life, the old man refused to smile upon his offspring; it is even said that he put a clause in the lease of his house that no steam carriage should on any pretext be allowed to approach it.

On the expiry in 1800 of the act by which the patent of 1769 had been extended, Watt gave up his share in the business of engine-building to his sons, James, who carried it on along with a son of Boulton for many years, and Gregory, who died in 1820. The remainder of his life was spent mostly at Duddingston Fell, his house near Edinburgh, where he devoted his time, with scarcely an interruption, to mechanical pursuits. His last work was the invention of machines for copying sculpture.

¹ Another narrative of the utmost interest was written by Watt in 1819, and was published in the form of a letter, from the fourth edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica, which Watt revised before it was reprinted in the collected edition of Robison's works. See Robison's Mechanical Philosophy, vol. ii.
—one for making reduced copies, another for taking facsimiles by means of a light stiff frame, which carried a pointer over the surface of the work while a revolving tool fixed to the frame alongside of the pointer cut a corresponding surface on a suitable block. We find him in correspondence with Sir Francis Chantrey about his machines, not many months before his death, and presenting copies of busts to his friends as the work "of a young artist just entering on his eighty-third year." His life drew to a tranquil close, and the end came at Heathfield on the 19th of August 1819. His remains were interred in the neighbouring parish church of Handsworth.

Watt was twice married—first in 1763 to his cousin Margaret Miller, who died ten years later. Of four children born of the marriage, two died in infancy; another was James (1769–1848), who succeeded his father in business; the fourth was a daughter who lived to maturity, but died early, leaving two children. His second wife, Anne Macgregor, whom he married before settling in Birmingham in 1775, survived him; but her two children, Gregory and a daughter, died young.

Some of Watt's minor inventions have been already noticed. Another, which has proved of great practical value, was the letter-copying machine. His correspondence was written on plain paper, and the writing was made up in a cut paper in such a way as to enables the written page to be cut out and placed in a box, in which it was preserved as a manuscript. The invention is now called energy, but as a discoverer of the composition of water. Writing to Joseph Priestley in April 1783, with reference to some of Priestley's experiments, he suggests the theory that "water is composed of two elements, air and phlogiston derided of part of their latent or elementary heat." It is difficult to determine the exact meaning attached to these antiquated terms, and to say how far Watt's suggestion anticipated the fuller discovery of Cavendish's. Watt's papers were destroyed after his death in 1783. The Cavendish Society printed Cavendish's experiments in 1784, and both are printed in the same volume of "The Philosophical Transactions."

The early and middle part of Watt's life was a long struggle with poor health: severe headache prostrated him for days at a time; but as he grew old his constitution seems to have become more robust. His disposition was despondent and shrinking; he speaks of himself, but evidently with unfair severity, as "indolent to excess." "I am not enterprising," he writes; "I would rather face a loaded cannon than settle an account or make a bargain; in short, I find myself out of my sphere when I have anything to do with making any arrangements, and in keeping me in the background is a personal memorial of the greatest interest in his numerous letters. They are full of sagacity and insight: his own accomplishments are told with humorous modesty, yet with a sense of their value, and in a style of remarkable terseness and lucidity, lightened here and there by a touch of dry humour. In his old age Watt is described by his contemporaries as a man richly stored with the most various knowledge, and shrewdly discerning the thoughts and feelings of the literary, a great talker. Scott speaks of "the alert, kind, benevolent old man, his talents and faculty (overlooking on every subject, with his attention alive to every one's question, his information at every one's command."


WATTEAU, ANTOINE (1684–1721), French painter, was born in Valenciennes, of humble Flemish origin. Antoine de Caylus, his staunch friend of later years, and his first biographer, refers to Watteau's father as a hard man, strongly disinclined to accede to his son's wish to become a painter; but other accounts show him in a kinder light—as a poor, struggling man, a tailor by trade, who secured for his son the best possible education. Certain it is that at the age of fourteen Watteau was placed with Gérin, a mediocre Valenciennes painter, with whom he remained until 1702. It is to be assumed that he learnt far more from the study of Ostade's and Teniers' paintings in his native town than from his first master's teaching. Not only in subject-matter, but in their general tonality, his earliest works, like "La Vraie Gaiété," which was in the collection of Sir Charles Temple, suggest this influence. Gérin died in 1707, and Watteau, almost penniless, went to Paris, where he found employment with the scene-painter Metoyer. Things, however, went badly with his new master, and Watteau, broken down in health and on the verge of starvation, was forced to work in a kind of factory where devotional pictures were turned out in wholesale fashion. Three francs a week and meagre food were his reward; but his talent soon enabled him to paint the St Nicolas, the copying of which was allotted to him, without having to refer to the original. Meanwhile he spent his rare leisure hours and the evenings in serious study, sketching and drawing his impressions of types and scenes. His drawings attracted the attention of Claude Gillot, an artist imbued with the spirit of the Renaissance, who after having successfully tried himself in the mythological and historical genre, was just at that time devoting himself to the characters and incidents of the Italian comedy. Gillot took Watteau as pupil and assistant, but the young man made such rapid progress that he soon equalled and excelled his master, whose jealousy led to a quarrel, as a result of which Watteau, and with him his fellow-student and later pupil, Levi, deserted his master's circle. The brief period of his life, 1708 the studio of Claude Audran, a famous decorative painter who was at that time keeper of the collections at the Luxembourg Palace. From him Watteau acquired his knowledge of decorative art and ornamental design, the garland-like composition which he applied to the designing of screens, fans and wall panels. At the same time he became deeply imbued with the spirit of Rubens and Paolo Veronese, whose works he had daily before him at the palace; and he continued to work from nature and to collect material for his formal garden backgrounds among the fountains and statues and shady avenues of the Luxembourg gardens. His "Chinoiseries and Sirenges" date probably from the years during which he worked with Audran.

Perhaps as a recreation from the routine of ornamental design, Watteau painted at this time "The Departing Regiment," the first picture in his second and more personal manner, in which the touch reveals the influence of Rubens's technique, and which is the first of a long series of camp pictures. He showed the painting to Audran, who, probably afraid of losing so talented and useful an assistant, made light of it, and advised him not to waste his time and gifts on such subjects. Watteau, suspicious of Audran's motives, wrote his letters to his friends in the Netherlands as excuse to return to Valenciennes. He found a purchaser, at the modest price of 60 livres, in Sirois, the father-in-law of his later friend and patron Geraist, and was thus enabled to return to the home of his childhood. In Valenciennes he painted a number of the small camp-pieces, notably the "Camp-Fire," which was again bought by Sirois, the price this time being raised to 200 livres; this is now in the collection of Mr W. A. Coats in Glasgow. Two small pictures of the same type are at the Hermitage in St Petersburg.

Watteau, however, after returning to Paris, and during a very short sojourn in Valenciennes, took up his abode with Sirois, and competed in 1709 for the Prix de Rome. He only obtained the second prize, and determined to go to Rome, he applied for a crown pension and exhibited the two military pictures which he had sold to Sirois, in a place where they were bound to be seen by the academicians. There they attracted the attention of de la Fosse, who, struck by the rare gifts displayed in these works, sent for Watteau and dissuaded him from going to Italy, where he had nothing to learn. It was to a great extent due to de la Fosse that Watteau was made an associate of the Academy in 1712, and a full member in 1717, on the completion of his diploma picture, "The Embarkment for Cythera," now at the Louvre. A later, and even more perfect, version of the same subject is in the possession of the German emperor. It is quite possible that the superb portrait of Rigaud by Watteau.
WATTENBACH—WATTERSON

belonging to Mr Hodgkins, was painted in acknowledgment of Riaguas's friendly action.

Watteau now went to live with Crozat, the greatest private art collector of his time, for whom he painted a set of four decorative panels of "The Seasons," one of which, "Summer," is now in the collection of Mr Lionel Phillips. Crozat left at his death some 500 paintings and 10,000 drawings by the masters. It is easy to imagine how Watteau roamed among these treasures, and became more and more familiar with Rubens and the great Venetians. In 1719 or 1720 the state of his health had become so bad that he was compelled to隨, and the French poets and their sufferer and hero. It is said that Watteau and Boucher made the best of his time, he worked with feverish haste. Among his last paintings were a "Crucifixion" for the curé of Nogent, and a portrait of the famous Venetian pastorist Rosalba Carriera, who at the time painted her portrait of Watteau. His restlessness increased with the progress of his disease; he wished to return to Valenciennes, but the long journey was too dangerous; he sent for his pupil Pater, whom he had dismissed in a fit of ill-temper, and whom he now kept by his side for a month to give him the benefit of his experience; and on the 18th of July 1721 he died in Gersaint's arms. Watteau's position in French art is one of unique importance, for, though Flemish by descent, he was more French in his art than any of his French contemporaries. He became the founder—and at the same time the culmination—of a new school which marked a revolt against the pompous playful classicism of the Louis XIV period. The vitality of his art was due to the rare combination of a poet's imagination with a power of seizing reality. In his treatment of the landscape background and of the atmospheric surroundings of the figures can be found the germs of impressionism. All the later theories of light and its effect upon the objects in nature arc foreshadowed in Watteau's fêtes champêtres, which give at the same time a characteristic, though highly idealized, picture of the artificiality of the life of his time. He is the initiator of the Louis XV period, but, except in a few rare cases, his paintings are entirely free from the licentiousness of his followers Lancret and Pater, and even more of Boucher and Fragonard. During the last years of his life Watteau's art was highly esteemed by such fine judges as Sirois, Gersaint, the conte de Caylus, and M. de Julienne, the last of whom had a whole collection of the master's paintings and sketches, and published in 1734 the Abridé de la vie de Watteau, an introduction to the four volumes of engravings after Watteau by Cochon, Thomassin, Le Bas, Liottard and others. From the middle of the 18th century to about 1875, when Edmond de Goncourt published his Catalogue raisonné of Watteau's works and Caylus's discourse on Watteau delivered at the Academy in 1748, the discovery of which is also due to the brothers de Goncourt, Watteau was held in such slight esteem that the prices realized by his paintings at public auction rarely exceeded £100. Then the reaction set in, and in 1819 the "Occupation aux Affaires" realized 3500 guineas at Christie's, and "Perfect Harmony" 3500 guineas. At the Bourgeois sale at Cologne in 1904 "The Village Bride" fetched £5000. The finest collection of Watteau's works is in the possession of the German emperor, who owns as many as thirteen, all of the best period, and mostly from M. de Julienne's collection. At the Kaiser Friedrich museum in Berlin are two scenes from the Italian and French comedy and a fête champêtre. In the Wallace Collection are nine of his paintings, among them "Rustic Amusements," "The Return from the Chase," "Gilles and his Family," "The Music Party," "A Lady at her Toilet" and "Harlequin and Columbine." The Louvre owns, besides the diploma picture, the "Antiope," "The Assemble in the Park," "Autumn," "Indifference," "La Finette," "Gilles," "A Reunion" and "The False Step," as well as thirty-one original drawings. Other paintings of importance are at the Dresden, Glasgow, Edinburgh, St Petersburg and Vienna galleries; and a number of drawings are to be found at the British Museum and the Albertina in Vienna. Of the few portraits known to have been painted by Watteau, one is in the collection of the late M. Grout in Paris.

AUTHORITIES.—Since the resuscitation of Watteau's fame by de Goncourt, an extensive literature has grown around his life and work. The basis for all later research is furnished by Caylus's somewhat academic Life, Gersaint's Catalogue raisonné (Paris, 1744), and Julienne's Abrégé. For Watteau's childhood the most trustworthy information will be found in Cellier's Watteau, son enfance, ses contemporains (Valenciennes, 1867). Of the greatest importance is the Catalogue raisonné de l'œuvre de Watteau, by E. de Goncourt (1875), and the essay on Watteau by the brothers de Goncourt in L'Art du XVIIIe siècle. See also Watteau by Paul Mantz (Paris, 1802); "Antoine Watteau," by G. Dargent (Les Artistes célèbres, Paris, 1881); Watteau, by Gabriel Sällies (Paris, 1911); Aline Watteau (Paris, 1930); and Smits, Le fétichiste Goncourt (Paris, 1932). Among the best recent studies, some of exceptional value, is the study by H. Schiffer, Das gesamte Werk der christlichen Kirche in Böhmen und Mähren (Vienna, 1894); Geschichte des römischen Papsttums (Berlin, 1876); and Anleitung zur Rosenbergische Paläographie (Leipzig, 1897, and again 1925).

WATTENBACH, WILHELM (1830–1897), German historian, was born at Ranzau in Holstein on the 22nd of September 1819. He studied philology at the universities of Bonn, Göttingen and Berlin, and in 1843 he began to work upon the Monumenta Germaniae historica. In 1855 he was appointed archivist at Breisgau; in 1856 he became professor of history at Heidelberg, and ten years later professor at Berlin, where he was a member of the directorial body of the Monumenta and a member of the Academy. He died at Frankfurt on the 21st of September 1867. Watteau was distinguished by his thorough knowledge of the chronicles and other original documents of the middle ages, and his most valuable work was done in this field.

His principal book, Deutschnahlichen Geschichtsquellen im Mittelalter bis zur Mitte des 13. Jahrhunderts, is unrivalled as a guide to the sources of the history of Germany in the middle ages; this was first published in 1858, and has passed through several editions. Cognate works are his Anleitung zur lateinischen Paläographie (Leipzig, 1869, and again 1886), and Das Schriftmuseum im Mittelalter (Leipzig, 1871, and again 1896). Among other works is his Geschichte der christlichen Kirche in Böhmen und Mähren (Vienna, 1894); Geschichte des römischen Papsttums (Berlin, 1876); and Anleitung zur germanische Paläographie (Leipzig, 1897, and again 1925).

WATTERSON, HENRY (1840–1911), American journalist, was born in Washington, D.C., on the 16th of February 1850. His father, Harvey McGee Watterson (1811–1891), was a journalist and lawyer, and was a Democratic representative in Congress in 1839–1843. The son was educated by private tutors, and between 1858 and 1861 was editor of the Washington States and of the Democratic Review. During the Civil War he served in the Confederate army as aide-de-camp to General Nathan B. Forrest and to General Leonidas Polk in 1861–1862; he was editor of the Chattanooga Rebel in 1862–1863, and was chief of scouts in General Joseph E. Johnston's army in 1864. In 1865–1867 he was an editor of the Republican Banner, at Nashville, Tennessee, and in 1867–1868 he was editor of the Journal at Louisville, Kentucky. In 1868 he with W. N. Haldeman he started the Louisville Courier-Journal, a consolidation of the Courier (1843), the Democrat (1844), and the Journal (1850); and it soon became one of the most influential of Southern newspapers. He was a Democratic representative in Congress from August 1876 to March 1877, and was delegate at large to the National Democratic Conventions of 1876, 1880, 1884, 1888 and 1892, serving as temporary chairman in 1876, and as chairman of the platform committee in 1880 and 1888. He became widely known as a lecturer and orator. His publications include History of the Spanish-American War (1890) and The Compromises of Life (1902).
WATTIGNIES—WATTMETER

WATTIGNIES, a village of France 53 m. S.S.E. of Maubeuge, the scene of a battle in the French Revolutionary Wars (q.v.), fought on the 15th-16th October 1793. The Allied army, chiefly Austrians, under Coburg, was besieging Maubeuge, and the Revolutionary army, preparing to relieve it, gathered behind Avesnes. Coburg dispatched a covering force of 11,000 to the Avesnes-Maubeuge road, 5000 on the right with their flank on the Sambre, 4000 in the centre, on a ridge in an amphitheatre of woods, and 6000 on the left, chiefly on the plateau of Wattignies. A long line of woods enabled the Republican commander, Jourdan, to deploy unseen; 14,000 men were to attack the right, 16,000 were sent towards Wattignies, and 13,000 were to demonstrate in the centre till the others had succeeded and then to attack. Meantime (though this part of the programme miscarried) the Maubeuge garrison, which was almost as strong as its besiegers, was to sally out. Even without the Maubeuge garrison Jourdan had a two-to-one superiority. But the French were still the undisciplined enthusiasts of Hondschoote. Their left attack progressed so long as it could use "dead ground" in the valleys, but when the Republicans reached the gentler slopes above, the volleys of the Austrian regulars crushed their swarms, and the Austrian cavalry, striking them in flank, rode over them. The centre attack, ordered by Carnot on the assumption that all was well on the flanks, was premature; like the left, it progressed while the slopes were sharp, but when the Republicans arrived on the crest they found a gentle reverse slope before them, at the foot of which was Wattignies. Jourdan, the di- \( \text{c} \) plined valleys and a well-timed cavalry charge swept back the assailants. The French right reached, but could not hold, Wattignies. But these reverses were, in the eyes of Carnot and Jourdan, mere mishaps. Jourdan wished to renew the left attack, but Carnot, the engineer, considered the Wattignies plateau the key of the position and his opinion prevailed. In the night the nearly equal partition of force, which was largely responsible for the failure, was modified, and the strength of the attack massed opposite Wattignies. Coburg meanwhile strengthened his centre. He heard that Jourdan had been reenforced to up to 100,000. But he called up fresh battalions, and put into line only 23,000 men. In reality Jourdan had not received reinforcements, and the effects of the first failure almost neutralized the superiority of numbers and enthusiasm over discipline and confidence. But at last, after a long fight had eliminated the faint-hearted, enough brave men remained in the excited crowds held together by Carnot and Jourdan to win the plateau. Coburg then drew off. His losses were 2500 out of 23,000, Jourdan’s 3000 out of 42,000.

WATTMETER, a term in architecture (Lat. crassitas) applied to a wall made of rough stone, with small spaces between them and then plastered over. It is probably one of the oldest systems of construction; the Egyptians employed the stems of maize for the upright stakes; these were secured together with withes and covered over with mud, the upper portions of the maize stems being left uncut at the top, to increase the height of the enclosure; and these are thought by Professor Petrie to have given the origin for the cavetto cornice of the temples, the torus moulding representing the heavier coil, which then at the top of the fence wall. Vitruvius (i. 8) refers to it as being used in Rome. In the middle ages in England it was employed as a framework for hay chimneys.

WATTMETER, an instrument for the measurement of electric power, or the rate of supply of electric energy to any circuit. The term is generally applied to describe a particular form of electrodyomometer, consisting of a fixed coil of wire and an embracing or neighbouring coil of wire suspended so as to be movable. In general construction the instrument resembles a Siemens electrodyomometer (see AMPERMETER). The fixed coil is called the current coil, and the movable coil is called the potential coil, and each of these coils has its ends brought to separate terminals on the instrument itself.

In the principle on which the instrument works is as follows: Suppose any circuit, such as an electric motor, lamp or transformer, is receiving electric current; then the power given to that circuit reckoned in watts is measured by the product of the current flowing through the circuit in amperes and the potential difference of the ends of that circuit in volts, multiplied by a certain factor called the power factor in those cases in which the circuit is inductive and the current alternating.

In the simplest case of a non-inductive power-absorbing circuit. If an electro-dynamometer, made as above described, has its fixed circuit connected in series with the power-absorbing circuit and its movable coil (wound with fine wire) connected across the terminals of the power-absorbing circuit, a current will flow through the fixed coil which is the same as or nearly the same as that through the power-absorbing circuit, and a current will flow through the movable coil proportional to the potential difference at the terminals of the power-absorbing circuit. The movable coil of the wattmeter is normally suspended so that its axis is at right angles to that of the fixed coil and is constrained by a spiral spring of tension sufficient to keep the two coils, forces are brought into action compelling the coils to set their axes in the same direction, and these forces can be opposed by another torque due to the control of a spring spiral regulated by moving a pointer head on the instrument. The torque required to hold the coils in their normal position is proportional to the mean value of the product of the currents flowing through two coils respectively, or to the mean value of the product of the current in the power-absorbing circuit (fixed coil) and the current in the movable coil of the instrument. Hence this power can be measured by the torsion which must be applied to the revolving plate in order to hold it in the right position against the action of the forces tending to displace it. The wattmeter can therefore be calibrated so as to give direct readings of the power reckoned in watts, taken up in the circuit; and it is only necessary to multiply these readings by the power factor to obtain the true power absorbed. If these circumstances are fulfilled, the instrument is called a wattmeter and is an instrument for measuring the instantaneous power in a circuit. Its axis is fixed, but it is moveable. If the circuit contains alternating currents, the power-factor is sometimes employed for its use in determining the mean value of the power absorbed, if the circuit contains alternating currents.

In order that a wattmeter shall be suitable for the measurement of alternating currents a circuit (wattmeter circuit) of the form described must be completed. The framework and case of the instrument must be completely non-metallic, else eddy currents are induced in the metal of the case which supports the moving parts and act on the movable coil. Again the shunt circuit must be capable of taking the zero inductance and the series or current coil must be wound or constructed with stranded copper wire, each strand being silver covered, to prevent the production of eddy currents in the mass of the conductor. Wattmeters of this kind have been devised by J. A. Fleming, Lord Kelvin and W. Duddell and Mather. W. E. Sumpter, however, has devised forms of wattmeters of the dynamometer type in which iron cores are employed, and has defined the conditions under which these instruments are available for accurate measurements. See "New Alternate Current Instruments," Jour. Inst. Elec. Eng., 41, 227 (1908).

The most useful method of measuring the electrical power by means of electrostatic voltmeters, or of quadrant electrometers adapted for the purpose, when so employed may be called electrometric. If the quantity of electricity (e) passing through a circuit (s.) is connected to the ends of a non-inductive circuit in series with the power-absorbing circuit, and if the needle is connected to the end of this last circuit opposite to that at which the inductionless resistance is connected, the deflection of this needle is thus proportional to the power taken up in the circuit, since it is proportional to the mean value of (A-B) [C-\( \frac{1}{2} \) (A+B)], where A and B are the potentials of the quadrants and C is that of the needle. Thus it is evident, however, that the instruments on which these are based are false for an inductive circuit. In the case of the voltmeter method of measuring power devised by W. E. Ayrton and W. E. Sumpter in 1891, an electrostatic voltmeter is employed to measure the fall of potential V down any inductive circuit in which it is desired to

\[ P = \frac{1}{2} \pi \mu \rho \cos \theta \]

For the proof of this formula see J. A. Fleming, The Alternate Current Transformer in Theory and Practice, 1. 168.
measure the power absorption, and also the volt-drop $V_2$ down an inductionless resistance $R$ in series with it, and also the volt-drop $V_2$ down the two together. The power absorption is then given by the expression 

$$P = \frac{2}{3} (V_1^2 - V_2^2 + V_3^2)$$


Watts, Alaric Alexander (1797-1864), English journalist and poet, was the son of John Mosley Watts and grandson of William Watts, a Leicester physician of repute. After leaving school he made his living for a short time by teaching, and in 1818 joined the staff of the New Monthly Magazine in London, becoming about the same time a contributor to the Literary Gazette. In 1822 he was made editor of the Leeds Intelligencer, in the columns of which he was one of the first to advocate measures for protecting workers in factories against accidents from machinery. In 1823 he published his first volume of verse, Poetical Sketches, and in 1824 he became the editor of the Literary Souvenir, of which he also became the proprietor two years later, and in the conduct of which he secured the co-operation of some of the most famous men of letters of the period. In 1825 he went to Manchester as editor of the Manchester Courier, a position which he resigned a year later; in 1828 he assisted in founding the Edinburgh Standard, and in 1834 his editor was Stanley Lees Giffard; and in 1835 he started the United Service Gazette, which he edited for several years. Watts was also interested in a number of provincial Conservative newspapers which were not financially successful, and he became bankrupt in 1850, but was awarded a civil service pension by Lord Aberdeen in 1854. In 1856 he edited the first edition of Men of the Time. Watts died in London on the 5th of April 1856. In 1867 a collection of his poems was published in a volume entitled The Laurel and the Lyre.

Watts, George Frederic (1817-1904), English painter and sculptor, was born in London on the 3rd of February 1817. While hardly more than a boy he was permitted to enter the schools of the Royal Academy; but his attendance was short-lived, and his further art education was confined to personal experiment and endeavour, guided and corrected by a constant appeal to the standard of ancient Greek sculpture. There are portraits of himself, painted in 1834; of Mr James Weale, about 1835; of his father, "Little Miss Hopkins," and Mr Richard Jarvis, painted in 1836; and in 1837 he was a paper far enough advanced to be an exhibitor at the Academy with a picture of "The Wounded Heron" and two portraits. His first exhibited figure-subject, "Cavaliers," appeared on the Academy walls in 1839, and was followed in 1840 by "Isabella e Lorenzo," in 1841 by "How should I your true love know?" and in 1842 by a scene from Cymbeline and a portrait of Mrs Ionides. The Royal Commission appointed for the decoration of the new Houses of Parliament offered prizes in 1842 to those artists whose cartoons for frescoes should be adjudged best adapted to its object, and at the exhibition in Westminster Hall next year Watts secured a prize of £500 for a design of "Caractacus led in triumph through the streets of Rome." This enabled him to visit Italy in 1844, and he remained there during the greater portion of the three following years, for the most part in Florence, where he enjoyed the patronage and personal friendship of Lord Holland, the British ambassador. For him he painted a portrait of Lady Holland, exhibited in 1848, and in his Villa Careggi, near the city, a fresco, after making some experimental studies in that medium, fragments of which are now in the Victoria and Albert Museum. To Lord Holland's encouragement, also, it was chiefly due that in 1846 the British Association, the technical body of the Royal Commissioners, who on this occasion announced a further list of prizes for works in oil. Watts sent in a cartoon depicting "Alfred inciting his subjects to prevent the landing of the Danes, or the first naval victory of the English," which, after obtaining a first-class prize of £500 at the exhibition in Westminster Hall, was purchased by the government, and hangs in one of the committee rooms of the House of Commons. It led, moreover, to a commission for the fresco of "St George overcomes the Dragon," which, begun in 1848 and finished in 1853, forms part of the decoration of the third chamber of the House of Lords. Watts prepared the fresco "The Progress of the Cosmos," but the offer was refused. A similar proposition made shortly afterwards to the Bunchers of Lincoln's Inn was received in a less commercial spirit, and was followed by the execution of the fresco, "Justice: a Hecemile of Lawgivers," on the north side of their hall.

While this large undertaking was still in progress, Watts was working steadily at pictures and portraits. In 1849 the two of the great allegorical compositions which form the most characteristic of the artist's productions were exhibited—"Life's Illusions," an elaborate personification of the vanity of human desires, and "The people that sat in darkness," turning eagerly towards the growing dawn. In 1850 he first gave public expression to his intense longing to improve the condition of humanity in the picture of "The Good Samaritan" bending over the wounded traveller; this, as recorded in the catalogue of the Royal Academy, was "painted as an expression of the artist's admiration and respect for the noble philanthropy of Thomas Wright, of Manchester," to that city he presented the work, in full Academy membership, in 1851. Watts made a visit to Lord Holland at Paris, where he was then ambassador, and through him made the acquaintance and painted the portraits of Thiers, Prince Jerome Bonaparte and other famous Frenchmen; while other celebrities to whom he sat during these years were Guizot (1848), Colonel Rawlinson, C.B., Sir Henry Taylor and Thomas Wright (1851), Lord John Russell (1852), Tennyson (1856, and again in 1859), John Lothrop Motley the historian (1859), the duke of Argyll (1860), Lord Lawrance and Lord Lyndhurst (1862), Lord Wensleydale (1864), Mr Gladstone (1858 and 1865), Sir William Bowman and Swithin (1865), Panizzi (1866) and Dean Stanley and Dr Joachim in 1867. Notable pictures of the same period are "Sir Galahad" (1862), "Ariadne in Naxos" (1863), "Time and Oblivion" (1864), originally designed for sculpture to be carried out "in divers materials after the manner of Phidias," and "Thetis" (1866).

In spite of these and many other evidences of his importance, it was not until 1867 that Watts was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy, but the council then conferred upon him the rare distinction of promoting him, in the course of the same year, to full Academic Fellowship. Thenceforward he continued to exhibit each year, with a few exceptions, at the Academy, even after his retirement in 1896, and he was also a frequent contributor to the Grosvenor Gallery, and subsequently to the New Gallery, at which a special exhibition of his works was held in the winter of 1896-1897. Though he travelled abroad to some extent, going to Asia Minor in 1857 with the expedition sent to investigate the ruins of Halicarnassus, and visiting in later years Italy, Greece and Egypt, the greater part of his life was passed in the laborious seclusion of his studio either at Little Holland House, Melsbury Road, Kensington, where he settled in 1859, or in the
country at Limmereside, Compton, Surrey. Apart from his art, his life was happily uneventful, the sole facts necessary to record his being married in 1886 with Miss Mary Fraser-Yetter, an early union with Miss Ellen Terry having been dissolved many years before (1871), but remaining afterwards, despite the offer of a baronetcy; and his inclusion in June 1902 in the newly founded Order of Merit. He died on the 1st of July 1904.

The world is exceptionally well provided with opportunities of judging the qualities of G. F. Watts's art, for with a noble generosity the artist allowed the book of his works to be published at the best work of his long life. A prominent element in it, and one which must prove of the greatest value to posterity, is the inestimable series of portraits of his distinguished contemporaries, a series no one else has ever attempted. A glance through the list of his subjects shows the breadth of his sympathies and his superiority to creep or part. Among politicians are the duke of Devonshire (1883), Lords Salisbury (1884), Sherbrooke (1882), Campbell (1882), Cowper (1877), Ripon (1860), Dufferin (1867) and Shaftesbury (1882), Mr Gerald Balfour (1880) and Mr John Burns (1897), poets—Tennyson, Swinburne (1882), Browning (1875), Matthew Arnold (1881), Rossetti (1885, and eleven others), Lord Leighton (1871 and 1881), Calderon (1872), Princep (1872), Burns-Jones (1870), Millais (1871), Walter Crane (1875), and a host of less important figures. Again, in art, there are Stuart Mill (exhibited 1874), Carlyle (1860), George Meredith (1863), Max Müller (1895) and Mr Lecky (1876); music, by Sir Charles Hallé (1878); and Science, by Sir Joseph Larmor (1896), and the editors are Lords Napier (1886) and Roberts (1890). General Baden-Powell (1902), Garibaldi, Sir Richard Burton (1882), Cardinal Manning (1882), Dr Martineau (1874), Sir Andrew Clark (1894), George Fenn (chosen a member for the first time in 1894) and many others.

There are not wanting critics who radically dissent from this view of the primary functions of art. It must be admitted that there is force in their objection when the inner meaning of a picture is found to be exceedingly obscure, if not incomprehensible, without a verbal explanation. In the female figure, for instance, bending blindfolded on the globe suspended in space and sounding the siren string under the wings of a scythe, as might be surmised from the title bore that is being given to the picture, it is not obvious to every one that the idea of "Hope" (1885) suggested. There can be few, nevertheless, who will maintain that his aim is not a lofty one; and the strongest evidence of the artist's genuine sincerity is that, in his later works, he has not only striven unrigorously for his ideals, but has very clearly attained. Moreover, in so doing he has not failed on occasion to impart to his work much of that very charm which is to him and cruelty that he dwells, but the pity of it that he typifies in "Dedication" or "The Shuddering Angel" (1892) weeping over the altar stand with Woman's spoils.

Yet it is as a teacher that the artist is seen at his highest: he would sooner point out the true way to those who seek it than to diminish those who have wandered. He never weary of emphasizing the reality of the power of Love, the fallacy underlying the fear of Death. To the early masters Death was a bare and ghastly Apparition, about which could only be said that it was an impressive figure, and not but horrible, irresistible but not ruthless, a bringer of rest and peace, not to be rashly sought but to be welcomed when the inevitable hour shall strike. Watts, as he did in his tragic "Jonah" (1868), and in the grand, impressive figure, with undying but not horrible, irresistible but not ruthless, a bringer of rest and peace, not to be rashly sought but to be welcomed when the inevitable hour shall strike. Watts, as he did in his tragic "Jonah" (1868), and in the

WATTS, Isaac (1674-1748), English theologian and hymn writer, son of a clothier, was born at Southampton on the 17th of July 1674. The father, who afterwards had a boarding-school at Southampton, also wrote poetry, and a number of his pieces were included by mistake in vol. i. of the son's Posthumous Works. Isaac Watts is stated to have begun to learn Latin when only in his fifth year, and at the age of seven or eight to have composed some devotional pieces to please his mother. After he left school he was instructed in modern languages and classic literature at universities, but in his sixteenth year he went to study at the nonconformist academy at Stoke Newington, of which the Rev. Thomas Rowe, minister of the Independent meeting at Girdler's Hall, was then president. On leaving the academy he spent more than two years at home, and began to write his hymns, but in the autumn of 1696 he became tutor in the family of Sir John Hoptart at Stoke Newington, where he probably prepared the materials of his two educational works—Logic, or the Right Use of Reason in the Enquiry after Truth (1723), and The Knowledge of the Heavens and the Earth made easy, the First Principles of Geography and Astronomical Explained (1726). In his twenty-fourth year Watts was chosen assistant to Dr Isaac Chauncy (1632-1712), pastor of the Independent congregation in Mark Lane, London, and two years later he succeeded as sole pastor. The state of his health, which he had injured by overwork, led to the appointment of an assistant in 1703. In 1704 the congregation removed to Pinner's Hall, and in 1708 they built a new meeting-house in Bury Street. In 1712 Watts was attacked by fever, which incapacitated him for four years from the performance of his duties. In 1712 he went to live with Sir Thomas Powel of London, by whom he was appointed nonconformist chaplain, the arrangement being continued by Lady Abney after her husband's death. Watts preached only occasionally, devoting his leisure chiefly to the writing of hymns (see HYMNS), the preparation of his sermons for publication, and the composition of theological work. In 1706 appeared his Horse Lyrics, of which an edition with memoir by Robert Southey forms vol. ix. of Sacred Classics (1834); in 1707 a volume of HYMNS; in 1719 The Psalms of David; and in 1720 Divine and Moral Songs for Children. His Psalms are free paraphrases, rather than metrical versions, and some of them ("O God, our help in ages past," for instance) are amongst the most famous hymns in the language. His religious opinions were more liberal in tone than was at that time common in the community to which he belonged; his views regarding Sunday recreation and labour were scarcely of puritanical strictness; and his Calvinism was modified by his rejection of the doctrine of reprobation. He did not hold the doctrine of the Trinity as necessary to salvation, and he wrote several works on the subject in which he developed views not far removed from Arianism. He died on the 25th of November 1748, and was buried at Bunhill Fields, where a tombstone was erected to his memory by Sir John Hoptart and Lady Abney. A memorial was also erected to him in Westminster Abbey, and a memorial hall, erected in his honour at Southampton, was opened in 1875. Among the theological treatises of Watts, in addition to volumes of sermons, are Doctrine of the Trinity (1722); Discourses on the Love of God and its Influence on all the Passions (1727); Essays for Children and Youth (1730); Essays towards a Proof of a Separate State for Souls (1732); Essay on the Freedom of the Will (1732); Essay on the Strength and Weakness of Human Reason (1734); Essay on the Ruin and Recovery of Mankind (1730); Glory of Christ as God-Man Unveiled (1736); and Useful and Important Questions concerning Jesus, the Son of God (1746). He was also the author of a volume of miscellaneous poems, Miscellanies, which was revised and amended in 1774, and a further installment of them in 1779. The Works of ... Isaac Watts (6 vols.), edited by Dr Jennings and Dr Doddridge, with a memoir compiled by G. Burder, appears to be a faithful reproduction of his original editions. His didactic works were included in Isaac's English Poets, where they were accompanied by a Life, and they appear in subsequent similar collections. See also The Life, Times and Correspondence of Isaac Watts (1842).

WATTS-DUNTON, Walter Theodore (1832— ). English man of letters, was born at St Ives, Huntingdon, on the 12th of October 1832, his family surname being Watts, to which he added in 1897 his mother's name of Dunton. He was
originally educated as a naturalist, and saw much of the East Anglian gypsies, of whose superstitions and folk-lore he made careful study. Abandoning his natural history for the law, he qualified as a solicitor and went to London, where he practised for some years, giving his spare time to his chosen pursuit of literature. He contributed regularly to the *Examiner* from 1874 and to the *Athenaeum* from 1875 until 1889, being for more than twenty years the principal critic of poetry in the latter journal. His article on "Poetry" in the ninth edition of the *Encyc. Brit.* (vol. xix., 1885) was the principal expression of his views on the first principles of the subject, and did much to increase his reputation, which was maintained by other articles he wrote for the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and for other critical periodicals and reviews. Mr. Watts-Dunton had considerable influence as the friend of many of the leading men of letters of his time; he enjoyed the confidence of Tennyson, and contributed an appreciation of him to the authorized biography. He was in later years Rossetti's most intimate friend. He was the bosom friend of Swinburne (q.p.), who shared his home for nearly thirty years before he died in 1909. The obituary notices and appreciations of the poets of the time, which he contributed to the *Athenaeum* and other periodicals, bore testimony to his sympathy, insight and critical acumen. It was not, however, until 1887 that he published a volume under his own name, this being a collection of poems called *The Coming of Love*, portions of which he had printed in periodicals from time to time. In the following year his prose romance *Aylwin* attained immediate success, and ran through many editions in the course of a few months. *Both The Coming of Love and Aylwin* set forth, the one in poetry, the other in prose, the romantic and passionate associations of Romany life, and maintain the traditions of Borrow, whom Mr. Watts-Dunton had known well in his own early days. Imaginative glamour and mysticism are their prominent characteristics, and the novel in particular has its share in restoring and reviving the charms of pure romance to the favour of the general public. He edited George Borrow's Lavengro (1893) and Romany Rye (1900); in 1903 he published *The Renascence of Wonder*, a treatise on the romantic movement; and his Studies of Shakespeare appeared in 1910. But it was not only in his published work that Mr. Watts-Dunton's influence on the literary life of his time was potent. His long and intimate association with Rossetti and Swinburne made him, no doubt, a unique figure in the world of letters; but his own grasp of metrical principle and of the historical perspective of the glory of English poetry made him, as the young writer of fiction, the embodiment of a great tradition of literary criticism which could never cease to command respect. In 1905 he married. His life has been essentially one of devotion to letters, faithfully and disinterestedly followed.

**WAUGH, BENJAMIN** (1839-1908), English social reformer, was born at Settle, Yorkshire, on the 20th of February 1839. He passed the early years of his life in business, but in 1865 entered the congregational ministry. Settling at Greenwich he threw himself with ardour into the work of social reform, devoting himself especially to the cause of the children. He served on the London School Board from 1870 to 1876. In 1884 he was responsible for the establishment of the London society for the prevention of cruelty to children, which several years later was established on a national basis. He was elected its honorary secretary, and it was largely owing to information obtained by him that the Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1885 was passed, while by his personal effort he secured the insertion of a clause giving magistrates power to take the evidence of children too young to understand what was required of them. In 1889 he organized and the work accomplished by his society (of which he had been made director the same year) recognized by the passing of an act for the prevention of cruelty to children, the first stepping-stone to the act of 1908 (see CHILDREN, LAW RELATING TO). In 1895 a charter of incorporation was conferred on the society, but in 1897 it was the object of a serious attack on its administration. An inquiry was demanded by Waugh, and the commission of inquiry, which included Lord Herschell and others, completely vindicated the society and its director. Waugh had given up pastoral work in 1887 to devote his whole time to the society, and he retained his post as director until 1905, when the state of his health compelled his retirement. He remained consulting director until his death at Westcliff, near Southend, Essex, on the 11th of March 1908. Waugh edited the *Sunday Magazine* from 1874 to 1896, but he had otherwise little leisure for literary work. His *The Good Cradle, who rocks it?* (1873) was a plea for the abolition of juvenile imprisonment.

**WAUGH, EDWIN** (1817-1890), known as "The Lancashire Poet," was born at Rochdale, on the 29th of January 1817, the son of a shoemaker. For several years he earned his living as a printer (in various parts of the country). In 1855 he published his first book, *Sketches of Lancashire Life and Localities*, following this up with reprinted *Poems and Songs* (1859). His rendering of the Lancashire dialect was most happy, and his rude lyrics, full of humour and pathos, were great favourites with his countrymen. He died on the 30th of April 1890.

See Milner's *Memoir* in an edition of Waugh's selected works (1892-1893).

**WAUGERAN, a city and the county-seat of Lake county, Illinois, U.S.A., on the W. shore of Lake Michigan, about 56 m. N. of Chicago. Pop. (1900) 10,024; (1910) 13,026, of whom 250 were foreign-born; (1910) census) 16,669. It is served by the Elgin, Joliet & Eastern (of which it is a terminus) and the Chicago & North Western railways, by an interurban electric line, and by lake steamers. In 1886 the United States government undertook the formation of an artificial harbour with a channel 13 ft. deep, and in 1902-1904 the depth was increased to 20 ft. The main portion of the city is situated about 100 ft. above the level of the lake. There are a number of parks and mineral springs, and along the lake front a fine drive-way, Sheridan Road. The city is a resort suburb of Chicago. The principal buildings are the Federal building, the Court House, a Carnegie library, the Masonic Temple and McAlister Hospital. The village of North Chicago (pop. in 1910, 3506), about 3 m. S. of Waukegan, there is a United States Naval Training Station. Waukegan is the commercial centre of an agricultural and dairying region, and has various manufactures. The total value of the factory product in 1905 was $3,661,513. Waukegan was settled about 1835, and until 1849 was known as Little Fort, which is supposed to be the English equivalent of the Indian name Waukegan. It became the county seat. A branch of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul railway is connected at a town in 1849, and first chartered as a city in 1859.

**WAUKESHA, a city and the county-seat of Waukesha county, Wisconsin, U.S.A., about 19 m. W. of Milwaukee on the Little Fox river. Pop. (1890) 6121; (1900) 7419, including 1408 foreign-born; (1905 state census) 6049; (1910) 8740. Waukesha is served by the Minneapolis, St. Paul & Sault Ste Marie, the Chicago & North-Western and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul railways, and by interurban electric railways connecting it with Milwaukee, Oconomowoc and Madison. The medicinal mineral springs (Bethesda, White Rock, &c.) are widely known. Among the public buildings are the county court house and the public library. Waukesha is the seat of the State Industrial School for Boys (established as a house of refuge in 1860) and of Carroll College (Presbyterian, co-educational, 1846). Waukesha was first settled in 1834, was named Prairieville in 1839, was incorporated as a village under its present name (said to be a Pottawatomie word meaning "fox") in 1852, and chartered as a city in 1866. In 1851 the first railway in the state was completed between Milwaukee and Waukesha, but the village retained only a farming community until the exploitation of the mineral springs was begun about 1868. About 15 m. S. of Waukesha, near Mukwonago (pop. in 1910, 615), in 1843-1845, there was an unsuccessful communist agricultural settlement, the Utilitarian Association, composed largely of London mechanics led by Campbell Smith, a London bookbinder.

**WAURIN** (or WAVRIN), JEAN (or JEAN DE) (d. c. 1474), French chronicler, belonged to a noble family of Artois, and was present at the battle of Agincourt. Afterwards he fought for
the Burgundians at Verneuil and elsewhere, and then occupying a high position at the court of Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, was sent as ambassador to Rome in 1463. Jehan wrote, or rather compiled, the *Recueil des chroniques et anciennes histoires de la Grand Bretagne*, a collection of the sources of English history from the earliest times to 1471. For this work he borrowed from Froissart, Monstrelet and others; but for the period between 1344 and 1471 the *Recueil* is original and valuable, although somewhat untrustworthy with regard to affairs in England itself.

From the beginning to 688 and again from 1399 to 1471 the text has been edited for the Rolls Series (5 vols., London, 1864–1891), by W. and E. L. C. Hardy, who have also translated the greater part of it into English. The sections from 1325 to 1471 have been edited by L. E. M. Dupont (Paris, 1858–1863).

**WAUSAU**, a city and the county-seat of Marathon county, Wisconsin, U.S.A., on both banks of the Wisconsin river, about 185 m. N.W. of Milwaukee. Pop. (1890) 9253; (1900) 12,354, of whom 3747 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 16,560. There is a large German element in the population, and two German semi-weekly newspapers are published here. Wausau is served by the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul and the Chicago & North-Western railways. The city is built for the most part on a level plateau above the river and extends to the top of high bluffs on either side. It has a fine city hall, a Carnegie library, the Marathon County Court House, a hospital, built by the Sisters of the Divine Saviour, and a Federal Building. In Wausau are a U.S. land office, the Marathon County Training School for Teachers, the Marathon County School of Agriculture and Domestic Science, and a County Asylum for the Chronic Insane. Water-power furnished by the Big Bull Falls of the Wisconsin (in the city) is utilized for manufacturing, and in 1910 water-power sites were being developed on the Wisconsin river immediately above and below the city. In 1905 the factory products were valued at $4,644,457. Wausau had its origin in a logging-camp, established about 1838. In 1840 a saw-mill was built here, and in 1858 the village was incorporated under its present name. After 1880, when Wausau was chartered as a city, its growth was rapid.

**WAUTERS, EMILE** (1848– ), Belgian painter, was born in Brussels, 1848. Successively the pupil of Portals and Gerône, he produced in 1868 "The Battle of Hastings: the Finding of the body of Harold by Edith," a work of striking, precocious talent. A journey was made to Italy, but that the study of the old masters in no wise affected his individuality was proved by "The Great Wave of St Mark's" (purchased by the king of the Belgians). As his youth disqualified him for the medal of the Brussels Salon, which otherwise would have been his, he was sent, by way of compensation, by the minister of fine arts, as artist-delegate to Suez for the opening of the canal, a visit that was fruitful later on. In 1870, when he was yet only twenty-two years of age, Wauters exhibited his great historical picture of "Mary of Burgundy entreating the Sheriffs of Ghent to pardon the Councillors Hugonet and Humbercourt" (Liège Museum) which created a veritable furor, an impression which was confirmed the following year at the London International Exhibition. It was eclipsed by the celebrated "Madness of Hugo van der Goes" (1872, Brussels Museum), a picture which led to the commission for the two large works in which the lions' staircase of the Hotel de Ville, Mary of Burgundy swearing to respect the Communal Rights of Brussels, 1877, and "The Armed Citizens of Brussels demanding the Charter from Duke John IV. of Brabant." His other large compositions comprise "Sobieski and his Staff before Besieged Vienna" (Brussels Museum) and the harvest of a journey to Spain and Tanger, "The Great Mosque," and "Serpent Charmers of Sokko," and a souvenir of his Egyptian travel, "Cairo, from the Bridge of Kasr-el-Nil" (Antwerp Museum). His vast panoply —probably the noblest and most artistic work of this class ever produced—"Cairo and the Banks of the Nile" (1881), 580 ft. by 49 ft., was to the highest honor of the artist's extraordinary success in Brussels, Munich, and the Hague. Wauters is equally eminent as a portraitist, in his earliest period exhibiting, as in his pictures, sober qualities and subtle grip, but later on developing into the whole range of a brilliant, forceful palette, and then into brighter and more delicate colours, encouraged thereto, in his more recent work, by his adoption of pastel as a medium even for life-size portraits, mainly of ladies. His portraits, numbering over two hundred, include many of the greatest names in Belgium, France, and America (Wauters having for some years made Paris his chief home). Among these may be named the Baron Golfinet, the Baroness Goëffnet, Madame Somzée (standing at a piano), Master Somzée (on horseback by the sea-shore), the Princess Clementine of Belgium (Brussels Museum), Lady Edward Sassoon, Baron de Bleichroder, Princess de Ligne, Miss Lorillard, a likeness of the artist in the Dresden Museum, and M. Schollaert (president of the Chamber of Deputies) —the last named an amazing example of portraiture, instinct with character and vitality. The vigour of his male, and the grace and elegance of his female, portraits are unsurpassable, the resemblance perfect and the technical execution such as to place the artist in the front rank. Between 1889 and 1900 the painter contributed to the Royal Academy of London. Few artists have received such a succession of noteworthy distinctions and recognitions. His "Hugo van der Goes," the work of a youth of twenty-four, secured the grand medal of the Salon. He has been awarded no fewer than six "medals of honour"—at Paris in 1878 and 1889; Munich, 1879; Antwerp, 1885; Vienna, 1888; and Berlin, 1893. He is a member of the academy of Belgium, and honorary member of the Vienna, Berlin, and Munich academies, and corresponding member of the Institut de France and of that of Madrid. He has received the order of merit of Prusia, and is Commander of the order of Léopold, and of that of St Michael of Bavaria, officer of the Legion of Honour, &c.


**WAVERLEY.** It is not altogether easy to frame a definition which shall be precise and at the same time cover the various physical phenomena to which the term "wave" is commonly applied. Speaking generally, we may say that it denotes a process in which a particular state is continually handed on without change, or with only gradual change, from one part of a medium to another. The most familiar instance is that of the waves which are observed to travel over the surface of water in consequence of a local disturbance; but, although this has suggested the name 1 since applied to all analogous phenomena, it so happens that water-waves are far from affording the simplest instance of the class in question. But the principal types of wave-motion which present themselves in physics are reviewed in the order of their complexity. Only the leading features are as a rule touched upon, the reader being referred to other articles for such developments as are of interest mainly from the point of view of special subjects. The theory of water-waves, on the other hand, will be treated in some detail.

§ 1. Wave-Propagation in One Dimension.

The simplest and most easily apprehended case of wave-motion is that of the transverse vibrations of a uniform tense string. The axis of $x$ being taken along the length of the string in its undisturbed state, and the wave described as a function of $x$ and $t$. This is assumed to be infinitely small; the resultant lateral force on any portion of the string is then equal to the tension $P$ say multiplied by the total curvature of that portion, and therefore in the case of an element $dx$ to $Py^2dx$, where the accents denote differences with respect to $x$. Equating this to $p\rho\frac{dy}{dx}$, where $\rho$ is the line-density, we have

\[ m\frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0 \]

where

\[ m = \rho \cdot \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \]

\[ c = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\rho}} \]

1 The word "wave," as a substantive, is late in English, not occurring till the Bible of 1551 (Skeat, *Etym. Dict.*, 1910). The proper O. Eng. word was *wae*, which became *wære* in M. Eng.; it is cognate with Ger. *Woge*, and is allied to "wag," to move from side to side, and is to be referred to the root *weh* or *wegh*, "to wave," &c. The O. Eng. *wafan*, M. Eng. *ware*, to fluctuate, to wave in mind, cf. *wære*, restless, is cognate with M. H.G. *walen*, to move to and fro, cf. Eng. *waddle* of which the ultimate root is seen in "whip," and in "quaver."
The general solution of (1) was given by J. le R. d’Alembert in 1747; it is
\[ y = f(x-t) + F(x+t), \]
where the functions \( f \) and \( F \) are arbitrary. The first term is unaltered in value when \( x \) and \( t \) are increased by equal amounts; hence this term, taken by itself, represents a wave-form which is propagated without change in the direction of \( z \)-progression, with the constant velocity \( c \), like manner a wave-form travelling with the same velocity in the direction of \( x \)-negative; and the most general free motion of the string consists of two such wave-forms superposed. In the case of an initial disturbance confined to a finite portion of an unlimited string, the motion finally resolves itself into two waves travelling in opposite directions. In these separate waves we have
\[ y = f(x-t), \]
as appears from (3), or from simple geometrical considerations. It is to be noticed, in this as in all analogous cases, that the wave-velocity appears as the square root of the ratio of two quantities, one of which represents (in a generalized sense) the elasticity of the medium, and the other its inertia.

The expressions for the kinetic and potential energies of any portion of the string are
\[ T = \frac{1}{2} \rho f'^2 dx, \]
where the integrations extend over the portion considered. The relation (4) shows that in a single progressive wave the total energy is half kinetic and half potential.

When a point of the string (say the origin \( O \)) is fixed, the solution takes the form
\[ y = \phi(x-t) = f(x-t), \]
As applied (for instance) to the portion of the string to the left of the origin, this indicates the superposition of a reflected wave represented by the second term on the direct wave represented by the first.

The velocity \( c \). The second term represents the corresponding points as the incident wave, as is indeed required by the principle of energy, but its sign is reversed.

The reflection of waves at a free boundary, and at the junction of two strings of unequal density \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \), is of interest on account of the optical analogy. If \( A, B \) are the ratios of the amplitudes in the reflected and transmitted waves, respectively, to the corresponding amplitudes in the incident wave, it is found that
\[ A = (\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} + 1) (\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} - 1), \]
where \( \rho_1 = \sqrt{\phi(\rho_2)} \), is the ratio of the wave-velocities. This is on the hypothesis of an abrupt change of density; if the transition be gradual there may be little or no reflection.

The theory of waves of longitudinal vibration in a uniform straight rod follows exactly the same lines. If \( \ell \) denote the displacement of a particle whose undisturbed position is \( x \), the length of an element of the central line is altered from \( \ell x \) to \( \ell x + \ell \), and the elongation is therefore measured by \( \ell \). The tension across any section is accordingly \( E\ell \omega \), where \( \omega \) is the sectional area, and \( E \) denotes Young’s modulus for the material of the rod (see Elasticity). The rate of change of momentum of the vibrations included between any two consecutive sections is \( \rho \ell \omega \dot{\ell} \), where \( \rho \) now stands for the volume-density. Equating this to the difference of the tensions on these sections we obtain
\[ \ddot{\ell} = \gamma \ell \phi(\ell), \]
where
\[ \gamma = \sqrt{\ell \phi(\ell)}. \]
The solution and the interpretation are the same as in the case of (1). It may be noted that in an iron or steel rod the wave-velocity given by (6) amounts roughly to about five kilometres per second.

The theory of plane elastic waves in an unlimited medium, whether fluid or solid, leads to differential equations of exactly the same type. Thus in the case of a fluid medium, if the displacement \( \zeta \) normal to the wave-fronts be a function of \( t \) and \( x \), only, the equation of motion of a thin stratum initially bounded by the planes \( x \) and \( x + \delta x \) is
\[ \frac{d^2 \zeta}{dt^2} = \frac{\delta p}{\rho_0 \delta x}, \]
where \( p \) is the pressure, and \( \rho_0 \) the undisturbed density. If \( p \) depends only on the density, we may write, for small disturbances,
\[ p = p_0 + k \zeta, \]
where \( k = (\rho \phi(p_0) \rho_0) \), the “condensation,” and \( k \) is the coefficient of cubic elasticity. Since \( \dot{\zeta} = \delta x \phi(\dot{\zeta}), \) this leads to
\[ \frac{d^2 \zeta}{dt^2} = \gamma \phi(\zeta), \]
with
\[ \gamma = \sqrt{\ell \phi(\ell)}. \]

The latter form gives for the velocity of sound in water a value (about 1450 metres per second at 15°C) which is in good agreement with direct observation. In the case of a gas, if we neglect variations of temperature, we have \( k = p_0 \) by Boyle’s Law, and therefore \( \gamma = \sqrt{\ell p_0}, \) which gives, however, a value considerably below the true velocity of sound. The discrepancy was explained by P. S. Laplace (about 1806). The temperature is not really constant, but rises and falls as the gas is alternately compressed and rarefied. When this is allowed for we have \( k = \gamma \rho_0 \), where \( \gamma \) is the ratio of the two specific heats of the gas, and therefore \( \gamma = \sqrt{\ell \rho_0}, \) for air, \( \gamma = 1.41, \) and the consequent value of \( \gamma \) is still the best direct determinations (332 metres per second at 0°C). The potential energy of a system of sound waves is \( \frac{1}{2} \lambda \delta \lambda \), per unit volume. As in all cases of propagation in one dimension, the energy is propagated in half kinetic and half potential energy.

In the case of an unlimited isotropic elastic solid medium two types of plane waves are possible, viz., the displacement may be normal or tangential to the wave-fronts. The axis of \( z \) being taken in the direction of the propagation of the waves in the case of a normal displacement \( \delta \) the equation normal to the wave-front is \( \lambda x + 2\mu \delta y + \delta x \), where \( \lambda, \mu \) are the elastic constants of the medium, \( \mu \) is the rigidity, \( \lambda = k^2 - 4\mu, \) where \( k \) is the cubic elasticity. This leads to the equation
\[ \xi = \phi(\xi), \]
where
\[ a = \sqrt{\lambda + 2\mu}/\rho, \]
with
\[ b = \mu/\rho. \]
The wave-velocity is greater than in the case of the longitudinal vibration of a rod, owing to the lateral yielding which takes place in the latter case. In the case of a displacement \( \eta \) parallel to the axis of \( y \), and therefore tangential to the wave-fronts, we have a shearing strain \( \eta y / \dot{x} \), and a corresponding shearing stress \( \rho \mu / \dot{x} \).

This leads to
\[ \eta = \phi(\eta), \]
with
\[ b = \mu/\rho. \]
In the case of steel \( k = 1.841 \), 10\(^3\), \( \mu \approx 8.19 \), 10\(^3\), \( \rho = 8.49 \) C.G.S.S. the wave-velocities \( a, b \) come out to be 6.14 and 3.2 kilometres per second respectively.

If the medium be crystalline the velocity of propagation of plane waves will depend also on the wave-front. For any given direction of the wave-normal there are in the most general case three distinct velocities of wave-propagation, each with its own direction of particle-vibration. These latter directions are perpendicular to each other, but in general oblique to the wave-front. For certain types of wave the distinction is not of importance, but it is necessary to enter into further details, as the matter is chiefly of interest in relation to the now abandoned elastic-solid theories of double-refraction. For the modern electric theory of light, heat, and Electric Waves.

Finally, it may be noticed that the conditions of wave-propagation without change of type may be investigated in another manner. If we impress on the whole medium a velocity equal and opposite to that of the wave, we obtain a steady or “stationary” state, in which the circumstances at any particular point of space are constant. Thus in the case of the vibrations of an inextensible string we may, for instance, imagine the string to run through the results stated above and have converted the wave-form into a uniform state, so that the velocity of the wave is constant there is no tangential acceleration, and the tension \( p \) is accordingly uniform. The resultant of the tensions on the two ends of an element \( \delta x \) is \( p \delta \ell / \ell \), in the direction of the normal, where \( \ell \) denotes the radius of curvature. This will be exactly sufficient to produce the normal acceleration \( \gamma / \ell \) in the mass \( \rho \delta x \), provided \( \gamma / \ell \) is exact. Under this condition the tube, which now exerts no pressure on the structure, may be abolished, and we have a free stationary wave on a moving string. This argument is due to P. G. Tait.

The method was applied to the case of Air waves by W. J. Month. In 1870, when a gas flows steadily through a straight tube of unit section, the mass \( m \) which crosses any section in unit time must be the same; hence if \( u \) be the velocity we have
\[ \rho u = m. \]

Combining with (18) this gives
\[ \rho u = m = \rho v \ell (u - v). \]
Hence for absolutely steady motion it is essential that the expression \( \rho v / \ell \) should have the same value throughout the tube. This condition is not accurately fulfilled by any known substance, whether subject to the “isothermal” or “adiabatic” condition; but in the case of small variations of pressure and density the relation is equivalent to
\[ m^2 = \rho u / (m - m_0), \]
and therefore by (18), if \( c \) denote the general velocity of the current,
\[ c^2 = \rho u / m, \]
in agreement with (13). The fact that the condition (20) can only be satisfied approximately shows that some progressive change of type must inevitably take place in sound-waves of finite amplitude.
the more condensed portions of the wave gain continually on the less condensed, the tendency being apparently towards the production of a condensed and erected portmoneous to a "bore" in water-waves. Before this stage can be reached, however, dissipative forces (so far ignored), such as viscosity and thermal conduction, come into play, and practical acoustics the results are also modified by the diminution of amplitude due to spherical divergence.

§ 2. Wave-Propagation in General.

We have next to consider the processes of wave-propagation in two or three dimensions. The simplest case is that of air-waves. When terms of the second order in the velocities are neglected, the dynamical equations are

\[ \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \dot{p}}{\partial x}, \]

and the "equation of continuity" (see HYDROMECHANICS) is

\[ \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0. \]

If we write \( p = p_0(t+s) \), \( p = p_0 + \Delta p \), these may be written

\[ \frac{\partial s}{\partial t} - c^2 \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial \Delta p}{\partial x}, \]

where \( c \) is given by \( \sqrt{1 + \rho_0 u_0} \), and

\[ \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x^2} - c^2 \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial \Delta p}{\partial x}, \]

the latter equation expressing that the condensation \( s \) is diminishing at a rate equal to the "divergence" of the vector \((u, v, w)\) (see VECTOR ANALYSIS). Eliminating \( u, v, w, \) we obtain

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial \Delta p}{\partial x}, \]

where \( \varphi \) stands for Laplace's operator \( \partial^2 \varphi/\partial x^2 + \partial^2 \varphi/\partial y^2 + \partial^2 \varphi/\partial z^2 \).

This, the general equation of sound-waves, appears to be due to L. Euler (1759). In the particular case where the disturbance is symmetrical with respect to a centre \( O \), it takes the simpler form

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial r^2} = \frac{\partial \Delta p}{\partial r}, \]

where \( r \) denotes distance from \( O \). It is easily deduced from (1) that in the case of a medium initially at rest the velocity \( (u, v, w) \) is now wholly radial. The solution of (6) is

\[ s = \int \frac{F(t-r)}{r} + F(t+r) \frac{dr}{r} \]

This represents two spherical waves travelling outwards and inwards, respectively, with the velocity \( c \), but there is now a progressive change of amplitude. Thus in the case of the diverging wave represented by the first term, the condensation in any particular part of the wave continually diminishes as \( 1/r \) as the wave spreads. The potential energy per unit volume \( \rho \) varies as \( s^2 \), and so diminishes in inverse proportion to the square of the distance from \( O \). It may be shown that in the case of plane waves the total energy of a diverging \( ( \text{or a converging) } \) wave is half potential and half kinetic.

The solution of the general equation (5), first given by S. D. Poisson in 1819, expresses the value of \( s \) at any given point \( P \) at time \( t \), in terms of the mean values of \( s \) and \( t \) at the instant \( t = 0 \) over a spherical surface of radius \( r \) described with \( P \) as centre, viz.

\[ s = \int \frac{F(t-r)}{4\pi r} + F(t+r) \frac{dr}{4\pi r} \int F(t-r) \frac{dr}{r}, \]

where the integrals extend over the surface of the aforesaid sphere, \( dw \) is the solid angle subtended at \( P \) by an element of its surface, and \( F(t) \) \( F(t) \) respectively denote the original values of \( s \) and \( t \) at the position of the element. Hence, if the disturbance be originally confined to a limited region, the agitation at any point \( P \) external to this region will begin at a time \( r/t \) and will cease after a time \( 2r/t \), where \( r \) is the least and greatest distances of \( P \) from the boundary of the region in question. The region occupied by the disturbance at any instant \( t \) is therefore delimited by the envelope of a family of spheres of radius \( r \) described with the points of the original boundary as centres.

One remarkable point about waves diverging in three dimensions remains to be noticed. It easily appears from (5) that the value of the integral \( s \) at any point \( P \), taken over the whole time of transit of a wave, is independent of the position of \( P \), and therefore equal to zero, as is seen by taking \( P \) at an infinite distance from the original seat of disturbance. This shows that a diverging wave necessarily consists of condensations and rarefactions, that if we have zero velocity everywhere, but a uniform condensation \( s \) throughout a spherical space of radius \( a \), it is found that we have ultimately a diverging wave in the form of a spherical shell of thickness \( a \), and that the value of \( s \) within this shell varies from \( s/a \) at the anterior face to \( -s/a \) at the interior face, \( r \) denoting the mean radius of the shell.

The process of wave-propagation in two dimensions offers some peculiarities which are exemplified in cylindrical waves of sound, in waves on a uniform tense plane membrane, and in annular waves on a horizontal sheet of water of (relatively) small depth. The equation of motion in all these cases of the form

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z^2} = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial t^2}, \]

where \( \sigma = \partial^2 \varphi/\partial z^2 + \partial^2 \varphi/\partial y^2 \). In the case of the membrane \( s \) denotes the displacement normal to its plane; in the application to water-waves it represents the elevation of the surface above the undisturbed level. The solution of (9), even in the case of symmetry about the origin, is analytically much simpler than that of (6). It appears that the wave due to a transient local disturbance, even of the simplest type, is now not developed directly to the rear, as it is in the front, but has an indefinitely prolonged "tail." This is illustrated by the annexed figures which represent graphically a diminution of energy in the condensation \( s \) at a particular point, as a wave originating in a local condensation passes over this point. The curve \( A \) represents (in a typical case) the effect of a plane wave, \( B \) that of a cylindrical wave, and \( C \) that of a spherical wave. The changes of type from \( A \) to \( B \) and from \( B \) to \( C \) are accounted for by the increasing degree of mobility of the medium.

The equations governing the displacements \( u, v, w \) of a uniform elastic isotropic solid medium are

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z^2} = \lambda + \mu \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x^2} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial y^2} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial z^2}, \]

where

\[ \sigma = \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z^2}, \]

From these we derive by differentiation

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} = b \varphi - \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dt^2}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} = b \varphi - \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dt^2}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z^2} = b \varphi - \frac{d^2 \varphi}{dt^2}, \]

and

\[ a^2 = 4\pi (a - 1), b^2 = 4\pi a, \]

as in § 1. It appears then that the "dilatation" \( \Delta \) and the "rotations" \( \xi, \eta, \zeta \) are propagated with the velocities \( a, \xi, \) respectively.

By formulae analogous to (8) we can calculate the values of \( \Delta, \xi, \eta, \zeta \) at any instant in terms of the initial conditions. The subsequent determination of \( u, v, w \) would be merely a dynamical problem into which we do not enter; it is clear, however, that if the original disturbance be confined to a limited region we have ultimately two concentric spherical diverging waves. In the outer one of these, which travels in the velocity \( a^2 \), the wave \( b^2 \) vanishes, and the wave is accordingly described as "irrotational" or "condensational." In the inner wave, which travels with the smaller velocity \( b \), the dilatation \( \Delta \) vanishes, and the wave is therefore characterized as "equiangular" or "distortional." In the former wave the directions of vibration of the particles tend to become normal, and in the latter tangential, to the wave-front, as in the case of plane elastic waves (§ 1).

The problems of reflection and transmission which arise when a wave encounters the boundary of an elastic-solid medium, or the interference of two such media, are of interest chiefly in relation to the older theories of optics. It may, however, be worth while to remark that an irrotational or an equiangular wave does not in general give rise to a reflected (or transmitted) wave of single character; thus an equivalent wave at some section of the boundary of an irrotational as well as an equivular reflected wave, and so on.

Finally, in a limited elastic solid we may also have systems of waves of a different type. These travel over the surface with a definite velocity somewhat higher than that of the equivular waves above referred to; thus in an incompressible solid the velocity \( c = 0 \) in a solid such that \( \lambda = \mu \) it is \( 10\mu \). The agitation due to these waves is confined to the immediate neighbourhood of the wave-front, and is transmitted gradually with increasing depth. The theory of these surface waves was given by Lord Rayleigh in 1885. In the modern theory of earthquakes three phases of the disturbance...
at a station distant from the origin are recognized; the first corresponds to the arrival of condensational waves, the second to that of distortional waves, and the third to that of the Rayleigh waves (see Elasticity).

The theory of waves diverging from a centre in an unlimited crystalline medium has been investigated with a view to optical theory by G. Green (1839), A. L. Cauchy (1830), E. B. Christoffel (1877) and others. The surface which represents the wave-front consists of three sheets, each of which is propagated with its own special velocity. It is hardly worth while to attempt an account here of the singularities of this surface, or of the simplifications which occur for various types of crystalline symmetry; the subject has lost much of its physical interest now that the elastic-solid theory of light is practically abandoned.


The simplest type of water-waves is that in which the motion of the particle is only horizontally, and therefore, as will appear, sensibly the same for all particles in a vertical line. The most conspicuous example is that of the forced oscillations produced by the action of the sun and moon on the waters of the ocean or the sea, and which has therefore been proposed to designate by the term "tide" all cases of wave-motion, whatever their scale, which have the above characteristic property.

The motion of the waves will be treated as a plane wave, and the instantaneous particle motion at a point will be composed of the simple harmonic motion of the free surface, and the horizontal pressure-gradient $dP/dx$ will therefore be independent of $y$. It follows that all particles which at any instant lie in a plane perpendicular to $x$ will retain this relative configuration throughout the motion. The equation of horizontal motion, on the hypothesis that the velocity $u$ is infinitely small, will be

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0,$$  

where $y$ denotes the surface-elevation at the point $x$. Again, the equation of continuity, viz.,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0,$$  

gives

$$v = -\int_{0}^{x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dy,$$  

if the origin be taken at the bottom, the depth being assumed to be uniform. At the surface we have $y = h + u$, and $v = \partial u/\partial t$, subject to an error of the second order in the disturbance. To this degree of approximation we have then

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t},$$  

If we eliminate $u$ between (1) and (2) we obtain

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y},$$  

with

$$u = gh.$$

The solution is as in § 4, and represents two wave-systems travelling with different vertical velocities $v/(gh)$, which is that which would be acquired by a particle falling freely through a space equal to half the depth.

Two distinct assumptions have been made in the foregoing investigation. The meaning of these is most easily understood if we consider the case of a simple-harmonic train of waves in which

$$\eta = \beta \cos k(x-t), \quad u = \frac{\beta}{c} \cos k(x-t),$$  

where $k$ is a constant such that $2\pi/k$ is the wave-length $\lambda$. The first assumption, viz., that the vertical acceleration may be neglected in comparison with the horizontal, is fulfilled if $kH$ be small, i.e. if the wave-length be large compared with the depth. It is in this sense that the theory is regarded as applicable only to long "waves."

The second assumption, which neglects terms of the second order in forming the equation (1), implies that the ratio $\eta/k$ of the surface-elevation to the depth of the fluid must be small. The formulae (7) indicate also that in a progressive wave a particle moves forwards or backwards according as the water-surface above it is elevated or depressed relatively to the mean level. It may also be proved that the expressions

$$T = \frac{\pi k}{g}, \quad V = \frac{\pi k}{g} \sqrt{g H},$$  

for the kinetic and potential energies per unit breadth are equal in the case of a progressive wave.

It will be noticed that there is a very close correspondence between the theory of "long" water-waves and that of plane waves of sound, e.g., the ratio $\eta/k$ corresponds exactly to the "condensation" in the case of air-waves. The theory can be adapted, with very slight adjustment, to the case of waves propagated along a canal of any uniform section, provided the breadth, as well as the depth, be small compared with the wave-length. The principal change is that in (6) $h$ must be understood to denote the mean depth. The theory was further extended by G. Green (1837) and by Lord Rayleigh to the case where the dimensions of the cross-section are variable. If the wave-length is sufficiently gradual there is no sensible reflection, a progressive wave travelling always with the velocity appropriate to the local mean depth. There is, however, a variation in amplitude; the conservation of energy, combined with the equation of continuity, require that the elevation $\eta$ in any particular part of the wave should vary as $\beta^{-4} k^4$, where $k$ is the breadth of the water surface and $h$ is the mean depth.

Owing to its mathematical simplicity the theory of long waves in canals has been largely used to illustrate the dynamical theory of the tides. In the case of forced waves in a uniform canal, the equation (1) is replaced by

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + Xu,$$  

where $X$ represents the extraneous force. In the case of an equatorial canal surrounding the earth, the disturbing action of the moon, supposed (for simplicity) to revolve in a circular orbit in the plane of the equator, is represented by

$$X = -\frac{\pi H}{a} \sin (2\pi x/a + \phi),$$  

where $\phi$ is the earth's radius, $H$ is the total range of the tide on the equilibrium theory, and $\phi$ is the angular velocity of the moon relative to the rotating earth. The corresponding solution of the equations (4) and (9) is

$$\eta = \frac{\pi H}{a} \frac{\beta}{c} H \cos (2\pi x/a + \phi);$$  

$$u = \frac{\pi H}{a} \frac{\beta}{c} H \cos (2\pi x/a + \phi).$$  

The coefficient in the former of these equations is negative unless the ratio $h/k$ exceeds $\sqrt{c}/a$, which is about 1/311. Hence unless the depth of our imagined canal be much greater than such depths as are actually met with in the sea the tides in it would be inverted, i.e. there would be low water beneath the moon and at the antipodal point, and high water on the meridian distant $90^\circ$ from the moon. This is an instance of a familiar result in the theory of vibrations, viz., that in a forced oscillation of a body under a periodic force the phase is opposite to that of the force if the imposed frequency exceeds that of the corresponding free vibration (see Mechanics). In the present case the period of the free oscillation in an equatorial canal 11,250 ft. deep would be about 30 hours.

When the ratio $\eta/k$ of the elevation to the depth is no longer treated as infinitely small, it is found that a progressive wavesystem must undergo a continual change of type as it proceeds, even in a uniform canal. It was shown by Sir G. B. Airy (1845) that the more elevated portions of the wave travel with the greater velocities, the expression for the velocity of propagation being

$$c \sqrt{1 - k^2}$$

approximately. Hence the slopes will become continually steeper in front and more gradual behind, until a stage is reached at which the vertical acceleration is no longer negligible, and the theory ceases to apply. The process is exemplified by sea-waves running inwards in shallow water near the shore. The theory of forced periodic waves of finite (as distinguished from infinitely small) amplitude was also discussed by Airy. It has an application in tidal theory, in the explanation of "overtides" and "compound tides" (see Tide).


This is the most familiar type of water-waves, but the theory is not altogether elementary. We will suppose in the first instance that the motion is in two dimensions $x$, $y$; horizontal and vertical respectively. The velocity-potential (see Hydrodynamics) must satisfy the equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 0,$$  

and must make $\partial \phi/\partial y = 0$ at the bottom, which is supposed to be plane and horizontal. The pressure-eqioation, is, if we neglect the square of the velocity,

$$\rho \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} = \text{const.}$$  

Hence, if the origin be taken in the undisturbed surface, we may write, for the surface-elevation,

$$\eta = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \bigg|_{y=0}$$  

with the same approximation. We have also the geometrical condition

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t},$$  

(4)

The general solution of these equations is somewhat complicated,
WAVE

and it is therefore usual to fix attention in the first place on the case of an infinitely extended wave-system of simple-harmonic profile, say

\[ \eta = \beta \sin k(x - ct) \]  

The corresponding value of \( \psi \) is

\[ \phi = \frac{\psi}{\kappa} \cos k(y + h) \cos k(x - ct) \]

(5)

where \( h \) denotes the depth; it is in fact easily verified that this satisfies (1), and makes \( \psi = \beta k \), and that it fulfills the pressure-condition (3) at the free surface. The kinematic condition (4) will also be satisfied, provided

\[ c^2 = \frac{k^2}{\tan h k h} - \frac{k^2}{\tan h k h} \quad \text{and} \quad \tan h k h = \frac{\lambda}{2} \]

(6)

\( \lambda \) denoting the wave-length \( 2\pi/k \). It appears, on calculating the component velocities from (6), that the motion of each particle is elliptic-harmonic, the semi-axes of the orbit, horizontal and vertical, being

\[ \beta \cos k(y + h) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta \sin k(x - ct) \]

where \( y \) refers to the mean level of the particle. The dimensions of the orbits diminish from the surface downwards. The direction of motion of a surface-particle is forwards when it coincides with a crest, and backwards when it coincides with a trough, of the waves.

When the wave-length is anything less than double the depth we have \( \tan h k h = 1 \), practically, and the formula (6) reduces to

\[ \psi = \frac{\psi}{\kappa} \cos k(y + h) \cos k(x - ct) \]

(7)

with

\[ \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\psi}{\kappa} \cos k(y + h) \cos k(x - ct) \]

(8)

the same as if the depth were infinite. The orbits of the particles are now circles of radius \( \frac{\lambda}{2} \). When, on the other hand, \( \lambda \) is moderately large compared with \( h \), we have \( \tan h k h \approx \lambda/8 \), in agreement with the preceding theory of "long" waves. These results date from G. Green (1859) and Sir G. B. Airy (1845).

The energy of our simple-harmonic wave-train is, as usual, half kinetic and half potential, the total amount per unit area of the free surface being \( \frac{1}{2} \rho \omega^2 \). This is equal to the work which would be required to raise a stratum of fluid, of thickness equal to the surface-amplitude \( \beta \), through a height \( \beta \).

It has been assumed so far that the upper surface is free, the pressure there being uniform. We might also consider the case of waves on the common surface of two liquids of different densities. For wave-lengths which are less than double the depth of either liquid the formula (10) is replaced by

\[ c^2 = \frac{\rho - \rho'}{\rho + \rho'} \]

(11)

where \( \rho, \rho' \) are the densities of the lower and upper fluids respectively. Two cases of wave-motion \( \eta(x, y) \) has, by the nature of the formula, indicates a twofold cause: the potential energy of a given deformation of the common surface is diminished by the presence of the upper fluid in the ratio \( \rho'/\rho \), whilst the inertia is increased in the ratio \( \rho'/\rho \). When the two densities are very nearly equal the waves have little energy, and the oscillations of the common surface are very slow. This is easily observed in the case of paraflin oil over water.

To examine the progress, over the surface of deep water, of a disturbance whose initial character is given quite arbitrarily it would be necessary to resolve it by Fourier's theorem into systems of simple-harmonic trains. Since each of these is propagated with the velocity proper to its own wave-length, as given by (10), the resulting wave-profile will continually alter its shape. The case of an isolated local impulse has been studied in detail by S. D. Poisson (1816), A. Coubchla (1815) and others. At a stationary instant the surface is occupied on either side by a train of waves of varying height and length, the wave-length increasing, and the height diminishing, with increasing distance from the origin of the disturbance. The longer waves travel faster than the shorter, and that each wave is continually being drawn out in length, and its velocity of propagation therefore continually increases as it advances. If we fix our attention on a particular point of the surface, the level there will rise and fall with increasing rapidity and increasing amplitude. These statements are all involved in Poisson's approximate formula

\[ \eta = \frac{\rho}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left( \cos \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\psi} \sin \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\psi} \right) \]

(12)

which, however, is only valid under the condition that \( x \) is large compared with \( \sqrt{\psi} \). It is shown here that the occurrence of a particular wave-length \( \lambda \) is conditioned by the relation

\[ x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\lambda} \]

(13)

The foregoing description applies in the first instance only to the case of an initial impulse concentrated upon an infinitely narrow band of the surface. The corresponding results for the more practical case of a band of finite breadth are to be inferred by superposition. The initial stages of the disturbance at a large distance are, when compared with the breadth \( b \) of the band, will have the same character as before, but when, owing to the continual diminution of the length of the wave-lengths the waves of waves comparable with or smaller than \( b \), the parts of the disturbance which are due to the various parts of the band will no longer be approximately in the same phase, and we have a case of "interference" in the optical sense. The result is in general that in the final stages the surface will be marked by a series of groups of waves of diminishing amplitude separated by bands of comparatively smooth water.

The velocity at which the waves of the surface-train vary with the wave-length has an analogy in optics, in the propagation of light in a dispersive medium. In both cases we have a contrast with the simpler phenomena of waves on a string or of light on a succession of glasses. If we associate, as distinguished from wave-velocity, the new property, it is to be called the group-velocity, and it has been computed to be

\[ \frac{\delta \eta}{\delta x} = \frac{3C}{4} \frac{\delta}{\delta \omega} \]

(14)

since \( \lambda \) does not vary in the neighborhood of a geometrical point travelling with velocity \( U \), this being in fact the definition of \( U \). Again, if we imagine a second geometrical point to move with the water, we have

\[ \frac{\delta \eta}{\delta x} = \frac{3C}{4} \frac{\delta}{\delta \omega} \]

(15)

The member expressing the rate at which two consecutive wave-crescents are separating from one another. Comparing (14) and (15), we have

\[ U = c - \frac{3C}{4} \frac{\delta}{\delta \omega} \]

(16)

If a curve be constructed with \( \lambda \) as abscissa and \( \omega \) as ordinate, the group-velocity \( U \) will be represented by the intercept made by the tangent on the axis of \( \omega \). This is illustrated by the annexed figure, which refers to the case of deep-water waves; the curve is a parabola, and the intercept is half the diameter, in accordance with the relation \( U = c \), already remarked. The physical importance of the motion of group-velocity is pointed out by J. B. J. D. (1817), who showed that the rate at which energy is propagated is only half that which would be required for the transport of the group as a whole with the water.

The preceding investigations enable us to infer the effect of a pressure-disturbance travelling over the surface of still water, with say, a constant velocity \( c \) in the direction of \( x \)-negative. The abnormal pressure being supposed concentrated on an infinitely narrow band of the surface, the elevation \( \eta \) at any point \( P \) may be regarded as due to a succession of infinitely small impulses delivered over bands of the surface at equal infinitely short intervals of time on equidistant lines parallel to the (horizontal) axis of \( z \). Of the wave-systems thus successively generated, those only will be considered which have their origin in the neighbourhood of a line \( L \) whose position is determined by the consideration that the phase at \( P \) is "stationary" for variations in the position of \( Q \). Now if \( t \) be the time which the source of disturbance has taken to travel from the point \( P \) to the position \( Q \), it appears from (12) that the phase of the waves at \( Q \) originated at \( P \), is given by \( \sqrt{2\pi}t = c \), where \( \sqrt{2\pi}t = \omega \).

The condition that the stationary phase is therefore

\[ \sqrt{2\pi}t = c \]

(17)

In this differentiation, \( O \) and \( P \) are to be regarded as fixed; hence \( \sqrt{2\pi}t = c \), and therefore \( Q = c \times O \).

We have already seen that the wave-length at \( P \) is such that \( OQ = \omega \times OP \). From this conclusion, the whole group-velocity. Hence the
wave-length \( \lambda \) at points to the right of 0 is uniform, being that process a wave-velocity \( c \), viz. \( \lambda = 2\pi c / g \). The disturbance is therefore followed by a train of waves of approximately simple-harmonic profile, of the length indicated. An approximate calculation shows that, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the source of disturbance, the surface-elevation is given by

\[
\eta = \frac{2P_1}{\rho^2} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda},
\]

where \( x \) is now measured from 0, and \( P_1 = 4\rho d c \) represents the integral of the disturbing surface pressure over the (infinitely small) breadth of the band on which it acts. The case of a diffused surface pressure can be inferred by integration. The annexed figure gives a representation of a particular case, obtained by a more exact process. The pressure is here supposed uniformly distributed over a band of breadth \( AB \).

A similar argument can be applied to the case of finite depth (b), but since the wave-velocity cannot exceed \( \sqrt{2gh} \) the results are modified if the velocity \( c \) of the travelling pressure exceeds this limit. There is then no train of waves generated, the disturbance of level being purely local. It hardly needs stating that the investigation applies also to the case of a stationary surface disturbance on a running stream, and that similar results follow when the disturbance consists in an equality of the bottom. In both cases we have a train of standing waves on the down-stream side, of length corresponding to a wave-velocity equal to that of the stream.

The effect of a disturbance confined to the neighbourhood of a point on the surface of (deep water) was also included in the investigations of Cauchy and Poisson already referred to. The formula analogous to (12), in the case of a local impulse, is

\[
\xi = \frac{\rho}{2\pi} \sin \frac{2\pi r}{\lambda},
\]

where \( r \) denotes distance from the source. The interpretation is similar to that of the two-dimensional case, except that the amplitude of the annular waves diminishes outwards, as was to be expected, in a higher ratio.

The effect of a pressure-point travelling in a straight line over the surface of deep water is interesting, as helping us to account in some degree for the peculiar system of waves which is seen to accompany a ship. The configuration of the wave-system is shown by means of the lines of equal phase in the annexed diagram, due to V. W. Ekman (1906), which differs from the drawing originally given by Lord Kelvin (1887) in that it indicates the difference of phase between the transverse and diverging waves at the common boundary of the two series. The two systems of waves are due to the fact that at any given instant there are two previous positions of the moving pressure-point, which have transmitted vibrations of stationary phase to any given point \( P \) within the range of the figure. When the depth is finite, the configuration is modified, and if it be less than \( c/g \), where \( c \) is the velocity of the disturbance, the transversal waves disappear.

The investigations referred to have a bearing on the wave-resistance of ships. This is accounted for by the energy of the new wave-groups which are continually being started and left behind. Some experiments on torpedo boats moving in shallow water have indicated a falling off in resistance due to the appearance of transverse waves just referred to. For the effect of surface-tension and the theory of “ripples” see CAPILLARY ACTION.

§ 5. Surface-Waves of Finite Height.

The foregoing results are based on the assumption that the amplitude may be treated as infinitesimal. Various investigators have been made in which this restriction is, more or less, abandoned, but we are far from possessing a complete theory. A system of exact equations giving a possible type of wave-motion on deep water was obtained by F. J. v. Gerstner in 1802, and rediscovered by W. J. M. Rankine in 1863. The orbits of the particles, in this type, are accurately circular, being defined by the equations

\[
x = a + k \cdot \overline{a} \cdot \sin k(a - c), \quad y = b - k \cdot \overline{a} \cdot \cos k(a - c),
\]

where \((a, b)\) is the mean position of the particle, \( k = 2\pi / \lambda \), and the wave-velocity is

\[
c = \sqrt{k(g - a)} = \sqrt{2\pi / \lambda}.
\]

The lines of equal pressure, among which is included of course the surface-profile, are trochoidal curves. The extreme form of wave-profile is the cycloid, with the cusps turned upwards. The mathe-

**WAVELLE, a village of Tioga county, New York, U.S.A., about 18 m. S.E. of Elmira, on the Cayuta Creek, near the Chemung and the Susquehanna rivers, which unite several miles S. of the village. Pop. (1890) 4133; (1900) 4465, of whom 205 were foreign-born; (1905) 4915; (1910) 4855. It is served by the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, the Erie and the Lehigh Valley railways. With South Waverly (pop. in 1910 1884)—separated from Waverly only by the state line and really a part of the village—Sayre, and Athens, Pennsylvania, it is connected by electric railway and the three form practically an industrial unit. Waverly is also connected by electric line with Elmira. The village is a railway centre of some importance, distributes coal from the Wyoming Valley mines, and ships the dairy products of a large farming district and small fruits and garden products. Waverly was settled about 1804 by settlers from Connecticut and the Hudson River Valley, and was incorporated as a village in 1854.

**WAVERLY, a town of Belgium, in the province of Brabant, 14 m. S.E. of Brussels. Pop. (1900) 857. It was on this place that Grouchy advanced on the day of Waterloo, gaining a useless success here over a Prussian corps while the fate of the campaign was being decided elsewhere. The Prussians erected here a fine monument by Van Oembron in 1859.

**WAX, a solid fatty substance of animal and vegetable origin, allied to the fixed oils and fats. From these it is distinguished by the fact that while oils and fats are glycerides, a true wax contains no glycerin, but is a combination of fatty acids with certain monomolecular alcohols (see Oils).**

**WAX FIGURES,** statues and statuettes of properties which render it a most convenient medium for preparing figures and models, either by modelling or by casting in moulds. At ordinary temperatures it can be cut and shaped with facility; it melts to a limpid fluid at a low heat; it mixes with any colouring matter, and takes surface tints well; and its texture and consistency may be modified by the addition of earthy matters and oils or fats. When molten, it takes the minutest impressions of a mould, and it sets and hardens at such a temperature that ordinary climatic influences affect the form it assumes, even when it cannot harden laminae. The facilities which wax offers for modelling have been taken advantage of from the remotest times. Figures in wax of their deities were used in the funeral rites of the ancient Egyptians, and deposited among other offerings in their graves; many of these are now preserved in museums. That the Egyptians also modelled fruits can be learned from numerous allusions in early literature. Among the Greeks during their best art period, wax figures were largely used as dolls for children; statuettes of deities were modelled for home shrines and for religious ceremonies, and wax images to which magical properties were attributed were treasured by the people. Wax figures and models held a still more important place among the ancient Romans. The masks (effigies or imaginis) of ancestors, modelled in wax, were preserved by patrician families, this *jus imaginum* being one of the privileges of the nobles, and these masks were exposed to view on ceremonial occasions, and carried in their funeral processions. The closing days of the Saturnalia were known as Sigillaria, on account of the custom of making, towards the end of the festival, presents of wax models of fruits and waxen statuettes which were fashioned by the *Sigillarii* or manufacturers of small figures in wax and other materials. The practice of wax modelling can be traced through the middle ages, when votive offerings of wax figures were made to churches, and the memory and lineaments of monarchs and great personages were preserved by means of wax masks as in the days of Roman patriarcars. In these ages malice and superstition found expression in the formation of wax images of hated persons, into the bodies of which long pins were thrust, in the confident expectation that thereby deadly injury would be induced to the person represented; and this belief and practice continued till the 17th century. Indeed the superstition still survives in the Highlands of Scotland, where recently a clay figure of an enemy was found in a stream, having been placed there in the belief that, as the clay was washed away, so would the health of the hated one decline. With the renaissance of art in Italy, modelling in wax took a position of high importance, and it was practised by some of the greatest of the early masters. The bronze medallions of Pisano and the other famous medallists owe their value to the art qualities of wax models from which they were cast by the *cire perdue* process; and indeed all early bronzes and metal work were cast from wax models. The *fili de cire* in the Wicar collection at Lille, the most lovely examples of artistic wax work is in this medium in existence. Wicar, one of Napoleon’s commissaries, brought this figure from Italy. It represents the head and shoulders of a young girl. It has been claimed as a work of Greek or Roman art, and has been assigned to Leonardo da Vinci and to Raphael, but all that can be said is that it probably dates from the Italian Renaissance. In 1909 Dr Bode, the director of the Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin, purchased in England, for (it was stated) £8000, a life-sized half-length female figure in wax, which he attributed to Leonardo da Vinci or his school. The figure was shown to have once been in the possession of Richard Cocke Lucas (1800–1883), a sculptor and worker in ivory, wax, &c. It was claimed that the figure was really Lucas’s work and was a reproduction in wax of a picture of “Flora” attributed to Leonardo da Vinci, now in the possession of the Morrison family at Basildon Park, near Pangbourne; this view was repudiated by Dr Bode, but was generally accepted in England (see *The Times*, Oct.–Dec. 1909; and particularly the *Burlington Magazine*, May, June, August, 1910).

Till towards the close of the 18th century modelling of medallions of all kinds—by the latter frequently polyblot, was in considerable vogue throughout Europe. About the end of the 18th century Flaxman executed in wax many portraits and other relief figures which Josiah Wedgwood translated into pottery for his jasper ware. The modelling of the soft parts of dissections, &c., for teaching illustrations of anatomy was first practised at Florence, and is now very common. Such preparations formed part of a show at Hamburg in 1721, and from that time wax-works, on a plane lower than art, have been popular attractions. These exhibitions consist principally of images of historical or notorious personages, made up of wax masks on lay figures in which sometimes mechanism is fitted to give motion to the figure. Such an exhibition of wax-works with mechanical motions was shown in Germany early in the 18th century, and is described by Steele in the *Taller*. The most famous modern wax-work exhibition is that of Madame Tussaud (q.v.) in London.

**WAX-TREE, Wax Myrtle, Candleberry, popular names of species of *Myrica*, especially *M. cerifera*, a North American plant, the fruits of which have a waxy covering and are used as a source of vegetable wax. *M. Gale* is the native British gale (q.v.) or sweet-gale.

**WAXWING, a bird first so called apparently by P. J. Selby in 1825 (Illustr. Brit. Ornithology, p. 87), having been before known**
as the "silk-tail" (Philos. Trans., 1685, p. 116)—a literal rendering of the German Seideschwanz—or "chatterer"—the prefix "German," "Bohemian" or "waxed" being often also applied. Selby's convenient name has now been generally adopted, since the meristic system originated from almost all others by the curious expansion of the shaft of some of its wing-feathers at the tip into a flake that looks like scarlet sealing-wax, while its exceedingly silent habit makes the name "chatterer" wholly inappropriate, and indeed this last arose from a misinterpretation of the specific term garrulus, meaning a jaw (from the general resemblance in colour of the two birds), and not referring to any garrulous quality. It is the Ampelis garrulus of Linnaeus and of more recent ornithologists, and is the type of the Passerine family *Ampelidae.*

The third, and perhaps the most notable, is that for many years enjoyed vast interest. An irregular winter-visitant, sometimes in countless hordes, to the whole of the central and some parts of southern Europe, it was of old time looked upon as the harbinger of war, plague or death, and, while its harmonious coloration and the grace of its form were attractive, the curiosity with which its irregular appearances were regarded was enhanced by the mystery which enshrouded its birthplace, and until the summer of 1856 defied the searching of any explorer. In that year, however, all doubt was dispelled through the successful search in Lapland, organized by John E. V. S., as briefly described by him in the London Nat. (Proc. Zool. Soc., 1856, p. xxii). In 1856 H. E. D. Dresser found a small settlement of the species on an island in the Baltic near Uelåborg, and with his own hands took a nest. It is now pretty evident that the wax-bunting, though doubtless breeding yearly in some parts of northern Europe, is as irregular in the choice of its summer-quarters as in that of its winter-retreats. Moreover, the species exhibits the same irregular habits in America. It has been found in Nebraska in "millions," as well as breeding on the Yukon and on the Anderson river.

*Beckland* is the bird with its full erect crest, its cinnamon-brown plumage passing in parts into grey or chestnut, and relieved by black, white and yellow—all of the purest tint—the external feature which has invited most attention is the "silk-wax" (already mentioned) which tips some of the secondary or radial quills, and occasionally those of the tail. This is nearly as much exhibited by the kindred species, *A. cedrorum*—the well-known cedar-bird of the English in North America—which is easily distinguished by its smaller size, black chin-spot, the yellower tinge of the lower parts and the want of white on the wings. In the *A. phoeniceus* of southern-eastern Siberia and Japan, the reddest of the species, the "silk-wax" is worn in the ordinary way without dilatation of the shaft of the feathers.

Both the waxwing and cedar-bird seem to live chiefly on insects in summer, and on berries and fruits in winter, and they are very abundant during the latter part of the year, and will gorge themselves if opportunity allow. They are pleasant cage-birds, quickly becoming tame. The erratic habits of the waxwing are probably due chiefly to the supplies of food it may require, prompted also by the number of mouths to be fed, for there is some reason to think that this varies greatly from one year to another, according to season. The flocks which visit Britain and other countries outside the breeding range of the species naturally contain a very large proportion of young birds.

**WAYCROSS—WAYLAND THE SMITH**

WAYLAND, FRANCIS (1796-1865), American educationalist, was born in New York City on the 13th of March 1796. His father was an Englishman of the same name, who was a Baptist pastor. The son graduated at Union College in 1813 and studied medicine in Troy and in New York City, but in the latter year entered Andover Theological Seminary, where he was greatly influenced by Moses Stuart. He was too poor to conclude his course in theology, and in 1817-1821 was a tutor at Union College, to which after five years as pastor of the First Baptist Church of Boston he returned in 1826 as professor of natural philosophy. In 1827 he became president of Brown University. In the twenty-eight years of his administration he gradually built up the college, improving academic discipline, formed a library and gave scientific studies a more prominent place. He also wrote several higher classical and scientific works, and composed text-books on ethics and economics, and promoting the free-school system of Rhode Island and especially (1828) of Providence.

His *Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System in the United States* (1842) and his *Report to the Corporation of Brown University* of 1850 pointed the way to educational reforms, particularly the introduction of industrial courses, which were only partially adopted in his lifetime. He resigned the presidency of Brown in 1855, and in 1857-1858 was pastor of the First Baptist Church of Providence. He died on the 30th of September 1865. He was an early advocate of the temperance and anti-slavery movements, for which he was "inspector of the state prison and Providence county jail," president of the Prison Discipline Society, and active in prison reform and local charities. He was one of the "law and order" leaders during the "Dorr Rebellion" of 1842, and was called "the first citizen of Rhode Island."

His son Francis (1826-1904) graduated at Brown in 1846, and studied law at Harvard; he became probate judge in Connecticut in 1864, was lieutenant-governor in 1869-1870, and in 1872 became a professor in the Yale Law School, of which he was dean from 1873 to 1903.

There are several volumes of his letters and addresses and the volumes already mentioned, he published *Elements of Moral Science* (1835, repeatedly revised and translated into foreign languages); *Elements of Political Economy* (1837), in which he advocated free-trade; *The Limitations of Human Responsibility* (1838); *Domestic Slavery Considered as a Scriptural Institution* (1845); *Memoirs of Harriet Ware* (1850); *Memoirs of Adoniram Judson* (1853); *Elements of Intellectual Philosophy* (1854), *Notes on the Principles and Practices of Baptist Churches* (1857); *Letters on the Ministry of the Gospel* (1863); and a *brief Memoir of Thomas Chalmers* (1864).

See *The Life and Labors of Francis Wayland* (2 vols., New York, 1870), by his sons Francis and Henry; *Wayland's Life and Labor* (Boston, 1891) by James O. Murray in the *American Religious Leaders* series; and an article by G. C. Verplanck in vol. xiv. of the American Journal of Education.

**WAYLAND THE SMITH** (Scand. *Völundr, Ger. Wieland*), hero of romance. The legend of Wayland probably had its home in the north, where he and his brother Egill were the types of the skilled workman, but there are abundant local traditions of the wonderful smith in Westphalia and in southern England. His story is told in one of the oldest songs of the Edda, the *Völundarkvida*, and, with considerable variations, in the prose *Píberkessaga* (Thidrök's saga), while the Anglo-Saxon *Beowulf* and *Dor's Lament* contain allusions to it. The tale of Wayland falls naturally into two parts, the former of which contains obviously mythical features. He was the son of the giant sailor Wate and of a mermaid. His grandfather was that Víkinus, king of Norway, who lent his name to the *Víkin- or Píberkessaga.* Three brothers Völundr, Egill and Sigláfir seized the swan-maidens Hálgubý, Olfrún and Hervör, who, divested of their feather dresses, stayed with them seven or eight years as their wives. The second part of the story concerns Völundr, lord of the elves, the cunning smith, who, after learning his art from Mime, then from the dwarfs, came to the court of King Njörpr, and there defeated in fight the smith Amilias. Völundr's sword, Mingum, with which he won this victory, was one of the famous weapons in German epic poetry. In the Dietrich cycle it descended to Egill was compelled to prove his skill as an archer by shooting an apple off the head of his three-year-old son; he is thus the prototype of William Tell.
Wayne's son Wittich, and was cunningly exchanged by Hildebrand for a commoner blade before Wittich's fight with Dietrich, NiPoFr, in order to secure Völundr's services, lamed him by cutting the sinews of his knees, and then established him in a smithy on a neighbouring island. The smith avenged himself by the slaughter of NiPoFr's two sons and the rape of his daughter Bodvildr. He then soared away on wings he had prepared. The story in its main outlines bears a striking resemblance to the myth of Daedalus. For the vengeance of Völundr there is a very close counterpart in the medieval versions of the vengeance of the Moorish slave on his master. The dénouement of this tale, which made its first appearance in European literature in the De obedientia (Opera, Venice, 3 vols., 1516-1518) of Joannis Fontanus (d. 1503), is different, for the Moorish slave casts himself down from a high tower. The Aaron of the Shakespearian play of Titus Andronicus was eventually derived from this source.

Swords fashioned by Wayland are regular properties of medieval romance. King Rhyderich gave one to Merlin, and Rimenhild made a similar gift to Child Horn. English local tradition placed Wayland Smith's forge in a cave close to the White Horse in Berkshire. If a horse to be shod, or any broken tool was left with a sixpenny piece at the entrance of the cave the repairs would presently be executed.

The earliest extant record of the Wayland legend is the representation in carved ivory on a casket of Northumbrian workmanship of a date not later than the beginning of the 8th century. The fragments of this casket, known as the Franks casket, came into the possession of a professor at Clermont in Auvergne about the middle of the last century, and was presented to the British Museum by Sir A. W. Franks, who had bought it in Paris for a dealer. One fragment is in Florence. The left-hand compartment of the front of the casket shows Völundr holding with a pair of tongs the skull of one of NiPoFr's children, which he is fashioning into a golebit. The boy's body lies at his feet. Bodvildr and her attendant also appear, and Egill, who in one version made Völundr's wings, is depicted in the act of catching birds.


WAYNE, ANTHONY (1745-1796). American soldier, was born in the township of Easttown, Chester county, Pennsylvania, on the 1st of January 1745, of a Yorkshire family. As a boy he exhibited a marked bent toward a military life. He was educated in Philadelphia, and was a surveyor in Pennsylvania and (1765) in Nova Scotia, where he was agent for a proposed colony. He married in 1766 and passed the next few years on the Chester county farm inherited from his father, holding some minor offices and after 1774 taking an active part upon various patriotic committees. Having recruited and organized the Fourth Pennsylvania battalion of Continental troops, he first saw active service at its head in Canada during the retreat of Benedict Arnold after the Quebec campaign. His excellent behaviour at the skirmish of Three Rivers led Philip Schuyler to place him for some months in command of Ticonderoga. While at this post, on the 21st of February 1777, he was commissioned brigadier-general. In April Washington ordered him to take command of the Pennsylvania Line at Morristown, and he rendered distinguished service at Brandywine and Germantown, and by his coolness and courage at Monmouth after the retreat of General Charles Lee, did much to save the day for the Americans. Later in 1778 political necessity led to his being superseded by St Clair, his ranking officer, in the command of the regular Pennsylvania troops, but upon Washington's recommendation he organized a new Light Infantry corps, with which he performed the most daring exploit of the War of Independence—the recapture of Stony Point by a midnight attack (15-16 July 1779) at the point of the bayonet. This well-planned enterprise averted the greatest disaster to the country and won for Wayne the popular sobriquet "Mad Anthony." Upon the disbanding of the Light Infantry corps, Wayne, again in command of the Pennsylvania line, rendered effective service in countering the effect of Benedict Arnold's treason and of the mutiny of the Pennsylvania troops. In 1781 he was sent south to join General Nathanael Greene, but in Virginia was deflected to aid Lafayette against Lord Cornwallis. After the American success at Yorktown, Wayne served with such marked success in Georgia, that the state rewarded him with a large rice plantation (which proved a financial failure) and Congress brevetted him major-general. In 1792 Washington offered him the command of the regular army with the rank of major-general to fight the hostile Indians north-west of the Ohio, who had been rendered insolent by their successes over General Josiah Harmar in 1790 and General Arthur St Clair in 1791, and indirectly to compel the British to yield the posts they held on the American side of the lakes. Wayne spent the winter of 1792-1793 in recruiting his troops near Pittsburg and in drilling them for effective service in the reorganized army. The government continued his efforts to induce the Indians to allow white settlements beyond the Ohio, but a mission in 1793 ended in a failure. Meanwhile Wayne had transferred his troops to Fort Washington (Cincinnati), and upon learning of the failure of the negotiations, advanced the greater part of his forces to Greenville, a post on a branch of the Great Miami, about 80 m. north of Cincinnati. During the winter he also established an outpost at the scene of St Clair's defeat. The Indians attacked this post, Fort Recovery, in June 1794, but were repulsed with considerable slaughter. Late in July Wayne's legion of regulars, numbering about 12,000, was reinforced by about 1,600 Kentucky militia under General Charles Scott, and the combined forces advanced to the junction of the Auglaize and Maumee rivers, where Fort Defiance was constructed. Here Wayne made a final effort to treat with the Indians, and upon being rebuffed, moved forward and encountered them on the 20th of August in the battle of Fallen Timbers, fought near the falls of the Maumee, and almost under the walls of the British post Fort Miami. This decisive defeat, supplemented by the Treaty of Greenville, which he negotiated with the Indians on the 3rd of August 1795, restored possession of the Northwest to civilization. Wayne retained his position as commander of the army after its reorganization, and he rendered service in quelling the proposed filibustering expeditions from Kentucky against the Spanish dominions, and also took the lead in occupying the lake posts delivered up by the British. While engaged in this service he died at Erie, Pennsylvania, on the 14th of December 1796, and was interred there. In 1809 his remains were removed to St David's Churchyard, Radnor, Pennsylvania.
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WAYNFLETE, William (1395-1486), English lord chancellor and founder of Waynflete College at Oxford, was the son of Richard Pattene or Patyn, alias Barbour, of Wainfleet, Lincolnshire (Magd. Coll. Oxon. Reg. f. 84b), whose monumental effigy, formerly in the church of Wainfleet, now in Magdalen College Chapel at Oxford, seems to be in the dress of a merchant. His mother was Margery, daughter of Sir William Breerton of that ilk in Cheshire (Ormerod's Cheshire, iii. 81). Of Waynflete's education it is only possible to assert that he was at Oxford University. It has been alleged that he was a Wykehamist, a scholar at Winchester College and New College, Oxford. But unless he was, as is improbable, the Willelmus Pattene, de sceam, Sar. Dio. (admitted in 1433), he was certainly not a scholar of New College. Nor was he a commoner in college at Winchester or at New College, as his name does not appear in any book of matriculation, hall books, or lists of those dining in hall, at either college. That he was a day-boy commoner at Winchester is possible, but seems unlikely. He was never named in college as one of its alumni. That he was at Oxford, and probably a scholar at one of the grammar schools there, before passing on to the higher faculties, is shown by a letter of the chancellor addressed to him when provost of Eton (Ep. Act. Hist. Soc. 158) which speaks of the university authority as his "mother who brought him forth into the light of knowledge and nourished him with the alimony of all the sciences."

It is probably William Barbour who was ordained acolyte by Bishop Fleming of Lincoln on the 21st of April 1420 and sub-deacon on the 21st of January 1421; and as "William Barbour", otherwise Waynfete of Spalding, was ordained deacon on the 18th of March 1421, and priest on the 21st of January 1426, with title from Spalding Priory. He may have been the William Waynlete who was admitted a scholar of the King's Hall, Cambridge, on the 6th of March 1428 (Exch. Q. R. Bolding, 346, 10, 31), and was described as "LL.B." after several years of residence here and protection on the 15th of July 1420 (Proc. P.C. iii. 347) to enable him to accompany Robert FitzHugh, D.D., warden of the hall, on an embassy to Rome. For the scholars of the King's Hall were what we should call fellows, as may be seen by the appointment to the hall on the 3rd of April 1360 of Nicholas of Drayton, B.C.L. and John Kent, B.A., instead of two scholars who had gone off to the French wars without the warden's leave (Cal. Close Rolls).

William Waynlete, presented to the vicarage of Skidby, Lines, by the Priory of Bardney (Lincoln, Ep. Reg. f. 34, Chandler, 16), on the 14th of June 1430, may also have been ourWaynlete. There was, however, another William Waynlete, who was instituted rector of Wroxhall, Somerset, on the 15th of May 1433 (Wells, Ep. Reg. Stafford), and was dead when his successor was appointed on the 18th of November 1436 (Wells, Ep. Reg. Stillington). A successor to the William Waynlete at the King's Hall was admitted on the 3rd of April 1434.

Meanwhile, our Waynlete had become headmaster of Winchester; Mr William Wannellote being paid 50s. as informator scolarium, teacher of the scholars of the college, for the quarter beginning on the 24th of June 1430 (Win. Coll. Bursars' Roll 8-Hen. VI.) and so continuously, under many variants of spelling, at the rate of £10 a year until Michaelmas 1441 (V.C.H., Bucks, ii. 154). He was collated by Bishop Beaufort at some date unascertainable (through the loss of the 2nd volume of Beaufort's Episcopal Register) to the mastership of St Mary Magdalen's Hospital, a leper hospital on St Giles' Hill, just outside the city of Winchester (Vet. Mon. iii. 5). The first recorded headmaster after the foundation of the college, John Melton, had been presented by Wykeham to the mastership of this hospital in 1393 shortly before the death of Anthony Wyneborow; and his retirement and turbulent successor, named William, was succeeded on the 20th of August 1434, aged 29, 12s. a year, nearly doubling the headmaster's income.

Under the influence of Archbishop Chicheley, who had himself founded two colleges in imitation of Wykeham, and Thomas Bekynton, king's secretary and privy seal, and other Wykehamists, Henry VI., on the 11th of October 1440, founded, in imitation of Winchester College, "a college in the parish church of Eton by Windsor not far from our birthplace," called the King's College of the Blessed Mary of Eton by Windsor, as "a sort of first-fruits of his taking the government on himself." The college was to consist of a hundred fellows, and was endowed with a sum of £25 poor and needy scholars, 25 almsmen and a magister informator "to teach gratis the scholars and all others coming from any part of England to learn grammar." Only two fellows, 4 choristers, 2 scholars and 2 almsmen were named in the charter and probably were only colourably members. Waynflete was not, as alleged (Dict. Nat. Biog.), named a fellow. On the 5th of March 1440-1441, the king endowed the college out of alien priories with some £500 a year, almost exactly the amount of the original endowment of Winchester. On the 31st of July 1441 Henry VI. went for a week-end visit to Winchester College; and he is said to have been much impressed with Waynflete, that at Michaelmas, 1441, Waynflete ceased to be headmaster of Winchester. In October he appears dining in the hall there as a guest, and at Christmas 1442 he received a royal livery, five yards of violet cloth, as provost of Eton. Though reckoned first headmaster of Eton, there is no definite evidence that he was. The school building was not begun till May 1442 (V.C.H., Bucks, ii. 154). William Westbury, who left New College, "transferring himself to the king's service," in May 1442, and appears in the first extant Eton Audit Roll 1442-1445, was probably the first headmaster. If Waynflete was headmaster from October 1441 to May 1442, his duties must have been little more than nominal. As provost, Waynflete procured the exemption of the college from archidiaconal authority on the 2nd of May, and made the contract for completion of the carpenter's work of the eastern side of the quadrangle on the 30th of November 1443. On the 21st of December 1443 he was sworn to the statutes by Bishop Bekynton and the earl of Suffolke, the king's commissioners, and himself administered the oath to the other members of the foundation, then only five fellows and eleven scholars over fifteen years of age. He is credited with having taken half the scholars and fellows of Winchester to Eton to start the school there. In fact, five scholars and perhaps one commoner left Winchester for Eton in 1443, probably in July, just before the election. For three of them were admitted scholars of King's College, Cambridge, on the 10th of July, that college, by its second charter of the 10th of July 1443 having been placed in the same relation to Eton that New College bore to Winchester; i.e. it was to be recruited entirely from Eton. The chief part of Waynflete's duties as provost was the financing and completion of the buildings and college establishment. The number of scholars was largely increased by an election of 25 new ones on the 26th of September 1444, the income being then £946, of which the king contributed £120 and Waynflete £18, or more than half his stipend of £50 a year. The full number of 70 scholars was not filled up till Waynflete's last year as provost, 1446-1447 (Eton Audit Roll). So greatly did Waynflete ingratitude himself
with Henry that when Beaufort, bishop of Winchester, Henry's uncle, died on the 11th of April 1447, the same day Henry wrote to the chapter of Winchester, the prior and monks of St. Withnian's cathedral, to elect Waynflete as his successor. On the 12th of April he was given the custody of the temporalties, on the 15th of April he received hissed to the prosperity and the May went to some see a papal bull. On the 13th of July 1447 he was consecrated in Eton church, when the warden and fellows and others of his old college gave him a horse at a cost of £6, 13s. 4d., and 13s. 4d. to the boys. Subsequent visits to Winchester inspired Henry with the idea of rebuilding Eton church on cathedral dimensions. Waynflete was assigned as the principal executor of his "will" for that purpose, and if there was any variance between the executors, he was to determine it. From 1448 to 1459 £3336 or some £100,000 of our money was spent on the church, of which Waynflete was the marquis of Suffolk and the bishop of Salisbury contributed £500 or £11,000. The troubles which began in 1459 put a stop to the work.

Waynflete, as bishop, lost no time in following the example of Wykeham and his royal patron in becoming a college founder. On the 6th of May 1448 he obtained licence in mortmain and on the 20th of August founded at Oxford "for the extirpation of heresies and errors, the increase of the clerical order and the adornment of holy mother church, a perpetual hall, called Saint Marie Maudeleyen Halle, for study in the sciences of sacred theology and philosophy," to consist of a president and 50 scholars. Without being able to fill the present college, but of two earlier halls called Boston and Hare, where the new schools now are. Thirteen M.A.'s and seven bachelors, besides the president, John Hornley, B.D., were named in the charter. The dedication to Mary Magdalen was no doubt derived from the hospital at Winchester of which the founder had been master. On St. Wolstan's Day, the 19th of January 1448-1449, Waynflete was enthroned in Winchester cathedral in the presence of the king; and, probably partly for his sake, parliament was held there in June and July 1449, when the king frequently attended the college chapel, Waynflete officiating (Win. Coll. Reg. Vet.). When Jack Cade's rebellion occurred in 1450 Waynflete was employed with Archbishop Stafford, the chancellor, to negotiate with the rebels at St. Margaret's church, Southwark, close to Winchester House. A full pardon was promised, but on the 1st of August Waynflete was one of the special commissioners to try the rebels. On the 7th of May 1451 Waynflete, from "le peynted chambre "in his manor house at Southwark, asserting that his bishopric was canonically obtained and that he laboured under no disqualification, but feared some grievous attempt against his life, entered London. "It is suggested (Dict. Nat. Biol.) that this was due to some disturbances at Winchester (Proc. P.C. vi. 108), where one of Cade's quarters was sent after his execution. But it is more likely, as suggested by Richard Chandler (Life of Waynflete, 1811), that it was some Yorkist attack on him in progress in the papal court, to meet which he appointed next day 100 portors to act for him. In the result nothing disturbed his peaceable possession of the see. With the archbishop of Canterbury he received Henry VI. on a pilgrimage to St. Thomas à Becket on the 29th of August. When he was in London the Yorkists were encamped near Dartford, Waynflete with three others was sent from the king's camp at Blackheath to propose terms, which were accepted. Edward, prince of Wales, was born on the 13th of October 1453 and baptized by Waynflete the next day. This year Waynflete acquired the reversion of the manor of Stanswick, Berks, from Lady Danvers (Chandler, p. 87) for Magdalen Hall. The king became insane in 1454. On the death of the chancellor, John Kemp, archbishop of Canterbury, during the sitting of parliament, presided over by the duke of York, commissioners, headed by Waynflete, were sent to Henry, to ask him to name a new chancellor, apparently intending that Waynflete should be named. But no answer could be extracted from the king, and after some delay Lord Salisbury took the seals. During York's regency, both before and after the battle of St. Albans, Waynflete took an active part in the proceedings of the privy council. With a view to a ampler site for his college, Waynflete obtained on the 5th of July 1456 a grant of the Hospital of St John the Baptist outside the east gate at Oxford and on the 15th of July licence to found a college there. Having obtained a papal bull, he founded it by deed of the 14th of June 1458, when the college the same as the waynflete his self and its possessions, its members being incorporated into "the New College of St Mary Magdalen."

Meanwhile Waynflete himself had been advanced to the highest office in the state, the chancellorship, the seals being delivered to him by the king in the priory of Coventry in the presence of the duke of York, apparently as a person acceptable to both parties. On the 27th of October 1457 he took part in the trial and condemnation for heresy of Reginald Pecock, bishop of Chichester, who had been ordained subdeacon and deacon on the same day and by the same bishop as Waynflete himself. Only Pecock's books and not the heretic were burnt. As the heresy consisted chiefly in defending the clergy on grounds of reason instead of authority, the proceeding does not show any great enlightenment on Waynflete's part. It must have been at this time that an addition was made by Waynflete to the Eton college statutes, compelling the fellows to forebear the heresies of John Wycliffe and Pecock. Waynflete presided as chancellor at the parliament at Coventry in November 1459, which, after the Yorkist catastrophe at Ludlow, attainted the Yorkist leaders. It was no doubt because of this that, three days before the Yorkist attack at Northampton, he delivered the great seal to the king in his tent near Delapre abbey, a nursery by Northampton, on the 7th of July 1460 (Rot. Clau. 38 Hen. VI. m. 5 d.). It was taken with Henry and handed to the Yorkist, George Neville, bishop of Exeter, brother of the kingmaker, earl of Warwick, in London on 25th July following. Whether, as alleged by some, Waynflete fled and hid himself during the period covered by the battle of Wakefield and Edward's first parliament in 1461, is very doubtful. A testimonial to his fidelity written by Henry to the pope on the 8th of November 1460 (Chandler, p. 147, written while Henry was in Yorkist hands. The fact too that complaints laid before Edward IV. himself in August 1461 of wrongful exaction of manorial rights from the tenants of the episcopal manor of East Meon, Hants, were decided in the bishop's favour in parliament in the December following (Rot. Parl. v. 475) also suggests that he was not regarded as an enemy to the Yorkists, though a personal favourite of Henry's. A general charter of confirmation to him and his successors of the property and rights of the bishopric of Winchester on the 1st of July 1462 (Pat. 4 Ed. IV. pt. ii. m. 16) does not appear. On the restoration of Henry VI. in 1464-5, Waynflete, after the restoration of his position, was welcomed at the Tower, which necessitated a new pardon, granted a month after Edward's reinstatement on the 30th of May 1471 (Pat. 11. Ed. IV. pat. i. m. 24), and a loan to the king of 2000 marks (£1333, 6s. 8d.), or some £4,000 of our money. In the years 1471-1472 to 1474 Waynflete was largely engaged in completing the church, now called chapel, at Eton, his glazier supplying the windows, and he contracted on the 15th of August 1475 for the roof-loft to be made on one side "like to the rode loft in Bishop Wykeham's college at Winchester," and on the other like that "of the college of St Thomas of Acres in London."

In 1470 he built the ante-chapel at the west-end, as it now stands, of stone from Headington, Oxford.

In 1474 Waynflete, being the principal executor of Sir John Fastolf, who died in 1459, leaving a much-contested will, procured the conversion of his bequest for a collegiate church of
seven priests and seven almsmen at Caistor, Norfolk, into one for seven fellows and seven poor scholars at Magdalen. In the same year that college took possession of the alien priory of Sele, Sussex, the proceedings for the suppression of which had been going on since 1460. The new, now the old, buildings at Magdalen were begun the same year, the foundation-stone being laid in the middle of the high altar on the 5th of May 1474 (Wood, 297). Licences on the 1st of July, the 2nd of July 1477 and the 12th of July 1480 authorized additions to the endowment. On the 23rd of August 1480, the college being completed, the great west window was contracted to be made after the fashion of that at All Souls' College, a new president, Richard Mayhew, fellow of New College, was installed on the 23rd of August 1480, and statutes were promulgated. The foundation is commonly dated from this year and not from 1448, when Magdalen Hall was founded, though if not dated from 1448 it surely dates from 1458, when that hall and St John's Hospital were converted into Magdalen College. The statutes were for the most part a repetition of those of New College, member of the same corporation, but, equally with members of Magdalen, declared to be eligible for the presidency. They provided for a head and 70 scholars, but the latter were divided into 40 fellows and 30 scholars called demesies, because their commons were half those of the fellows. Magdalen College School was established at the gates and as a part of the college, to be, like Eton, a free grammar school, free of tuition fees for all comers, under a master and usher, the first master being John Ankywylly, a married man, with a salary of £10 a year, the same as at Winchester and Eton. The renewal of interest in classical literature is shown in the statutes for the Grammar School, which are by any scholar under the age of eighteen, unless he had been pronounced proficient in grammatics. On the 22nd of September 1481 Waynflete received Edward IV. in state at the college, where he passed the night, and in July 1483 he received Richard III. there in even greater state, when Master William Grocyn, "the Grecian," a fellow of New College, "responded," in divinity. In 1484 Waynflete gave the college the endowment for a free grammar school at his name-place, Wainfleet, sufficient to produce for the chantry-priest-schoolmaster £40 a year, the same salary as the headmaster of Magdalen College, and built the school which still exists almost unaltered, a fine brick building with two towers, 76 ft. long by 26 ft. broad. The next year saw the appropriation to the college of the Augustinian Priory of Selborne, Hants.

On the 27th of April 1486, Waynflete, like Wykeham, made his will at their favourite manor, South or Bishop's Waltham. It is remarkable that he gives the same pecuniary bequests to Winchester and New Colleges as to his own college of Magdalen, but the latter he made residuary devisee of all his lands. He died on the 11th of May 1486, and was buried in the chantry of Waynflete's newly founded college behind the high altar in Winchester cathedral, which he had erected in his lifetime. The effigy on it may be taken to be an authentic portrait. (A. F. L.)

WAYZGOOSE, a term for the annual dinner and outing of printers and their employees. The derivation of the term is doubtful. It may be a misspelling for "wasegoose," from was, Mid. Eng. for "sheaf," thus meaning sheaf or harvest goose, the bird that was fit to eat at harvest-time, the "stubble-goose" mentioned by Chaucer in "The Cook's Prologue." It is more probable that the merry-making which has become particularly associated with the printers' trade went on during the annual feast and an imitation of the grand goose-feast annually held at Waes, in Brabant, at Martinmas. The relations of England and Holland were formerly very close, and it is not difficult to believe that any outing or yearly banquet might have grown to be called colloquially a "Waes-Goose." It is difficult to explain why the term should have only survived in the printing trade, though the English printers owed much to their Dutch fellow-workers. Certainly the goose has long ago parted company with the printers' wayzgoose, which is usually held in July, though it has not fixed season. An unlikely suggestion is that the original wayzgoose was a feast given by an apprentice to his comrades at which the bird formed the staple catable.

WAYZGOOSE—WAZIRISTAN

WAZIR, or Vizier (Arabic vezir), a minister, usually the principal minister under a Mahommedan ruler. In India the nawab of Oudh was long known as the nawab wazir, the title of minister to the Mogul emperor having become hereditary in the family.

WAZIRABAD, a town of British India, in Gujranwala district of the Punjab, near the right bank of the river Gomal, 6 m. S.S.W. of Lahore. Pop. (1891) 18,066. It is an important railway junction. The main line of the North-Western railway here crosses the Chenab by the Alexandra bridge, opened by the prince of Wales in 1876. The branch to Sialkot has been extended to Jammu (51 m.); another branch follows the line of the Chenab canal toward Multan. Boat-building and manufactures of steel and iron are carried on.

WAZIRISTAN, a section of the mountain tract in the North-West Frontier Province of India, lying between the Tochi river on the north and the Gomal river on the south. The whole of Waziristan lies within the British sphere of influence, the boundary with Afghanistan having been demarcated in 1894. It forms two political agencies, but only a portion, consisting of the Tochi valley, with an area of about 700 sq. m. and a population (1909) of 24,670, is directly administered. Northern Waziristan has an area of about 2310 sq. m., and southern Waziristan an area of about 2734 sq. m.

The Tochi and the Gomal rivers enclose Waziristan, their affluents rising to the west of that country in the upland valleys of Shawai and Birmal, and flowing north and south to a junction with the main stream. In the annexation territory of the latter is the great basin drainage of Waziristan from north-east to south-west, geologically connected with the great limestone ranges of the Suliman hills to the south, and dominated by the great peaks of Shuidar (Sheikh Haidar) and Pirghal, both of them between 11,000 and 12,000 ft. above the sea, and hardly inferior to the Khaisargaorge peak of the Takhti-Suliman. From these peaks westwards a view is obtained across the grass slopes and cedar woods of Birmal and Shawai (lying thousands of feet below) to the long, serrated ridges of the central watershed which shuts off the plains of Guzani. To the eastward several lines of high mountains, the broad folds and flexures of the mountains, of which the conformation is here distinctly observable, although not so marked as it is south of the Gomal. These lines of drainage are, as usual, the main avenues of approach to the interior of the country. They are the Khaisora and the Shuddu on the north, which, uniting, join the Tochi south of Bannu, and the Tank Zam (which is also called Khaisor near its head) on the south. The two former lead from the frontier to Rasmak and Makin, villages of some local importance, situated on the slopes of Shuidar; and the latter leads to Kaniguram, the Waziri capital, and the centre of a considerable iron trade. Kaniguram lies at the foot of the Pirghal mountain.

Amongst the mountains of Waziristan there is much fine scenery and a delightful climate. Thick forests of ilex clothe many of the spurs, which reach down to the grassy deodar-covered uplands of Birmal on the west; and the spreading poplar attains magnificent dimensions amongst the flats and plateaus of the eastern slopes. The indigenous trade of the country is considerable, although Waziri iron is much esteemed. The agricultural products are poor, and the general appearance of the people is hidden by a mixture of hardship and extreme desertion. The most notable product of the country is the Waziri breed of horses and donkeys. The latter especially deserve to rank as the best of their kind on the Indian frontier, if not in all India.

The geological formation of Waziristan is the same as that of the contiguous frontier. Recent subaqueous deposits have been found in a central upthrow of limestone; the lower hills are soft in composition and easily weathered, the slopes are rounded, and large masses of detritus have collected in the nullah beds and raised their level. Through these deep rivers have forced their way with many bends and curves to the plains, enclosing within each curve a "wam," or "rughz," which slopes gradually to the hills and affords the only available space for irrigation and agriculture. A "wam" is a gently sloping open space, generally
WAZZAN—WEALD, THE

raised but slightly above the river level. A "rāghzā" differs from a "wān" in being on a higher level and often beyond the reach of irreg., the most settled found along the two hills, but with only the borders of the main streams. Passing up and down these main water-courses, there is an appearance of great fertility and wealth, which is entirely due to these thriving strips of verdure, their restricted and narrow limits being hardly visible from the river beds. From above, when viewed from the flanking ridges, the vast extent of hill country, neither high, nor imposing, nor difficult of access, is seen as a green and rounded mass, comprising two bands of enclosed cultivation winding about like green ribbons, and marking the course of the main streams from the snow-covered peaks to the plains. The physiography of Waziristan is that of the Kurram to the north rather than that of the Suliman hills to the south.

The Waziris are the largest tribe on the frontier, but their state of civilization is very low. They are a race of robbers and murderers, and the Waziri name is execrated even by the neighbouring Mahomedan tribes. Mahomedans from a settled district often regard Waziris as untouchables, and seem inclined to deny their title to belong to the faith. They have been described as being "free-born and murderous, hot-headed and light-hearted, self-respecting but vain." The poverty of their country and the effort required to gain a subsistence in it have made the Waziris a hardy and enduring race. Their physique is uncommonly good, and though on the average short of stature, some extremely tall and large men are to be found amongst them. They are generally deep-chested and compact of build, with a powerful muscular development common to the whole Turkish race, confident, and capable of enduring long and arduous marches.

They enjoy a good knowledge of arms, and are often trained by the British, who have become the most civilizing power amongst them. The Waziris incline towards a war-like disposition, and with their hill tribes of the Himalayas as mountaineers the Waziris would probably hold their own with any other Pathan tribe of the frontier.

Except in a few of the highest hills, which are well-wooded, the Waziri country is a mass of rock and stones, bearing a poor growth of grass and thinly sprinkled with dark evergreen bushes; progress in every direction except on devious paths known to the natives is obstructed by precipices or by toilsome stony ascents; and knowledge of the topography, a mere labyrinth of intricate ranges and valleys, comes only as the result of long acquaintance. Broken ground and tortuous ravines, by making crime easy and precaution against attack difficult, have fostered violence among the people and developed in them an extraordinary faculty of prudence and alertness. In consequence of his isolation the Waziri has become independent, self-reliant and democratic in sentiment. Through the inaccessibility of his own country to lowerlanders, combined with the proximity of open and fertile tracts inhabited by races of inferior stamina, he has developed into a confirmed raider; and the passage through his country of mountain footpaths, common to Afghan, Afghan Pathan and Turkic tribes, offers the opportunity a hereditary highwayman as well. The women enjoy more freedom than amongst most Pathan tribes, and are frequently unfaithful. The ordinary punishment of adultery is to put the woman to death, and to cut off half the right foot of the man. Amongst Waziris also, as amongst other Pathans, the blood-feud is a national institution.

The Waziris, who number some 40,000 fighting men altogether, are divided into two main sections, the Darwesh Khel (50,000) and the Mahsuds (50,000), with two smaller sections. The Darwesh Khel, the more settled and civilized of the two, inhabit the lower hills bordering on Kohat and Bannu districts, and the ground lying on both sides of the Kurram river, between Thal on the north and the Tochi Valley on the south. The Mahsuds, who inhabit the tract of country lying between the Tochi Valley on the north and the Gomal river on the south, have earned for themselves an evil name as the most confirmed raiders on the border; but they are a plucky race, as active over the hills as the Afridis, and next to them the best-armed large tribe on the frontier. The Mahsud country, especially that part within reach of British posts, is more difficult even than Tirah. To the south and east it is girt by an intricate belt of uninhabited, generally waterless hills and ravines. To the north a zone of Darwesh Khel territory, not less than 20 m. in width, hilly and difficult, separates the Mahsuds from the Tochi. The Tochi Valley is inhabited by a degraded Pathan tribe, known as Dauris, who have voluntarily placed themselves under British protection since 1895. In dealing with the Mahsuds it must be remembered that from Wana to Tank, from Tank to Bannu, and from Bannu to Datta Khel, or for a distance of over 200 m., British territory is open to Mahsud depredations. This area of frontier is equal to the whole Thal-Kohat-Peshawar-Malakand line, covering the eight or ten tribes that took part in the frontier risings of 1897. So that the Mahsuds should really be compared with the whole of those ten tribes, and not with any single one.

British expeditions were needed against various sections of the Waziris in 1852, 1859, 1860, 1880, 1881, 1894, 1897 and 1902.

The success of Sir Robert Sandeman in subduing the wild tribes of Baluchistan had led to a similar attempt to open Waziristan to British civilization; but the Pathan is much more democratic and much less subject to the influence of his maliks than is the Baluchi to the authority of his chiefs; and the policy finally broke down in 1894, when the Waziris made a night attack upon the camp of the British Delegation Commission at Wana. The Commission had been appointed to settle the boundary with the Afghans, and the Waziris regarded it as the final threat to their independence. The attack was delivered with such determination that the tribesmen penetrated into the centre of the camp, and it was only with the greatest difficulty that the lower limits of the country were regained from foes. A large force of 11,000 British troops subsequently traversed the tribal country, destroyed their towers and dictated terms, one of which was that the Tochi Valley should be occupied by British garrisons. But still there was trouble, which led to the Tochi expedition of 1897; and, in spite of the further lessons taught the Waziris in two expeditions in 1902, the attempt to "Sandemanise" Waziristan was given up by Lord Curzon. The British garrisons in the Tochi and Gomal valleys were withdrawn, and two corps of tribal militia, from 1300 to 1500 strong, were gradually formed to replace the British troops.

See Grammar and Vocabulary of Waziri Pathi, by J. G. Lorimer (Calcutta, 1902); Paget and Mason's Frontier Expeditions (1884); Mahsud Waziri Operations (1902), Blue-book.

WAZZAN, a small hillside town, 60 m. N.W. by N. of Fez, Morocco. It has a considerable trade with the country round, and manufactures a coarse white woollen cloth with rough surface from which the hooded cloaks (called jellāba) are made. Its proudest name is Dār D'manah—House of Safety—as it is sanctuary for any who gain its limits, on account of the tomb of a sainted Idris Sharif, who lived there in 1727. It is the head-quarters of his disciples.

WEALD, THE, a district in the south-east of England. It includes the portions of Sussex, Kent and Surrey which are enclosed between the North and South Downs—a district of Lower Cretaceous rocks encircled by Upper Cretaceous hills. It extends from Fnsenham and Petersfield on the Hampshire borders to the English Channel between Folkestone and Eastbourne. With the exception of the easternmost part, it drains by rivers running northward and southward through gaps in the downs, the origin of which is considered under that heading. The Weald was formerly covered by the forest of Andredeslaw or Andredesweald ("the wood or forest without habitations"), which was 120 m. in length and about 30 in greatest breadth. About 1660 the total area under forest was estimated at over 200,000 acres. The chief remains of the ancient forests are Ashdown, St Leonards and Tilgate, and the nomenclature often indicates the former extent of woodland, as in the case of Hurst-pierpoint (hurst meaning wood), Midhurst, Fernhurst, Billingshurst, Ashhurst and many others. The forests were interspersed with lagoons; and the rainfall being very great caused marshes, but it abated in consequence of the cutting down of the Wealden forests for fuel in the extensive ironworks that formerly existed in the district. The locality best preserving the ancient character of the Weald is the hilly district in the centre, forming a
picturesque broken range running east and west under the name of the Forest Ridges. This forms the main water-parting of the Weald, dividing the Vale of Sussex from the Vale of Kent; and was also the seat of the iron industry which was prosecuted by the Romans and probably earlier, reached its highest importance in the 16th and 17th centuries, and was maintained even till the early years of the 19th century. The Andredesleigh had an early history as a sub-division of the Weald. But this did not alter, as it had been thought, the fact that the South Saxons isolated from other Saxon kingdoms. Descending from over sea upon the coastal district of Sussex, to which they gave name, towards the close of the 6th century, they populated it thickly, and maintained independence, in face of the accretions of the West Saxons kingdom, for upwards of a hundred years.

**WEALDEN,** in geology, a thick series of estuarine and freshwater deposits of Lower Cretaceous age, which derives its name from its development in the Weald of Kent and Sussex. In the type area it is exposed by the denudation of a broad antiformal fold of which the higher Cretaceous beds have been removed. The Wealden rocks lie in the central part of this antiformal arch between the escarpments of the North and South Downs; they extend eastwards from the neighbourhood of Haslemere and Eland Chapel to the west between Pevensey and Hythe. This formation is divisible into two portions, the Weald Clay above and the Hastings Sands below. The Weald Clay which occupies the central, upland part of the area from Horsham to the sea coast consists of dark brown and blue clays and shales, occasionally mottled in the neighbourhood of sandy lenticles, which together with calcareous sandstones, shelly limestones and nodular ironstones, are characteristic of this bed. About Horsham the Weald Clay is 1000 ft. thick, but it decreases in an eastward direction; at Tunbridge it is only 600 ft. Certain subordinate beds within the Weald Clay have received distinctive names. "Hoxton stone" is a calcareous flaggy sandstone, often ripple marked, usually less than 5 ft. thick, which occurs at about 120 ft. above the base of the Clay. "Sussex marble" is the name given to more than one of the high limestone beds which are mainly composed of a large form of Paludina (F. fluviatum); some of the lower limestone layers contain a small species (P. sussexiensis). The Sussex marble (proper) occurs about 200 ft. below the top of the clays; it is the most important of the limestone beds, and its thickness varies from 6 ft. to 2 in.; it is known also as Bethoven marble, Петrow marble, Laughston stone, &c. It has been widely used in the Weald district in church architecture and for polished mantelpieces. The ironstones were formerly smelted in the western part of the area.

The Hastings Sands are divisible into three main subdivisions: the Tunbridge Wells Sand, the Wadhurst Clay and the Ashdown Sand. The Tunbridge Wells Sand and Wadhurst Clay are thickened as a whole towards the west. In the west, the Tunbridge Wells Sand is intercalated into an upper and lower division by the thickening of a bed of clay—the Grinstead Clay—which in the east, about Rye, &c., is quite thin; at Cuckfield a second clay bed 15 ft. thick divides the upper division. The upper beds of the lower Tunbridge Wells Sand cause good landscapes around West Hoathly and near East Grinstead. The Wadhurst Clay is very constant in character; near the base it frequently contains clay-ironstone, which in former times was the main source of supply for the Wealden iron industry. Much of the higher portion of the Hastings Sand country is made of the Ashdown Sands which consist of a fine-grained sandstone and sub-sandstone clays and sand beds; in the east, however, clay is strongly developed at the base of this group, and at Fairlight is more than 350 ft. thick, while the sandy portion is only 120 ft. These clays with sandy layers are known as the Fairlight Clays. Beds of thin coal are found in these beds, and a calcareous sandstone, called Tilate stone, occurs near the top of the Ashdown Sands and in the Wadhurst Clay. The old town of Hastings is built on Ashdown Sand, but St Leonards is mainly on Tunbridge Wells Sand.

Wealden beds occur on the southern side of the Isle of Wight and in the Isle of Purbeck in Dorsetshire. The Wealden antichute can be traced across the Channel into the same continent. A separate Wealden area exists in north Germany between Brunswick and Benthal, in the Ostervald and Teutoburger Wald, where the Delber Sandstone (160 ft.) corresponds to the Hastings Sands and the Tunbridge Sands to the Ashdown Sands. The formations contain valuable coal beds, worked in the neighbourhood of Oberkirchen, &c., and good building stone.

The fossils of the Wealden beds comprise freshwater shellfish, Unio, Paludina, Melanopsis, Cyrene; and estuarine and marine forms such as Ostrea, Exogyra and Mytilus. An interesting series of dinosaurs and pterodactyles has been obtained from the Wealden beds of Noord Brabant in the extreme north-west of Belgium, and towards the south-eastern coast of Europe, of which Iguanodon is the best known—a large number of almost entire skeletons of this genus were discovered in some buried Cretaceous valleys at Bernissart in Belgium; other forms are Heterosuchus, Ornithocheirus, Ornithopodes, Saurornithes and Thalattosaurus. Chara, Bennettites, Equisitis, Fulfenia, Sagenopetis and Tithuris. The fishes, plants and reptiles of these formations possess a decidedly continental aspect, and for this reason several authorities are in favour of retaining the Wealden rocks in that system, and the close relationship between this formation and the underlying Purbeckian, both in England and in Germany, tends to support this view.

See CRETACEOUS, NEOCPRICH:; also N. de W. Tulip, "Geology of the Weald," Mem. Geol. Survey (London, 1875.)

**WEALTH,** etymologically the condition of well-being, prosperity in its widest sense. The word does not appear in Old English, but is a Middle English formation, welle, on the O. Eng. wela, well-being, from wel, well, cognate with Dan. vel, Ger. wohl. The original meaning survived in the prayer for the King's Majesty of the English Book of Common Prayer, "Grant him in health and wealth long to live," and in "commonwealth," i.e. good of the body politic, hence applied to the body politic itself.

In economics, wealth is most commonly defined as consisting of all useful and agreeable things which possess exchange value, and this again is generally regarded as coextensive with all desirable things except those which do not involve labour or sacrifice for their acquisition in the quantity desired. On the other hand, wealth will be evidential of this definition, implies, directly, preliminary conceptions of utility and value, and indirectly, of sacrifice and labour, and these terms, familiar though they may appear, are by no means simple and obvious in their meaning. Utility, for the purposes of economic reasoning, is usually held to mean the capacity to satisfy a desire or serve a purpose (J. S. Mill), and in this sense is clearly a much wider term than wealth. Sunshine and fresh air, good temper and pleasant manners, and all the infinite variety of means of gratification, material and immaterial, are covered by utility as thus defined. Wealth, on the other hand, is a species of utility, and in order to separate it from other species some differentiation must be found. This, according to the general definition, is exchange value, but a little reflection will show that in some cases it is necessary rather to contrast value with wealth. "Value," says Ricardo, expanding a thought of Adam Smith, "essentially differs from riches, for value depends not on abundance but on the difficulty or facility of production." According to the well-known tables ascribed to Gregory King (1638-1712), a deficiency of a small amount in the annual supply of corn will raise its value far more than in proportion; but it would be paradoxical to argue that this rise in the demand will be evidential of a decrease in an important item of national wealth. Again, as the mines of a country are exhausted and its natural resources otherwise impaired, a rise in the value of the remainder may take place, and as the free gifts of nature are appropriated they become valuable for exchange; but the country can hardly be said to be so much the wealthier in consequence. And these difficulties are rather increased than diminished if we substitute for value the more familiar concrete term "money-price"—for the contrast between the quantity of wealth and its nominal value becomes more sharply marked. Suppose, for example, that in the total money value of the national income a decline is observed to be in progress, whilst at the same time, as is quite possible, an increase was noticed in the quantity of all the important items and an improvement in their quality, it would be in accordance with common sense to say that the wealth of the country was increasing and not decreasing.

So great are these difficulties that some economists (e.g. Ricardo) have proposed to take utility as the direct measure of wealth; and, as H. Sidgwick has pointed out, if double the quantity meant double the utility this would be an easy and natural procedure. But even to the same individual the increase in utility is by no means simply proportioned to the increase in quantity, and the utility of different commodities to different
individuals, and a fortiori of different amounts, is proverbial.

The very same things may to the same individual be productive of more utility simply owing to a change in his tastes or habits, and a different distribution of the very same things, which make up the wealth of a nation, might indefinitely change the quantity of utility; but it would be paradoxical to say that the wealth had increased because it was put to better uses.

We thus seem thrown back on value as the essential characteristic, allowance being made for any change in the standard of value; but there are still difficulties to be overcome. Some things that undoubtedly possess value or that can command a price are immaterial, e.g. the advice of a lawyer or physician. Had the meaning of a prima donna, and, although perhaps the skill of a workman (in any grade of the social scale) might be considered as attached to the man, as a coal mine is attached to a place, it is more in accordance with popular usage to consider skill as immaterial, whilst at the same time it seems equally natural prima facie to confine the term wealth to material things in the common sense. Again, the credit system of a country is a product of great labour and sacrifice, it is most closely connected with the production of its material wealth in the narrowest sense, and it certainly commands a pecuniary value, and yet credit is more generally held to be a representative rather than a property, and, having apparently to its insubstantial character. Apart from the question of materiality some writers have insisted on relative permanence and possibility of accumulation as essential attributes of wealth, and have thus still further narrowed the scope of the definition.

There can be no doubt that it is on many grounds desirable in economics to use terms as far as possible in their popular acceptations; but this rule must always be subordinate to the primary object in view. In nearly every department of knowledge in which popular terms have been retained it has been found necessary either constantly to use qualifying adjectives where the context is not a sufficient guide, and in some cases, when analysis discloses very different elements, to make a selection. Sometimes it has been found convenient to use a term with some variation in the definition according to the branch of the subject in hand.1 Applying these rules to the definition of wealth, perhaps the best solution is that which is generally connected with German economists (e.g. Adolf von Held). Wealth consists of utilities, and in the first great department of economics—

**WEAPON—WEASEL**

Usually, however, it will be found that in most cases anything which can fairly be classed as wealth in one department is also wealth in the others, and thus the definition is reached that wealth in general consists of all "consumable utilities which require labour for their production and can be appropriated and exchanged." It only remains to add that "utilities" may be divided into "inner" and "outer" (to translate the German literally)—the "inner" being such as are simply sources of personal gratification to their possessor, e.g. a good ear for music; the "outer" utilities again may be divided into "free" and "economic," the former, as a rule, e.g. sunlight, not being the result of labour and not capable of appropriation or exchange, and the latter as a rule possessing each of these marks. It is these "economic utilities" which constitute wealth in the specific sense of the term, although its use may be extended by analogy to include almost all utilities.

See A. Marshall, Principles of Economics (1907); J. B. Clark, Philosophy of Wealth (1886) and Distribution of Wealth (1899); W. E. Hearn, Plutology (1886); F. A. Walker, Political Economy (1888); and J. S. Nicholson, Principles of Political Economy (1903).

**WEAPON** (O. Eng. wapen, cf. Du. wapen, Ger. Waffe, also Wappen, a coat of arms, heraldic shield), any instrument of offence or defence, more usually a term confined to offensive or attacking instruments. The general sketch of the history and development of weapons of offence and defence is given under ARMS AND ARMOUR; particular weapons are treated under such heads as HALBERD, LANCE, SPEAR, SWORD, GUN, PISTOL, RIFLE, ORDNANCE AND MACHINE-GUNS.

**WEAR**, a river of Durham, England, rising in the Pennine chain near the Cumberland border, and traversing a valley about 60 m. in length to the North Sea, with a drainage area of 43 sq. m. A series of streams draining from the hills between Killhope Law and Burnhope Seat (2452 ft.) are collected at Wearhead, up to which point the valley is traversed by a branch of the North-Eastern railway. Hence eastward, past the small towns of St John's Chapel and Stanhope, and as far as that of Wolsingham, Weardale is narrow and picturesque, sharply aligned by high-lying moorland. Below, it takes a south-easterly bend as far as Bishop Auckland, then turns northward and north-eastward, the course of the river becoming extremely sinuous. The scenery is particularly fine where the river sweeps round the bold peninsula which bears the cathedral and castle of the city of Durham. The valley line continues northerly until Chester-le-Street is passed, then it turns north-east; and soon the river becomes navigable, carrying a great traffic in coal, and having its banks lined with factories. At the mouth is the large seaport of Sunderland.

**WEASEL** (Mustela nivalis), the smallest European species of the group of mammals of which the polecat and stoat are well-known members (see CARNIVORA). The weasel is an elegant little animal, with elongated slender body, back much arched, head small and flattened, ears short and rounded, neck long and flexible, limbs short, five toes on each foot, all with sharp, compressed, curved claws, tail rather short, slender, cylindrical, and pointed at the tip, and fur short and close. The upper-parts, outside of limbs and tail, are uniform reddish brown, the under-parts white. In cold regions the weasel turns white in winter, but less regularly and only at a lower temperature than the stoat or ermine, from which it is distinguished by its smaller size and the absence of the black tail-tip. The length of the head and body of the male is usually about 8 in., that of the tail 2½ in.; of the female about 7½ in. and 1½ in., respectively. It is distributed throughout Europe and Northern and Central Asia; and is represented by a closely allied animal in North America. It possesses all the active, courageous and bloodthirsty disposition of the rest of the genus, but its diminutive size prevents it attacking and destroying any but the smaller mammals and birds. Mouse, rats, water-rats and moles, as well as frogs, constitute its principal food. It is generally found on or near the surface of the ground, but it can not only pursue its prey through holes and crevices of rocks and under dense tangled herbage, but follow it up the

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1 On the uses and difficulties of definitions in political economy compare H. Stiglic's Principles of Political Economy, bk. i, ch. ii., and J. N. Keynes's Scope and Method of Political Economy.
WEATHER—WEAVER-BIRD

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It nests by the Tisserin from Viduinae, which in 1847 was raised by J. Cabanis to the rank of a family Placeinæ, which has since been generally admitted, though the grounds for taking it as such could not be held valid in any other order than that of Passeres. The Placeinæ are closely related to the Fringillidæ (see Finch), and are now divided into two subfamilies, the Placeinae and Vidinae, the former chiefly found in Africa and its islands, the latter in the Ethiopian, Australian and Indian regions.

Perhaps the most typical Placeinæ weaver-bird is Hyphomenotornis cucullata, an African species, and it is to the Ethiopian Region that by far the greatest number of these birds belong, and in it they seem to attain their maximum of development. They are all small, with, generally speaking, a sparrow-like build; but in richness of colouring the males of some are very conspicuous—glowing in crimson, scarlet or golden-yellow, set off by jet-black, while the females are usually dull in hue. Some species build nests that are very remarkable, except in being almost invariably domed—others (such as the most typical Indian weaver-bird, Ploceus baya) fabricate singular structures of closely and uniformly interwoven tendrils or fine roots, that often hang from the bough of a tree over water, and, starting with a solidly wrought rope, open out into a globular chamber, and then contract into a tube several inches in length, through which the birds effect their exit and entrance. But the most wonderful nests of all, and indeed the most wonderful built by birds, are those of the so-called sociable grosbeak, Philibitor socius, of Africa. These are composed wholly of grass, and are joined, i. e. gathered together by more than 1,000—indeed 320 are said to have been found in one of these aggregated masses, which usually take the form of a gigantic mushroom,2 affording a home and nursery to many pairs of the birds which have been at the trouble of building it. These nests, however, have been so often described and figured by South African travellers that there is no need here to dilate longer on their marvels. It may be added that this species of weaver-bird, known to French writers as the Républicain, is of exceptionally dull plumage.

The group of widow-birds, Viduaæ, is remarkable for the extreme development of tail-feathers in the males at the breeding-season. In the largest species, Vidua (sometimes called Chera) prope, the cock-bird, which, with the exception of a scarlet and buff bar on the upper wing-coverts, is wholly black, there is simply a great elongation of the rectrices; but in V. paradisa the form of the tail is quite unique. The middle pair of feathers have the webs greatly widened, and through the twisting of the shafts their inferior surfaces are vertically opposed. These feathers are comparatively short, and end in a hair-like filament. The next pair are produced to the length of about a foot—the bird not being so big as a sparrow—and droop gracefully in the form of a sickle. But this is not all: each has attached to its base a hair-like filament of the same length as the feather, and this filament originally adhered to and ran along the margin of the outer web, only becoming detached when the feather is fully grown.5 In another species, V. principalis, the middle two pairs of rectrices are equally elongated, but their webs are convex, and the outer pair contains the inner, so that when the margins of the two pairs are applied

1 First bestowed in this form apparently by J. F. Stephens in 1826 (G. Shaw’s Gen. Zoology, xxi. pt. i. p. 34); but in 1782 J. Latham (Synopsis, i. p. 435) had called the “Trospia du Senegal” of Buffon the “weaver oriole,” from its habit of entwining the wires of the cage in which it was kept with such vegetable fibres as it could get, and hence in 1788 Cuvier named it Oriolus textor. In 1800 F. M. Daudin used the term “Tisserin” for several species of the Linnaean genus Loxia, and this was adopted some years later by Cuvier as the equivalent of his Ploceus, as mentioned in the text.

2 These differ from those built by some of the Oriolus (g.v.) and other birds, whose nests may be compared to penny packets, while those of these weaver-birds can best be likened to a stocking hung up by the “toe,” with the “heel” enlarged to receive the eggs, while access and exit are obtained through the “leg.”

3 But at a distance they may often be mistaken for a native hut, with its grass-roof.

4 It has been ingeniously suggested that this name should be more correctly written Whydah-bird—from the place on the West Coast of Africa so named; but Edwards, who in 1745 figured one of the species, states that he was informed that the Portuguese call this bird the widow, from its colour and long train (Nat. Hist. 1826, ii. 196).

5 This curious structure was long ago described by Brisson (Ornithologie, iii. p. 123), and more recently by Strickland (Contr. Ornithology (1850), pp. 88 and 149, pl. 99).
a sort of cylinder is formed. The females of all the widow-birds differ greatly in appearance from the males, and are generally clothed in a plumage of mottled brown.

Usually classed with the weaver-birds is a vast group of small seed-eating forms, often called Spermestinae, but for which Estrildinae would seem to be a better name, for they are closely related to the numerous species so commonly seen in cages, and known as amazons, Estrilda amandava, nutmeg-birds, Munia punctulitoria, wax-bills, Psittaca melba and phoeniciophora, cutroheads, Amazina fasciata, the olive-colored thrush, and many others. Many of these genera are common to Africa and India, and some also to Australia.

A. N.)

WEAVING. The process of weaving consists in interlacing, at right angles, two or more series of flexible materials, of which the longitudinal are called warp and the transverse weft. Weaving, therefore, only embraces one section of the textile industry, for felted, plaited, netted, knitted, and lace fabrics lie outside this definition. Felting consists in bringing masses of loose fibres, such as wool and hair, under the combined influences of heat, moisture and friction, when they become firmly interlocked in every direction. Plaited fabrics have only one series of threads interlaced, and those at other than right angles. In nets all threads are held in their appointed places by knots, which are tied wherever one thread intersects another. Hosiery fabrics, whether made from one or many threads, are held together by interjecting a series of loops; while lace fabrics are formed by passing one set of threads between and round small groups of other threads, instead of moving them from side to side. Notwithstanding the foregoing limitations, woven fabrics are varied in texture and have an enormous range of application. The demands made by prehistoric man for fabrics designed for clothing and shelter were few and simple, and these were fashioned by interlacing strips of fibrous material and grasses, which in their natural condition were long enough for the purpose in hand. But, as he passed from a state of savagery into a civilized being, his needs developed with his culture, and those needs are still extending. It no longer suffices to minister to individual necessities; luxury, commerce and numerous industries must also be considered.

The invention of spinning (q.v.) gave a great impetus to the introduction of varied effects previously; the use of multicoloured threads provided ornament for simple structures, but the demand for variety extended far beyond the limits of colour, and different materials were employed either separately or conjointly, together with different schemes of interlacing. Eventually the weaver was called upon to furnish articles possessing lustre, softness and delicacy; or those that combine strength and durability with diverse colours or patterns, or with elaborate patterns or the ornamentation. In cold countries a demand arose for warm clothing, and in hot ones for cooler materials; while commerce and industry have requisitioned fabrics that vary from normal characteristics to those that exceed an inch in thickness. In order to meet these and other requirements the world has been searched for suitable raw materials. From the animal kingdom, wool, hair, feather, silk and the pinnà fibre have long been procured. From the vegetable kingdom, cotton, flax, hemp, jute, ramie and a host of other less known but almost equally valuable fibres are derived; and minerals, as iron, gold, silver, copper, brass, iron, glass and asbestos. In addition, strips of paper, or skin, in the plain, gilt, silvered and painted conditions are available as well as artificial fibres. All of the foregoing may be used alone or in combination.

From such varied raw materials it is not surprising that woven fabrics should present an almost endless variety of effects; yet these differences are only in part due to the method of weaving. The processes of bleaching (q.v.), mercerizing (q.v.), dyeing (q.v.), printing (see TEXTILE PRINTING) and finishing (q.v.) contribute almost as much to the character and effect of the resultant product as do the incorporation in one fabric of threads spun in different ways, and from fibres of different origin, with paper, metal, beads or even precious stones.

Both these species seem to have been first described and figured in 1600 by Aldrovandus (lib. xv. cap. 22, 23) from pictures sent to him by Ferdinando de' Medici, duke of Tuscany.

INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGY

All weaving schemes are reducible to a few elementary principles, but no attempted classification has been quite successful, for fabrics are constantly met with that possess characteristics supposed to be peculiar to one class, but lack others which are deemed equally typical. Nevertheless, since some classification is essential, the following will be adopted, namely: Group 1, to include all fabrics made from one warp and one weft, produced both sets of threads remaining parallel in the finished article and are intersected to give the required design and appearance. Group 2, to include (a) fabrics constructed from two warps and one weft, or two wefts and one warp, as in those that are backed, reversible and figured with extra material; (b) two or more distinct fabrics built simultaneously from two or more warps and wefts, as in two, three and other ply cloths; (c) fabrics built by so intersecting two or more warps and wefts that only one texture results, as in loom-made tapestries and figured repps. Group 3, to include fabrics in which a portion of the warp or weft rises vertically from the groundwork of a finished piece, as in velvet and velvet paints, and in puddled carpets. Groups 4, to embrace all fabrics in which one portion of the warp is twisted partially, or wholly, round another portion, as in guazes and lappet cloths. Although some fabrics do not appear to fall into any of the above divisions, and in others the essential features of two or more groups are combined, yet the grouping enumerated above is sufficiently inclusive for most purposes.

The fabrics included in Group 1 are affected by the nature and closeness of the yarns employed in their construction, by colour, or by the scheme of intersecting the threads. The most important section of this group is Plain Cloth, in which the warp and weft threads are approximately equal in thickness and closeness, and which includes the most extensive and under which most other alternatives are grouped. A simple example is shown in fig. 1, which shows a design, plan and two sections of plain cloth. Such a fabric would, therefore, appear to admit of but slight ornamentation, yet this is by no means the case, for if thick and thin threads of warp and weft alternate, the resultant fabric may be made to assume a corrugated appearance on the face, while beneath it remains flat, as in poplins, repps and cords. A plan and a longitudinal section of a repp cloth is shown at fig. 2. Colour may also be employed to ornament plain fabrics, and its simplest application produces stripes and checks. But colour may convert these fabrics into the most artistic and costly productions of the loom, as is the case with tapestries, which are at once the oldest and most widely diffused of ornamented textiles. Tapestries only differ from simple plain cloth in having each horizontal line of weft made up of numerous short lengths of parti-coloured thread. Many fine specimens of this art have been recovered from ancient Egyptian and Peruvian tombs, and many are still produced in the Gobelins and other celebrated manufactories of Europe.

Twills are next in importance to plain cloth on account of their wide range of application and great variety of effects; in elaborately figured goods their use is as extensively employed as the only ornament. Twills invariably form diagonal ribs in fabrics, and these are due to the intervals at which the warp and weft are intersected, thus two or more warp threads are required over or under one or more than one weft thread in regular succession. Twills are said to be equal when similar quantities of warp and weft are upon the face of a fabric, unequal when one set of threads greatly preponderates over the other set, as in figs. 3, 4, which require equal warp and weft threads to complete the scheme of intersections. If the ribs form angles of 45 degrees, the warp and weft threads per inch are about equal in number, but for an unequal twill the material must be comparatively fine. The angle formed may be greater or less than 45 degrees, as in figs. 5, 6; if greater, the warp preponderates, if less, the weft preponderates. Twills are simple and fancy; both terms refer to the schemes of intersecting. In the

Fig. 1.—Plain Cloth.  
Fig. 2.—Repp Cloth.
WEAVING

The former the same number of warp threads are placed successively above or below each weft thread, and the ribs are of uniform width, as in figs. 3, 4. In the latter more warp threads may be above one pick than another, the ribs may vary in width and small ornament may be introduced between the ribs, as in figs. 5, 6 and 7, where the dark squares represent warp upon the surface. Twills may be broken up into zigzags, lozenges, squares and other geometrical designs, all of which may be produced by reversing in the diagonal lines, or by reversing the weave of an uneven twill. Fig. 8 is a zigzag, namely, a twill reversed in one direction. Fig. 9 is a diamond, or a twill reversed in two directions, and fig. 10 is a diaper, or an unequal twill which gives a warp face in one place and a weft face in another. Satins and sateens form another important section of Group 1. In a satin the bulk of the warp, and in a sateen the bulk of the weft, is on the face of a fabric. If perfect in construction both present a smooth, patternless appearance, which is due in part to the scheme of intersections, in part to using fine material for the surface threads and placing it close enough together to render the points of intersection invisible; the threads of the other set being coarser and fewer in number. Satins differ from twills in having each warp thread lifted, or depressed, separately, but not successively. From five to upwards of thirty threads of warp and weft are required to complete the various schemes of intersecting. If the intervals between the intersections are equal the weave is said to be perfect, as in fig. 11, but if the intervals are irregular it is said to be imperfect, as in fig. 12. In Damasks a satin is combined with a satteen weave, and since any desired size and shape of either weave may be produced, great facilities are offered for the development of all kinds of ornamentation. But in combination neither the satin nor the satteen can be perfect in construction, for one requires a preponderance of warp, the other a preponderance of weft; as a sequence every point of intersection is distinctly visible on both surfaces. Brocades are fabrics in which both sets of threads may be floated irregularly upon the surface to produce ornamental effects, and they may be taken as typical of all one warp and one weft fabrics that are figured by irregularly floated materials, whether the threads are uniformly or irregularly distributed, and whether one weave or several weaves are employed. Group 2 includes all back and reversible fabrics, as well as those ornamented with extra material and compounded. Cloths intended for men’s wear are often backed, the object of which is to give weight and bulk to a thin texture without interfering with the face effects. Either warp or weft may be used as backing: if the former there are two series of warp to one series of weft threads, while in the latter there are two series of weft to one series of warp threads. The face material is superposed upon that of the back, but the ratio of face threads may be one or two to one of back. In order to avoid disturbing the face weave, only those threads are used to bind the backing that are hidden on the face, as in fig. 13, which gives the design and a transverse section of a backed fabric: A is face weft; B back weft, and the circles are warp threads; of the latter C, D, are beneath both B and A. This diagram will serve equally as a longitudinal section of a warp-backed fabric, if A represents a thread of face warp, B a thread of back warp and the circles are weft threads. Weft backing is capable of giving a more spongy feel to a fabric than warp, because softer materials may be used, but in these fabrics the length output of loom is reduced by reason of the wefts being superposed. Warp-backed fabrics, whether uniformly coloured or striped, do not materially reduce the output of a loom, for every weft thread adds to the cloth length. Reversible fabrics may have either two series of differently coloured wefts or warps to one of the other series, in which event they may be similarly figured on both sides by causing the threads of the double series to change places, as in the design and transverse section, fig. 14; or by allowing one series to remain constantly above the other, as in backed cloths, both sides may be similar or dissimilar colour and pattern. Fabrics figured with extra material may have two series of warp or weft threads to one series of the other set, and they may yield reversible or one-sided cloths. A ground texture may have extra material placed above or below it, as in fig. 15, where a design and transverse section of the cloth are given; the waved lines and circles represent a cross-section of plain cloth and A is a thread of extra material; or ordinary and extra material may be used conjointly for figuring. Compound cloths must have at least two textures, and be as distinct in character as if woven in separate looms: they have many advantages over backed cloths, because the same design and colouring may be produced on both sides; where bulk and weight are required a fine surface texture may be formed over a ground of inferior material, and soft weft may be passed between the upper and lower textures. The fabric is more perfect and admits of either simple or elaborate patterns being wrought upon the surface, with simple ones beneath, as in piqûres and matelassés. One texture may be constantly above the other and connected at the selvages only, as in hose pipes and pillow slips; or at intervals a thread may pass from one texture into the other, in which event both are united, as in many styles of bed-covers and vestings. If differently coloured, the textures may change places at pleasure, as in Kidderminster carpets; or, from three to twelve textures may be woven simultaneously, and united, as in belting cloth. There may be from one to three threads of face warp to one of back, and the wefting may or may not correspond with the warping. Fig. 16 shows the face and
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back weaves, the design, and a transverse section of a compound cloth with the warp threads of one face and the weft threads of the other, both are stitched together. The circles in the upper and lower lines represent face and back warps respectively, and A, B, C are weft threads placed in the upper and lower textures. Loom-made tapestry figured weaves are by far the most popular, and are represented in the next section of Group 2. As compared with true tapestries, the loom-made articles have greater freedom of colour and design, and the figured effect obtained may be obtained from warp as well as weft, whether interlaced to form a plain face, or left floating more or less, and design on the backside. If passing from selvage to selvage, it is covered to the surface, where required, the other screens being bound back at the back. Some specimens are reversible, others are not, but, however numerous the warps and wefts, only one texture is produced. When an extra warp of figured, or the figured, and the plain, are woven together, the weave shows on both sides. If a single warp is employed, two or more wefts form the figure, and the warp seldom floats upon the surface. Where warps do form the figure it rarely happens that more than three can be used without overpowering the red.

Fig. 17 gives the design, and a transverse section of a reversible tapestry in four colours, two of which are warps and two wefts. The flowers on the surface, corresponding threads are beneath. The bend lines represent weft and warp threads, and no reverse figure is obtained from plain ones in having threads of one, or more than one, thick fibres of a thick and thin texture; and, or, in having other threads from which a fixed number of a single warp and two wefts are removed. In the latter case, the warp thread is removed, the loom all threads are cut by pushing a knife lengthwise between the plain cloth and the pile. As each pick is formed, pieces rise vertically and the fibres open out as at B. Since the pile threads are from two to six times as numerous as the ground threads, and from an immense number of places, a uniform brush-like surface is formed. Raised figures are produced by carrying the threads A beneath the ground cloth, where no figure is obtained. The knife is to be applied to those portions of the pile weft that remain on the surface. The effect upon the face varies with the distribution of the binding points, and the length of pile is determined by the distance separating one point from another.

Chenille.—When chenille is used in the construction of figured weft-pile fabrics it is necessary to employ two weaving operations, namely, to furnish the chenille, the other to place it in the final fabric. Chenille is made from groups of warp threads that are separated from each other by considerable intervals; then, multicoloured wefts are passed from side to side in accordance with a predetermined scheme. This fabric is next cut midway between the groups of warp into longitudinal strips, and, if reversible fabrics such as table-covers and curtains are required, each strip is twisted axially, the warp threads from the centre of the fabric, and form a cylinder of pile. In the second weaving this chenille is folded back and forward in a second warp to lay the pile threads in their appointed places and pile projects on both sides of the fabric. If chenille is intended for light warps, the ends of the pile are bent in one direction, and then woven into the upper surface of a strong ground texture.

Velvets and Plushes have at least two series of warp threads to one of weft, and are more varied in structure than weft-piled fabrics, because they may be either plain or figured, and have their surfaces cut, looped, or both. Velvets and Plushes are woven single and double. In the former case both ground and pile warps are interlaced with the weft, but at intervals of two or three picks the pile threads are lifted over a wire, which is subsequently withdrawn. The pile threads are bound with a knot at its outer extremity, in withdrawing it the pile threads are cut, but if the wire is pointed a line of loops remains, as in terry velvet. Fig. 19 is the design, and two longitudinal sections of a Utrecht velvet. The circles A are weft threads, the bent line is a pile thread, part of which is shown cut, another part being looped over a wire. At B the circles are repeated to show how the ground warps interlace with the weft. Double Plushes consist of two distinct ground textures which are kept far enough apart to ensure the requisite length of pile. As weaving proceeds the pile threads are interlaced with each series of ground threads, and the other. The pile material is next severed midway between the upper and lower textures, and two equal fabrics result. Fig. 20 gives three longitudinal sections of a double pile fabric. The circles A, B are warp threads in the upper and lower fabrics respectively; the lines of interface with these wefts are pile warp threads which pass vertically from one fabric to the other. At C, D the circles are repeated to show how the ground warps interlace the wefts, and at E the arrows indicate the butt warps or wefts. Figured Warp-pile Fibres are made with regular and irregular cut and looped surfaces. If regular, the effect is due to colour, and this again may be accomplished in various ways, such as (a) by knotting tufts of coloured threads upon a warp, as in Eastern carpets; (b) by printing a fabric after it leaves the loom; (c) by printing each pile thread before placing it in a loom, so that a pattern shall be formed simultaneously with a pile surface, as in tapestry carpets; (d) by providing several sets of pile threads, no two of which are similar in colour; in those, if five sets are available, one-fifth of all the pile warp must be lifted over each edge, but any one of five colours may be selected that differ in colour or costume as in Brussels and Wilton carpets. Fig. 21 is the design, and a longitudinal section of a Brussels carpet. The circles represent two tiers of weft, and the lines of pile threads, when not lifted over a wire to form loops, are laid between the wefts; the ground warp threads with the pile to bind the whole together. When the surface of a piled fabric is irregular, also when cut and looped pile are used in combination, the pile is more dependent upon colour, for in the Fig. 22—Plain Gauze.

Plain Gauze embodies the principles that underlie the construction of all crossed woven textiles. In these fabrics the twisting of two warp threads together leaves large interstices between both warp and weft. But although light and open in texture, gauze fabrics are the thinnest that can be made from a given quantity and quality of material. One warp thread from each pair is made to cross the other very near, and the ground thread to the left alternately, therefore the same threads are above every pick, but since in crossing from side to side they pass below the remaining threads, all are bound securely together, as in fig. 22, where A is a longitudinal section and B a plan of gauze.

Punch Gauze may be made in many ways, such as (a) by using crossing threads that differ in length from the remaining threads, provided they are subjected to slight tensile strain; (b) by causing some to twist to the right, others to the left simultaneously; (c) by combining a gauze with another weave, as plain twill, satin, brocade or pile; (d) by varying the number of threads that cross, and by causing those threads to entwine several ordinary threads; (e) by passing two or more warp threads into each weft, and operating any assortment of crossing threads at pleasure.
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Lappet weaving consists in diapering the surface of a plain or gauze fabric with simple figures. This is done by drawing certain warp threads into a transverse position and then lifting them over a thread of weft to fix them in the texture; after which they are moved in the opposite direction and lifted over the following pick. The material between one binding point and another must float loosely, and this limits the usefulness of lappet figuring. In fig. 23, the thick lines show a lappet spot upon a plain texture. Notwithstanding diverse structure, intricate mechanisms are not essential to the production of either simple or complex textures; the most elaborate and beautiful specimens of the weaver’s art have been manufactured upon simple machinery.

Weaving Machinery.

The longitudinal threads of a fabric are called warp, caine, twist and organize, and the transverse threads are weft, shoot, wool, filling and tram. A loom for intersecting these several threads must provide for: (1) Shedding; namely, raising and lowering the warp threads in a predetermined sequence so as to form two lines between which the weft may be passed. (2) Picking, or placing lines of weft between the divided warp. (3) Beating-up, or striking each weft thread into its appointed position in the fabric. (4) Letting-off, or holding the warp tense and delivering it as weaving proceeds. (5) Taking-up, or drawing away the cloth as manufactured. (6) Temple, for stretching the fabric widthwise in order to prevent the edge threads of a warp from injuring the reed, and from breaking. Power looms require the above-named contrivances to act automatically, and in addition: (7) A weft-fork, to stop a loom when the weft becomes exhausted or breaks. (8) Mechanism for stopping a loom when the shuttle fails to reach its appointed box. (9) For weaving cross stripes, multiple shuttle boxes are needed to bring different colours, or counts of weft, into use at the proper time. (10) In some looms a device for automatically ejecting a spent cop, pin or shuttle, and inserting a full one, is requisite. (11) If a weaver has to attend to a greater number of looms than usual, a device for stopping a loom when a warp thread fails is essential.

The Hand-Loom.—During the 17th and the first half of the 18th centuries it was observed that wherever any branch of the textile industry had been carried to a high state of excellence the looms are laid in open steps formed in the loom framing. Two ropes are coiled round this beam, and weighted to prevent the warp from being given off too freely. From the beam the threads pass alternately over and under two fixed rods, the shuttle passing through the eyes of the shedding harness, in pairs between the dents of a reed, and finally they are attached to a cloth roller. For small patterns heads are used to form sheds, but for large ones a Jacquard machine is required. Heads may be made to shed, or to pick up, into which metal eyes, called mails, are threaded. But they usually consist of a number of strings which are secured above and below upon wooden laths called shafts, and each string is knotted near the middle to form a small eye. From two to twenty-four pairs of shafts may be employed, but the heads they carry must collectively equal the number of threads in the warp. These heads will be automatically discharged in the same order as in the nature of the pattern to be woven, and the threads will be drawn through the eyes in a predetermined order. The upper shafts are suspended from pulleys or levers, and the lower ones are attached directly to batten or to a weight placed near the floor. The weaver depresses these treadles with his feet in a sequence suited to the pattern, and the scheme of drawing the warp through the heads.

Fig. 25.—Weaver’s Reed.

by which weft is beaten into position in the cloth; it also determines the closeness of the warp threads, and guides a moving shuttle from side to side. It is made by placing strips of flattened wire between two half round ribs of wood, and binding the whole together by passing tarred twine between the wires and round the ribs. Such a reed is placed in the lower portion of a batten, which is suspended from the upper framework of the loom. In front of the reed, and immediately below the warp, the projecting batten forms a race for the shuttle to travel upon from side to side. Before Kay’s invention a shuttle was thrown between the divided warp and caught at the opposite selvage, but Kay continued the projecting batten on both sides of the warp space, and was the first to make the shuttle pass through each box he mounted a spindle, and upon it a driver, or picker. Bands connected both pickers to a stick which the weaver held in his right hand, while with the left hand he controlled the batten. Thus: a tredle is pressed down by one foot to form a shed; the batten is pushed back till a sufficient portion of the shed is brought in front of the reed, and the depressed threads lie upon the shuttle race; a clear way is thus provided for the shuttle. A quick movement of the stick tightens the cord attached to a picker and presents the shuttle from one box to the other. The batten is now drawn forward, and the reed beats up the weft left by the shuttle. As the next shuttle is depressed to form another division of the warp for the return movement of the shuttle, the last length of weft is enveloped between intersecting warp threads, and the remaining movements follow in regular succession (see fig. 26).

In cases where the weft forms part of the design across a fabric, also where different counts of weft are used, shuttles, equal in number

Fig. 24.—Diagram of Hand-Loom.

used to manufacture a given fabric were similar in essentials, although in structural details they differed greatly. Prior to the invention of the fly shuttle by John Kay, in 1733, no far-reaching invention had for generations been applied to the hand-loom, and subsequently the Jacquard machine and multiple shuttle boxes represent the chief changes. A hand-loom as used in Europe at the present time (see fig. 24) has the warp coiled evenly upon a beam whose guides
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control of a warp thread. The strings passed through a drilled board which held the mails and warp threads facing the proper reed dents. Still higher up, groups of strings were connected to neck cords; each group consisted of all strings required to rise and fall together in the same manner. Additionally, there were twelve repeats of a design, twelve strings would be tied to the same neck cord, but taken to their respective places in the comb board. The foregoing points are clearly shown in fig. 27. A is line formed for every shed required and they were pulled in succession by the draw-boy, while the weaver attended to the batten and picking.

The Jacquard machine is that most important invention ever applied to the handloom, but it is not the work of one man; it represents the efforts of several inventors whose labours extended over three-quarters of a century. This apparatus has taken the places of the simple, the loops, the pulleys and the draw-boy of the older shedding motion, but other parts of the harness remain unchanged. In 1725 Basile Bouchon substituted for the bunches of looped string an endless band of perforated paper by which the simples for any shed could be selected. In 1728 M. Falcon constructed the machine since known as the Jacquard and operated it through the medium of perforated cards, but it was attached to the simple cords and required a drum of the conical shape, and restored to the needles by each downward movement, so that each face in succession is presented to the needles, and each rotatory movement brings forward a fresh card. As the griffe rises with vertical head, the bunched string is replaced in the cylinder by a new one. As the shed descends to the original position, the whole cycle is repeated. The Jacquard system has undergone many modifications, and its present state is that in which it is worked in the modern loom. The most far-reaching changes are directly due to efforts made to adapt the Jacquard to fast running power looms. Alfred Barlow, John and William Crossley, and others, devised means whereby two cards could control the same warp thread, and they provided the machine with two griffes, each capable of actuating alternate rows of hooks. One griffe was caused to ascend as the other descended, thus making it possible to raise more than one shed simultaneously, and to give greater certainty of action to the moving parts.弱点

Preparing Warp and Weft for Weaving.—The power loom is only one of a series of machines which revolutionized weaving. Although various mechanical devices have been invented to mechanize the weaving process, the commercial results were disappointing, chiefly because means had not been devised for preparing warp and weft in a suitable manner for such a machine.

Warp Winding.—Warp yarns invariably receive simpler treatment than weft yarns. The component operations of winding and gauging pass direct to the loom unless their dimensions are unsuited to the shuttles, in which case they, together with wefts, are wound on bobbins or coils in a suitable manner. Winding operations are performed by winding machines which vary in construction, but the majority are furnished with conical shuttles, consisting either of slip cups, or of cone rollers mounted upon spindles. A pin, whose head is coned to fit the shuttle, is wound on a bottom, either vertically or horizontally, through a shaver; the lower end of the spindle being flattened to enter a rectangular hole in a wharve which is driven from a central motor, connected to the shuttle by a sliding guider leads it to and fro inside the shuttle. Both spindle and pin recede from the shuttle until the pin is full, when they become stationary. Hanks are carried by yokes, and coils and ring spools are used. Each of these four methods of holding the loom is subject to various types of shafts, which they coil upon bare spindles. By this means a greater length of weft can be placed in a shuttle than when pins are used.
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Warp winding consists in transferring yarn from cops, ring spools or hanks, either to warps, bobbins or cheeses (see Cotton-Spinning Machinery). Machines for this purpose are of two kinds, which are known respectively as spindle and drum. In the former each bobbin, or "spindle," is provided with a separate mechanism to place the yarn on it; or a yarn guide moves laterally to and fro; slowly for a bobbin, but quickly for a tube.

**Warping.**—The number of longitudinal threads in a web varies according to the nature of the material to be woven and its desired thickness. In these respects the warp has to provide a sufficient number of parallel threads for a web, all of equal length, and to retain their parallelism. Warpers are of three types, viz., mill, beam and sectional.

In a mill warper, the threads pass through a number of guides in extensive use. A mill warper has a creel in which 50 to upwards of 300 bobbins or cheeses are supported horizontally upon pegs, and the mill has a vertical axis. Warps are made to the bobbins as they are required; the ones are fixed about 1 ft. apart to form a reel, from 5 to upwards of 20 yds., in circumference. The threads from the creel are threaded in succession through leasing needles, then passed in groups of four to twenty threads between runners, and, finally, fastened by a peg to the mill staves. The needles are mounted alternately in two frames which may be moved up inclined planes; one to elevate odd threads, the other even, and these are separated upwards by pegs, this is the license which enables a weaver to readily fix the position of a broken thread. As the mill rotates the threads form a tape about 1 in. wide, and the leasing apparatus is allowed to pass, to form a warp. When the full length of warp has been made the mill is stopped, a half beer lease is picked by hand from the divisions formed by the runners, and also retained upon pegs. The mill next reverses its direction and the last 20 sections of threads are folded back upon themselves. Hence, if a reel is 20 yds. in circumference, and 200 threads are in use to make a warp 600 yds. long, and the warp is to be satinated, the mill must be reversed 300 times, with 36000 revolutions of its axis horizontally the leasing apparatus must slide horizontally.

**Winding on Beam.**—After a ball warp has been bleached, dried or sized, the half bale are laid amongst the teeth of a coarse comb to 300 for each section, then they are arranged in a single beam, and in condition they are coiled upon a loom beam.

**Beam warping** is the system most extensively used in the cotton trade. The creels for these machines have an average capacity of about 600 bobbins, and are often V-shaped in plan. In each leg of the V, the bobbins are arranged in tiers of 16 to 20, and row behind row. The threads are drawn separately between the dents of an adjacent comb, passing over a number of rollers, and as they are dropped amongst the teeth of an adjustable comb and led down to a warp, which rises upon the surface of a drum. As the drum rotates the threads are drawn from the bobbins and wound upon a working bed, on which the entire warping mechanism is attached for arresting motion on the fracture of a thread, and also for accurately measuring and counting the lengths of warp; and the latter is of greater length than are needed for any warp, but they are insufficient in number. Thus, if 500 threads are in use, and warps of the above-named particulars are required, four similar beams must be filled (2000 + 200 = 10). When a warp is complete, the threads are passed through the loom, and it is coiled into a ball, assumedly by being immersed in a bath of water; and here, and in the case of the warp, the moisture is taken up by the yarn, which contain a small quantity of water, sufficient to submerge the rollers. This process does not lay all the lose fibres, but the threads remain elastic. After sizing, the warps are passed backwards and forwards, and over and under, a set of steam-heated cylinders by which the moisture contained in the threads is evaporated; they are next either robbed, or wound upon a loom beam.

**Slasher sizing.**—For sizing cotton yarn Radcliffe's dressing machine is used. This machine has to a large extent been discarded with effect to some branches of the textile industry it is still retained under various modifications. In a slasher the threads from a number of warping beams are divided into a set of fine threads which pass through steam pipes; and next squeezed between two pairs of rollers mounted in the trough. The undersize of the sizing rollers are in the size, but all the water is squeezed out and the desired amount of water is applied, by gravity upon the lower ones. On leaving the size trough the sheet of yarn almost encircles two steam-heated cylinders whose diameters are respectively about 6 ft. and 4 ft.; these quickly expel moisture from the yarn, but so much heat is generated that fans have to be employed to throw cool air amongst the threads. The yarn is next measured, passed above and below rods which separate threads that have been lastened together by size, smeared with piece marks, and coiled upon a loom beam by means of a slipping sliding gear. The last-named is employed so that the speed of winding shall not be affected by the increasing diameter of the yarn beam, for which reasons special gearing has been adopted. The pitch of the gearing, and the number of the moving parts, much necessary labour may be performed without actually stopping the machine; this relieves the yarn from strain, and gives better sizing, yet slashed warps are less elastic than dried, or ballled sizes, and they lack the smoothness of dressed warps.

**Hank sizing** is chiefly, but not exclusively, employed for bleached and coloured yarns. Machines for doing this work consist of a take wheel of some size, and a number of wormed or helical hooks. One hook is made to rotate a definite number of times in one direction, then an equal number the reverse way; the other has a weight suspended from its own hook, which is suspended in a series of pendulums. The pendulums are arranged so that all the sections of the pendulums are moved; and which are then removed. Most of the parts of the machine are operated by steam, and the size of the yarn is regulated by adjusting the number of the hooks, which is regulated by adjusting the number of steam pipes, and " doles" of hanks are suspended from the rollers with about one-third their length immersed in size. As the hanks rotate all parts of them enter the size applicator, which is arranged above the disks, removed from the rollers to the hooks where they are twisted to wring out excess, and force in required size. If sufficient size has not been added by one treatment, when unwound, the unwrapped hanks are passed to a similar machine containing past of greater density than the first there to be again treated; if necessary this may
be followed by a third passage. On the completion of sizing the hanks are removed either to a drying stove or a drying machine. If to the former, they are suspended from fixed, horizontal poles in a specially heated and ventilated chamber. If to the latter, loose poles are used, where the hanks are dropped, and slowly carried through a large, heated and ventilated box, being partially rotated while in the box. On reaching the front of the box they are supported on special frames, and the hanks are made over a warp, that is, wound and transferred to a loom beam.

Drawing-in, or entering, is the operation of passing warp threads through the eyes of a shedding harness, in a sequence determined by the by-warp, which had to be arranged in such a manner as to ensure the shedding of the warp through the several parts. It is effected by passing a hook through each harness eye in succession, and each time a thread is placed in the hook by an attendant, it is drawn in by the withdrawal of the handle.

Twisting or looming consists in twisting, between the finger and thumb, the ends of a new warp separately upon those of an old one, and, after a number of sets, or parts thereof, the warp is laid on the reed. The twisted portions adhere sufficiently to permit of all being drawn through the eyes simultaneously.

The Power Loom.—Little is known of the attempts made before the beginning of the 17th century to control all parts of a loom from one centre, but it is certain the practical outcome was inconsiderable. In the year 1661, a loom was set up in Danzig, for which a claim was made that it could weave four or six sets at a time without human aid, and he worked night and day; this was probably a ribbon loom. In order to prevent such a machine from injuring the poor people, the authorities in Poland suppressed it, and privately strangled or destroyed it. The Frenchman, M. de Gennes, a French naval officer, in 1678 invented a machine whose chief features consisted in controlling the healds by cams, the batten bycams and springs and the shuttle by a carrier. From 1748 to 1755 little of importance appears to have been done in France for the mechanical weaving of broadcloth. But in the last-named year M. Vaucanson constructed a very ingenious, self-acting loom, on which the fore-runner of the Jacquard machine was mounted as the carrier. All early attempts to employ mechanical motive power for weaving failed, largely because inventors did not realize that the success could only be reached through revolution. Mechanical preparing and spinning machinery had first to be invented, before steam was needed for motive power, and the industry required reorganization, which included the abolition of home labour and the introduction of the factory system.

During the last quarter of the 18th century it was generally believed on the authority of Arkwright’s patents, that many spinning mills would be erected as to render it impossible to consume at home the yarns thus produced, and to export them would destroy the weaving industry. Many manufacturers also maintained it to be impossible to devise machinery which would bring the production of cloth up to that of yarn. It was as a protest against the last-named assertions that Dr. Edmund Cartwright, a clergyman of the church of England, turned his attention to the mechanical weaving of cloth. He was fortunate than his predecessors, he attacked the problem after much initial work had been done, especially that relating to mechanical spinning and the preparation of the yarn, but we do not pretend to chronicle.

In 1785 Dr. Cartwright patented his first power loom, but it proved to be valueless. In the following year, however, he patented another loom which has served as the model for later inventions. He was conscious that for a mechanically driven loom to become a commercial success, either one person would have to attend several machines, or each machine must have a greater productive capacity than one manually controlled. The thought and ingenuity bestowed by Dr. Cartwright upon the realization of his idea were remarkable. He added parts which no loom, whether worked manually or mechanically, had previously been provided with, namely, a positive let-off motion, warp and weft motions, and sizing the warp while the loom was in action. With this machine he commenced, at Doncaster, to manufacture fabrics, and by so doing discovered many of its shortcomings, and these he attempted to improve by introducing and replacing the wheels that actuated the batten differentially; by improving the picking mechanism; by a device for stopping the loom when a shuttle failed to enter a shuttle box; by preventing a shuttle from being driven in the wrong direction; and by cutting the cloth with temples that acted automatically. In 1792 Dr. Cartwright obtained his last patent for weaving machinery: this provided the loom with multiple shuttle boxes for weaving checks and cross stripes. But all his efforts were unavailing; it became apparent that no mechanism, however perfect, could succeed so long as warp continued to be sized while a loom was stationary. His plans for sizing them while a loom was in operation, and of having a warp box in which they could be being when in a box; and by withdrawing the warps before the loom was stopped.

Still, provided continuity of action could be attained, the position of the power loom was assured, and means for the attainment of this end was provided, by Wilkins, in 1805, and by Thomas Johnson, by their inventions of the beam warper, and the dressing sizing machine.

For upwards of thirty years the power loom was worked under numerous mechanical arrangements, and many bad been acquainted, organization, and the preparatory processes. Textile workers were unused to automatic machinery, and many who had been accustomed to labour in their own homes refused employment in mills, owing to dislike of the factory system and the long hours of toil which it entailed, that spinners and manufacturers were compelled to procure assistants from workhouses; this rendered mill life more distasteful than it otherwise would have been to hand spinners and weavers. Yet improvements in every branch of the textile industry followed each other in quick succession, and the loom slowly assumed its present shape. By using iron instead of wood in its construction, and the battens, or slay, being instead of above the warp line, the power loom became more compact than the hand-loom.

Motion is communicated to all the working parts from a main shaft A (fig. 28), upon which two cranks are bent to cause the shaft B to oscillate; by toothed wheels this shaft, drives a second shaft, C, at half its own speed. For plain weaving four tappets are fixed upon the second shaft, two, D, for moving the shuttle to and fro, and two, E, for shedding the warp, the shed being similarly divided into four parts by a system of levers, F, G, H, and I, for moving them. For pattern weaving, numerous, are either loosely mounted upon the second shaft, or fixed upon a separate one. In either event they are driven by additional gearing, for the revolutions of the tappets to those of the crank shaft must be as one to the number of picks in the repeat of the pattern to be woven. Also, when two or more shuttles are driven successively from the same side of a loom, if the picking tappets rotate with the second shaft, those tappets must be free to slide axially in order to keep one out of action so long as the other is required to act. The warp beam F is often put under the control of chains instead of ropes, as used in hand looms, and the chains are attached to adjustable weighted levers, G, whereby the effectiveness of the weights may be varied at pleasure. In the manufacture of heavy fabrics, however, it may be necessary to deliver the warp by positive gearing, which is either connected, or otherwise, to the taking-up motion. The cloth is drawn forward regularly as it is manufactured by passing it over the rough surface of a roller, I, and imparting to the roller an intermittent motion each time a pick of weft is beaten home. This motion is derived from the oscillating slay, and is communicated through a train of wheels. The loom is stopped when the weft falls by a fork-and-grid stop motion, which depends for its action the lightly balanced prongs of a fork, N. These prongs come in contact with the weft, between the selvage of the web and the shuttle box each time the shuttle is shot to the side at which the apparatus is fixed. If the prongs meet no threads they are not depressed, and being unmoored a connexion is formed with a vibrating lever, J; the latter draws the fork forward, and with it a second lever G, by which the loom is stopped. On the other hand, if the prongs are tilted, the loom continues in action. If more than one shuttle is used it may be necessary to feel for each, instead of alternate threads of weft. In such cases a fork is placed beneath the centre of the cloth and lifted above a moving shuttle: if in future it meets with weft it is arrested, and the loom continues in motion, but if the weft is absent the prongs fall far enough beneath the
shuttle race for a stop to act upon a lever and bring the loom to a stand. To prevent a complete wreck of the warp it is essential to arrest the loom when a shuttle fails to reach its appointed box. For this purpose there are two devices, which are known respectively as the "tack winder" and the "tack." In England in 1819/20 the device was invented by Robert Miller, and its action depends upon the shuttle as it enters a box, raising two blades, K, which if left down would strike against stops, and so prevent the movement of the loom. In 1829 W. H. Hornby and William Kenworthy; it is an appliance for liberating the lower part of a reed when a shuttle remains in the warp, thus relieving it, for the time being, of its function in the weaving process. For this purpose the reed is divided into two sections and a bar is placed near the selvages of a web which is prevented from contracting sideways by being drawn tightly over the points.

Looking up to the eight to upwards of forty tapes kinds of warp, but as a rule those figured with small patterns are provided with heads for shedding as at L, while those with large patterns are provided with the Jacquard and its harness. Heads may be operated either by tappets or bobbins, but the range of usefulness in tappets is generally reached with twelve shafts of healds and with patterns having sixteen picks to a repeat; where they are unsuitable for heald shedding a dobby is used. A dobby may resemble, in construction, one of those figured for气体, except for the arrangement that rise and fall for any pick is made by cards. In other types of dobby's the selection is frequently made by lags, into which pegs and hooks are introduced and by which the shed is obtained. By acting upon levers the pegs bring corresponding hooks into contact with oscillating griffe bars, and these lift the required healds. Such machines are made single and double acting, and some have recently been designed in which the healds instead of being a separate selection, are required for power looms one of two types is selected, namely, drop or rotating boxes; the former are applicable to either light or heavy looms, but the latter are chiefly confined to light looms. As previously stated, Robert Kay invented drop boxes in 1767, but they were not successfully applied to the power loom until 1845, when Squire Diggle patented a simple device for operating them. In its first form it was found that the pins by which the shed is introduced, the most successful of these being operated indirectly from the shedding motion. Revolving boxes were patented in 1843 by Lake Smith. They consist in mounting a series of shuttles in cylinders, in which they are self- lubricated and can be moved in the cylinder far enough, in each direction, to bring the required shuttle in line with the picker.

Automatic Weft Supply.—Many devices have been added to power looms with a view to reduce stoppages, amongst whose for the automatic supply of weft are probably the most important. These efforts originated with Charles Parker, who, in 1850, obtained the patent for a system very similar in construction to that of William H. Northrop, which was patented in 1854. The machine is a simple affair, when J. H. Northrop patented a cop changer. By his plan a cylindrical hopper, placed over one shuttle box, is charged with cops or pirns. At the instant fresh weft becomes necessary the loom is stopped and the lower part of the ground beam is raised above the level of the shed, the spent one is pressed out of the shed, and the new weft is lifted into the shuttle eye, while the loom is moving at its normal speed. The motion of the shuttle is occasioned by a stop, or by a feeder which acts only when a predeterminate quantity of weft has been consumed. Many inventions are designed to effect an empty shuttle and introduce a full one; others change a cop, but differ in construction and action from the Northrop, yet, at the time of writing, they have not been so successful as the last-named. By relieving a Weaver of the labour of withdrawing, filling, threading and inserting shuttles it was seen that a large increase might be made in the number of looms and loom work. The system was adopted on a large scale when the Northrop was patented.

Warp Stopping Motions date from 1786, when Dr. Cartwright suggested it as one of the improvements in his loom. A fracture occurred, at which time a detector fell into the path of a vibrator and the loom was arrested. The demand for warp stop motions was, however, small until automatic weft supply mechanisms were adopted. The majority of these devices now in use are constructed upon Dr. Cartwright's lines, but some are so attached to weft heads that, at one position in every shed, an unbroken thread causes both warps and the detector until a thread fails, when a detector is engaged by a vibration of a ratchet and self-located. In other warp stop motions pairs of threads are crossed between the reed and rod, and a wire passed between them is held by the wire to return the shed. In each of the warp reed there is a spring back, makes contact with a metal bar, and electro-mechanical connections stop the loom.

Smallwares. — A loom, which was for a long period operated manually, was brought into use more than a century before Dr. Cartwright's invention. It was known as the Dutch engine loom, and was designed to weave from a reed built in one frame, each having a complete set of parts, and as the first practical effort to connect and control all the motions of weaving from one centre. The place and date of its invention are uncertain; but it is known that in some districts its use was entirely prohibited, in others it was strictly limited, and that it was worked in Holland and the eastern parts of England about the middle of the eighteenth century by John and John Snell, in 1745, for additions which enabled it to be worked by hand, by water, or other force, and in 1760 John Snell appears to have invented the device by which the reed can be raised by means of a horizontal bar that set in motion all parts of the machine. The shuttles and reeds are actuated from the batten, the former originally by pegs, but later by a rack and pinion arrangement, which in action is of the type of the familiar eighteenth-century loom as the eye, of each, was sharpened. It was the only type of loom to which the由中国 word "MACHINERY" could be applied, as the only machine looms are those in which the picking parts are moved by means of motions of the loom which are independent of the active part.

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In Double Pick Looms the special features are those that control the pick threads, and those that sever the vertical lines of pile. Two ground warps are requisite, and unless they are kept a uniform length the pick threads cannot be reasonably well worked. The lower warp, or pick threads are also made to differ from each other to suit the type of fabric to be manufactured, as, for example, double and single, plain or figured, and their textures.

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series that separate one line of loops from another. At such times the weft is not beaten home, but a broad crack is formed. So soon as the reed again moves through its normal space three picks of weft "are simultaneously driven home, thus closing the gap, and causing part of the pile to loop upward, the remaining downward. The system is available for plain and figured effects.

_Gauze Textures_ are woven in looms having a modified shedding harness, which, at predetermined intervals, draws certain warp threads crosswise beneath others, and lifts them while crossed. Also, a tensioning device to slacken the crossed threads and thus prevent breakages due to excessive strain. At other times the shedding is normal.

_Lappet Looms_ have a series of needles fixed upright in laths, and placed in a groove cut in the slay, in front of the reed. Each needle carries a thread which does not pass through the reed, hence, by giving the laths an endless movement of varying extent, and lifting the needles for each pick, their threads are laid crosswise in the web to pattern.

**ARCHAEOLOGY AND ART**

The archaeology of shuttle-weaving shows that for ages the use of a loom for weaving plain, as distinct from ornamental or figured textiles, whether of fibres or of spun threads, has been practically universal, whilst the essential points of its construction have been almost uniform in character. An early stage in its development, anterior probably to that when the spinning of threads had been invented, is represented by the loom or frame (see fig. 29) used by a native of Sarawak to make a textile with shreds of grass. As will be seen, the shreds of grass for the warp are divided into groups by a flat sword-shaped implement which serves as the batten (Latin _spatha_). The shuttle is passed above it, leaving a weft of grass in between the warp; the batten is then moved upwards and compresses the weft into the warp; this method of pressing the wefts upwards was usually employed by Egyptian and Greek weavers for their linen textiles of beautiful quality. Fig. 30 gives us an Indian

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**Fig. 29.**—Loom from Sarawak.

**Fig. 30.**—Indian Hill Tribesman's Loom.

Hill tribesman weaving with spun threads; but here we find the loom fitted with rudely constructed headdresses, by which the weaver lifts and lowers alternate ranks of warp threads so that he may throw his shuttle-carried weft across and between them. Besides the headdresses there is a hanging reed or comb, and between the reeds of it the warp threads are passed and fastened to a roller or cylinder. After throwing his shuttle once or twice backwards and forwards, the weaver pulls the comb towards himself, thereby pressing his weft and warp together, thus making the textile which he gradually winds from time to time on to the roller. This advance in the construction of the loom is also virtually of undatable age; and except for more substantial construction, there is little difference in main principles between it and the medieval loom of fig. 31. With such looms, and by arranging coloured warp threads in a given order and then weaving into them coloured shuttle or weft threads, simple textiles with stripes and chequer patterns could be, and were, produced; but textiles of complex patterns and textures necessitated the more complicated apparatus that belongs to a later stage in the evolution of the loom. Fig. 32 is from a Chinese drawing, illustrating the description given in a Chinese book published in 1210 on the art of weaving intricate designs. The traditions and records of such figured weavings are far older than the date of this book. As spun silken threads were brought into use, so the development of looms with increasing numbers of headings and other mechanical facilities for this sort of weaving seems to have started. But as far back as 2690 B.C., the Chinese were the only cultivators of silk, the delicacy and fineness of which must have postulated possibilities in weaving far beyond those of looms in which grasses, wools and flax were used. It therefore is probably correct to credit the Chinese with being the earlier inventors of looms for weaving figured silks, which in course of time other nations (acquainted only with wool and flax textiles) saw with wonder. At the comparatively modern period of 300 B.C. Chinese dexterity in fine-figured weaving had become matured and was apparently in advance of any other elsewhere. Designs were being woven by the Chinese of the earlier Han Dynasty 206 B.C. as elaborate almost

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1 E. Pariset, _Histoire de la soie_ (Paris, 1862).
as of those of the present day, with dragons, phoenixes, mystical bird forms, flowers and fruits. At that time even Egypt, Assyria or Babylonia, Greece and Rome, seem to have been only learning of the fact that there was such a material as silk. Their shuttle-weaving had been and was then concerned with spun wool and flax and possibly some cotton, whilst the ornamentation of their textiles, although sparkling on occasion with golden threads, was done apparently not by shuttle-weaving but by embroidery, a sort of comparable weaving and weaving from which tapestry weaving descended (see Tapestry). The range of their colours was limited, reds, purples and yellows being the chief; and their shuttle-weaving was principally concerned with plain stuffs, and in a much smaller degree with striped, spotted and chequered fabrics. Remains of these, whether made by Egyptians thousands of years B.C., by Scandinavians of the early Bronze Age, by lake dwellers, by Aztecs or Peruvians long before the Spanish Conquest, display little if any technical difference when compared with those woven by nomads in Asia, hill tribes in India and natives in Central Africa and islands of the Pacific. Such ornamental effect as is seen in them depends upon the repetition of stripes or very simple crossing forms, still this principle of repetition is a prominent factor in more intricate designs which are shuttle-woven in broad looms and lengths of stuff.

The world's apparent indebtedness to the Chinese for knowledge of figured shuttle-weaving leads to some consideration of their early overland commerce westwards. About 200 B.C. during the Han Dynasty, these traders had extended beyond inner Asia to the confines of the Graeco-Parthian empire, then at its zenith, and the protection of the route by which the Seres (Chinese) sent their merchandise to Parthia (of great importance) some 73 years later the emperor of China sent a certain Chang Kien on a mission to the Indo-Syrians; and according to his records the people as far west as Bactria (adjacent to the Graeco-Parthian territory) knew weaving, and amongst other things understood the preparation of silk. Chinese weavings had for some time been coming into Persia, and doubtless instigated the more skilled weavers there to adapt their shuttle looms in course of time to the weaving of stuffs with greater variety of effects than had been hitherto obtained by them; and into Persian designs were introduced details taken not only from Chinese textiles, but also from sculptured, embroidered and other ornament of Graeco-Parthian and earlier Babylonian styles. In A.D. 97 Chinese enterprise in still furthering their trade relations with the Far West is at least suggested by the fact that envoys from the emperor of China to Rome actually reached the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, but turned back frightened by the Parthian accounts of the terrors of the sea voyage.

Early in the 3rd century A.D. Heliogabalus is reputed to have been amongst the first of the Roman emperors to wear garments entirely of silk (holosericum), which, if figured (as is not unlikely), were probably of Syrian or Persian manufacture. Sidonius Apollinaris (5th c. A.D.) writes of Persian patterned stuffs, "of brilliant cushions and stuffs on which, produced by a miracle of art, we behold the fierce Parthian with his head turned back on a prancing steed; now escaping, now turning to hurl his spear, by turns fleeing from and putting to flight wild animals whom he pursues" — a description quite appropriate to such silk weaving as that in fig. 33.

A number of kindred pieces have been recovered of late years from Egyptian burial-places of the Roman period. The Persians of the Sassanian dynasty (3rd to 7th century) traded in silks with Romans and Byzantines; King Chosroes (about 570) encouraged the trade, and ornamental weaving seems to have been an industry of some stability in Bagdad and other towns north, east and south, e.g. Haramand, Kavzin Kashan, Yazd Persepolis, &c. To the north-west of Persia and north of Syria lay the Byzantine region of Anatolia (now Asia Minor), some towns in which became noted for their fine weaves, whilst the mass of the population there was well off in the 6th century, the country highly cultivated and prosperous, and justice fairly administered, thus affording favourable conditions for an industry reached at vice weaving, which had been and was prospering in neighbouring Syrian districts.

2 Aristotle describes the silk-worm and its cocoon. Virgil-Martial and late Roman writers (including Pliny) throw scarcely more light upon the use of silken stuffs than that they were of rarity and great expense by ordinary Roman). Sayings of (see Codex Theodosiius, lib. x. tit. 21, lex 1). In the 5th century the weaving of silk textiles and mantles was prohibited (Codex Theodosiius, lib. x. tit. 21, lex 3).
3 Between the 1st and 6th centuries A.D., then, knowledge of silk and its value in fine weaving was spreading itself, not only in the further western regions of southern Asia, but also in Egypt, where Greek and Roman taste influenced the works of Copti or those...
or Alexandria or other towns in Lower Egypt as well as in Syria. Contemporaneously the development of similar weaving appears to have been proceeding in Byzantine provinces, though perhaps not in so marked a way as when Justinian systematized sericulture and still further stimulated shuttle-weaving in the town of Byzantium (Constantinople) itself in A.D. 552.

For examples of the elaborate figure weavings at that time we have to rely upon such as have been rescued in the service of archaeology from the oblivion of tombs and burial-places. The dates of some specimens can be fixed with almost certainty by means of nearly contemporary records, e.g. those of Sidonius Apollinaris and later Anastasius the Librarian; comparison and classification lead to almost conclusive inferences as to the dates of other examples. Broadly speaking, the earlier of these remains (i.e. from about the 4th to the 7th century) seem to be either of Persian (Sassanian) manufacture and design, or of Syrian and possibly Alexandrian make. Christian subjects were occasionally introduced into the designs. Between the 7th and the 13th centuries Byzantine manufactures came to the fore, and it is difficult if not impossible now to draw a clear line between those of Roman-Byzantine, Perso-Byzantine and Moslem-Byzantine styles, though one may do so in respect of certain Moslem (Moorish and Saracenic) weavings, which have distinctive features of design, and were produced in the south of Spain and in Sicily about a period from the 10th century to the 13th.

Fig. 35.—Syrian or Anatolian Silk Weaving of the 5th Century, with Samson and the Lion (repeated).

Fig. 36.—Byzantine Red Silk and Gold Thread Weaving of the 11th Century. Pairs of lions and pairs of small birds.

Fig. 37.—Part of Silk Wrapping of the Emperor Charlemagne, possibly of Bagdad manufacture, 9th Century, with Fanciful Elephant and Sacred Tree device in a Roundel.

Fig. 38.—Fragment of Byzantine Silk, 12th Century, with Ogival Framing about pairs of Birds, &c.

Anatolian: of the same date are pieces with scenes of the Annunciation repeated in roundels, and with artistic birds and lions, in the treasury of the Sancta Sanctorum of the Chapel of St Lawrence in
the old Lateran Palace, Rome. Scriptural subjects seem to be typical of those which were condemned by Anatolian and Syrian fathers of the Christian church as early as in the late 4th century, and Astérix, bishop of Amasus, in denouncing the luxury of the rich in flaunting themselves in such inappropriately decorated silks, has left a most useful description of the subjects decorating them. A scheme long maintained in Syrian and Byzantine patterns was that of repeated roundels, within which other than scriptural subjects were woven, e.g., hunters on horseback (as in Fig. 33), fantastic animals and birds, singly or in pairs, confronting one another or back to back, frequently with a sacred tree device between them. A piece of Sassanian silk, probably of the 6th century, shows a griffon practically identical with that sculptured on the patterned saddlecloth of a horse (Chosroes I.) in the archway to the garden of the king’s palace at Kermchah.

Less common perhaps are patterns, without roundel or other framing, composed of animals, birds and the like, formally treated and repeated vertically and horizontally, as in Fig. 36, which is from a silk and gold thread shuttle-weaving classified as Byzantine of the 11th century manufacture. But this style of composition also occurs in a Sassanian or Syrian work, and again in the Cope of St Maxim at Chinon, which is powdered with panthers. Conventional eagles (reminiscent perhaps of the Roman Eagle), with scale patterns on their wings, in the wrappings reputed to have been given by the Empress Placidia for the corpse of St German (448) preserved at the church of St Eugènus at Auxerre. Some likenesses in style may be detected between these latter and a fragment of one of the wrappings of St Cuthbert (d. 688) at Durham, though in this case the elaborate ornamentation is set within a roundel. Prior to the discovery of woven silks in the Alkmn cemeteries, the periods to which the style in association and association had ascribed the Auxerre and Durham specimens were considered too early; but there now seems to be far less reason to question that ascription. Fig. 37 is from part of a silk wrapping of Charlemagne (early 9th century) now at Aix-la-Chapelle. It bears a Greek inscription of the names of Peter, governor of Nogroppo, and Michael, chamberlain of the Imperial Chambers, and this is taken by some authorities as evidence that the weaving was made at Byzantium. On the other hand, Egíndard, Charlemagne’s secretary, has written of gifts, including rich textiles presented in his day by Haroun al Raschid to the emperor, and a fabric like that in question might have been made quite possibly even at Bagdad in the 9th century or earlier. In the 11th century amongst the handkerchief streets in the city of Byzantium were many skilled native and foreign weavers; and their designs generally appear to reflect the style of earlier Persianesque and Syrian taste.

About the 12th century the well-used pattern scheme of roundels became more or less superseded by one of continuous ovals, of ogival framings (see Fig. 38), contemporary with which are narrow and wide bands based on hexagonal and star-shape frames. Within these new varieties of pattern framings recur the Byzantine and Persianesque pairs of birds, animals, &c. But distinct from these is the more restricted style which has been more frequently observed and arises perhaps because of the influence of the Fatimy Khalifs, not only in Syria and Alexandria but also in Sicily and southern Spain. Patterns of this Moslem or Saracenic type are usually composed of a succession of parallel bands—narrow and wide—containing Kufic inscriptions, groups of simple intricate geometrical devices, and occasionally conventional animals and birds. A 13th-century example of this class of pattern has been given elsewhere (see Brocade, Fig. 1).

Almeria, Malaga, Grenada and Seville were notable Moorish weaving places in Spain for such patterned silks and stuffs as these; and even after the Christian conquest of Granada at the end of the 13th century this city retained its celebrity for silks woven "à la Mosquée." In Sicily no similar survival of Saracenic influence seems to have been as strongly maintained, notwithstanding the numerous Saracen weavers at work in the island almost a century and a half years before such silk weaving came to be organized at Palermo under Norman supremacy. According to the usual story, Roger of Sicily, or Roger Guiscard, who in 1117 made a successful raid on the shores of Attica, took Athens, Thessalonica, and a number of Greek (Byzantine) weavers and settled them at Palermo in the factory known as the Hôtel des Tiraz. A mixture of Byzantine

\[1\] See Abécédaire d’archéologie (June 1854).
\[2\] Recherches, &c., by Francisque Michel, t. 40.
WEAVING

and Saracenic styles of textile patterns ensued, and this peculiarity is demonstrated in many of the rich fabrics attributed to south and north Italian weavers from the 12th century onwards. From Palermo

portant part, and possibly was applicable to early brocades. *Carmines* or *Carmakh* (Arab *Kambis*, from the Chinese *Kimtsa*, also brocade) was another handsome stuff corresponding in a way with Indian

 Apparel of a Dalmatic woven in Venice late in the 15th century, with the Virgin in glory.

 the art of ornamental weaving in this style soon extended into the mainland, and from Apulia a bishop of St Evroul in Normandy is mentioned as having obtained a number of silk goods in the 12th century. From the 13th century onwards Lucca, Florence, Milan, Genoa, and Venice became important centres, using not only imported silk, but also such as was then cultivated in Italy, for sericulture had become an Italian industry early in the 13th century. Wandering Saracenic and Byzantine weavers even before that time had strayed or been taken to work at places in Germany, France and Britain, but the output of their productions in northern countries was almost infinitesimal as compared with that of the Far greater Italian output, nevertheless they were sowing the seeds of a harvest to be reaped centuries later by these more northerly European countries.

To the influence of these early sporadic weavings we seem to trace a distinctive class of work, which was done by inmates of monasteries and convents as well as by devout ladies, in little looms, for use as stoles, mantles, orphreys and similar narrow bands. A rhyming chronicler of the 13th century paraphrases the older record by Eginhard of the skill of Charlemagne's daughters in silk weaving, "omer en sole en taillieles" or small looms. The illustrations in fig. 39 give varieties of this class of work between the 7th and 15th centuries, for which Cologne especially seems to have become famous in the 15th century. Venice also made work of corresponding character; and the designs were evidently furnished by or directly adapted from the compositions of such artists as those who produced the notable German and Venetian woodcuts of the 15th century (fig. 40).

Whilst the bulk of the Italian patterned stuffs issuing in great lengths from large looms were of silk, a good many also were woven in wool, or wools intermixed with silk. The designs of the silk textiles—Persian, Syrian, and Byzantine—were of the most varied character: some seem to relate to such materials as sарaцent or taffetas; later in development are satins, damask, brocades, and still later (i.e. about the end of the 14th century) come Italian velvets and cloths of gold, which quite transcended the ancient and less substantial attaцal cloths of the early Roman period. Medieval inventories and records contain many names of textiles, but the exact technical meaning of several of them is uncertain. "Saracden, Saracdn, Saracen" seem to relate to such materials as sаrаcеnt or таffeta: *zetani*, from low Latin, is held by some writers to be of the same class as *samit* or *exammate*, so called because the wattles were only caught at every sixth thread of the warp; *damask*, now regarded as a special class of textile, the ornamentation of which depends upon contrasting sheets in the surface of the stuff, whether of silk or linen, got its name from Damascus, much in the same way as *Baudack* comes from Baдdak, or Bagdad. *Baudack*, and an apparently somewhat earlier word *ciclatoun*, seem to have been general terms for rich-looking textiles, in which gold thread played an im-

[1] See *Recherches, &c.*, by Francisque Michel, i. 93-94.

**FIG. 40.** Part of Orphrey with the Virgin and Child (Siena weaving, 1425-1430).

**FIG. 41.** Part of Orphrey, with the Annunciation (Florentine weaving, late 15th century).

**FIG. 42.** Piece of North Italian Silk Weaving of the 14th century, with pattern planned on an ogival basis with fantastic birds, some of which are of a Chinese type, and Persiansesque cone forms containing sham Arabic inscriptions.

*Sammet* implies velvet, as does the Russian *Axemilt*. Diaper (Italian *diaspro*, meaning patterned) was used not only to denote a regular and geometric pattern but in some cases a special sort of linen or silk. *Muslin* from *Mosul*, and *gauze* from *Gaza*, are two
well-known and kindred textiles. Frequently one meets with odd phrases such as "silk of Bryges" (Bruges), "silk dornex" (from Dornes), "sheets of raynes" (Rheims), and "fusian in Appinies" (Naples fustian).

Many of the foregoing stuffs are identifiable by textures peculiar to them; this is, however, not so as regards their ornamental patterns, for these are frequently interchanged, the same class of patterns appearing in satin damasks, velvets and brocades. This is particularly the case with 13th- and 14th-century Italian stuffs. In the patterns of these, as previously suggested, are strong traces of Saracen and Byzantine motives, intermingled with ladies, heraldic devices, human figures, eagles, falcons, hounds, lions, harts, boards, leopards, rays of light, Persian-Moresque pine cone and cloud forms, and even Chinese mystical birds, symmetrically distributed, without framing, as a rule, though elaborations of the ovial frame or scheme are also met with, but less frequently (see fig. 41). Such fabrics, made in the main by Lucchese weavers, appear to have been traded in with other European countries. But besides trade records, there are others relating to Lucchese weavers who left their own town under stress of circumstances, civil wars and the like, to settle and work elsewhere, as in France and Flanders, during the 15th century. Nevertheless the northern parts of Italy were the fertile places for producing fine types of patterned textiles used by Italian and other

carnations and hyacinths depicted on a smaller scale are unmistakably Ottoman. Persian fabrics of rather thin silk material or tapestry, next to that of Oriental, were also being woven with varieties of floral designs, as well as others portraying Persian stories. At this period there was considerable activity in weaving sumptuous stuffs at Broussa and Constantinople (fig. 44). Arabic and Persian weavers of the type came over to be employed in Venice, blending Italian and Oriental characteristics into their designs.

In Spain during the early 16th century we have traces of Hispano-Moresque influence in the overlapping and interlocking nondescript forms, but Spanish weavings are hardly comparable in quality with the Italian of the same time. In the middle of this century cloths of gold or of silver, with the pattern details raised in velvet and brocades of similar form. Various formal design were made in greater quantities in Italy for costumes of men and women. The frequent basis of most of the designs is the ovial framework already referred to, but it is much elaborated with detail and combined with the in the case of portions of the grounds. The ornamentation of this style is purely conventional throughout, the various devices having very little of the appearance of actual objects like fruit, leaves, etc.

The time, however, was close at hand when a more general reaction was to set in, in the direction of designs representing forms very nearly as they actually look, an example which occurs in fig. 45, with its leaf forms and crowns. This from a class of silk damask or lampas, which is kindred to brocadel; a feature in last is that the ground is different in colour from that of the ornament on it, and as in the case of portions of brocades its texture is of tafetta or sarsenet quality. At the end of the 16th century a peculiar type of pattern consists of repetitions in different positions of the same detail treated realistically or purely ornamentally, little if anything of quite the same character having been previously designed. Of such fig. 46, with its rather realistic leaf legs variously placed, is an example. The principle in the composition of these patterns, but with a greater variety of conventional detail, is followed in French 17th century examples. However, as soon as figured weaving became well organized in France at this time, a school of designers arose and it is a country who adopted a realism that predominated in French patterns during the succeeding 150 years, that is, from Louis XIV, to the end of the 18th century. Throughout this period French figured stuffs seem to surpass those of other countries. But it was M. Alphonse Pariset, any account is to be taken of the weavers during the 14th and 15th centuries who made cloths and velvets of silk at Paris, Rouen, Lyons, Nimes and Avignon, and whose remembrance is that they were almost solely Italian emigrants from Lucca and Florence, who had fled their towns during troublous times. By a charter granted by Francis I. to Lyons, foreign and native workmen were encouraged to promote the city's interests in trade and manufacture; still, it is not until the 17th century that Lyons really asserts herself in producing fabrics possessing French taste and ornamentation. The more important designs were supplied by trained artists of whom Revai, a pupil of Le Brun, the first principal pupil of Fillement and Philippe de la Salle in the 18th century, may be

See Ornament in European Silks (London, 1899), p. 15.

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European courts and nobles; and if the art seriously dwindled in the town of Lucca, it flourished conspicuously, from the end of the 14th century and up to the beginning of the 16th century, in Venice, Bohemia, Bologna, Florence and Lucca, and this was nothing, it seems, to compete with it in France, Germany or England. The identification of its splendid varieties is made possible upon referring to contemporary paintings by Orcagna, Crivelli, Spinello Aretino and later Italian masters, as well as to those of the Flemish School, Gherard David, Masque, &c.

Of a specially distinct class, very dignified in effect, are patterns of the 15th century based upon the repetition of conventional potted-leaf, patterned, arranged in outline, each encircling a pomegranate or cone form around which radiate small leaves or blossoms; though they were more richly developed in superb velvets and cloths of gold, for Florence, Venice and Genoa were famed, this type of design is also woven in less costly materials. A composite unusual and beautiful design of another kind is given in fig. 42. Repeated large leaf shapes can just be detected in it, but more remarkable are the bunches of radiating tails of wheat ears and cornflowers within them; whilst about them, arranged in hexagonal trellis, are leafy bars, small birds, crowns, pomegranates and other daintily depicted plant forms. This piece of the patterned with brocade weaving is of late 15th century manufacture: and after the opening of the next century the freedom towards realistic treatment, which we find here, enters into many of the Italian patterns. In some of them, however, an Ottoman or Anatolian feeling is apparent, as in fig. 43 from a figured silk which is considered to have been made in Venice. The chained dogs and birds in this design recall the rather more formal ones in Lucchese pattern of a hundred and fifty years was nothing new. The lengthy serrated leaves and elongated flower devices charged with

FIG. 42.—Damask and Brocade Silk Fabric. Italian manufacture of the 15th century.

FIG. 43.—Piece of Venetian Silk Weaving showing Ottoman influence in the design (16th century).
named. Their influence in the domain of fanciful, and at times extravagant realistic, floral patterns was widespread. Soon after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in consequence of which thousands of Protestant weavers left France, factories for weaving silks and mixed materials with patterns imitating the successive French phases became organized at Spitalfields, in Cheshire, Yorkshire, Norfolk and elsewhere in England, as well as in Germany at Crefeld, Elberfeld, Barmen and Wesen.

Entirely distinct from what has already been discussed is a branch of artistic weaving concerned with the decoration of linens, that flourished notably in Italy towards the end of the 15th century and in the 16th century. From early times long and narrow Italian tablecloths were enriched with ornament of linen or cotton threads of a single colour, and Signora Isabella Erera has written at some length about them, illustrating the result of her investigations with several examples culled from paintings by Pietro Lorenzetto of Siena. In Leonardo da Vinci's painting of the Last Supper, now in the Louvre, the border of the tablecloth is very like many examples of this sort of textile in the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington. Their characteristic artistic ornament, in rather heavy blue thread, consists of quaint animals and birds in pairs, which are evident derivations of those so often seen in Italo-Byzantine and Lucchese silks and brocades. Be-

...
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not reversed, as in the case with earlier pieces. A large collection of this German damask weaving, with colored thread was formed under the auspices of the Royal Kunstgewerbe Museum at Dresden.¹ The north-eastern Irish industry of damask weaving owes much to French Protestant refugees, who settled there and revived the handloom industry. In the 17th century, the Irish linen industry began to decline, and by the 18th century, it had been replaced by the English industry. However, the Irish linen industry was revived in the 19th century, and by the 20th century, it was once again a major producer of linen.

LITERATURE.—The following are titles of a few works on weaving, from which, whilst important information on the subject may be derived:


WEB (a word common to Teutonic languages, cf. Du. webbe, Dan. tøn, Ger. Gewebe, all from the Teutonic webb—to weave), that which is woven (see Weaving). The word is thus applied to anything resembling a web, as the web of the feather of a bird or the membrane which connects the toes of many aquatic birds and some aquatic mammals; it is particularly used for the "cobweb," the net spun by the spider, the Old English name for which was dror-coppe, i.e. poison-head (dor, poison, and coppe, tuft or head). In architecture the term "web" is sometimes given, in preference to "panel," to the stone shell of a vault resting on the ribs and taking its winding surface from the same; see VAULT.

WEBB, MATTHEW (1848–1883), English swimmer, generally known as "Captain Webb," was born on 6 June 1848, son of a doctor. While still a boy he was one of his brothers from drowning in the Severn, and, while serving on board the training ship in the Mersey, he again distinguished himself by saving a drowning comrade. He served his apprenticeship in the East India and China trade, shipped as second mate for several owners, and in 1874, was awarded the first Stanhope gold medal by the Royal Humane Society for an attempt to save a seaman who had fallen overboard from the Cunard steamship "Russia." In 1875 Captain Webb abandoned a sea-faring life and became a professional swimmer. On the 3rd of July, the swimmer from Blackheath Pier to Greenwich, a distance of 10 m., in 42 hours, a record which remained unbeaten until 1890. In the same year, for one unsuccessful attempt, he swam the English Channel, on the 24th of August, from Dover to Calais in 21 ½ hours. For many years Webb gave performances of diving and swimming at the Royal Aquarium in London and elsewhere. Crossing to America, he attempted, on the 24th of July 1883, to swim the rapids and whirlpool below Niagara Falls. In this attempt he lost his life.

WEBB, SIDNEY (1850–1904). English socialist and author, was born in London on the 13th of July 1850. He was educated at private schools in London and Switzerland and the Birkbeck Institute and the City of London College. From 1872 to 1878 he was employed in a city office, but he entered the civil service by open competition as a clerk in the War Office in 1878, became

¹ See Leinwandmuster des XVII. und XVIII. Jahrhunderts, Emil Kunsch (Dresden, 1891).

surveyor of taxes in 1879, and in 1881 entered the colonial office, where he remained until 1891. In 1885 he was called to the bar at Gray's Inn. Mr Webb was one of the early members of the Fabian Society, contributing to Fabian Essays (1880); and he became well-known as a socialist, both by his speeches and his writings. He entered the London County Council in 1892 as member for Deptford, and was returned at the head of the poll in the successive elections of 1895, 1896, 1901 and 1904. He resigned from the civil service in 1891 to give his whole time to the work of the Council (where he was chairman of the Technical Education Board) and to the study of economics. He served from 1903 to 1906 on the Royal Commission on Trade Union Law and on other important commissions. He married in 1892 Miss Beatrice Potter, herself a writer on economics, and in 1894 became a member of the Fabian Society; he was a contributor to The Scope of the Movement in Great Britain (1891) and a contributor to Charles Booth's Life and Labour of the People (1891–1903). His most important works are: a number of Fabian tracts; London Education (1904); The Eight Hours Day (1891), in conjunction with Harold Cox; and, with Mrs Sidney Webb, The History of Trade Unionism (1894, new ed. 1902), Industrial Democracy (1897, new ed. 1902), Problems of Modern Industry (1898), History of Liquor Licensing (1903), English Local Government (1906), &c. Mrs Webb was a member of the Royal Commission on Trade Union Law, and she and her husband were responsible for the Minority Report (see Poor Law) and for editing the widespread movement in its favour.

WEBB CITY, a city of Jasper county, Missouri, U.S.A., in the S.W. part of the state, about 160 m. S. of Kansas City. Pop. (1890) 5043; (1900) 9201, of whom 248 were foreign-born; (1910 U.S. census) 11,817. It is served by the Missouri Pacific and the St Louis & San Francisco railway systems, and is the headquarters of the electric interurban railway connecting with Carthage and Joplin, Missouri, Galena, Kansas and other cities. With Carterville (pop. 1910 4339) it forms a productive and populous "district" and is among the most productive and productive "districts" in the rich lead and zinc region of south-western Missouri, and Webb City owns its industrial importance primarily to the mining and shipping of those metals. The value of the factory product increased from $353,866 in 1900 to $637,695 in 1905. Webb City was laid out and incorporated as a town in 1875, and first chartered as a city in 1876. White lead was discovered here in 1873, on the farm of John C. Webb, in whose honour the city is named; and systematic mining began in 1875. William스 Williams (fl. 1878), English literary critic, was educated at St John's College, Cambridge, where he took his degree in 1572–1573. He was tutor to the two sons of Edward Sulyard of Flemings, Essex, and later to the children of Henry Grey of Pigo in the same county. A letter from him is prefixed to the 1592 edition of Tancred and Gismund,² written by his friend, Robert Willmot. In 1586 he published A Discourse of English Poetrie, dedicated to his patron, Edward Sulyard, Webbe argued that the death of good English poetry since Chaucer's day was not due to lack of poetic ability, or to the poverty of the language, but to the want of a proper system of poetry. He urban 'this tinkery verse which we call rhyme," as of barbarous origin, and comments on the works of his contemporaries, displaying enthusiasm for Spenser's Shepheard's Calendar, and admiration for Phaer's translation of Virgil. He urged the adoption of hexameters and sapphics for English verse, and gives some lamentable examples of his own composition.

The Discourse was reprinted in J. Haslewood's Ancient Critical Essays (1811–1813), by G. E. W. Brooks in 1869, and in Gregory Smith's English Poetical Essays (1904).

WEBER, CARL MARIA FRIEDRICH ERNEST VON (1786–1826), German composer, was born at Eutin, near Lübeck, on the 8th of December 1786, of a family that had long been devoted to art. His father, Baron Franz Anton von Weber, a military

² The original play, Gismonde of Salmone, was by five authors, and was produced in the Queen's presence at the Inner Temple in 1568.
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officer in the service of the palgrave Karl Theodor, was an excellent violinist, and his mother once sang on the stage. His cousins, Josepha, Aloysia, Constanze and Sophie, daughters of Franz Anton's brother Fridolin, attained a high reputation as vocalists. The great composer, Mozart, after having been rejected by Aloysia, married Constanze, and thus became Franz Anton's nephew by marriage. Fridolin played the violin nearly as well as his brother; and the whole family displayed exceptional talent for music. Franz Anton von Weber was a man of thriftless habits and culpable eccentricity. Having been wounded at Rossbach, he quit the army, and in 1788 he was appointed financial councillor to Clement August, elector of Cologne, who for nine years overlooked his incorrigible neglect of duty. But the elector's successor dismissed him in 1798; and for many years after this he lived in idleness at Hildesheim, squandering the property of his wife, Anna de' Fumetti, and doing nothing for the support of his children until 1778, when he was appointed director of the opera at Lübeck. In 1778 the prince bishop of Eutin made him his kapellmeister, and not long afterwards his wife died of a broken heart. Five years later he went to Vienna, where he was appointed director of the music at the court. Haydn, and in 1785 married the young Viennese singer Genovefa von Brenner. In the following year Carl Maria von Weber was born—a delicate child, afflicted with congenital disease of the hip-joint.

On his return from Vienna, Franz Anton, finding that a new kapellmeister had been chosen in his place, accepted the humbler position of "Stadt Musikant." This, however, he soon relinquished; and for some years he wandered from town to town, giving dramatic performances, in conjunction with the children of his first wife, wherever he could collect an audience. The effects of this restless life upon the little Carl Maria's health and education were deplorable; but, as he accompanied his father everywhere, he became familiarized with the stage from his earliest infancy, and thus gained an amount of dramatic experience that laid the foundation of his future greatness. Franz Anton hoped to see him develop into an infant prodigy, like his cousin Mozart, whose marvellous career was then rapidly approaching its close. In furtherance of this scheme, the child was taught to sing and place his fingers upon the pianoforte almost as soon as he could speak, though he was unable to walk until he was later. He was notably advanced in his studies; and early his power of observation and aptitude for general learning were so precocious that he seems, in spite of all these disadvantages, to have instinctively educated himself as became a gentleman. In 1798 Michael Haydn taught him gratuitously at Salzburg. In the March of that year his mother died. In April the family visited Vienna, removing in the autumn to Munich. Here the child's first composition—a set of "Six Fughettas" —was "emblished, with a pompous dedication to his half-brother Edmund; and here also he took lessons in singing and in composition. Soon afterwards he began to play successfully in public, and his father compelled him to write incessantly. Among the compositions of this period were a mass and an opera—Die Macht der Liebe und des Weins—now destroyed. A set of "Variations for the Pianoforte," composed a little later, was lithographed by Carl Maria himself, under the guidance of Alois Senebelder, the inventor of the process, in which both the father and the child took great interest.

In 1800 the family removed to Freiberg, where the Ritter von Steinsberg gave Carl Maria the libretto of an opera called Das Waldmädchen, which the boy, though not yet fourteen years old, at once set to music, and produced in November at the Freiburg theatre. The performance was by no means successful, and the composer himself was accustomed to speak of the work as "a very immature production"; yet it was afterwards reproduced at Chemnitz, and even at Vienna.

Carl Maria returned with his father to Salzburg in 1801, resuming his studies under Michael Haydn. Here he composed his second opera, Peter Scholl und seine Nachbarn, which was unsuccessfully produced at Nuremberg in 1803. In that year he again visited Vienna, where, though Joseph Haydn and Albrechtsberger were both receiving pupils, his father preferred placing him under Abt Vogler. Through Vogler's instrumentality Carl Maria was appointed conductor of the opera at Breslau, before he had completed his eighteenth year. In this capacity he greatly enlarged his experience of the stage, so that he ranks among the greatest masters of stage-craft in musical history; but he lived a sadly irregular life, contracted debts, and lost his beautiful voice through accidentally drinking an acid used in lithography—a mishap which nearly cost him his life. These hindrances, however, did not prevent him from beginning a new opera called Rubezladl, the libretto of which was "romantic" in the extreme degree, and Weber worked at it enthusiastically, but it was never completed, and little of it has been preserved beyond a quintet and the masterly overture, which, re-written in 1811 under the title of Der Beherrscher der Geister, now ranks among its author's finest instrumental compositions.

Quitting Breslau in 1806, Weber removed in the following year to Stuttgart, where he had been offered the post of private secretary to Duke Ludwig, brother of Frederick, king of Württemberg. The appointment was a disastrous one. The stipend attached to it was insufficient to meet the twofold demands of the child's social position and the thriftlessness of his father, who was entirely dependent upon him for support. Court life at Stuttgart was uncongenial to him, though he yielded to its temptations. The king hated him and his practical jokes. He fell hopelessly into debt, and, worse than all, became involved in a fatal intimacy with Margarethe Lang, a singer at the opera. Notwithstanding these distractions he worked hard, and in 1809 re-modelled Das Waldmädchen, under the title of Silviana,1 and prepared to produce it at the court theatre. But a dreadful calamity prevented its performance. Franz Anton had misappropriated a large sum of money placed in the young secretary's hands for the purpose of clearing a mortgage upon one of the duke's estates.2 Both father and son were charged with embezzlement, and, on the 9th of February 1810, they were arrested at the theatre, during a rehearsal of Silviana, and thrown by the king's order into prison. No one doubted Weber's innocence, but after a summary trial he and his father were ordered to quit the country, and on the 27th of February they began a new life at Mannheim.

Having provided a comfortable home for his father, and begun a new comic opera, in one act, called Abh Hasson, Weber removed to Darmstadt in order to be near his old master Abt Vogler, and his fellow-pupils Meyerbeer and Gänssbacher. On the 16th of September 1810, he reproduced Silviana at Frankfort, but with very doubtful success. Abh Hasson was completed at Darmstadt in January 1811, after many interruptions, one of which (his attraction to the story of Der Freischütz—see below) exercised a memorable influence upon his later career.

Weber started in February 1811 on an extended artistic tour, during which he made many influential friends, and on the 4th of June brought out Abh Hasson with marked success at Munich. His father died at Mannheim in 1812, and after this he had no settled home, until in 1813 his wanderings were brought to an end by the unexpected offer of an appointment as kapellmeister at Prague, coupled with the duty of entirely remodelling the performances at the opera-house. The terms were so liberal that he accepted at once, engaged a new company of performers, and directed them with uninterupted success until the autumn of 1816. During this period he composed no new operas, but he had written many of his best pianoforte music, and played it with never-failing success, while the disturbed state of Europe inspired him with some of the finest patriotic melodies in existence. First among these stand ten songs from Körner's Leyer und Schneer, including "Vater, ich rufe dich," and "Lützow's wilde Jagd"; and in no respect inferior to these are the splendid choruses in his cantata Kämpf und Sieg, which was first performed at Prague, on the 22nd of December 1815.

Weber resigned his office at Prague on the 30th of September

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1 As the MS. of Das Waldmädchen has been lost, it is impossible now to determine its exact relation to the later work.

2 Spitta gives a different account of the occurrence, and attributes the robbery to a servant.
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1816, and on the 21st of December, Frederick Augustus, king of Saxony, appointed him kapellmeister at the German opera at Dresden. The Italian operas performed at the court theatre were superintended by Morlacchi, whose jealous and intriguing disposition gave endless trouble. The king, however, placed the two kapellmeisters on an exact equality both of title and salary, and Weber found ample opportunity for the exercise of his remarkable power of organization and control. He now gave his close attention to the story of Der Freischütz, which he had previously meditated turning into an opera, and, with the assistance of Friedrich Kind, he produced an admirable work under the title of Des Jügers Braut. No subject could have been better fitted than this to serve as a vehicle for the new art-form which, under Weber's skilful management, developed into the type of "romantic opera." He had dealt with the supernatural in Rübenzahl; and in Sylva in with the pomp and circumstance of chivalry; but the shadowy impersonations in Rübenzahl are scarcely less human than the heroine who invokes them; and the music of Sylva might easily have been adapted to a story of the 15th century. But Weber now knew better than to let the trend in Der Freischütz sing with three soft strokes of a drum below an unchanging dismal chord he brings him straight to us from the nether world. Every note in Euryanthe breathes the spirit of medieval romance; and the fairies in Oberon have an actuality quite distinct from the tinsel of the stage. This uncompromising reality, even in face of the unreal, forms the strongest characteristic of the pure "romantic school," as Weber understood and created it. It treats its wildest subjects in earnest, and without a doubt as to the reality of the scenes it ventures to depict, or the truthfulness of their dramatic instances.

Weber wrote the first note of the music of Der Freischütz on the 2nd of July—beginning with the duet which opens the second act. But so numerous were the interruptions caused by Morlacchi's intrigues, the insolence of unfriendly courtiers, and the attacks of jealous critics that nearly three years elapsed before the piece was completed. In the meantime the performances at the opera-house were no less successfully remodelled at Dresden than they had already been at Prague, though the work of reformation was far more difficult; for the new kapellmeister was surrounded by enemies who openly subjected him to ridicule. Though the composer himself was at one time strongly prejudiced against him, Happily, he no longer stood alone in the world. Having, after much difficulty, broken off his liaison with Margarethe Land, he married the singer Carolina Brandt, a noble-minded woman and consummate artist, who was well able to repay him for the part he had long played in her mental development. The new opera was completed on the 15th of May 1820, on which day Weber wrote the last note of the overture—which it was his custom to postpone until the rest of the music was finished. There is abundant evidence to prove that he was well satisfied with the result of his labours; but he gave himself no rest. He had engaged to compose the music to Wolf's Gipsy drama, Preciosa. Two months later this also was finished, and both pieces ready for the stage.

In consequence of the unsatisfactory state of affairs at Dresden, it had been arranged that both Preciosa and Der Freischütz—no longer known by its original title, Des Jügers Braut—should be produced at Berlin. In February 1821 Sir Julius Benedict was accepted by Weber as a pupil; and to his pen we owe a delightful account of the rehearsals and first performance of his master's chef-d'oeuvre. Preciosa was produced with great success at the old Berlin opera-house on the 14th of June 1821. On the 18th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Waterlooo, the opening of the new "Schauspielhaus" was celebrated by the production of Der Freischütz. Much anxiety was caused by unforeseen difficulties at the rehearsals; yet, so calm was Weber's mind that he devoted his leisure time to the composition of his Concertstück in F minor—one of his finest pianoforte pieces. Until the last moment his friends were anxious; the author was not; and the result justified his confidence in his own powers. The success of the piece was triumphant. The work was received with equal enthusiasm at Vienna on the 3rd of October, and at Dresden on the 26th of January 1822. Yet Weber's position as kapellmeister was not much improved by his success, though, in order to remain faithful to his engagements, he had refused tempting offers at Berlin and Cassel, and, at the last-named place, had installed Ludwig Spohr in a position much more advantageous than his own.

For his next opera Weber accepted a libretto based, by Frau Wilhelmine von Chezy, on the story of Euryanthe, as originally told in the 16th century, in Gilbert de Montreuil's romance of Violette, and repeated with alterations in the Decameron, in Shakespeare's Cymbeline, and in several later forms. In place of the ghostly horrors of Der Freischütz, the romantic element was here supplied by the chivalric pomp of the middle ages. The libretto is in one respect superior to that of Der Freischütz, inasmuch as it substitutes elaborate recitative for the spoken dialogue peculiar to the German "Schauspiel" and French "opera comique." It is, in fact, a "grand opera," in every sense of the words,—the prototype of the "music drama" perfected forty years later by Wagner. The overtures, however, written at the time, represent a feature that has never been imitated. During its performance the curtain temporarily rises, to exhibit, in a tableau vivant, the scene in the sepulchral vault upon which the whole story turns. This direction is now rarely carried out; but Weber himself well knew how much the interest of the piece depended on it. The work was produced at the Kärntnther theatre in Vienna, on the 23th of October 1823, and received with enthusiasm.

Weber's third and last dramatic masterpiece was an English opera, written for Covent Garden theatre, upon a libretto adapted by Phanclés from Wieland's Oberon. It was disfigured by the spoken dialogue abandoned in Euryanthe; but in musical beauty it is quite equal to it, while its fairies and mermaids are as vividly real as the spectres in Der Freischütz. Though already far gone in consumption, Weber began to compose the music on the 23rd of January 1825. Charles Kemble had offered him £1000 for the work, and he could not afford to rest. He finished the overture in London, at the house of Sir George Smart, soon after his arrival, in March 1826; and on the 12th of April the work was produced with triumphant success. But, it Vogel the composer his life, Weber carried out with rehearsed and performances of the opera, and concerts at which he was received with rapturous applause, he grew daily perceptibly weaker; and, notwithstanding the care of his kind host, Sir George Smart, and his family, he was found dead in his bed on the morning of the 5th of June 1826. For eighteen years his remains rested in a temporary grave in Moorfields chapel; but in 1844 they were removed and placed in the family vault at Dresden, Wagner making an eloquent speech.

Besides his three great dramatic masterpieces and the other works already mentioned, Weber wrote two masses, two symphonies, eight cantatas, and a large number of songs, orchestral and pianoforte pieces, and music of other kinds, amounting altogether to more than 250 compositions.

Weber's style rises, in his three greatest works, to heights which show his kinship with the great classics and the great moderns. His intellect was quick and clear; but yet finer was the force of character with which he overcame the disadvantages of his feeble health, desultory education and the mistakes of his youth. With such gifts of intellect and character, every moment of his short life was precious to the world; and it is impossible not to regret the placing of his training in the hands of Abt Vogel. Weber's master was an amiable charlatan, whose weakness as a teacher was thoroughly exposed, in partial innocence, by his two illustrious pupils. Meyerbeer wished to be famous as the maker of a new epoch in opera. Weber could not help being so in reality. But he was sadly hampered by his master's inability to teach realities instead of appearances; and to this impediment alone must we assign the fact that his masterpieces do not begin earlier in his career. With extraordinary rapidity and thoroughness he learnt English a year before his death in order to compose Oberon, with the result
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that there is only one obvious mistake in the whole work, and
the general correctness of declamation is higher than in most
of his German works. This is typical of Weber's general culture,
mental energy and determination; points in which, as in many
traits in his music, he strikingly resembles Wagner. But all
his determination could not quite repair the defects of his purely
musical training, and though his weaknesses are not of glaring
effect in opera, still there are moments when even the stage
cannot explain them away. Thus the finale of Der Freischütz
breaks down so obviously that no one thinks of it as anything
but the inevitable result of roughing-it on the way to success;
and this might have made quite a subject for musical treatment. In
Euryanthe Weber attained his full power, and his inspiration
did not leave him in the lurch where this work needed large
musical designs. But the libretto was full of absurdities; especially
in the last act, which not even a remodelling under Weber's
direction could redeem. Yet it is easy to see why it fascinated
him, for, whatever may be said against it from the standpoints
of probability and literary merit, its emotional contrasts are
highly musical. Indeed it is through them that the defects invite
criticism.

Oberon is spoilt by the old local tradition of English opera
according to which its libretto admitted of no music during
the action of the drama. Thus Weber had in it no opportunity
for his musical stage-craft; apart from the fact that the action
itself is entirely without dramatic motive and passion, since
the characters are simply shifted from Bordeaux to Bagdad
whenever Oberon waves his wand.

Many attempts have been made to improve the libretti of
Euryanthe and Oberon, but none are quite successful, for Weber
has taken a great artist’s pains in making the best of bad material.
All that can be said against Weber’s stage treatment is that it
more emphatically bore his name and how complete in essentials
was his success and his claim to immortality. His pianoforte
works, while showing his helpfulness in purely musical form,
more than bear out his contemporary reputation as a very great
pianoforte player. They have a pronounced theatrical tendency
which, in the case of such pieces of gay romanticism as the
Invitation à la danse and the Concertstück, is amusing and by
no means inartistic. In orchestration Weber is one of the
greatest masters. His treatment of the voice is bold and interesting,
but very racy; and his declamation of words is often incorrect.
His influence on the music of his own day is comparable to his influence on posterity; for he was not only
a most efficient director but a very persuasive journalist; and
in spite of the inexperience that made him disapprove of
Beethoven for all good music other than his own he showed a growing enthusiasm which was infectious.

WEBER, WILHELM EDUARD (1804–1891), German physicist,
was born at Wittenberg on the 24th of October 1804, and was
a younger brother of Ernst Heinrich Weber, the author of Weber's Law (see below). He studied at the university of Halle, where
he took his doctor's degree in 1826 and became extraordinary
professor of physics in 1828. Three years later he removed to
Göttingen as professor of physics, and remained there till 1837,
when he was one of the seven professors who were expelled
from their chairs for protesting against the action of the king of
Hanover (duke of Cumberland) in suspending the constitution.
A period of retirement followed this episode, but in 1843 he
accepted the chair of physics at Leipzig, and six years later
returned to Göttingen, where he died on the 23rd of June 1891.
Weber is especially known for his work on electrical measurement.
Until his time there was no established system either of stating or measuring electrical quantities; but he showed,
as his colleague K. F. Gauss did for magnetic quantities, that it
is both theoretically and practically possible to define them,
not merely by reference to other arbitrary quantities of the same
kind, but absolutely in terms in which the units of length,
time, and mass are alone involved. He also carried on extensive
researches in the theory of magnetism; and it is interesting that
in connexion with his observations in terrestrial magnetism he
not only employed an early form of mirror galvanometer, but
also, about 1833, devised a system of electromagnetic telegraphy,
by which a distance of some 9000 ft. was worked over. In
conjunction with his elder brother he published in 1825 a
well-known treatise on waves, Die Wellenlehre auf Experimentale
gegründet; and in 1833 he collaborated with his younger brother,
the physiologist Eduard Friedrich Weber (1806–1871), in an
investigation into the mechanism of walking.

WEBER'S LAW, in psychology, the name given to a principle
first enunciated by the German scientist, Ernst Heinrich Weber
(1795–1878), who became professor at Leipzig (of anatomy,
1831–1866; of physiology, 1846). In his work on the senses, he
at last fitted into an important department of experimental psychology. It deals with the quantitative aspects of mental facts—their intensity or quantity proportional to their duration; but in the case of some of the senses, to measure with accuracy the objective amount of the stimulus, and introspection enables us to state
the nature of the subjective result. Thus we are able to say whether a stimulus produces any perceptual result, and can fix in this way the minimum sensible or "threshold of consciousness" for each of the senses. In like manner (though with less accuracy, owing to the disturbing nature of the conditions in which the sensations are measured, the dependence of the minimum threshold of the different senses, that is, to say, the point beyond which no increase of stimulus produces any appreciable increase of sensation. We thus determine, as Wundt puts it, "the values between which changes in the sensations are accompanied by changes in sensation. But the central inquiry of psycho-physics remains behind. Between the quantitative minimum and the quantitative maximum thus fixed can we discover any definite relation between changes in the objective intensity of the
stimuli and changes in the intensity of the sensations as estimated
by consciousness. The answer of psycho-physics to this inquiry is
given in the generalization variously known as "Weber's law,"
"Fechner's law," or the "psycho-physical law," which professes to
formulate with exactitude the relations which exist between change of stimulus and change of sensation.

We have now to study how we may practically measuring the absolute intensity of our sensations, it is necessary to depend upon the mental estimate or comparison of two or more sensations. Comparison enables us to say whether they are equal in intensity, or if unequal which is the greater, and in the greater or less the threshold of equality in this respect it becomes more and more difficult to detect the difference. By a series of experiments, therefore, it will be possible to show the care we must extend, in order to determine the least observable difference in intensity between two sensations of any particular sense. This least observable difference is called by
Fechner the Unterschiedsschwelle or "difference-threshold," that is
to say, the limit of the discriminative sensibility of the rence in
question. That such a "threshold," or least observable difference,
exists is plain from very simple examples. Very small increases may
be made in the object amount without light, sound or pressure—that is,
in the physical stimulus of the two senses—without the subject
on whom the experiment is made detecting any change. It is further
evident that, by means of this Unterschiedsschwelle, it is possible to
come to a considerable knowledge of the discriminative sensibility
of different senses, or (as in the case of the skin) of different parts
of the same sense organ: the smaller the difference observable the finer
the discriminative sensibility. Thus the discrimination of the muscular
sensibility is much more delicate than the tactile or thermal, and the
discriminative sensibility of the skin and the retina varies
very much according to the parts of the surface affected. Various
measures have been attempted to determine the limit of
discriminative sensibility with an approach to scientific precision.
The first is that employed by Weber himself, and has been named
the method of just observable differences. It consists either in
gradually adding to the stimulus small successive increments until
cause no perceptible difference in sensation but at a certain point do
cause a difference to emerge in consciousness, or, vice versa, in gradually
decreasing the amount of additional stimulus until the difference
originally perceived becomes imperceptible. By taking the average of a number of such results, the minimum may be determined with
tolerable accuracy. The second method is called by Fechner the
method of correct and incorrect instances. When two stimuli are
very nearly equal the subject will often fail to recognize which is the greater, saying sometimes that A is greater, sometimes that B is greater, and in neither case although the muscular sense most exactly in the case of sound. As this is the sense which affords the greatest facilities for measuring the precise amount of the stimulus, it may perhaps be inferred, that we could attain the same exactitude in the other senses, with the same comparative insensitivity of our sediments. The law would vindicate itself with the same exactitude and certainty. It is further to be noted, that however in those senses in which it is not actually exact, the law holds with stringency only within certain limits. The results are most exact in the middle regions of the sensory scale; but we approach the lower limit of sensibility they become quite uncertain.

WEBSTER, A.—WEBSTER, D. (1896); contains an elaborate exposition of the whole subject. He replied to his critics in two later works, In Suchen der Psychophysik (1877) and Revision der Hauptpunkte der Psychophysik (1882), Delboor's Studie psychophysique (1875), Examen critique de la theorie psychophysique (1883), and Elements de psychophysique generale et speciale (1885), and G. E. Müller's Zur Grundlegung der Psychophysik (1878) are important documents; and the subject is fully treated in Wundt's Grundzüge der psychologischen Physiologie (ed. 1902-1903), and "Über die Methode d. Minimallitungen," in Physis (Leipzig, 1883), or, more popularly, in his Human and Animal Psychology (2nd ed., 1892), Lectures 2, 3, 4. See also Ladd's Physiological Psychology (1887), which is based upon Wundt; Meinong. in Zeitschrift für Psychologie und Pschophysik (5th ed., Jena, 1896); E. B. Titchener, Experimental Psychology (ii. 1905), Professor James Ward's "Attempt to Introduce Weber's law to the beginners" (5th ed.), p. 452 seqq.; and generally textbooks of psychology, e.g. C. F. Stout's Manual of Psychology, ch. 7 (following Meinong); James's Principles of Psychology, ch. 13; Köhle's Outlines of Psychology, part i. chap. 1 and 3. (A. S. P.-P.)

WEBSTER, ALEXANDER (1707-1784), Scottish writer and minister, son of James Webster, a covenanting minister, was born in Edinburgh in 1707. Having become a minister in the church of Scotland, he propounded a scheme in 1742 for providing pensions for the widows of ministers. The tables which he devised for the office of the Roman Catholic Church of Scotland were based on a system of actuarial calculation that supplied a precedent followed by insurance companies in modern times for reckoning averages of longevity. In 1745 he defended his case before the House of Commons in a debate on the subject of the right of the people to be measured, and his advocacy of the freedmen. The law has been variously interpreted. Fechner himself designated it the "psychophysical law," and treated it as the fundamental formula of the relation between body and mind, thus assigning to it an ontological significance as the psychic law. The psychophysical interpretation of his results he has not had a following. Wundt interprets the law in a purely "psychological" sense, making it a special instance of the general law of relativity which governs our mental states. Introspection can give us no information as to the absolute intensity of the stimulus; for a stimulus is known in consciousness only through its resultant sensation. Hence, he argues, we can only compare the psychical state with another, and our standard of measurement is thereby to some extent relative; it depends directly upon the preceding state with which we compare the present. Others (e.g. G. E. Müller) have attempted to give the law an "empirical" meaning. Bühler holds that the expression of the law is a recondite relation between the material and the spiritual world, they prefer to regard the quantitative relation between the last physical antecedent in the chain of events, not as a genuine fact of interrelation, but as a simple proportion, and to treat Weber's law as holding between the initial physical stimulus and the final action of the nerve-centres. According to this view, Weber's law may be altogether a phenomenon of the nature of nervous action. As a nerve, says Sully, after a temporary degree of stimulation temporarily loses its sensitivity, so the greater the previous stimulation of a nerve the greater is the additional stimulus required to produce an appreciable amount of sensation.

Weber's law, it must be added, holds only within certain limits. In the case of the chemical senses of taste and smell experiments are almost impossible. It is not the absolute amount of the stimulus with the necessary exactitude, and the results are further vitiated by the long continuance of the physiological effects. The same considerations apply with still more force to the organic sensations, and the results in the case of temperature sensations are completely uncertain. The law is approximately true in the case of sight, bearing the same proportion to the size of the object as the size of the error to the amount of the error.

WEBSTER, BENJAMIN NOTTINGHAM (1797-1882), English actor, manager and dramatic writer, was born in Bath on the 3rd of September 1797, the son of a dancing master. First appearing as Harlequin, and then in small parts at Drury Lane, he went to the Haymarket in 1829, and was given leading comedy character business. He was the lessee of the Haymarket from 1837; he built the new Adelphi Theatre (1859); later the Olympic, Princess's and St James's came under his control; and he was the patron of all the contemporary playwrights and many of the best actors, who owed their opportunity of success to him as a character actor he was unequalled in his day, especially in such parts as Triplet in Masks and Faces, Joey Ladle in No Thoroughfare, and John Peerybingle in his own dramatic adaptation of The Chatterton on the Heath. He wrote, translated, or adapted nearly a hundred plays. Webster took his formal farewell of the stage in 1874, and died in London on the 2nd of July 1882. His daughter, Harriette Georgiana (d. 1897), was the first wife of Edward Levy-Lawson, 1st baron Burnham; and his son, W. S. Webster, had three children—Benjamin Webster (b. 1864; married to Miss May Whitby), Annie (Mrs A. E. George) and Lizzie (Mrs Sydney Brough)—all well known on the London stage, and further connected with it in each case by marriage.

WEBSTER, DANIEL (1782-1852), American statesman, was born in Salisbury (now Franklin), New Hampshire, on the
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18th of January 1782. He was a descendant of Thomas Webster, of Scottish ancestry, who settled in New Hampshire about 1636. His father, Ebenezer Webster (1739-1806), was a sturdy frontiersman; when, in 1763, he built his log cabin in the town of Salisbury there was no habitation between him and Canada. He was a member of Rogers' Rangers in the Seven Years' War, served in the War of Independence, was for several years a member of the New Hampshire legislature, was a delegate to the New Hampshire convention which ratified the Federal constitution, and was a justice of the court of common pleas for his county. Daniel was a frail but clever child, and his family made great sacrifices to give him and his elder brother Ezekiel a good education. He attended Phillips Exeter Academy about nine months in 1794, was further prepared for college by Dr Samuel Wood, the minister at Boscawen, and graduated at Dartmouth College in 1801. He was chosen Fourth of July orator in Hanover, the college town, in 1800, and in his speech appears the substance of the political principles for the development of which he is chiefly famous. After graduation he began the study of law in his native town. When in the following winter money had to be earned to enable Ezekiel to remain in college, Daniel accepted the principalship of the academy at Fryeburg, Maine; but he resumed his law studies in the following year, and in 1804, with Ezekiel's assistance, he was enabled to go to Boston and conclude his studies under Christopher Gore (1758-1827), later governor of Massachusetts (1809-1810) and the year before, 1817-1818, had been associated with the noted lawyer and political leader John C. Calhoun was chairman, and for some forty years these three constituted a great triumvirate in American politics. Webster had been in the House less than three weeks when he greatly embarrassed the administration by introducing a set of resolutions asking for information relating to the immediate cause of the war. In January 1814, when a bill to encourage enlistments was before the House, he attacked the conduct of the war in his first great speech. An even more forcible speech, delivered later in the same session, in support of a bill for repealing the non-importation acts, marked him as one of the foremost men in Congress. He successfully opposed a bill providing for what would have been practically an irredeemable currency, and he voted against the bill for chartering the second United States bank, although it provided for the redemption of bank notes in specie, because he objected to permitting the government to have so large a share in its management. Webster removed to Boston in June 1816. This cost him his seat in Congress after the 4th of March 1817, and for the next six years he was engaged chiefly in the practice of law in the courts of Massachusetts and before the U.S. Supreme Court.

His first leading case before the Supreme Court was the Dartmouth College Case. In 1815, when the Dartmouth board of trustees was rent by factions, the majority, who were Federalists and Congregationalists, removed the president, John Wheelock, who was a Presbyterian, and appointed Francis Brown in his place. Wheelock appealed to the legislature in the following year, when it was strongly Republican, and that body responded by passing acts which virtually repealed the charter received from George III., created a state university, placed Wheelock at its head, and transferred to it the property of the college. The case came before the Supreme Court of New Hampshire in May 1817. Jeremiah Mason (1768-1848), a lawyer of the first rank, Jeremiah Smith and Webster appeared for the college, and argued that these acts were invalid because they were not within the general scope of the legislature's power, because they violated provisions of the state constitution and because they violated the clause of the Federal Constitution which prohibits a state from impairing the obligation of contracts but the court decided against them. On the last point, however, the case was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, and there Webster, speaking principally of his colleagues at the state trial and making a powerful appeal to the emotions of the court, won the case for the college and for himself the front rank at the American bar. The result, too, vindicating as it did the supremacy of the Constitution of the United States, was a substantial gain for that nationalism which Webster advocated in his first Fourth of July oration at Hanover, and the promotion of which was for the remainder of his career his principal service to his country. His next great case was that of M'Culloch v. Maryland. Maryland had imposed a tax upon the Baltimore branch of the Bank of the United States. The Maryland Court of Appeals sustained the validity of this act. Webster, supported by William Pinkney and William Wirt, argued in February 1819, (1) that the power to establish a bank was to be implied from the general power given to Congress to administer the financial affairs of the nation, and was a means of administering the finances which was appropriate and within the discretion of Congress; (2) that "the power to tax is the power to destroy," and that a state had not the constitutional power to impose a tax upon any instrumentality of the government of the United States. Maryland had sustained these arguments and the act of Maryland was held to be void. Several years later (1823) Webster argued the case of Gibbons v. Ogden. The state of New York, in order to reward the enterprise of Robert R. Livingston and the inventive genius of Robert Fulton in the application of the steam engine to traffic on the water, had given to them a monopoly of all transportation by steam within the waters of New York. The highest court of that state sustained the validity of the monopoly. Gibbons, who had begun to run a steamboat from New Jersey, appealed to the Supreme Court. Webster argued that the Federal Constitution gave to Congress control over interstate commerce, and that any interference by the legislature of a state with this commerce was unconstitutional and void. The Supreme Court so held; its opinion, written by Chief Justice Marshall, being little else than a recital of Webster's argument. In the case of Ogden v. Saunders, heard in 1824 and reheard in 1827, in which the question was the validity or invalidity of the insolvent laws of the several states, Webster argued that the clause prohibiting a state from impairing the obligation of contracts applied to future as well as past contracts, but the court decided against him.

Webster was recognized as the first American orator. His oration at Plymouth, on the 22nd of December 1820, on the second centennial anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims, placed him in this rank. No man mastered more thoroughly the fundamental principles of government and the currents of feeling which influence the destiny of nations. His oration in 1825 at the laying of the corner stone of the Bunker Hill monument contained perhaps the clearest statement to be found anywhere of the principles underlying the American War of Independence. In the following year Webster delivered the memorable speech in the Senate in which he reviewed the conduct of the First and third presidents of the United States—John Adams and Thomas Jefferson—who died on the 4th of July 1826; it is particularly remarkable for Adams's imaginary reply in the Continental Congress to the arguments against a Declaration of Independence, beginning with the familiar quotation: "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I gave my hand and my heart to this vote." Webster's physical endowments as an orator were extraordinary. Thomas Carlyle thus describes him as he appeared in London in 1839. "Many months ago I saw the most notable of your notabilities, Daniel Webster. He is a magnificent specimen. You might say to all the world, 'This is our Yankee Englishman; such limbs we make in Yankee land.' As a logic fencer, or parliamentary Hercules, one would be inclined to back him at first sight against all the extant world. The tangled complex, that amorphous crag-like
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face; the dull black eyes under the precipice of brows, like dull anthracite furnaces, needing only to be blown; the mastiff mouth secreted in a breath, so much of silent Berserk rage that I remember in any man."

In 1820 Webster took an important part in the convention called to revise the constitution of Massachusetts, his arguments in favour of removing the religious test, in favour of retaining the doctrine of nullification, in the Senate, and in favour of increasing the independence of the judiciary, being especially notable. He was a member of the National House of Representatives from 1823 to 1827 and of the Senate from 1827 to 1841. Soon after returning to the House he supported in a notable speech a resolution to send a commissioner to Greece, then in insurrection.

The tariff was to him a distasteful subject, and he was governed in his attitude toward it largely by the wishes of the majority of his constituents. He opposed the tariff bill of 1816 and in 1824, and he repudiated the name of "American system," claimed by Clay for his system of protection. When, however, the tariff bill of 1828, which was still more protective, came up for discussion, Webster had ceased to oppose protection; but he did not attempt to argue in favour of it. He stated that his people, after giving warning in 1824 that they would consider protection the policy of the Government, had gone into protected manufactures, and he now asked that that policy be not reversed to the injury of his constituents. In later speeches, too, he defended protection rather as a policy under which industries had become established than as a scheme if the stage had been clear for the adoption of a new policy.

The tariff of 1828 aroused bitter opposition in South Carolina, and called from Vice-President Calhoun the statement of the doctrine of nullification which was adopted by the South Carolina legislature at the close of the year and is known as the South Carolina Exposition. Senator Robert Y. Hayne, from the same state, voiced this doctrine in the Senate, and Webster's reply was his most powerful exposition of the national conception of the Union. The occasion of this famous Webster-Hayne debate was the introduction by Senator Samuel A. Foot (1780-1856) of Connecticut of a resolution of inquiry into the expediency of restricting the sales of the Western lands. This was on the 26th of December 1832, and after Senator Benton of Missouri had denounced the resolution as one inspired by hatred of the East for the West, Hayne, on the 16th of January 1833, made a vigorous attack on New England, and declared his opposition to a permanent revenue from the public lands or any other source on the ground that it would promote corruption and the consolidation of the government and "be fatal to the sovereignty and independence of the states." Webster's brief reply drew from Hayne' a warning that "in the event of his party," and all his cabinet except Webster resigned. Webster hesitated, but after consultation with a delegation of Massachusetts Whigs decided to remain. Although he was severely criticized there were good reasons for his decision. When he entered office the relations between the United States and Great Britain were critical. The M'Leod case in which the state of New York insisted on trying a British subject, with whose trial the Federal government had no power to interfere, while the British government had declared that it would consider conviction and execution a casus belli; the exercise of the hateful right of search by British vessels on the coast of Africa; the Maine boundary, as to which the action of a state might at any time bring the Federal government into armed collision with Great Britain—all these at once met the new secretary, and he felt that he had no right to abandon his work for party reasons. With the special commissioner from Great Britain, Lord Ashburton, he concluded the treaty of 1842 known as the Webster-Ashburton Treaty. Differences arising out of the M'Leod case were adjusted by extending the principle of extradition. The question of the suppression of the African slave trade, with which was connected the right of search, was settled by an agreement that the United States should keep in service off the coast of Africa a squadron carrying not fewer than eighty guns, and that the two squadrons should act in concert when necessary. The North-east boundary dispute was settled by a compromise which allowed Maine about 5500 sq. m. less than she had claimed, and allowed Great Britain about as much less on her claim, and by an agreement on the part of the government of the United States to pay to Maine and Massachusetts "in equal moieties" the sum of $300,000 for their assent (see Matvev). Immediately after the treaty had been concluded the Whigs insisted that Webster should leave the cabinet. He refused, for a time, to be driven, but because of their continued attacks, together with his ambition to become president, and because Tyler favoured the annexation of Texas while he was opposed to it, he resigned in May 1843. He was forgiven by his party in the following year, but not until the opposition, provoked by the retention of his position under Tyler, had ruined whatever

1 This case grew out of the Canadian rebellion of 1837. Alexander M'Leod boasted in November 1840 that he was one of a Canadian party of more than 3500 who had conspired and in December 1837, had captured and burned a small American steamboat, the "Caroline," and in the course of the attack it had shot Amos Durfee. The Canadian commander had regarded the "Caroline" as being in the service of the insurgents and had asked for volunteers to destroy her (see SEWARD, W. H.).
chance he might have had in that year of receiving the presidential nomination. In June 1843, on the occasion of the completion of the Bunker Hill monument, Webster delivered another classic oration. In February 1844 he argued the Girard Will Case before the United States Supreme Court. Stephen Girard (q.v.) had devised and bequeathed the residue of his estate for the establishment and maintenance of Girard College, in which no member of the Gospel of any sect or denomination whatever should be admitted. The suit was brought to break the will, and Webster, for the plaintiffs, after stating that the devise could stand only on condition that it was a charity, argued that it was not a charity because no teaching was such except Christian teaching. He made an eloquent plea for Christianity, but his case was weak in law, and the court sustained the will.

Webster was returned to the Senate in 1845. He opposed the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War, and was, as before, the recognized spokesman of his party. At the beginning of the quarrel of the North and the South over the organization of the territory acquired from Mexico, Calhoun contended that the Constitution of the United States extended over this territory and carried slavery with it, but Webster denied this on the ground that the territory was the property of, not part of, the United States, and Webster's view prevailed. The whole matter had, therefore, to be adjusted by Congress, and as the growing intensity of the quarrel revealed the depth of the chasm between the sections, Clay came forward with the famous compromise of 1850, and Webster's greatest oration, "The Compromise and the Constitution and the Union," or as it is more commonly known, "The Seventh of March Speech,"—was in support of this Compromise. It was a noble effort to secure a lasting settlement of the slavery question, but he was bitterly denounced throughout the north as a renegade. In July 1850 Webster again became secretary of state, in the cabinet of President Fillmore. Perhaps the most important act of his second term was obtaining the release of Kosstush and other Hungarian refugees who had fled to Turkey, and whose surrender had been demanded by the Austrian government. He died at his home in Marshfield, Massachusetts, on the 24th of October 1852. Webster was twice married—first in 1808 to Grace, daughter of Rev. Elijah Fletcher, a New Hampshire clergyman. She died in 1828, leaving two sons, Daniel Fletcher, killed in the second battle of Bull Run, and Edward, a major in the United States army, who died while serving in the Mexican War, and a daughter Julia, who married Samuel Appleton. Webster's second wife was Caroline Le Roy, daughter of Jacob Le Roy, a New York merchant. He was married to her in 1829 and she survived him.

The universal expression of respect and admiration at the time of his death showed that he had retained the confidence and the respect of his people. Never, since the death of Washington, had there been in the United States such a universal expression of public sorrow and bereavement. It is not too much to say that the conviction of the justice of their cause that carried the northern states successfully through the Civil War was largely due to the arguments of Webster. He had convinced the majority of the people that the government created by the Constitution was not a league or confederacy, but a Union, and had all the powers necessary to its maintenance and preservation. He had convinced the Supreme Court, and every body of American jurists, that whenever a power is granted by a Constitution, everything that is fairly and reasonably involved in the exercise of that power is granted also. He established the freedom of the instrumentalities of the national government from adverse legislation by the states; freedom of commerce between the different states; the right of Congress to regulate the entire passenger traffic through and from the United States, and the sacredness of public franchises from legislative assault.

The establishment of these principles was essential to the integrity and permanence of the American Union.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The Works of Daniel Webster (6 vols., Boston, 1857) contain a biographical memoir by Edward Everett; G. T. Curtis, Life of Daniel Webster (2 vols., New York, 1870) is the most complete biography, but it is written from the point of view. See also J. W. McIlwhey (ed.), Writings and Speeches of Daniel Webster (18 vols., Boston, 1903); Fletcher Webster (ed.), Daniel Webster's Private Correspondence (2 vols., Boston, 1857); H. C. Lodge, Daniel Webster (Boston, 1899); J. B. Mcmaster, Daniel Webster (New York, 1902); E. W. Wheeler, The Esthonian of the Constitution (New York, 1905); S. W. McCall, Daniel Webster (Boston, 1902); and Norman Hapgood, Daniel Webster (Boston, 1890).
skill. No poet has ever so long and so successfully sustained at their utmost height and intensity the expressed emotions and the united effects of terror and pity. The transcendent imagination and the impassioned sympathy which inspire this most tragic of all tragedies move the ear and are fused together in the fourth act in a creation which has hardly been excelled for unflagging energy of impression and of pathos in all the dramatic or poetic literature of the world. Its wild and fearful sublimity of invention is not more exceptional than the exquisite justice and tenderness and subtlety of its expression. Some of these executive merits may be found in an ill-constructed and ill-conditioned tragi-comedy which was printed in the same year; but few readers will care to remember much more of The Devil's Law Case than the admirable scenes and passages which found favour in the unerring and uniting sight of Webster's first and final interpreter, Charles Lamb. Thirty-one years later (1654) the noble tragedy of Appius and Virginia was given to the world—a work which alone would have sufficed to perpetuate the memory of his author among all competent lovers of English poetry at its best. Seven years afterwards an unprincipled and ignorant bookseller, published, under the title of Two New Plays: viz. A Cure for a Cuckold: a Comedy. The Thracian Wonder, A Comical History. As it hath been several times acted with great Applause, two plays of which he assigned the authorship to John Webster and William Rowley. This attribution may or may not be accurate; the former play is a mixture of the real work by Webster and roguish recollage. An elegy on Henry, prince of Wales, and a few slight occasional verses, compose the rest of Webster's remaining extant works. [Edward Phillips, in his Theatrum poëtarum, wrongly attributed to him a share in The weakest goes to the Wall. The play of Guise, mentioned by Webster himself in the introduction to The Devil's Law Case, is lost.]

Webster's claims to a place among the chief writers of his country were ignored for upwards of two centuries. In 1830 the Rev. Alexander Dyce first collected and edited the works of a poet who had found his first adequate recognition twenty-two years earlier at the pious and fortunate hands of Lamb. But we cannot imagine that a presentiment or even a foreknowledge of this long delay in the payment of a debt so long due from his countrymen to the memory of so great a poet would seriously have disturbed or distressed the mind of the man who has given us the clue to his nature in a single and an imperishable sentence—"I rest silent in my own work." (A. C. S.)

See The Works of John Webster; with some Account of the Author and Notes, by Alexander Dyce (Leeds, 1828); and The Dramatic Works of John Webster, edited by William Hazlitt the younger (1857); The Best Plays of Webster and Touroine, edited by J. A. Symonds for the "Mermaid" series (1888-1903); Love's Graduation . . . (Oxford, 1883), in which Webster's supposed share in A Cure for a Cuckold is presented separately by S. Spring-Rice, with an introduction by Edmund Gosse. See also E. Gosse, Seventeenth-Century Studies (1883); and especially an exhaustive treatise by E. E. Stoll, John Webster. The Period of his Work as determined by his Relations to the Drama of his Day (Boston, Massachusetts, 1906). Mr Stoll's account (see p. 42) shows that the additional bibliographical suggestions made by Mr Sidney Lee in his article in the Dict. Nat. Bio. are not supported.

WEBSTER, NOAH (1756-1843), American lexicographer and journalist, was born at West Hartford, Connecticut, on the 16th of January. His father was a merchant, and his mother, a daughter of Noah Webster, of Hartford, governor of Connecticut in 1656-1657, and on his mother's side from Governor William Bradford of Plymouth. He entered Yale in 1774, graduating in 1778. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar at Hartford in 1781. In 1782-1783 he taught in a classical school at Goshen, New York, and became convinced of the need of better textbooks of English. In 1783-1785 he published at Hartford A Grammatical Institute of the English Language, in three parts, a spelling-book, a grammar and a reader. This was the pioneer American work in its field, and it soon acted a place in most of the schools of the United States. During the twenty years in which Webster was engaged in the dictionary, his income from the spelling-book, though the royalty was less than a cent a copy, was enough to support his family; and before 1816 the sale reached more than a million copies a year. The wide use of this book contributed greatly to uniformity of pronunciation in the United States, and, with his dictionary, secured the general adoption in the United States of a simplified system of spelling. He was a co-author, in fact, of the Americanization of spelling. In 1828 he published Sketches of American Policy, in which he argued for a constitutional government whose authority should be vested in Congress. This he regarded as the first distinct proposal for a United States Constitution, and when in 1787 the work of the commissioners was completed at Philadelphia, where Webster was then living as superintendent of an academy, he wrote in behalf of the constitution an Examination of the Leading Principles of the Federal Constitution. In 1788 he started in New York the American Magazine, but it failed at the end of a year, and he resumed the practice of law at Hartford. In 1793, in order to support Washington's administration, he removed to New York and established a daily paper, the Minerva (afterwards the Commercial Advertiser), and later a semi-weekly paper, the Herald (afterwards the New York Spectator). In 1798 he removed to New Haven. He served in the Connecticut House of Representatives in 1800 and 1802-07, and as a county judge in 1807-11. In 1807 he published A Philosophical and Practical Grammar of the English Language. In 1806 he had brought out A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language, and in 1807 he began work on his dictionary. While engaged on it he removed in 1812 to Amherst, Massachusetts, where he was appointed in 1831 professor of rhetoric and of English at Amherst College. He was also a member of the General Court of Massachusetts. In 1818 he returned to New Haven, and the next year he received the degree of LL.D. from Yale. He spent a year (1824-1825) abroad, working on his dictionary, in Paris and at the university of Cambridge, where he finished his manuscript. The work came out in 1828 in two volumes. It contained 12,000 words and from 30,000 to 40,000 definitions that had not appeared in any earlier dictionary. An English edition soon followed. In 1840 the second edition, corrected and enlarged, came out, in two volumes. He completed the revision of an earlier dictionary a few years before his death, which occurred in New Haven on the 28th of May 1843.

The dictionary was revised in 1817 under the editorship of Professor Chauncy A. Goodrich and published in one volume. In 1859 a pictorial edition was issued. In 1866 it was revised mainly under the direction of Professor Noah Porter, and again in 1890 under the same direction, the latter revision appearing with the title of the International Dictionary of the English Language. The latter was again issued in 1900, with a supplement of 25,000 words and phrases, under the supervision of William Torrey Harris, who edited another revision, in 1909, under the title of the New International Dictionary of the English Language. It has frequently been abridged.

In addition to Webster's own dictionary, he published The Grammar of the English Language (1795), a course of lectures that he had given three years before in some of the chief American cities; Essays (1795); The Revolution in France (1794); A Brief History of Epidemics and Pestilential Diseases (1799, in two vols.; The Rights of Neutral Nations in Time of War (1802); Historical Notices of the Origin and State of Banking Institutions and Insurance Offices (1802); and A Collection of Papers on Political, Literary, and Moral Subjects (1843), which included "On the Supposed Change in the Temperature of Winter," a treatise showing long and careful research. He also published Governor John Winthrop's Journal in 1790, and Dictionary of the United States, of which a revised edition appeared in 1839.

See Memoir of Noah Webster by his son-in-law, Professor Chauncey A. Goodrich, in the quarto editions of the Dictionary, also Noah Webster, (1882), by Horace E. Scudder, American Journal of Letters.

WEBSTER, THOMAS (1773-1844), British geologist, was born in the Orkney Isles in 1773, and was educated at Aberdeen. He subsequently went to London and studied architecture, the Royal Institution in Albemarle Street being built from his design. In 1826 he was appointed house-secretary and curator to the Geological Society of London, and for many years he rendered important services in editing and illustrating the Transactions of the Society. In 1841-1842 he was appointed professor of natural history at the Royal Institution. He has been distinguished for his researches on the Tertiary formations of the Isle of Wight, where he recognized the occurrence of both fresh-water and marine strata; he continued his observations on the mainland of Hampshire, and
subsequently in Dorsetshire, where he described the Purbeck and Portland rocks. To him Sir Henry C. Englefield (1752–1822) was indebted for the geological descriptions and the effective geological views and sections of the Isle of Wight and Dorset that enriched his Description of the Principal Picturesque Beauties, Antiquities and Geological Phenomena of the Isle of Wight (1816). The memorial Websterite was named after him. He died in London on the 26th of December 1844.

WEBSTER, THOMAS (1800–1886), English figure painter, was born at Ranelagh Street, Pinicolo, London, on the 20th of March 1800. His father was a member of the household of George III; and the son, having shown an aptitude for music, became a chorister in the Chapel Royal, St James’s. He, however, developed a still stronger love for painting, and in 1818 he was admitted student of the Royal Academy, to whose exhibition he contributed, in 1824, portraits of “Mrs Robinson and Family.” In the following year he gained the first medal in the school of painting. Till 1879 he continued to exhibit in the Royal Academy work of a genial and gently humorous character, dealing commonly with subjects of familiar incident, and especially of child life. Many of these were exceedingly popular, particularly his “Punch” (1830), which procured in 1841 his election as A.R.A., followed five years later by full membership. He became an honorary retired academician in 1877, and died at Cranbrook, Kent, on the 23rd of September 1886. His “Going into School, of St. Paul’s Trust Board,” and his “Dame’s School” (1854) are in the National Gallery, and five of his works are in the South Kensington Museum.

WEBSTER, a township of Worcester county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the French river, about 16 m. S.S.W. of Worcester. Pop. (1890) 7021; (1900) 8824, of whom 3562 were foreign-born; (1910 census), 11,509. Land area (1906), 12-10 sq. m. Webster is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford, and the Boston & Albany railways, and by interurban electric lines. In the township is Lake Chaubunagungamaug, a beautiful sheet of water above 46 ac. in area. The manufacture of textiles and of boots and shoes is the principal industry; the total value of the factory product in 1905 was $5,867,769. Webster was founded by Samuel Slater (1768–1835), who in 1812 built cotton-mills and in 1815–1816 began the manufacture of woollen cloth. The township, named in honour of Daniel Webster, was erected in 1832 from common lands and from parts of Dudley and Oxford townships, which before the cotton-mills were built there were almost uninhabited.


WECKHERLIN, GEORG RUDOLF (1584–1653), German poet, was born at Stuttgart on the 15th of September 1584. After studying law he settled at Stuttgart, and, as secretary to the Duke Johann Friedrich of Württemberg, was employed on diplomatic missions to France and England. Between 1620 and 1624 he lived in England in the service of the Palatinate, and seems also to have been employed by the English government. In 1644 he was appointed “Secretary for Foreign Tongues” in England, a position in which, on the establishment of the Commonwealth, he was followed by Milton. He died in London of Feb. 1653. Weckherlin was the most distinguished of the circle of South German poets who prepared the way for the Renaissance movement associated in Germany with Martin Opitz. Two volumes of his Oden und Gesänge appeared in 1618 and 1619; his collected Geistliche und weltliche Gedichte in 1641. His models were the poets of the French Pléiade, and with his psalms, odes and sonnets he broke new ground for the German lyric. An epic poem on the death of Gustavus Adolphus, in alexandrines, seems to have won most favour with his contemporaries.

Weckherlin’s Gedichte have been edited by H. Fischer for the Stuttgarter Literarischer Verein (vols. cxcv.–cc., 1894–1905). Selections were published by W. Müller (1823) and K. Goecke (1873). See also C. P. Conze, Nachrichten von dem Leben und den Schriften Weckherlins (1863); E. Hüppner, G. R. Weckherlins Oden und Gesänge (1866); H. Fischer, Beiträge zur Literaturgeschichte Schwabens (1891); and the same author’s article in the Allgemeine deutsche Biographie (1896).

WEBDELBURN, JAMES (1493–1533), JOHN (1500–1556) and ROBERT (1502–1526), Scottish poets and religious reformers, were natives of Dundee, where their father James Wedderburn was a prosperous merchant. All three brothers studied at St Andrews University. James Wedderburn, who became one of the first students to be employed at the France preparing for a mercantile career. On his return to Dundee in 1544, he received instruction in the Reformed faith from Friar Hewatt, a Dominican monk. He composed a play on the beheading of St John the Baptist, and another, a morality satirizing church abuses, in the setting of episodes from the story of Dionysius the Tyrant, both of which were performed in 1546 in the playfield of Dundee. Neither of these nor a third ascribed to him by Calderwood, the historian, are extant. A charge of hereesy was brought against him, but he escaped to France, and established himself as a merchant in Rouen, Dieppe, where he lived unmolested until his death in 1553, although attempts were made by the Scottish community there to bring further charges against him.

John Wedderburn graduated M.A. at St Andrews in 1528. He took priests’ orders and appears to have held the chaplaincy of St Matthews, Dundee, but in March 1539 he was accused of hereesy, apparently for having, in conjunction with his brothers, written some anti-Catholic ballads. He escaped to Wittenberg, where with other of his compatriots he received the teaching of the German reformers. There he gained an acquaintance with the Lords town-hall and was sent back to Scotland. The death of James V. and the known leanings of the regent, the earl of Arran, to reform, encouraged many exiles, Wedderburn among them, to revisit Scotland. It is probable that he was the author of the greater portion of the Compendious Book of Psalms and Spiritual Songs which contains a large number of hymns from the German. The enormous influence of the collection, with its added Gude and God tile Ballatis, on Scottish reform, is attested by the penalites enacted against the authors and printers of these books. John Wedderburn died in Dundee as late as 1546, when he was obliged to flee to England. John Johnstone in his Corinlus martyr says he died in exile in 1536.

Robert Wedderburn, who graduated M.A. in 1530, was ordained priest, and succeeded his uncle John Barry as vicar of Dundee; but before he came into actual possession he also was suspected of heresy, and was compelled to flee to France and Germany. He returned to Scotland in 1546. He appears to have been actual vicar of Dundee in 1552. His sons were legitimized in January 1553.

The earliest known edition of the Compendious Book of Psalms and Spiritual Songs (of which an unique copy is extant) dates back to 1567, though the contents were probably published in broad sheets during John Wedderburn’s lifetime. It consists of a calendar and a number of Psalms and Spiritual Songs, and includes the German, metrical versions of the Psalms, and a collection of ballads and satirical poems against the Catholic church and clergy. The separate shares of the brothers in this compilation cannot be settled, but Robert is said to have edited the whole and added the section of “gude and godtile ballatitis.” Many of these ballads are adapted from secular songs. Editions of the book appeared in 1578 (printed by John Ros), in 1600 (by Robert Smith), in 1621 (by Ando Hart); selections were published by Lord Hailes (1765) and by Sibbald (1802); a reprint of the 1621 volume was edited by Sir J. G. Dalvell in Scottish Poets of the Sixteenth Century (1803); and of the 1578 volume by David Laing in 1868. In 1897 a song, E. Mitchell reprinted the 1567 volume (exaggerated) for the Scottish Text Society.

Wedderburn’s “Complaint of Scotlande” (1549) has been variously assigned to Robert Wedderburn, Sir David Inglis and Sir James Inglis, who was chaplain of the Abbey of Cambuskenneth from about 1508 to 1550. It is a prose treatise pleading for the maintenance of the Scottish alliance with France, written by a mercantile adventurer and money-lender. It is dedicated to Mary of Guise, and consists of the “Dreme” of Dame Scotia and her complaint against her three sons. These two sections are connected by a Monologue Recreatif,‘ in which the author delineates his own character, his love of knowledge, his love of travel, and tales of astronomy, natural history and naval matters. Four copies of this work are extant, but in none is the title-page preserved. In the Harleian catalogue the book is entered as Wedderburn’s Complainte of Scotlande, wyth ane Exhortation to the three Estatis to be vigilante in the Defens of their Public Veil” (1539) (Catalogue Bibliothecae Angliae).
WEDDING—WEDGWOOD

Hadleianae, vol. i. no. 8371). This title, which is repeated with variations in spelling in vol. iv. no. 12070, bears every mark of authenticity. The book appears to have been printed in France, and the idea of Dame Scotia's exhortations to her sons, the Three Estates, is borrowed from Albert Chastellain (perduif), sometimes of which are appropriated outright. Other passages are borrowings from Octavien de Saint Galais and Sir David Lyndsay. There are strong arguments against Robert Webberburn's authorship, as maintained by Luing and others. It is not likely that he would write in support of Cardinal Beaton's policy, and the dialect is an exaggerated form of Latinized Middle Scots, differing materially from the language of the Compendious Book. Some of the orthographical and typographical peculiarities are due to the fact that the book was set up by Parisian printers. Sir J. A. H. Murray inclines to assign it to Sir James Inglis, or an unknown priest of the name of Wedderburn.

The text of the Complaynt was first edited by Leyden in 1601. Murray's edition for the E.E.T.S. appeared in 1872. The introduction to the latter requires revision in the light of later discoveries as to the plagiarisms in the text. See the paper by W. A. Neilson in The Journal of Germanic Philology (iv.), the note by W. A. Craigie in The Modern Quarterly of Language and Literature (i. 267), Gregory Smith's Specimens of Middle Scots (1902), p. 135 et seq., and the article by J. T. T. Brown in the Scottish Historical Review (January 1904).

WEDDING, the common term for the marriage ceremony. The verb "to wed" is properly to engage by a pledge (O. Eng. wéa, a pledge, wager; cf. Lat. vés, sétis; M. Dutch wéde, pledge, pawn; see Wedgwood, wédlock). The term "wedge" is from Eng. wédge, from Lat. vésca, a gift), used of the state of marriage, or the vows and sacrament of marriage, properly means a gift given as a pledge; cf. Ger. Wertung, the gift to the bride on the morning after the marriage.

See Marriage and Family.

WEDGE (O. Eng. wége, a mass of metal, cognate with Dutch wége, wégge, Dan. væge, &c.; in Lith. the cognate form outside Tout. is found in vågis, a peg, spigot; there is no connexion with "wedge" (vésca) which must be referred to the root weg, to lift, carry, draw, cf. Lat. vehere, whence "vehicle," &c.), a piece of wood or metal, broad and thick at one end, and inclined to a thin edge or point at the other, used as a means for splitting wood, rocks, &c., of keeping two closely pressing surfaces apart, or generally for exerting pressure in a confined space. The "wedge" has sometimes been classed as one of the simple mechanical powers, but it is properly only an application of the inclined plane.

In meteorology, the term "wedge" is used of a narrow area of high pressure lying between two adjacent cyclonic systems, which take the form of a wedge or tongue, as do the isolars representing it on a weather-chart. A wedge moves along between the rear of a retreating cyclone and the front of one advancing, and may be regarded as a projection from an anticyclonic system lying to one side of the course of the cyclones. As the crest of the wedge (i.e., the line of highest pressure) passes over any point the wind there changes suddenly from one direction almost to the opposite, while the clearing weather of the retreating cyclone and the temporary fine weather after its passing are quickly succeeded by a break indicating the approach of the following cyclone. Conditions exactly opposite to those accompanying a wedge are provided by a "V-shaped depression."

WEDGWOOD, JOSIAH (1730-1795), the most distinguished of English manufacturers of pottery, came of a family many members of which had been established as potters in Staffordshire throughout the 17th century and had played a notable part in the development of the infant industry. Dr Thomas Wedgwood of Burslem was one of the best of the early salt-glaze potters. Josiah, born in 1730, was the youngest child of another Thomas Wedgwood, who owned a small but thriving potworks. At a very early age he distinguished himself by keen powers of observation, and interest in all that was curious and beautiful. Soon after the death of his father in 1739, Josiah, then scarcely ten years of age, was taken from school and set to learn the art of "throwing" clay, i.e., shaping pottery vessels on the thrower's wheel, at which he soon became extraordinarily skilful.

In 1744 he was apprenticed to his eldest brother, who had succeeded to the management of his father's pottery; and in 1752, shortly after the term of his apprenticeship had expired, he became manager of a small pottery at Stoke-upon-Trent, known as Elder's pottery, at a very moderate salary. Within a year or two he became junior partner with Thomas Whieldon of Fenton, then the cleverest master-potter in Staffordshire. Many of Whieldon's apprentices afterwards became noted potters, and there can be little doubt that Wedgwood gained greatly at this period of his life by his association with Whieldon. But he was too original to remain long content with a subordinate position, and the pottery business was developing so rapidly that he had every inducement to commence work on his own account.

In 1759 he leased the Ivy House pottery in Burslem from some relatives, and like a sensible man he continued to make only such pottery as was being made at the period by his fellow-manufacturers. Salt-glaze and green and yellow glaze seem to have been his first staples. In 1762 he also leased the Brick-House, alias "Bell" works, at Burslem. The fine white English earthenware was just reaching perfection, and Wedgwood was soon one of its best-known makers. He was most active and energetic in his efforts, not only for the improvement of Staffordshire pottery, but also for the development of a new kind of canal (the Trent & Mersey) and the founding of schools and chapels. Almost the first step in his public career outside his native district was the presentation of a service of his improved cream-coloured earthenware to Queen Charlotte in 1762. The new ware was greatly appreciated, and Wedgwood was appointed potter to the queen and afterwards to the king. He gave the name of Queen's Ware to his productions of this class, and this judicious royal patronage secured him a most deserving manufacturer undoubtedly helped Wedgwood greatly. Having laid the foundations of a successful business in his admirable domestic pottery—ever the best the world had ever seen up to that time—he turned his attention to artistic pottery, and the European renaissance of classic art—fostered by the discovery of Pompeii and the recovery of Greek painted vases from the ancient graves in Campania and other parts of Italy—being at its height it was natural that Wedgwood should turn to such a source of inspiration. Although every European country was affected by this neo-classical revival it may be claimed that England absorbed it more completely than any other country, for the brothers Adam (the architects) and Josiah Wedgwood brought it into absolute correspondence with modern life and ideas. Wedgwood was particularly successful in this direction, for his "dry" bodies—some of which, like the black and cane bodies, had long been known in the district, others, such as the famous Jasper bodies, which he invented after years of laborious effort—lent themselves particularly well to the reproduction of designs based on the later phases of Greek art. If our increased appreciation and knowledge of Greek and Roman art makes us at times impatient with the mechanical perfection of the works of Wedgwood and his contemporaries, the fault is even more the fault of a nation and a period than that of any individual, however com-

It will always remain a matter to Wedgwood's credit that he was the most successful and original potter the world has ever seen—the only one, through all the centuries, of whom it can be truthfully said that the whole subsequent course of pottery manufacture has been influenced by his skill.

Of the externals of his life a few facts will suffice. He married his cousin, Sarah Wedgwood, in 1764, and they had a numerous family of sons and daughters. One of these daughters was the mother of the famous naturalist Charles Darwin. Some time after his marriage (viz. 1768) he entered into a partnership with Thomas Bentley of Liverpool, a man of considerable taste and culture. Bentley, who was a handsome, courtly man, attended largely to the London sales. In 1769 they opened splendid new works, near Hanley, that with their classic leanings they christened "Etruria." They continued a practice of Wedgwood's in employing able artists to produce designs, and the most famous of these was John Flaxman, whose name will for ever be associated with the firm's productions. Bentley died in 1780 and Wedgwood
remained sole owner of the Etruria works until 1790, when he took some of his sons and a nephew, named Byerley, into partnership. He died on the 3rd of January 1795, rich in honours and in friends, for besides being a great potter he was a man of high moral worth, and was associated with many noted men of his time, amongst whom should be mentioned Sir Joseph Banks, Joseph Priestley and Erasmus Darwin. His descendants have carried on the business at Etruria to this day, and have lately established at the works a Wedgwood museum of great interest.

John Quincy Adams ticket, serving for a single session (1825). Two years later, during the excitement over the disappearance of William Morgan (see Anti-Masonic Party), he retired from the Telegraph and threw himself with enthusiasm into the attack on the Masonic order, editing for a time the Anti-Masonic Enquirer. In 1830 he established and became editor of the Albany Evening Journal, which he controlled for thirty-five years. Supporting the Whigs and later the Republicans, it was one of the most influential anti-slavery papers in the north-east; and Thurlow Weed himself became a considerable force in politics. In 1863 he retired from the Journal and settled in New York City. In 1867 he assumed editorial control of the Commercial Advertiser, but was soon compelled to resign on account of ill-health. He died in New York City on the 22nd of November 1882.

*See The Life of Thurlow Weed (vol. i., Autobiography, edited by his daughter, Harriet Weed Weeks, 1883), and Memoir, by his grandson, Thurlow Weed Barnes, Boston and New York, 1884. The Memoir is especially full for the period 1850-1867.*

**WEEHAWKEN,** a township of Hudson county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the N.E. part of the state, on the Hudson river, adjoining Hoboken and opposite the city of New York. Pop. (1890) 1943; (1900) 5325; (1910 census), 11,228. It is served by the New York, Ontario & Western, and the West Shore railways (being a terminus of the latter), and by suburban electric railways, and by ferries. The township consists of a narrow strip of land along the western bank of the Hudson, and at the southern extremity of the Palisades. The extensive water-front is lined with wharves, some of which can accommodate the largest ocean steamers. On a ledge below the crest of the Palisades is the famous dwelling ground, where New York citizens and others once settled their quarrels. Originally a part of Hoboken and North Bergen, the township of Weehawken was separately incorporated in 1859. Its name is an Indian word said to mean "maize land." (From A.S. weic, German *wicum* probably = change, turn), the name given to periods of time, varying in length in different parts of the world, but shorter than a "month." The month may be divided in two ways: a fractional part may be taken (decad or pentad), as in East Africa or Ancient Egypt (moon-week, or the week may be settled without regard to the length of the month (market-week, &c.). The seven-day week (see Calendar) originated in West Asia, spread to Europe and later to North Africa (Mahomedan). In other parts of Africa three, four (especially in the Congo), five, six and eight (double week) are found, and always in association with the market; the same applies to the three-day week of the Muyucas (S. America), the four-day week of the Chichas, the five-day week of Persia, Malaysia, Java, Celebes, New Guinea and Mexico; in ancient Scandinavia a five-day period was in use, but markets were probably unknown. That the recurrence of the market determined the length of the week seems clear from the Wajagga custom of naming the days after the markets they visit, as well as from the fact that on the Congo the word for week is the same as the word for market. Among agricultural tribes in Africa of the day of the week, which varies from place to place, is often a rest-day, visiting the market being the only work allowed.

Lasch in Zts. für Sozialwissenschaft, ix. 619 seq., and N.W. Thomas in Journ. Comparat. Legislation, xix. 90 seq., refer to the week in connexion with the market.

**WEEKS, EDWIN LORD** (1849-1903), American artist, was born at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1849. He was a pupil of Léon Bonnat and of J. L. Gréau, at Paris. He made many
vagories to the East, and was distinguished as a painter of oriental scenes. In 1893 he wrote and illustrated a book of travels, From the Black Sea through Persia and India, and two years later he published Episodes of Mountaineering. He died on the 17th of November 1903. He was a member of the Legion of Honour, France, an officer of the Order of St Michael, Germany, and a member of the Secession, Munich.

**WEENIX, JAN BAPTIST** (1621-1692), Dutch painter, the son of a sculptor, was born in Amsterdam, and studied first under Jan Micker, then at Utrecht under A. Bloemaert, and at Amsterdam under Moijkaert, and finally, between 1643 and 1647, in Rome. In that city he acquired a great name and worked for Pope Innocent and Cardinal Pamphilii. He returned to his native country in 1649, in which year he became master of the guild of St Luke at Utrecht, where he died in 1660. He was a very productive and versatile painter, his favourite subjects being landscapes with ruins and large figures, seaports, and, later in life, large still-life pictures of dead game. Now and then he attempted religious scenes, one of these kinds being the “Jacob and Esau” at the Dresden Gallery. At the National Gallery, London, is a “Hunting Scene” by the master, and the Glasgow Gallery has a characteristic painting of ruins. Weenix is represented at most of the important continental galleries, notably at Munich, Vienna, Berlin, Amsterdam, and St Petersburg. His chief pupils were his son Jan, Berchom, and Hooch decon. His son, JAN WEENIX (1630-1719), was born at Amsterdam and was a member of the Utrecht guild of painters in 1664 and 1668. Like his father, he tried almost any kind of subject, but his fame is chiefly due to his paintings of dead game and of hunting scenes. Indeed, many of the pictures of this genre, which were formerly ascribed to the elder Weenix, are now generally considered to be the works of his son, who even at the early age of twenty rivalled, and subsequently surpassed, his father in breadth and handling of richness. At Amsterdam he was frequently employed to decorate private houses with wall-paintings on canvas; and between 1702 and 1712 he was occupied with an important series of large hunting pictures for the Prince Palatine Johann Wilhelm’s castle of Bensberg, near Cologne. Some of these pictures are now at Munich Gallery. He died at Amsterdam in 1719. Many of his best works are to be found in English private collections, though the National Gallery has but a single example, a painting of dead game and a dog. Jan Weenix is well represented at the galleries of Amsterdam, The Hague, Haarlem, Rotterdam, Berlin, and Paris.

**WEEVER, JOHN** (1576-1632), English poet and antiquary, a native of Lancashire, was born in 1576. He was educated at Queens’ College, Cambridge, where he resided for about four years from 1594, but he took no degree. In 1599 he published Epigrams in the Oldest Cut and Newest Fashion, containing a sonnet on Shakespeare, and epigrams on Samuel Daniel, Michael Drayton, Ben Jonson, William Warner and Christopher Middleton, all of which are valuable to the literary historian. In 1601 he published The Mirror of Martyrs or The Life and Death of... Sir John Oldcastle, which he calls in his preface the "first true Oldcastle," perhaps on account of the fact that Shakespeare’s Falstaff first appeared as Sir John Oldcastle. In the fourth stanza of this long poem, in which Sir John is his own panegyrist, occurs a reminiscence of Shakespeare’s Julius Caesar which serves to fix the date of the play. After travelling in France, the Low Countries and Italy, Weever settled in Clerkenwell, and made friends among the chief antiquaries of his time. The result of extensive travels in his own country appeared in Ancient Funerall Monuments (1631), now valuable on account of the later obliteration of the inscriptions.

The Huth Library contains a unique copy of a thumb-book Aegus Deltu (1549), containing a history of Christ. The Mirror of Martyrs has been reprinted for the Roxburghe Club (1872).

**WEEVER.** The weevers (Trachinus) are small marine fishes which are common on the coasts of Europe, and which have attained notoriety from the painful and sometimes dangerous wounds they are able to inflict upon those who incautiously handle them. They belong to a family of spiny-rayed fishes (Trachinidae), and are distinguished by a long low body with two dorsal fins, the anterior of which is composed of six or seven spines only, the posterior being long and many-rayed; their anal resembles in form and composition the second dorsal fin. The ventral fins are placed in advance of the pectorals, and consist of two, which are both five in number; the second being the longest. The body is covered with very small scales, sunk in and firmly adherent to the skin, but the upper surface of the head is bony, without integument. The head, like the body, is compressed, with the eyes of moderate size and placed on the side of the head; the mouth is wide, oblique, and armed with bands of very small teeth.

Several species of weevers are known, but two only occur on the British coasts, viz., the Greater Weever (Trachinus draco) and the Lesser Weever (T. vipera); the former is frequently found of a length of 12 in., and possesses some thirty rays in the second dorsal fin, whilst the latter grows only to about half that length, and has about ten rays less in the dorsal. The coloration of both is plain, but the short first dorsal fin is always of a deep black colour. The weevers are bottom fish, burrowing and hiding themselves in the sand or between shingle—the lesser species living close inshore and the greater preferring deeper water, and being found sometimes floating on the surface of the sea, especially at a distance from land. The weevers, though weevers, especially the lesser, are in the habit of burrying themselves in the sand, and are abundant in some localities much more than their batters, and it is not unusual for some weevers to be found more rare than from incautiously handling them after capture. They probably make their escape on perceiving the approach of a person. The wounds are inflicted by the dorsal and opercular spines, which are very painful, and sometimes cause violent local inflammation.


**WEEVIL, Anglo-Saxon widel, a term now commonly applied to the members of a group of Coleoptera termed the Rhyphophora.** This group is characterized by the prolongation of the head into a rostrum or proboscis, at the end of which the mouth, with its appendages, is placed. The antennae are usually elbowed, and often end in a club-shaped swelling. The basal portion of the antennae frequently lies in a depression at the side of the head; this is in contrast with this group, where it is usually on the middle part of the head. The antennae are frequently inserted midway along the rostrum. The mouth appendages are small; the mandibles, however, are stout. The palps are very much conical as a rule. The body is usually small; in shape it varies very much. Theelytra are very hard, and in some cases fused with one another, rendering flight impossible. The larvae are white, fleshy, apodal grubs, with a series of tubercles along each side of the body; the head is round, and bears strong jaws, and sometimes rudimentary ocelli. They are exclusively phytophagous. The Rhyphophora embrace four families,—(1) the Curculionidae, or true weevils; (2) the Scolytidae, or bark-beetles; (3) the Brevitidae; (4) the Anthribidae.

The Curculionidae form one of the largest families amongst the Coleoptera, the number of species described exceeding 26,000, arranged in 1150 genera. The antennae are elongated, and the basal portion inserted in a groove. The third tarsal joint is generally bilobed. Over 400 species exist in Great Britain, few of which exceed half an inch in length. The genera Phyllobius and Polydorus include some of the most beautiful insects found in Britain—their brilliancy, like that of the Lepidoptera, being due to the presence of microscopical scales. The ground colour of some of the species of America, Eutritius imperialis, is another singularly beautiful weevil; its colour is black, studded with spangles of golden green. The included family of Phyllobius, the Curculionidae includes many genera which differ greatly from one another in size, colour, and appearance; even the rostrum, the most striking common characteristic, varies greatly. The form of the body is very various: some are rounded near the coasts and others elongated. Almost linear; some are covered with warty protuberances, whilst others are smooth and shining, often with a metallic luster.

One of the commonest members of this family in Great Britain is the nut weevil, Balanitis nucum. It is of a brownish colour,
varied with yellow, the legs reddish. Its rostrum is unusually long, being five-sixths of the body length in the female, and slightly shorter in the male. The antennae are 7-jointed. The first three joints are much longer than thick; the four following are shorter, and the seventh not longer than thick. The larva is very common in hazed nuts and filberts. When the nuts are about half-grown, the caterpillar bores, with its rostrum, a minute hole in the still comparatively soft nut-shell, and deposits an egg within the nut. The egg is said to be pushed in by means of the long rostrum. As the nut grows the length of the antennae becomes almost obliterated, so that it is unnoticed by all but the most observant eye. The larva is a thick white grub, with a brownish head, bearing fleshy tubercles along its side. It feeds upon the substance of the nut. The nuts which are infested by this insect are usually the first to fall to the ground; the larva then bores a round hole through the nut shell, by means of its jaws, and creeps out. It hides itself in the ground during the winter, and in the spring it passes through the pupa stage, from which it emerges about August as the full-grown insect. A nearly allied form, Balanus glandium, attacks both hazel nuts and acorns.

In an obtrusive way weevils do immense harm to vegetation. This is effected not so much by their numbers and their powers of consumption, as amongst caterpillars, but by their habits of attacking the essential parts of a plant, and causing by their injuries the death of the plant affected. They destroy the young buds, shoots and fruits, and attack the young plants in their most delicate organs. Many of them devour seeds, as the corn weevils, Callais oryzae, and C. oryzae, and in this way vegetation is severely injured, and its spread seriously checked. Others cause much damage in forests, by boring under the bark and through the wood of trees, whilst some even burrow in the tissue of the leaves.

The Brenthidae, Anthribidae and Scolytidae are described in the article Coleoptera. The Scolytidae are often called "weevils," but they have no close affinity with the Rhynchophora, being nearly allied to the Chrysomelidae or leaf beetles. The antennae are straight, and inserted upon the head just in front of the eyes; they are 11-jointed, and serrated on the upper sides corresponding with the saw-like teeth. They have no power of self-defense; during the spring the beetle lays its eggs in the young pea, which is devoured by the larva which hatches out in it.

WEGSCHIEDER, JULIUS AUGUST LUDWIG (1771-1849), German theologian, was born at Kihelingen, Brunswick, on the 17th of September 1771, studied theology at Helmstedt, was tutor in a Hamburg family 1795-1803, Repentant at Göttingen, professor of theology at Rinteln in Hesse (1806-1815), and at Halle from 1815. In 1830 he (with his colleague Wilhelm Gesenius) was threatened with deposition for teaching rationalism, and though he retained his office he lost his influence, which passed to F. A. Thouless and Julius Müller. He died on the 27th of January 1840.

His chief works were Über die von der neuesten Philosophie geforderte Trennung der Moral von der Religion (1804); Einleitung in das Evangelium Johannis (1806); and Institutiones theologicae dogmaticae (1815), to which W. Steiger's Kritik des Rationalismus in Wegscherder's Dogmatik (1830) was a reply.

WEIGHING MACHINES. Mechanical devices for determining weights or comparing the masses of bodies may be classified as (a) equal-armed balances, (b) unequal-armed balances, (c) spring balances and (d) automatic machines. Equal-armed balances may be divided into (1) scale-beams or balances in which the scale-panes are below the beam; (2) counter machines and balances on the same principle, in which the scale-panes are above the beam. Unequal-armed balances may be divided into (1) balances consisting of a single steelyard; (2) balances formed by combinations of unequal-armed levers and steelyards, such as platform machines, weighbridges, &c.

Equal-armed Balances.

Scale-beams are the most accurate balances, and the most generally used. When constructed for purposes of extreme accuracy they will turn with the one-millionth part of the load weighed, though to ensure such a result the knife-edges and their bearings must be extremely hard (either hardened steel or agate) and worked up with great care. The beam must be balanced with a small weight that can be screwed up and down a stem on the top of the beam for the purpose of precisely adjusting the position of the centre of gravity, and there should be a small adjustable weight on a fine screw projecting horizontally from one end of the beam for the purpose of accurately balancing the arms.

The theory of the scale-beam is stated by Weisbach in his Mechanics of Machinery and Engineering, as follows:—In fig. 1 D is the fulcrum of the balance. The weight of the arm is the centre of gravity of the beam, and the lengths of the arms alone. When the weights are equal, &c.

\[
\text{AC} = \text{BC} = \text{EF} = \text{SD} = \text{DF}
\]

The scale is so adjusted that the balance of the horizontal = α, the weight of the beam alone = ω, the weight on one side = ρ, that on the other = P + Z, and lastly the weight of each scale with its appurtenances = Q then

\[
\tan \theta = \frac{PZ + 2Q}{2Q + P - Z + 2\tan \theta}
\]

From this it is inferred that the deviation, and therefore the sensibility, of the balance increases with the length of the beam, and decreases as the distances, a and z, increase; also, that a heavy balance is, ceteris paribus, less sensitive than a light one, and that the sensitive-ness decreases as the distance of the counter-weight increases. In order to increase the sensibility of a balance, the line AB joining the points of suspension and the centre of gravity of the balance must be brought nearer to each other. Finally, if a is made extremely small, so that practically tan θ = ω/2Q, the sensibility is independent of the amount weighed by the balance. Weisbach also shows that, if Gy is the moment of inertia of the beam, the time, t, of a vibration of the balance is

\[
t = \pi \sqrt{\frac{2}{g} \left(\frac{P + Z}{2Q} + \frac{Q}{2Q + P - Z + 2\tan \theta}\right)}
\]

This shows that the time of a vibration increases as P, Q and l, and increase, and a and Z diminish. Therefore with equal weights a balance vibrates more slowly the more sensitive it is, and therefore weighing by a sensitive balance is a slower process than with a less sensitive one.

The conditions which must be fulfilled by a scale-beam in proper adjustment are:—(1) The beam must take up a horizontal position when the weights in the two scale-panes are equal, from nothing to the full weighing capacity of the machine. (2) The beam must take up a definite position of equilibrium for a given small difference of weight in the scale-panes. The sensibility, i.e. the angle of deviation of the beam from the horizontal after it has come to rest, due to a given small difference of weight in the scale-panes, should be such as is suited to the purposes for which the balance is intended. Bearing in mind that with ordinary trade balances there is always a possibility of the scale-panes and chains getting interchanged, these conditions require: (a) That the beam without the scale-panes and chains must be equally balanced and horizontal; (b) that the two scale-panes with their chains must be of equal weight; (c) that the arms of the beam must be equal in length; i.e. the line joining the end knife edges must be exactly bisected by a line drawn perpendicular to it from the fulcrum knife-edge. By testing the beam with the scale-panes attached and equal weights in the pans, and noting carefully the position which it takes up; and then interchanging the scale-panes, &c., and again noting the position which the beam takes up, a correct influence can be drawn as to the causes of failure. Another test for the knife-edges and scale-panes in the direction indicated by the experiment, the operation is repeated, any required degree of accuracy may be obtained by successive approximations. The chief reason for testing the balance in this way is that, if the weights are interchanged with the scale-panes empty, that the balance might be unstable with the weights though stable without them. This is not an infrequent occurrence, and arises from the tendency on the part of manufacturers to make balances so extremely sensitive that they are on the verge of instability.

In fig. 2 let ABCD be the beam of a scale-beam, Z the
fulcrum knife-edge, and X, Y the knife-edges on which the scales are hung. In order to ensure a high degree of sensitiveness, balances are sometimes constructed so that Z is slightly below the line joining X and Y, and is only slightly above it. The centre of gravity of the beam with the scale-pan and chains attached. The addition of weights in the scales will have the effect of lowering the top of the beam, and the balance, becoming unstable, will turn till it is brought up by a stop of some kind.

Fig. 2 represents a precision balance constructed to weigh with great accuracy. The beam is of bronze in a single deep casting, cored out in the middle so as to allow the saddle at the top of the stand to pass through the beam and afford a continuous bearing for the fulcrum knife-edge. The knife-edge and its bearing are both of steel or agate, and the bearing surface is flat. Also are of steel or agate, and have continuous bearing on flat steel or agate surfaces at the upper part of the suspension links. To relieve the knife-edges from wear when the balance is not being used a triangular frame is provided, which is lifted and lowered by a cam action at the bottom, and moves vertically in guides fixed on the stand. By its upward movement the tops of the screw studs near its ends are first received by the projecting studs on each side of the suspension links, and the suspension links are lifted off the end knife-edges; and next, as the sliding frame continues its upward motion, the horizontal studs at the two ends of the beam are received in the forks at the ends of the sliding frame, and by them the fulcrum of the beam is lifted off its bearing. To keep the beam truly in its place, which is very necessary, as all the bearings are flat, the projecting ends of the central piece of steel which forms the fulcrum take bearing on two cheeks of the stand, between which the beam sways. It is clear that errors will arise if the pieces of steel are not truly perpendicular to the plane of the beam, and the adjustment of correct accuracy is shown by the deflection of the beam. With the balances of precision the end knife-edges are fixed on the top of the beam so as to present a continuous unbroken knife-edge, and the fulcrum knife-edge is also fixed in an end, pierced or cut away to admit of the introduction of the stand bearing. With this arrangement the knife-edges can be easily adjusted and examined, and the system is now rapidly extending to all classes of balances.

The knife-edges of weighing machines are the parts that wear out soonest, but very little is known about them experimentally, and the knife-edges made by different makers vary extremely in their resistance to wear. For the scales of delicate machines are made of the hardest materials, and some are constructed so that the delicate machines are formed to an angle of about 80° between the sides, with the finished edge ground to an angle varying from 110° to 120°. The weight of the knife-edges is very great.

In some respects it would appear to be very suitable for weigheedges, in which the machine is very small, but for general commercial reasons the adjustment of the knife-edges is more rigorous. In the comparison of standard weights, or in any weighing operations where great accuracy is required, it is necessary to use many precautions. The comparison of standard weights has to be conducted at the standard temperature, and the room must be brought to that temperature and maintained at it. The balance must be enclosed in a glass case to protect it from draughts of air or from the heat of the body of the operator. The air-escape and shifting the weight must be effected by mechanism which will enable this to be done without opening the case or exposing the machine.

When the weights which are to be compared are of different metals further complications arise, for the volumes of equal weights of different materials will be different, and therefore the quantity of air displaced by them will vary. When the weight is placed on the beam, the volume of air displaced by the two weights must be ascertained. And the weight of air displaced depends upon the density of the air at the time of weighing, and therefore the barometer reading must be taken. For this correction an exact knowledge of the specific weights of the metals under comparison is required. In this way an exact comparison of the weights in troy can be computed, but of course the simplest way of arriving at the result would be by the construction of a standard air-tight case which can be completely exhausted by air by air-pump, and in which the weighing can then be effected in troy. The difficulty about weighing in troy is found that it is impossible to maintain a constant degree of exhaustion, because of the leakage connected with weighing operations, and in consequence weighing in troy is not much in favour. Whatever method is adopted very exact weighing is discussed much rapid work. Counter machines have the advantage over scale-beams in not being encumbered with suspension chains and the beam above. They are usually made with two beams, each with its knife-edge tie to the piece of some distance apart, so that the balance-pan being carried on two knife-edges, is prevented from tipping over sideways. To prevent them from the beam above the pan and shifting, the knife-edge is fixed to the under side of each pan, the lower end of which is loosely secured by a horizontal stay to a pin in the middle of the frame. In using these machines there is seldom any question of placing the pan, as in the case of the beam which is generally of high importance. Hence they are very commonly made unstable, or "accelerating," i.e., they are constructed with the fulcrum knife-edges lower than the beam joining the end knife-edges and are arranged so that the beam is horizontal when the stop of the weights-pan is hard down on its bearings. This arrangement
WEIGHING MACHINES [UNEQUAL-ARMED]

is well adapted for weighing out parcels of goods of a definite weight, though not for ascertaining the correct weight of a given article. For the latter purpose machines are used of which the beams are made stable, or "vibrating," by constructing them with the fulcrum knife-edges above the line joining the end knife-edges. "Accelerating" machines can be used to the advantage of the vendor in two ways. Firstly, in using them to determine the weight of a given article. For with unstable balances, although the smallest excess of weight in the goods-pan will cause it to descend till it is brought up by its stop, yet being in this position, a very much greater weight than the difference which brought it there will be required in the weights-pan to enable it to mount again. If \( W \) be the weight in each pan when the goods-pan commenced to sink, \( j \) the length of each arm, \( m \) the distance of the fulcrum below the line joining the end knife-edges, and \( \theta \) the angle at the fulcrum which defines the range of sway of the beam, it can easily be shown that \( w \), the additional weight required in the weights-pan to enable the goods-pan to rise from its stop, is given by the equation \( w = W \frac{m}{L} \tan \theta \). So that if, for example, a fishmonger uses such a machine to ascertain the weight of a piece of fish which he places in the goods-pan, and thereby depresses it down upon its stop, and then places weights in the weights-pan till the goods-pan rises, the customer is charged for more than the real weight of the fish. Secondly, in using them out of level, with the goods end of the machine lower than the weights end. If \( \theta \) be the angle of tilt of the machine, and the other symbols be as before, it may be shown that the additional weight, \( w \) on the pan, as at D or E. Using the symbols of the diagram, it can be shown that the effect of placing the weight \( W \) at E instead of F is to cause the end of the beam to descend, as if under the action of an additional weight, \( w \), at \( F \) such that

\[
w = W \frac{m}{L} \tan \theta \tan \theta.
\]

The condition that must exist in order that the balance may weigh correctly for all positions of the weight \( W \) is \( w = a \), or \( \tan \theta = -\frac{m}{a} \); that is, the stay KG must be adjusted parallel to the line joining the points A and C. From the equation for \( w \), it is seen that the larger \( h \) is the smaller \( w \) will be. Therefore for the larger counter machines, where it is not convenient to have the scale-pan raised high above the counter, and for "dead-weight" machines on the other principle, where it is not convenient to have the scale-pan raised high above the floor, there is an advantage in adopting the "inverted counter machine arrangement (fig. 5), because the vertical axis can be produced up upon the machine. This arrangement is very common. As will be readily understood from the construction of the machines, there is more friction in counter machines than in scale-beams. The "sensitiveness" error allowed by the Board of Trade for counter machines is five times as great as that allowed for scale-beams.

The torsion balance made by the United States Torsion Balance and Scale Company of New York is a counter machine made without knife-edges, and is very sensitive. It is constructed with two similar beams, one above the other, which are coupled together at the ends to form a parallel motion for carrying the pans up right. The coupling is effected by firmly clamping the ends of the beams upon the top and bottom respectively of a loop of watch-spring, which is tightly stretched round the casting carrying the pan, as is shown in the end view in fig. 6. At their middles the beams are similarly clamped upon the bottom of a loop of watch-spring which is tightly stretched round a casting which is bolted upon the bed-plate. When the case which holds the machine is adjusted horizontally by means of its foot-screws, and the weights in the pans are equal, the beams remain perfectly horizontal; but with the slightest difference of weight in the pans the beams are tilted, and the elastic resistance of the springs to torsion allows the beams to take up a definite position of equilibrium. The lower beam carries on a saddle a scale which is raised nearly to the top of the glass case in which the machine is enclosed, and as the beams sway this scale plays past a scratch on the glass, which is so placed that when the zero point on the scale coincides with the scratch the beams are horizontal. With proper care this machine should be very permanent in its action.

Unequal-armed Balances.

Steelyards are simple, trustworthy and durable, but unless special contrivances are introduced for ascertaining the position of the travelling poise with very great accuracy, there will be a little uncertainty as to the reading, and therefore steelyards are not in general so accurate as scale-beams. When carefully nickel-plated or well-varnished for weighing out definite quantities of goods, such as 1 lb, 2 lb, &c., as in such cases there is no question of estimation. The ordinary way of using a steelyard is to bring it into a horizontal position by means of movable weights, and to infer the amount of the load from the positions of these. But it is sometimes convenient to use a fixed weight on the long arm, and to infer the amount of the load from the position of the steelyard. The rule for graduation is very simple. The simplest form is that which has a single travelling poise. The more elaborate ones are made either with a heavy travelling poise, or with the bulk of the load enclosed, or with a fixed poise, or else with a knife-edge at the end of the steelyard, on which loose weights are hung to measure the bulk of the load, the remainder being measured with a light travelling poise. The advantage of the first arrangement is that the weights on the steelyard are always the same, and inconsistencies of indication are avoided, while in the second arrangement the loose weights are lighter and handier, though they must be very accurate and consistent among themselves, or the error will be considerable, by reason of the great leverage they exert.

Steelyards, like other weighing machines, will be "accelerating," or "vibrating," according to the arrangement of the knife-edges.
UNEQUAL-ARMED WEIGHING MACHINES

In fig. 7 let Z be the fulcrum knife-edge, X the knife-edge on which the load R is hung, and H the centre of gravity of the weights to the right of Z, viz., the weight, W, of the steelyard and the contents of the box of gravity; G, the travelling poise; P, acting at M; and the weights, Q, hung on the knife-edge at Y. Then if Z be below the line joining X and H, the steelyard will be "accelerating," i.e., with the smallest excess of moment on the right-hand side of the fulcrum, the end C of the steelyard will rise with accelerating velocity till it is brought up by a stop of some sort; and with the smallest excess of moment on the left-hand side of the fulcrum, the end C will drop, and will descend with accelerating velocity till it is brought up by a similar stop. If Z be above the line XH, the steelyard is "vibrating," i.e., it will sway or vibrate up and down, ultimately coming to rest in its position of equilibrium. STEELEYARDS are frequently arranged as counter machines, having a scoop or pan resting on a pair of knife-edges at the short end, which is prevented from tipping over by a stay arrangement similar to that of other counter machines.

Steeleyards are largely used in machines for the automatic weighing out of granular substances. The principle is as follows: The weighing is effected by a steelyard with a sliding poise which is set to weigh a definite weight of the material. A packet of the material rests on the knife-edges at the short end, and is kept from tipping over by stays. A packet is placed on the pan to receive the material from the slot of a hopper. A rod, connected at its lower end with the steelyard, carries at its upper end a horizontal double knife-edge which cuts off the flow from the slot when the steelyard kicks. When the filled packet is removed, the steelyard resumes its original position, and the filling goes on automatically.

The automatic personal weighing machine found at most railway stations operates by means of a steelyard carrying a fixed weight on its long arm, the load on the platform being inferred from the position of the steelyard. In fig. 8 the weight on the platform is transferred by levers to the vertical steel band, A, which is wrapped round an arbor on the axis of the disk-wheel, B, to which is rigidly attached the toothed segment, C. The weight, D, is rigidly attached to the axe of the wheel, B, and the counterbalance, E, is in equilibrium with the wheel, B, by means of a cord wrapped round it. When the pull of the band, A, comes upon the wheel, B, it revolves through a certain angle in the direction of the arrow until each of the three forces, viz., the pull of A, the weight, D, and the counterbalance, E, are in equilibrium. The toothed segment, C, actuates the pinion, F, which carries the finger, G, and this finger remains in position so long as the person is standing on the platform. If now a small weight, as a penny, be passed through the slot, H, it falls into the small box, I, and causes the lever, J, to turn; the lever, J, which turns in friction wheels at K, and is counterbalanced at O, carries a toothed segment, L, which actuates a small pinion on the same axle as F, and is free to turn on that axle by a sleeve. This small pinion actuates a finger, M, which is arranged to catch against the finger, G, when moved up to it. Consequently as the lever, J, turns, the finger, M, revolves, and is stopped when it reaches G. The finger, G, which carries M also carries the dial finger, and if the dial is properly graduated its finger will indicate the weight. The box, I, has a hinged bottom with a projecting click finger which, as the box descends, plays idly over the staves of a ladder arc. When the weight is removed from the platform, the counterbalance, E, causes the finger, G, to run back to its zero position, carrying with it the finger, M, and causing the click finger of the box, I, to trip open the bottom of the box and let the penny fall out. This lever, J, to which the above described counter is attached, is set to zero position, and all is ready for another weighing. Since so small a weight as a penny has to move the lever, J, together with the dial to zero position, and the friction kept very low by means of friction wheels.

Some of the largest and most accurate steelyards are those made for testing machines for tearing and crushing samples of metals and other materials. They are hung on a weight 1 ton, which has a run of 200 in., and the steelyard can exert a pull of 100 tons.

Balances are frequently used as counting machines, when the articles counted are all of the same weight or nearly so, and this method is both quick and accurate. They are also used as trade computing machines, as in the case of the machine made by the Computing Scale Company, Ltd., in Dayton, Ohio. In this machine the goods to be priced are placed on the platform of a small platform machine whose steelyard is adjusted to balance exactly the weight of the platform, levers and connections. The rod which transmits the pull of the long body lever of the platform machine to the knife-edge at the end of the short arm of the steelyard is continued upwards, and by a simple mechanical arrangement transmits to an upper steelyard any additional pull of the long body lever due to the weight of goods placed on the platform. This upper steelyard is arranged as in fig. 9, where A is the point where the pull of the long body lever due to the weight of the goods on the platform comes upon the lever B; C is the moving steelyard, which with the steelyard can be slid to and fro on the frame of the machine; and Q is a poise which can be slid along the upper bar of the steelyard. The steelyard is exactly in balance when there is no weight on the platform and Q is at the zero end of its run, at O. Suppose that the weight of the goods on the platform is (p) lb, and that 1/4th of this weight is transmitted by the long body lever to the point A, so that 1/4 lb is the pull at A. Let the lower bar of the steelyard be graduated in equal divisions of length, d, each of which represents one penny, so that the distance CA = qX d represents q pence. Then the number pX d represents the total value of the goods on the platform. If Q is the weight of the poise Q, the position of Q when the steelyard is exactly in balance is given by the equation 1/2gX d = QXOQ, or Q = pX dX OQ. If the upper bar is graduated in divisions, each of which is 1/4 Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods. Thus to ascertain the value of goods on the platform of unknown weight at a given price per lb, it is only necessary to slide the steelyard till the weight acts at a division which represents the price per lb, and read it off. The poise Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods. Thus to ascertain the value of goods on the platform of unknown weight at a given price per lb, it is only necessary to slide the steelyard till the weight acts at a division which represents the price per lb, and read it off. The poise Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods. Thus to ascertain the value of goods on the platform of unknown weight at a given price per lb, it is only necessary to slide the steelyard till the weight acts at a division which represents the price per lb, and read it off. The poise Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods. Thus to ascertain the value of goods on the platform of unknown weight at a given price per lb, it is only necessary to slide the steelyard till the weight acts at a division which represents the price per lb, and read it off. The poise Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods. Thus to ascertain the value of goods on the platform of unknown weight at a given price per lb, it is only necessary to slide the steelyard till the weight acts at a division which represents the price per lb, and read it off. The poise Q, the indication of the poise Q, viz., pX d graduations, gives correctly the value of the goods.

In the machines commonly used to weigh loads exceeding 2 cwt, the power is applied at the end of the long arm of the steelyard and transmitted by levers from 100 to 500 times, so that the weights used are small and handy. The load is received upon four knife-edges, so that on the average each knife-edge receives only one-fourth of the load, and, as will be seen, it is immaterial whether the load is received equally by the four knife-edges or not, which is essential to the useful application of these machines.

In fig. 10 AB is the steelyard. The platform and the load upon it are carried on four knife-edges, two of which, x1, x2, are set to the steelyard by the two levers shown, the upper one CD being known as the "long body," and the lower one EF as the "short body." If x1 = x2, and x1 = x2, then the platform and the load applied at x1 will be the same as the leverage of any part of the load supplied at x1, and the pressure produced at x1 will be the same for equal portions of the load, whether they were originally applied at x1 or x2. Platform machines, like this, may be arranged either on the "accelerating" principle or on the "vibrating" principle. If in fig. 10 p be the centre of
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gravity of the long body CD, and \( h \) be the centre of gravity of the three vertical forces acting downwards at the points \( x_1 \), \( i \) and \( n \), considered as weights collected at those points; then if \( h \) be above the line \( 2y_3 \) it can be shown that this arrangement of the knife-edges of CD favours the "acceleration" principle, and is suited to act with and assist an "accelerating" steelyard, and similarly if the point \( h \) be above the line \( 2y_3 \) in the case of the short body EF. If the knife-edges be placed so that \( h_1 \) and \( h_2 \) are below the lines \( 2y_3 \) and \( 2y_3 \) respectively, the arrangement will favour the "vibration" principle, and is suited to act with and assist a "vibrating" steelyard.

It is very important that platform machines should be truly level. With accelerating machines a small amount of tilt in any direction considerably affects the accuracy of the weighing, and when the amount of tilt is considerable the action may be changed, so that a machine which was intended to act as an accelerating machine acts like a vibrating one. Vibrating machines are only slightly affected by being out of level in comparison with accelerating machines, and in this matter they have a distinct advantage. When a platform machine is in true adjustment, and the loose weights which are intended to be hung at the end of the steelyard are correct and consistent among themselves, a good and new machine, whose capacity is 4 cwt., should not show a greater error than 4 oz. when fully loaded. Platform machines are slightly affected by changes of temperature. In some cases they are made "self-recording" by the following arrangement: The steelyard is provided with a large and a small travelling poise. Each of these poises carries a horizontal strip of metal, which is graduated and marked with raised figures corresponding to those on the steelyard itself. These strips pass under a strong punching lever arranged on the frame of the machine. A card prepared for the purpose is introduced through a slit in the frame between the punch and the strips. When the poises have been adjusted to weigh a load on the platform the punch is operated by a strong pull, and the impression of the raised figures is left on the card. Thus the weight is recorded without reading the positions of the poises. In another arrangement the self-recording parts are entirely enclosed in the travelling poise itself.

Fig. 11 shows the ordinary arrangement of the parts of a platform machine, but there are many types which differ greatly in detail though not in principle.

When the goods to be weighed are very heavy, portable weighbridges or platform machines are inapplicable and it is necessary to erect the weighbridge on a solid foundation. Some weighbridges are arranged in a manner similar to that of the platform machines already described, but having the long body lever turned askew, so that the end of it projects considerably beyond the side of the weighbridge casing, and the pillar and steelyard which receive its pull are clear of the wagon or the platform. In another arrangement two similar triangular levers take bearing on opposite sides of an intermediate lever which communicates their pressures to the steelyard; this is a very sound and simple arrangement for ordinary long weighbridges. Lastly, when the weighbridge is very long—and they are sometimes made 40 ft. long—and are arranged to weigh up to 100 tons or more—it is practically composed of two platform machines end to end, each having its four knife-edges to receive the load, and the two long bodies take bearing on the opposite sides of an intermediate horizontal lever, the end of which is connected with the steelyard. When skillfully made they are very accurate and durable.

A useful application of weighbridges is to ascertain the exact weights on the separate wheels of locomotive engines, so that they may be properly adjusted. For this purpose a number of separate weighbridges of simple construction are erected, one for each wheel of the engine, with their running surfaces in exactly the same horizontal plane. The engine is moved on them, and the pressures of all the wheels are taken simultaneously, each by its own weighbridge.

There are many kinds of weighing machines depending for their action on combinations of levers, and arranged to meet special requirements. Such are coal platform machines for weighing out coal in sacks, the levers of which are arranged as in the ordinary platform machines, but for the sake of compactness the steelyard is returned back over the long body, and when loaded with the proper weight indicates the correct weight of the coal in the sack by its end kicking up. Crane machines are used to weigh goods as they are hoisted by a crane; the lever arrangement is shown in fig. 12. A crane machine of peculiar construction, well adapted for weighing heavy loads, and extremely simple and compact, which does not properly come under any of the heads under which the machines have been classified, is the hydrostatic weighing machine. This machine is constructed with an open top cylinder, a stirrup strap being provided by which it may be suspended from a crane.

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**Fig. 10.**

**Plan with cover removed.**

**Fig. 11.**

- **Section on AB.**
- **Section on CD.**
- **Section on EF.**
cylinder, which is filled with oil or other liquid, is fitted with a piston having a piston-rod passing downwards and terminating in an attachment for the goods to be weighed. As the goods are lifted by the crane the whole of their weight is taken by the liquid in the

FIG. 12.

cylinder, and the pressure on the liquid, as indicated by a pressure gauge, gives the weight. The gauge has a plain dial, marked off by indications given by the application of standard tons and cwt.; it could probably be read to about 1% of the load weighed.

Spring Balances.

For many purposes spring balances are the most convenient of all weighing machines. They are rapid in action, the indication is in general clear, and there is no need of loose weights except for testing the machine occasionally. Their action depends upon the extension of one or more spiral springs, and as the extension is proportionate to the weight which causes it the graduation is very simple. The accuracy of spring machines depends upon the accuracy of the springs and the workmanship of the machines. The springs in general are very accurate and uniform in their extension, and are very permanent when fairly well used; but their indications are apt to vary from fatigue of the springs if they are kept extended for a weight for a long time. Their indications also vary with the temperature, so that for good work it is advisable that spring balances should be frequently checked with standard weights. For the sake of compactness and convenience of reading the extension of the springs, and consequently the load, is frequently indicated on a dial, by means of a small rack and pinion, which give motion to a finger on the dial-plate, but the regularity and correctness of the indications of the finger will depend upon the condition of the rackwork and upon the friction, and these will vary with the wear of the machine. For the above reasons spring balances are not in general so accurate as knife-edge machines. It is found that when a spiral spring is extended by a weight it has a tendency to turn a little round its axis. Therefore an index pointer attached to the bottom of the spring, and moving past a scale would rub slightly against the case. To correct this tendency the spring is usually made half with right-hand spiral and half with left-hand spiral.

The extension of a spiral spring is given by the formula:

\[ \text{Extension} = W \times R \times \frac{E}{12E_s} \]

in which \( W \) = weight causing extension, in lbs; \( n \) = number of coils; \( R \) = radius of spring, from centre of coil to centre of wire, in inches; \( r \) = radius of wire of which the spring is made, in inches; \( E \) = coefficient of elasticity of wire, in lbs per square inch. The value of \( E \) depends upon the tempering of the wire and will vary accordingly: for the springs of trade balances \( E \) will usually be about 10,500,000. For the application of the above formula it is necessary to measure \( R \) and \( r \) very accurately, by reason of the high powers involved, but when this has been carefully done the formula may be relied upon. Thus in the case of a spring for which the values of the quantities were \( W = 7 \) lb, \( n = 51 \), \( R = 0.30 \) in., \( r = 0.018 \) in., \( E = 10,500,000 \), the formula gives extension \( = 1.764 \) in., while direct experiment gave extension \( = 1.75 \) in. And with a very long and weak spring for which the values of the quantities were \( W = 1 \) oz., \( n = 233 \), \( R = 0.33 \) in., \( r = 0.0085 \) in., \( E = 10,500,000 \), the formula gives extension \( = 22.78 \) in., while direct experiment with the spring gave \( 23.5 \) in.

Automatic Weighing Machines.

During the last few years great efforts have been made to expedite the operation of weighing machines by the introduction of machinery, more or less complicated, which renders the machines to a great extent self-acting. The object aimed at varies very much with different machines. Sometimes the object is to weigh out parcels of goods in great numbers of the same definite weight. Sometimes the object is to weigh out parcels of goods, of unknown weight, as in ordinary retail dealing, and to give the exact value of each parcel at different rates per lb. Sometimes the object is to weigh loads in successive intervals of time, or the loads being of varying weight, and to record the total weight at the end of a day's work; this is the case with machines for weighing coal and other minerals. Of course the introduction of automatic mechanism introduces friction and other complications, and it is difficult to construct automatic machines that shall be as accurate in their weighing as the simpler weighing machines, but in many weighing operations a moderate degree of accuracy will suffice, and speed is of great importance. It is to meet such cases that the greater number of automatic weighing machines have been invented. Some examples of these machines will now be given.

Automatic Computing Spring Weighing Machine for Retail Purposes (fig. 14). A weight and centrally balanced drum with its axis horizontal is enclosed within a cylindrical casing, and rotates freely in bearings formed in the ends of the casing. The casing is fixed in supports on the top of a strong frame, which also carries a small platform machine such as is shown in fig. 13. The drum is in position, and the goods to be weighed are placed on it. The pull of the load is transmitted to a hook which hangs freely from the middle of a horizontal bar below the drum casing. At each end of the drum casing is attached a vertical spiral spring. The movement of the drum is transmitted by the extension of these springs to the weighing of the goods placed on the drum. These have two vertical racks, one at each end of the casing, in connexion with two spirals, and the drum has attached upon these actuating pins on the axle of the drum and cause it to revolve as the springs extend. The horizontal bar which receives the pull of the load is connected at its ends with two spiral springs and pulls vertically upon them. Above the horizontal bar, and parallel with it, is a rod which is connected at its ends with the lower ends of the vertical racks, and at its middle with the horizontal bar. The connexion with the horizontal bar is through the medium of an adjustable cam. This cam can be turned by hand in a vertical plane by means of a worm and wheel movement, and by turning the worm the vertical distance between the bar which is attached to the springs and the rod which is attached to the racks can be increased or diminished, and thus the racks can be moved relatively to the springs. By this means the zero of the scale on the drum can be restored to the first division on the index when there are no goods on the platform. There is also a compensation arrangement for effecting automatically the same adjustment for changes of temperature. To deaden the vibration of the springs after a load has been removed on the platform, and thus to enable the weights and the values of the goods to be read rapidly, the piston of a glycerine cylinder is attached to the end of the lever which pulls upon the hook of the horizontal bar and is worked by it in the glycerin.
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Automatic Computing Weighing Machine for Retail Purposes (Fig. 14).—The action of the machine shown in Fig. 14 depends upon the displacement of a loaded pendulum. The machine is arranged to weigh goods up to 8 lb with the fixed weight only on the pendulum, and up to 16 lb with an additional weight which can be readily slipped on to the pendulum rod. The weights and money values are arranged on a vertical chart, the sides of which converge towards the pivoting centre of an index arm which is actuated by the weighing mechanism. The two outer arcs of the chart are occupied by the scales for the weight of the goods in lb and oz., and the rest of the chart is occupied by a series of 25 concentric arcs which show the money values of the goods for 25 rates per lb. The rates per lb are inscribed on the index arm at points corresponding to the values on the concentric arcs of the chart, and the values are indicated on the chart by the toothed edge of the index arm. On the customer's side of the machine the weight of the goods is indicated on a pair of arcs by a separate index arm precisely in the same manner as on the seller's side.

In weighing, the goods are placed in the pan of an ordinary lever machine (see Fig. 14), and the end of the lever rests on the stirrup end of a short vertical rod. The upper end of this rod is formed into a loop, and this loop pulls upon a knife-edge which is fixed to a short lateral arm rigidly attached to a vertical disk, and this disk turns in bearings formed in the frame of the machine. The same disk carries the index arm, which is rigidly fixed to it and indicates the weight and value of the goods, and also carries the pendulum, which is rigidly attached to it, and regulates the position of the index arm according to the position which it takes up when it is actuated by the lever of the lever machine. This lever is so counterbalanced that when there is no weight in the pan the pendulum is vertical, and the index arm should then stand at zero. The zero adjustment is effected by means of levelling screws in the base of the frame. In order to deaden the vibrations of the index arm when weighing goods a vertical rod is attached to the lever from the lever machine near its left-hand end, and this rod carries on its lower end a plunger which works in a closed cylindrical dash-pot containing oil or glycerin.

Automatic Computing Weighing Machine (even balance and pendulum) for Retail Purposes (fig. 15).—This is an equal-armed inverted counter machine (see fig. 5) arranged to weigh up to 14 lb with great accuracy. Up to 2 lb the weight of the load is registered automatically on the chart in much the same manner as in the case of the automatic computing weighing machine already described. When the load exceeds 2 lb one or more 2-lb weights are placed in the weights-pan, and the value of the goods is computed, the rate per lb, in the ordinary manner; and the value of the balance of the goods is read off the chart, and the two are added together.

The advantage of this is that a very open scale is obtained for reading the value of the balance of the load. Thus, for weighing up to the full load of 14 lb, six 2-lb weights are required and no others.

The manner in which the balance of the load is weighed is as follows: Near the bottom of the vertical leg from the goods-pan a projecting piece is rigidly attached to it, and as the pan descends with the balance of the load this piece pulls by a hook on a thin band of steel, which is led upwards and wraps round the surface of a disk to which it is firmly secured. This disk rotates by rocking on a pair of knife-edges whose bearings are rigidly attached to the frame. The disk carries a weighted brass cylinder rigidly attached to it, which is pulled into an oblique position by the steel band until equilibrium is established. And the disk also carries the index arm which plays past the vertical face of the chart, and indicates the weight and price up to 2-lb weight. The disk also carries a second and corresponding index arm which indicates the weight on the purchaser's side of the machine. At the bottom of the vertical leg from the goods-pan a projecting piece which is attached to the top of a vertical piston rod, the piston of which plays in a dash-pot of glycerin as the beam sways, and deadens the vibrations of the index arm.

Automatic Tea Weighing Machine (fig. 16).—This machine is designed to weigh out tea in quantities of 1/2 lb each, which are done up in separate packets by hand. A large number of movements are involved in the working of this machine, and the layout is such as to demand the most accurate balance and alignment of all parts.
have to be provided for, and the machinery is complicated, so that a general description of the action of the machine is all that will be here given.

The tea is fed into a hopper, which has a large opening at the bottom, and this opening is entirely closed by two cylindrical brushes, which are mounted end to end on a horizontal shaft. As they revolve these brushes engage the tea in the hopper, draw it out by degrees, and drop it into a compartment of a circular drum which hangs on one end of a scale-beam. The brushes have the same diameter, but one is much longer than the other, and they move independently of one another. For the bulk of the filling both brushes are in operation, but when the load is nearly complete the longer brush is stopped and the filling is completed by the shorter brush only. When the load is complete the shorter brush also is stopped while the compartment of the drum is emptied. And the action is then renewed. All these operations are effected automatically.

The circular drum is divided into four equal compartments by radial diaphragms. And in a pan at the other end of the beam (which is counterbalanced for the weight of the drum) is a 4-lb weight to weigh the tea. As the uppermost compartment fills, the weights end of the beam rises, and by means of a vertical rod successively operates on detents connected with the rotation of the two brushes, and stops them in turn. And when the short brush is stopped a rod from the shaft frees a spring detent which keeps the drum in position and tips it over. The tea is shot out and falls into a receptacle below, and the drum makes a quarter of a revolution, and is again held in position by the detent with an empty compartment at top ready for the next filling.

The power is applied by a belt round a pulley, which is mounted on the end of the horizontal shaft which carries the brushes. The brushes are carried by sleeves which run loosely on the shaft, and to each sleeve is rigidly fixed a ratchet wheel. Next the ratchet wheel is a disk which is keyed on to the shaft. The ratchet wheel and the disk are automatically connected by clutch mechanism, which holds the disk rigidly connected together and acting as a single beam. A 4-lb weight is placed in the weights-pan of the balance, and is the only house weight used with the machine. The pair of beams are hinged centrally by rods and hooks from knife-edges in the forked end of a strong beam, which is carried at its fulcrum by the top plate of the frame of the machine. This beam is heated counterbalanced at its further extremity. Underneath the top plate of the machine, and strongly framed to it, is a box, which contains the corresponding rods to the ends of which are attached the slides which regulate the flow of sugar from the bottom of the hopper. These rods pass through holes in the front and back plates of the box, and are furnished with spiral springs (the rods are forced back by hand) and are in compression between the back plate of the box and shoulders on the rods. The rods are held in this position by detents which take hold of the shoulders of the rods, and are acted upon from the front end of the upper beam and the weights-pan end of the lower beam respectively, in order to release the rods at proper times and reduce or cut off the flow of sugar from the hopper. The upper slide has the shape of a truncated cone, and it reduces the office of flow so as to render the flow of the sugar more manageable. This holds the bag in a cut-off slide. When it is desired to use the machine, a 4-lb bag is placed under the orifice of the hopper upon the goods-pan of the balance, and the slide rods are thrust back by hand till they are held by their detents, and the sugar flows rapidly into the bag. When the bag is nearly charged to the weight of 4 lb, the weight of the bag of sugar overcomes the resistance of the counterbalance of the upper beam, and its front end drops a certain distance. In dropping it dislodges the detent of the reducing slide, and the slide springs forward and reduces the flow of the sugar. The diminished stream of sugar continues to flow till the 4-lb weight in the goods-pan of the other end of the upper beam being for the time brought up against the frame and unable to descend further), and in lifting it dis-
the 4-lb weight is being lifted. But at the same instant that the cut-off takes place the rider weight is lifted off the end of the balance by a

vertically upon the spring of an ordinary spring balance, which registers the load, and with the addition of suitable counting mechanism sums up the weights of any number of successive loads.

The charges of coal fall into the hopper with a heavy shock, and in order to save the knife-edges there is a strong pin in each side of the hopper below the knife-edge, which, before the charge of coal is dropped into the hopper, is acted on by a strong horizontal flitch-plate, which heaves the hopper off the knife-edges and relieves them from the shock. The heaving-up of the flitch-plate and hopper is effected by a cam on the end of a horizontal shaft which runs along the back of the machine behind the hopper. The flitch-plate rests at one end on the top of this cam, and at the other end is shacked to the horizontal arm of a bell-crank lever which is pivoted on the frame. When a charge of coal is dropped into the hopper, the bell-crank lever receives a violent jerk from the shackles of the flitch-plate, and this jerk by means of suitable mechanical arrangements throws a pinion on the cam shaft into gear with a wheel on a counter-shaft

self-acting arrangement, and the sugar in transitu takes its place in the bag. And, if the rider weight has been correctly adjusted, the bag of sugar will be shown to weigh exactly 4 lb by the beam vibrating in equipoise.

Automatic Coal Weighing Machine (fig. 18).—This machine weighs the coal delivered into factories, &c., by charges up to 20 cwt. at a time, and records and sums up the weights of the charges so as to exhibit the total weight delivered. The whole of this work is effected automatically.

The coal is dropped into a hopper by a grab. The hopper is carried on two knife-edges, one on each side, and is prevented from tipping over fore and aft by a pair of parallel motion bars on each side. The knife-edges on which the hopper rests are on two horizontal levers, one on each side of the hopper. These levers are carried by knife-edge fulcrums in bearings on the frame of the machine, and transmit the weight of the hopper by means of an intermediate lever and a vertical rod to the indicator lever. And the long arm of the indicator lever pulls

which is kept constantly running by means of a belt and pulley driven by an engine. The cam shaft and the cam then begin to revolve, and the flitch-plate is gradually lowered till the knife-edge bearings of the hopper are received on the knife-edges of the main measuring levers, and the load is then weighed by the levers and the spring-balancing. Shortly after this is done the mechanism at the back of the hopper automatically opens the doors at the bottom of the hopper, and the coal drops out. The rotation of the cam shaft continues till the cam has again heaved up the flitch-plate, when the pionton on the cam shaft is thrown out of gear with the wheel on the counter-shaft, and the cam remains steady till another charge of coal is dropped into the hopper and the action is renewed. The coal when dropped out of the hopper runs down a shoot into a receptacle, from whence it is lifted by a Jacob's Ladder and distributed to the boilers, &c., of the factory.

Automatic Coal Weighing Machine (fig. 19).—This machine is designed to weigh and total up the weight of materials passed over it during a considerable course of operations. The trucks or other receptacles containing the coal, &c., are drawn upon the platform of the machine, and the pull of the load is transferred by a vertical rod at the left-hand end of the machine to the knife-edge on the short arm of the steelyard, whose fulcrum is carried on bearings in the frame. Behind the pulley at the top of the machine and on the same shaft is a spur wheel, which drives both of the spur wheels shown in the diagram. The small spur wheel is mounted on the steelyard, and this wheel and the one that drives it are so arranged that their line of
Clutch with a shaft in the same line, on which are keyed a sprocket wheel and a ratchet wheel, the latter being a similar sprocket wheel which is keyed on the same shaft as that of the left-hand pulley. The ratchet wheel is acted upon by the diagram. When the poise is at the zero end, and there is no load on the platform, the end of the steelyard is down, and has locked the ratchet wheel by means of the pawl; the shaft being thus locked, the sprocket wheels are stopped, the drum-shaft runs freely by the friction clutch, and the two pulleys which are connected by the crossed hand are running idle. When the load to be weighed comes upon the platform, the end of the steelyard rises and unlocks the ratchet wheel; the sprocket gear is driven by the friction clutch, and drives the axle of the left-hand small pulley. The main wheels come into operation and the poise is carried along till the end of the steelyard drops, and locks the ratchet wheel. By means of a horizontal rod, the same drop of the steelyard also locks together by clutch gearings the left-hand poise and pulley and the adjacent sprocket wheel, and the pulley drives the sprocket wheel in the opposite direction to that which it had before. Consequently the motion of the mitre wheels is reversed and the poise is run back to zero. When the poise arrives at zero it frees the clutch which connects the poise and the sprocket wheel, and the machine is then ready for the next load.

The poise having arrived at the end of its run and unable to go further, the mitre wheels and the sprocket gearing are stopped, and the two pulleys and the cross bar in the load case drop back to the bottom of the steelyard.

**Automatic Luggage Weighing Machine:** This machine is intended for the weighing of personal luggage at railway stations. It consists of a platform which is carried by levers arranged in the manner of an ordinary platform machine, which are connected with the registration mechanism by a vertical rod. This rod is continued upwards by a pair of thin nickel bands which are led right and left over two horizontal cylinders, round which they partly wrap, and to which they are firmly attached. The diameter of the middle part of the cylinders is greater than that of the ends, and the bands from the vertical rod are led over the middle part. To each cylinder a pair of similar nickel bands are led downwards from the top of a casting which is bolted to the frame. The lower ends of these bands pass round the under side of the end portions of the cylinders, wrapping close round them, and are firmly attached to them. To the bottom of each cylinder is rigidly attached a heavy solid cylinder of lead, and these are the regulators of the position of equilibrium of the cylinders when they rotate under the action of the lead. When the load comes upon the platform the pull of the vertical rod is transmitted by the nickel bands to the cylinders around which they are wrapped, and causes them to revolve. As they rotate they roll themselves up the pairs of bands which are attached to the top of the casting, and at the same time pull the weights attached to the bottoms of the cylinders to take up a lateral position, where they exercise a leverage opposing the motion of the cylinders, and bringing them up in a definite position corresponded to the pull of the weight. By the rolling of the cylinders up the vertical bands from the casting the cylinders are raised vertically through a space defined by the position of the leaden regulators. By means of suitable and simple mechanism this vertical movement of the cylinders works plunger pistons in a pair of cylinders which contain glycerin, and these deaden the vibrations of the machinery while weighing is going on. The same vertical movement also actuates the index finger of a large dial, on which the weight of the luggage can be easily read by passengers standing near while their luggage is being weighed.


**WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.** This subject may be most conveniently considered under three aspects—i. Scientific; ii. Historical; and iii. Commercial.

1. **Units.** In the United Kingdom two systems of weights and measures are now recognized—the imperial and the metric. The fundamental units of the imperial system are length, the yard and metre; and of mass, the pound and kilogram.

The legal theory of the British system of weights and measures is—(a) the standard yard, with all linear measures and their
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

For the weight of the cubic decimetre of water, as deduced from the experiments made in London in 1896 as to the weight of the cubic inch of water, D. Mendeleeff (Proc. Roy. Soc., 1895) has obtained the following results, which have been adopted in legislative enactments in the United Kingdom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature on the Hydrogen Thermometer Scale</th>
<th>Weight of Water in vacuo</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o°</td>
<td>32°-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>59-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>163</td>
<td>62-0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>68-0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this no account is taken of the compressibility of water—that is to say, it is supposed that the water is under a pressure of one atmosphere. The weight of a cubic decimetre of water reaches 1000 grammes under a pressure of four atmospheres; but in vacuo, at all temperatures, the weight of water is less than a kilogram.

3. National Standards.—National standards of length are not legally now referred to natural standards or to physical constants, but it has been shown by A. A. Michelson that a standard of length might be restored, if necessary, by reference to the measurement of wave-lengths of light. Preliminary experiments have given results correct to ±0.5 micron, and it appears probable that by further experiments, results correct to ±0.014 may be obtained. That is to say, the metre might be restudied or restored as to its length within one ten-millionth part, by reference to, e.g., 1553163.5 wave-lengths of the red ray of the spectrum of cadmium, in air at 15° C. and 760 mm.

In all countries the national standards of weights and measures are in the custody of the Board of Trade. Scientific research is not, of course, bound by official standards.

For the care and functioning of national standards the Standards Department was developed, under the direction of a Royal Commission 4 of which the late Henry Williams Chisholm was a leading member, to conduct all comparisons and other operations with reference to weights and measures in aid of scientific research or otherwise, which it may be the duty of the state to undertake. Similar standardizing offices are established.

4 Valoir du Mètre, A. A. Michelson (Paris, 1894); Units, Everett, Illustrations of C.G.S. System; Units et Échelles, Guillaume (Paris, 1890); Lupton’s Numerical Tables, 1892; Metric Equivalent Cards, 1901; Dictionary of Metric Measures, L. Clark (1894); Glasscock and Shaw’s Physics (1901).

For the equivalent of the litre in terms of the gallon, see below III. Commercial.

In the measurement of the cubic inch it has been found that 3 the specific mass of the cubic inch of distilled water is of water at the temperature of 62° F., and under an atmospheric pressure equal to 30 in. (at 32° F.), is equal to 252.297 grains weight of water at its maximum density (4°C.). Hence a cubic foot of water would weigh 62.281 lb avoirdupois, but 62.321 lb as at present legally taken.

For the specific mass of the cubic decimetre of water at 4°C., under an atmospheric pressure equal to 760 mm., Guillaume and Chappuis of the Comité International des Poids et Mesures at Paris (C.I.P.M.) have obtained o-99999707 kg., which has been accepted by the committee.

The two standards, the cubic inch and the cubic decimetre, may not be strictly comparable owing to a difference in the normal temperature (Centigrade and Fahrenheit scales) of the two units of extension, the metre and the yard.

in other countries (see Standards). Verified "Parliamentary Copies" of the imperial standard are placed at the Royal Mint, with the Royal Society, at the Royal Observatory, and in the Westminster Palace.

The forms of the four primary standards representing the four units of extension and mass are shown in figs. 1 to 4.

A secondary standard measure for dry goods is the bushel of 1834, containing 8 imperial gallons, represented by a hollow bronze cylinder having a plane base, its internal diameter being double its depth.

The imperial standard measure of capacity is a hollow cylinder (fig. 5) made of brass, with a plane base, of equal height and diameter; which when filled, was determined by a plane glass disk, contains 10 lb weight of water at 1 °F. = 36 in., weighed in air against brass weights.

4. Atmospheric Pressure, and Materials.—In the verification of a precise standard of length there may be taken into account the influence of the variation of atmospheric pressure. Taking the range of the barometer in Great Britain from 28 to 31 in., giving a difference of 3 in. (76 millimetres), which denotes a variation of 103 grammes per square centimetre in the pressure of the atmosphere, the change caused thereby in the length of a standard of linear measurement would appear to be as follows:

For the yard measure of the form shown in fig. 1 a difference of length equal to 0.000002 in. is caused by the variation of atmospheric pressure from 28 to 31 in. For the metre of the form shown in fig. 3 the difference in length for a variation 0.76 mm. in the barometer would be 0.00000285 mm. on the metre.

With reference to the materials of which standards of length are made, it appears that the Matthey alloy iridio-platinum (90% platinum, 10% iridium) is probably of all substances the least affected by time or circumstance, and of this costly alloy, therefore, a new copy of the imperial yard has been made. There appears, however, to be some objection to the use of iridio-platinum, as, owing to its great density (Δ = 21.57), the slightest abrasion will make an appreciable difference in a weight; sometimes, therefore, quartz or rock-crystal is used; but to this also there is some objection, as owing to its low density (Δ = 2.65) there is a large exposed surface of the mass. For small standards weights platinum (Δ = 21.45) and aluminium (Δ = 2.70) are used, and there is also an alloy of palladium (60%) and silver (40%) (Δ = 11.00). For ordinary standards of length Guillaume's alloy (mixture of 35.7% nickel and 64.3% steel) is highly polished, and is capable of linear expansion only 0.0000008 for 1 °C.

5. Electrical Standards.—Authoritative standards and instruments for the measurement of electricity, based on the fundamental units of the metric system, have been placed in the Electrical Laboratory of the Board of Trade. These include

- The standard amperes, and sub-standard from 10 to 100 milliamperes.
- The standard volt, and sub-standard for the measurement of pressure from 5 to 300 psi.
- The standard ohm, sub-standard up to 100,000 ohms, and below 1 ohm to one ohm.

6. Temperature.—In the measurement of temperature the Fahrenheit scale is still followed for imperial standards, and the Centigrade scale for metric standards. At the time of the construction of the imperial standards in 1844, Sheepshanks's Fahrenheit thermometers were used; but it is difficult to say now what the true temperature then, of 62 °F., may have been as compared with 62 °F., or 16-667 °C., of the present normal hydrogen scale. For meteorological purposes, the C.I.P.M. have adopted as a normal thermometric scale the Centigrade scale of the hydrogen thermometer, having for fixed points the temperature of pure melting ice (0°) and that of the vapour of boiling distilled water (100°), under a normal atmospheric pressure; hydrogen being taken under an initial manometric pressure of 1 metre, that is to say, at 101.325 mm. or 760 mm., the normal atmospheric pressure. This latter is represented by the weight of a column of mercury 760 mm. in height; the specific gravity of mercury being now taken as 13.5950, after Volkmann and Marek, and at the normal intensity followed under this pressure. The value of this intensity is equal to that of the force of gravity at the Bureau International, Paris (at the level of the Bureau), divided by 1,000,332; a co-efficient which allows for theoretical reduction to the latitude 45° and to the level of the sea.

The length of the metre is independent of the thermometer so far that it has its length at a definite physical point, the temperature of melting ice (0° C.), but there is the practical difficulty that for ordinary purposes measurements cannot be always carried out at 0° C.

The International Geodetic Committee have adopted the metre and their unit of measurement. In geodetic measurements the dimensions of the triangles vary with the temperature of the earth, but these variations in the same region of the earth are smaller than the variations of the temperature of the air, less than 10° C. Adopting as a co-efficient of dilatation of the earth's crust 0-000002, the variations of the distances are smaller than the errors of measurement (see Geodesy).

7. Standardizing Institutions.—Besides the State departments dealing with weights and measures, there are other standardizing institutions of recent date. In Germany, e.g., there is at Charlottenburg (Berlin), a technical institute (Physikalisch - technische Reichsanstalt) established under Dr W. Forster in 1887, which undertakes researches with reference to physics and mechanics, particularly as applied to technical industries. In England a National Physical Laboratory (N.P.L.) has been established, based on the German institute, and has its principal laboratory at Bushy House, near Hampton, Middlesex. Here is carried out the work of standardizing measuring instruments of various sorts in use.

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1 Wissenschaftliche Abhandlungen der physikalischen Reichsanstalt, Band ii. (Berlin, 1900); Denkschrift betreffend die Tatigkeit der K. Norm.-Aichungs Komm. (1869-1900).
by manufacturers, the determination of physical constants and the testing of materials. The work of the Kew Observatory, at the Old Deer Park, Richmond, has also been placed under the direction of the N.P.L. (see III. Commercial). The C.I.P.M. at Paris, the first metrological institution, also undertakes verifications for purely scientific purposes. A descriptive list of the verifying instruments of the Standards Department, London, has been published. In the measurement of woolen and other textile fabrics, as to quality, strength, number of threads, &c., there exists at Bradford a voluntary standardizing institution known as the Conditioning House (Bradford Corporation Act 1887), the work of which has been extended to a chemical analysis of fabrics.

8. Ancient Standards of England and Scotland.—A “troy pound” and a new standard yard, as well as secondary standards, were constructed by direction of parliament in 1758-1760, and were deposited with the Clerk of the House of Commons. When the Houses of Parliament were burned down in 1834, the pound was lost and the yard was injured. It may here be mentioned that the expression “imperial” first occurs in the Weights and Measures Act of 1824. The injured standard was then lost sight of, but it was in 1891 brought to light by the Clerk of the Journals, and has now been placed in the lobby of the residence of the Clerk of the House, together with a standard “stone” of 14 lb.

In the measurement of liquids the old “wine gallon” (213 cub. in.) was in use in England until 1824, when the present imperial gallon (fig. 5) was legalized; and the wine gallon of 1707 is still referred to as a standard in the United States. Together with the more ancient standard of Henry VII. and of Queen Elizabeth, this standard is deposited in the Jewel Tower at Westminster. They are probably of the Norman period, and were kept in the Pyx Chapel at Westminster, now in the custody of the Commissioners of Works. A sketch of these measures is given in fig. 6.

Besides these ancient standards of England (1495, 1588, 1601) there are at the council chambers of Edinburgh and

**Fig. 6.—A. Winchester Bushel of Henry VIII.; B, Standard weight (112 lb) of Elizabeth; C, Ale Gallon of Henry VIII.; D, the old Wine Gallon.**

Linlithgow some of the interesting standards of Scotland, as the Stirling jug or Scots pint, 1618; the chapman’s half-pint, 1555 (fig. 7); the Lanark troy and tron weights of the same periods (fig. 8).

*English Weights and Measures Abolished.*—The yard and handful, or 40 in. ell, abolished in 1439. The yard and inch, or 37 in. ell (cloth measure), abolished after 1555; known later as the Scotch ell = 37-06. Cloth ell of 45 in. used till 1600. The yard of Henry VII. = 35-963 in. Saxon moneys pound, or Tower pound, 5400 grains, abolished in 1537. Mark, 1 pond = 5600 grains. Troy pound in use in 1415, established as monetary pound 1527. Troy weight was abolished, from the 1st of January 1879, by the Weights and Measures Act 1875, with the exception only of the Troy ounce, its decimal parts and multiples, legalized in 1853, 16 Vict. c. 29, to be used for the sale of gold and silver articles, platinum and precious stones. Merchant’s pound, in 1270 established for all except gold, silver and medicines = 7200 grains, generally superseded by avoidipous in 1303.

**Fig. 7.—The Scots Choppin or Half-Pint, 1555.**

**Fig. 8.—Linlark Stone Troy Weight, 1618.**

VII), gradually modified until fixed in 1826 at 277.24, or 10 pounds of water.

*French Weights and Measures Abolished.*—Often needed in reading older works.

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<tr>
<th>livre</th>
<th>m de po.</th>
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<th>m de po.</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rhineland foot, much used in Germany, = 12-357 in. = the foot of the Scotch or English cloth ell of 37-06 in., or 3×12-357. (H. J. C.)

II. *Ancient Historical*

Though no line can be drawn between ancient and modern metrology, yet, owing to neglect, and partly to the scarcity of materials, there is a gap of more than a thousand years over which the connexion of units of measure is mostly guess-work. Hence, except in a few cases, we shall not here consider any units of the middle ages. A constant difficulty in studying works on metrology is the need of distinguishing the absolute facts of the case from the web of fiction in which each writer has woven them—often the names used, and sometimes the very existence of the units in question, being entirely an assumption of the writer. Again, each writer has his own leaning: A. Böckh, to the study of water-volumes and weights, even deriving linear measures therefrom; V. Queipo, to the connexion with Arabic and Spanish measures; J. Brandis, to the basis of Assyrian standards; Mommsen, to coin weights; and P. Bortolotti to Egyptian units; but F. Hultsch is more general, and appears to give a more equal representation of all sides than do other authors. In this article the tendency will be to trust far more to actual measures and weights than to the statements of ancient writers; and this position seems to be justified by the great increase in materials, and their more accurate means of study. The usual arrangement by countries has been mainly abandoned in favour of following out each unit as a whole, without recurring to it separately for every locality.

The materials for study are of three kinds. (1) *Literary,* both in direct statements in works on measures (e.g. Elias of Nisibis), medicine (Galien) and cosmetics (Cleopatra), in ready-reckoners (Didymus), clerk’s (kāthī’s) guides, and like handbooks, and in indirect explanations of the equivalents of measures mentioned by authors (e.g. Josephus). But all such sources are liable to the most confounding errors, and some passages relied on have in any case to submit to conjectural emendation. These authors are of great value for connecting the monumental information, in the absence of the actual standards of ancient times the units of measure and of weight have to be inferred from the other remains; hence unit in this division is used for any more or less closely defined amount of length or weight in terms of which matter was measured.

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1. Treasury Committee on National Physical Laboratory, Parliamentary Paper, 1895.
2. Descriptive List of Standards and Instruments, Parliamentary Paper, 1892.
3. Report on Standards deposited in House of Commons, 1st November 1891.
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

but must yield more and more to the increasing evidence of actual weights and measures. Besides this, all their evidence is but approximate, often only stating quantities to a half or quarter of the amount, and seldom nearer than 5 or 10%; hence they are entirely worthless for all the closer questions of the approximation or original identity of standards in different countries; and it is just in this line that the imagination of writers has led them into the greatest speculations, unchecked by accurate evidence of the original standards. (2) Weights and measures their wide and detailed range of information, these most unsatisfactory on account of the constant temptation to diminish their weight, a weakness which seldom allows us to reckon them as of the full standard. Another defect in the evidence of coins is that, when one variety of the unit of weight was once fixed on for the coinage, there was (barring the depreciation) no departure from it, because of the need of a fixed value, and hence coins do not show the range and character of the real variations of units as do buildings, or vases, or the actual commercial weights.

**PRINCIPLE OF STUDY.**—1. Limits of Variation in Different Copies, Places and Times. Unfortunately, so very little is known of the ages of weights and measures that this datum—most essential in considering their history—has been scarcely considered. In measure, Egyptians of Dynasty IV. at Gizeh on an average varied 1 in 330 between different buildings (27). Buildings at Persepolis, all of nearly the same age, vary in unit 1 in 450 (25). Including a greater range of time and place, the Roman foot in Italy varied during two or three centuries on an average 1 in 400 from the mean. Covering a longer time, we find an average variation of 1 in 60 in the Attic foot (25), 1 in 16 in the English foot (25), and 1 in 3 in the English money foot (25). Se we may say that an average variation of 1 in 10 by toleration, extending to double that by change of place and time, is usual in ancient measures. In weights of the same place and age there is a far wider range; at Delfeneh (29), within a century probably, the average variation of different units is 1 in 500, and 1 in 500, the range being just the same as in all times and places taken together. Even in a set of weights all found together, the average variation is only reduced to 1 in place of 1 in 29 (29). Taking a wider range of place and time, the Roman libra has an average variation of 1 in the centuries of better period (43), and in those of Byzantine age 1 in 44 (44). Altogether, we see that weights have descended from original varieties with so little intercomparison that no rectification of their values has been made, and hence there is as much variety in any one place and time as in all together. Average variation may be said to range from 1 in 500 to 1 in 500 in different units, doubtless greatly due to defective balances.

2. Rate of Variation. Though large differences may exist, the rate of general variation is but slow—excluding, of course, all monetary standards. In Egypt the cubit lengthened 1 in some thousands of years (25, 44). The Italian mile has lengthened 1 in since Roman times (2); the English mile lengthened about 1 in four centuries (31). The English foot has not appreciably varied in several centuries (25). Of weights there are scarce any dated, excepting coins, which nearly all decrease; the Attic tetradrachm, however, increased 1 in three centuries (28), owing probably to its being below the average trade weight to begin with. Roughly dividing the Roman weights, there appears a decrease of 1 in from imperial to Byzantine times (25).

3. Tendency of Variation. This is, in the above cases of lengths, to an increase in course of time. The Roman foot is also probably 1 larger than the earlier form of it, and the later form in Britain and Africa perhaps another 1 larger (25). Probably measures tend to increase and weights to decrease in transmission from time to time or place to place.

4. Details of Variation. Having noticed variation in the gross, we must next observe its details. The only way of examining these is by drawing curves (26, 29), representing the frequency of occurrence of the variations of a unit; for instance, in the Egyptian unit—the cat—counting in a large number how many occur between 140 and 141 grains, 141 and 142, and so on; such numbers represented by curves show at once where any particular varieties of the unit lie (see Naukratis, i. 83). This method is only applicable where there is a large number of examples; but there is no other way of studying the details. The results from such a study—of the Egyptian cat, for example—show that there are several distinct families or types of a unit, which originated in early times, have been perpetuated by copying, and reappear alike in each locality (see Tanis, ii. p. 1). Hence we see that if one unit is derived from another it may be possible, by the similarity or difference of the forms of the curves, to discern whether it was derived by general consent and recognition from a standard in the same condition of distribution as that in which we know it, or whether it was derived from it in earlier times before it became so varied, or by some one action forming it from an individual example of the other standard without any variation being transmitted. As our knowledge of the age and locality of weights increases these criteria in curves will prove of greater value; but even now no consideration of the different units should be made without a graphic representation to compare their relative extent and nature of variation.

5. Transfer of Units. The transfer of units from one people to another takes place almost always by trade. Hence the value of such evidence in pointing out the ancient course of trade and commercial connections (17). The great spread of the Phoenician weight on the Mediterranean, of the Persian in Asia Minor and of the Assyrian in Egypt are evident cases; and that the decimal weights of the laws of Manu (43) are decidedly not Assyrian or Persian, but on exactly the Phoenician standard, is evidence of trade by water and not overland. If, as seems probable, units of length may be traced in prehistoric remains, they are of great value; at Stonehenge, for instance, the earlier parts are laid out by the Phoenician foot, and the later by the Pelasgo-Roman foot (26). The earlier foot is continually to be traced in other megalithic remains, whereas the latter very seldom occurs (25). This bears strongly on the Phoenician origin of our prehistoric civilization. Again, the Belgic foot of the Tungri is the basis of the present English land measures, which we thus see are neither Roman nor British in origin, but the transfer of units is naturally a unit of transfer from a higher and more civilized people; but the near resemblance of measures in different countries should always be corroborated by historical considerations of a probable connexion by commerce or origin (Head, Historia Numorum, xxxvii). It should be borne in mind that in early times the larger values, such as minae, would be transmitted by commerce, while after the introduction of coinage the lesser values of shekels and drachmae would be the units; and this needs notice, because usually a borrowed unit was multiplied or divided according to the ideas of the borrowers, and strange modifications thus arose.
6. Connexions of Lengths, Volumes and Weights.—This is the most difficult branch of metrology, owing to the variety of connexions which can be suggested, to the vague information we have, especially on volumes, and to the liability of writers to rationalize connexions which were never intended. To illustrate how easy it is to go astray in this line, observe the continual reference to the cubic cubit as the equivalent of various metal cubits. It can be shown that the cubit cubic is very nearly 250 grains, while the gallon has actually been fixed at 10 lb of water; the first two are certainly mere coincidences, as may very probably be the last also, and yet they offer quite as tempting a base for theorizing as any connexions in ancient metrology. No such theories can be counted as more than coincidences which have been adopted, unless we find a very exact connexion, or some positive statement of origin. The idea of connecting volume and weight has received an immense impetus through the metric system, but it is not very prominent in ancient times. The Egyptians report the weight of a measure of various articles, amongst others water (6), but lay no special stress on it; and the fact that there is no measure of water equal to a direct decimal multiple of the weight-unit, except very high in the scale, does not seem as if the volume was directly based upon weight. Again, there are many theories of the equivalence of different cubit cubs of water with various multiples of talents (2, 3, 18, 24, 33); but connexion by lesser units would be far more probable, as the primary use of weights is not to weigh large cubical vessels of liquid, but rather small containers, as to render human actions which are equal to the cubic foot, and containing 80 librae of water, is one of the strongest cases of such relations, being often mentioned by ancient writers. Yet it appears to be only an approximate relation, and therefore probably accidental, as the volume by the examples is too large to agree to the cube of the length or to the weight, differing $\frac{1}{4}$, or sometimes even $\frac{1}{2}$.

Another idea which has haunted the older metrologists, but is still less likely, is the connexion of various measures with degrees on the earth's surface. The lameness of the Greeks in angular measures, would alone show that they could not derive their measures from long and accurately determined distances on the earth.

7. Connexions with Coinage.—From the 7th century B.C. onward, the relations of units of weight have been complicated by the need of the interrelations of gold, silver and copper coinage; and various standards have been derived theoretically from others through the weight of one metal equal in value to a unit of another. That this mode of originating standards was greatly promoted, if not started, by the use of coinage we may see by the rarity of the Persian silver weight (derived from the Assyrian standard), soon after the introduction of coinage, as shown in the weights of Defenn (29). The relative value of gold and silver (27, 21) in Asia is agreed generally to have been 133 to 1 in the early ages of coinage; at Athens in 434 B.C. it was 14:1; in Macedon, 550 B.C., 12:1; in Egypt, 300 B.C., 151:1; in Rome, 140 B.C., 12:1; in Italy in 1st century, it was 12:1 in the later empire 13:01, and under Justinian 14:1. Silver stood to copper in Egypt as 80:1 (Brugsch), or 120:1 (Reville); in early Italy and Sicily as 250:1 (Mommsen), or 120:1 (Soutou), under the empire 120:1, and under Justinian 100:1. The distinction of the use of standards for trade in general, or for silver or gold in particular, should be noted. The early observance of the relative values may be inferred from Num. vii. 13, 14, where silver offerings are 13 and 7 times the weight of the gold, or of equal value and one-half value.

8. Legal Regulations of Measures.—Most states have preserved official standards, usually in temples under priestly custody. The Hebrew "shekel of the sanctuary" is familiar; the standard volume of the apet was secured in the drums of Anubis at Memphis (35); in Athens, besides the standard weight, twelve copies for public comparison were kept in the city; also standard volume measures in several places (2); at Pompeii the block with standard volumes cut in it was found in the portico of the forum (33); other such standards are known in Greek cities (Gytheion, Pantheon at Alexandria) (11, 35); at Rome the standards were kept by the king in the temple of Hercules (2); the standard cubit of the Nilometer was before Constantine in the Serapeum, but was removed by him to the church (2). In England the Saxon standards were kept at Winchester before A.D. 950 and copies were legally compared and stamped; the Normans removed them to Westminster to the custody of the king's chambers at the exchequer; and they were preserved in the crypt of Edward the Confessor, while remaining royal property (8). The oldest English standards remaining are those of Henry II. Many others have been found in the temples of Demeter at Cnidos, the temple of Artemis at Ephesus, and in a temple of Aphrodite at Byblos (44); and the making or sale of weights may have been a business of the custodians of the temple standards.

9. Names of Units.—It is needful to observe that most names of measures are generic and not specific, and cover a great variety of units. Thus foot, digit, palm, cubit, stadium, mile, talent, mina, stater, drachm, obol, pound, ounce, grain, metretes, medimnus, modius, hin and many others mean nothing except qualified by the country of their currency. Also, it should be noted that some ethnic qualifications have been applied to different systems, and such names as Babylonian and Euboic are ambiguous; the normal value of a standard will therefore be used here rather than its name, in order to avoid confusion, unless specific names exist, such as kat and uten.

All quantities stated in this article without distinguishing names are in British units of inch, cubic inch or grain.

Standards of Length.—Most ancient measures have been derived from one of two great systems, that of the cubit of 20-69 in., or the digit of 729 in.; and both these systems are found in the earliest times.

20-63 in.—First known in Dynasty IV in Egypt, most accurately preserved in the Great Pyramid, varying 20-51 to 20-71 in Dyn. IV. to VI. (27). Divided decimally in 100ths; but usually marked in Egypt into 7 palms of 28 digits, approximately: a mere juxtaposition (for convenience) of two incommensurate systems (25, 27). The average of several cubit rods remaining is 20-65, age in general about 1000 B.C. (33). At Philae, &c., in Roman times 20-76 on the Nilometers (44). This unit is also recorded by cubit lengths scratched on walls of temples. Bers has expressed the impression of Ramessu IV. and of Edfu temple (5) in papyri. From this cubit, mahi, was formed the xylon of 3 cubits, the usual length of a walking-staff; fathom, rent, of 4 cubits, and the sket of 40 cubits (18); also the gnomon of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1000 cubits, actually found marked on the Memphis-Faium road (44).

Babylonia had this unit nearly as early as Egypt. The divided oblong unit has been derived by the deduction of a unit of length denoting the cubit weights and cubic measure, rather than by deriving cubic measure through the unit of length.
Weights and Measures

In Etruria it probably appears in tombs as 25.45 (25); perhaps in Roman Britain, and in medieval England as 12.7 (25).

13.8 in. This foot is scarcely known monotonically. On three occasions Egyptian cubits there is a prominent mark at the 19th digit, which agrees with the Babylonian foot (11) and weight (33). It is borne on the stones of the temple of Senkereh 2500 ft. (33). It is also used in the temple of Karnak 2500 ft. (33). It is used in the temple of Karnak 2500 ft. (33).

In Assyria and Babylonia show 20 to 20.6. The Babylonian system was sexagesimal, thus (18)—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>weight</th>
<th>2 kat.</th>
<th>6 mant.</th>
<th>6 nnu.</th>
<th>60 sa.</th>
<th>30 parasangs</th>
<th>2 karups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3'000 m.</td>
<td>1'800 m.</td>
<td>1'200 m.</td>
<td>60 m.</td>
<td>30 m.</td>
<td>2 m.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this case the unit in early times was the temple of Eshnunna 20.55–55. Samos 20–62. Hultsch also claims Priene 20–90, and the stadia of Aphrodisia 20–67 and Laodicce 20–94. Ten buildings in all give 20.63 mean (16, 25); but in Armenia it arose to 20–76 in late Roman times (25). (20775) is divided by 1, the foot of this as being the cubic foot.

1245 in. This was especially the Greek derivative of the 20.63 cubit. It originated from the Babylonian as the foot of the temple of Eshnunna 20.55. It is in accordance with the sexary system applied to the early decimal division of the cubit in Greece. It is the most usual unit, occurring in the Propylaea at Athens 12–14, temple of Olympian Zeus 12–14, and, in the city of Alexandria 12–14; and (18); thirteen buildings giving an average of 12–45, mean variation ±0.05 (25). The digit is an elephant, a foot of 12–44; then the system is 100 in. 7270. In the Parthenon 20–5. 7270

The construction of this system (25) is only an inference from the facts yet known, for which we have insufficient information to prove it, though it seems the simplest and most likely history.

11.62 Seeing the good reasons for this digit having been exported to the West from Egypt—from the presence of the 16×7.62, 18.23 cubit in Egypt, and from the 27.92 digit being the decimal base of the Greek long measures—it is not surprising to find it in use in Italy as a digit, and multiplied by 16 as a foot. The more so as the half of this foot, or 8 digits, is marked off as a measure on many of the Egyptian cubit rods held 2000 b.c.; the Babylonian (not noticing the Greek link of the digit), he agrees that it is supported by the Egyptian square measure of the plethron, being thus the common acentric of all the systems of the south. If 11–6 appears pronounced in the prehistoric and early Greek records and is certainly found in Etruscan tomb dimensions as 11.59 (25). Dörpfeld considers this the Attic foot, and states the foot of the Greek metrology as 15.22. Oxford University Press (38) for 2000–1500 B.C. and that it probably passed from the East through Greece to Etruria, and thence became the standard foot of Rome; there, though divided by the Italian duodecimal system into 12 unice, it always maintained its original 16 digits, which are found marked on some of the foot-measures. The well-known ratio of 25.24 between the 16–12 foot and this we see has arisen through one being 10 of 25.24, the other 16 being as 25.24; the legal ratio the 12 foot-measures (1) gives 11.689 =.008, and of long lengths and buildings 11.667 =.01. In Britain and Africa, however, the Romans used a rather longer form (25) of 11.68, or the foot of 7.96. The 12 foot-measures (1) gives 11.648 =.008, and the foot of 7.96.

Either from its Pelasgic or Etrurian use or from Romans, this foot appears to have come into prehistoric remains, as the circle of Stonehenge (26) is 100 ft. of 11.68 across, and the same is found in one or two other cases. 11.60 also appears as the foot of some much older Etruscan buildings.

We now pass to units between which we cannot state any connection.

25.3 The earliest sign of this cubit is in a chamber at Abydos (44) about 1400 b.c.; there, below the sculptures, the plain wall is marked out by red designing lines in spaces of 25.3 =.03 in., which have no relation to the size of the chamber or to the sculpture. This fact has therefore been marked by a workman using a cubit of 25.3. Apart from medieval and other very uncertain data, such as the Sabbath day's journey being 2000 middle pacing for 2000 cubits, it appears that Josephus, using the Greek or Roman cubit, gives half as much more to each dimension of the temple than does the Talmud; this shows the cubit used in the Talmud for temple measures to be certainly not under 25 in. Evidence of the early period is given, moreover, by the statement in 1 Kings of the Egyptian cubit rods (33). Though Cepheus has opposed this conception, and has been 2300 cub. in., this would show a cubic of 25 in. The corrupt text in Chronicles of 3000 baths would need a still longer cubit; and, if a longer cubit is used, the result shows for the bath would be incomparably small. For other Jewish cubits see 18.2 and 21.6. Oppert (24) concludes from inscriptions that there was in Assyria a royal cubit of the U cubit; 25–20; and four monuments show 25 (25) a cubit averaging 25.28. For Persia Queipo (33) relies on, and develops, an Arab statement that the Arab hashama cubit was the royal Persian, thus fixing it at about 25 in.; and the Persian guerze at present is 25, the royal guerze being 13 times this, or being 300 cubits. As 1 cubit is usually a unit of Hippodamia of the measure of Hippodamia, we may take 25.34 as the nearest approach to the ancient Persian unit.

The circuit of the 21-inch boll of Ctesiphon is 54.8 in. The result is stated on a tablet as 24.750 ft. (U), and from the actual size the U is therefore 10.805 in. Hence the recorded series of measures on the Senkereh tablet are valued (Oppert) as—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>foot</th>
<th>100 nods</th>
<th>100 sengkereh</th>
<th>100 tachos</th>
<th>100 amma</th>
<th>100 stadiun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 inches</td>
<td>3 ft.</td>
<td>12 ft.</td>
<td>14 ft.</td>
<td>15 ft.</td>
<td>150 ft.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other units are the sukum or 3U =.054, and cubit of 2U =.219.
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES
which are not named in this tablet.
the same base was
vitasti,
2=arasni,
21-4
10-7 inches

probably
6=angusta
yava,
iSioch
1-07

In Persia (24) the series on

36o=asparasa,

3o=parathafiha,
231,120

774

io = vitasti; and gama = g arasni;
10-7

12-8

also

2=g5v;
462,240

b5zu = 2

428

21-4

arasni.

21-4

values here given are from some Persian buildings (25), which
indicate 21-4, or slightly less; Oppert's value, on less certain data,
The Egyptian cubits have an arm at 15 digits or about
is 21-52.
10-9 marked on them, which seems like this same unit (33).
This cubit was also much used by the Jews (33), and is so often
referred to that it has eclipsed the 25-1 cubit in most writers. The
Gemara names 3 Jewish cubits (2) of 5, 6 and 7 palms; and, as
Oppert (24) shows that 25-2 was reckoned 7 palms, 21-6 being 6
palms, we may reasonably apply this scale to the Gemara list, and
read it as 18, 21-6 and 25-2 in. There is also a great amount of
medieval and other data showing this cubit of 21-6 to have been
familiar to the Jews after their captivity but there is no evidence
for its earlier date, as there is for the 25-in. cubit (from the brazen
sea) and for the i8-in. cubit from the Siloam inscription.
From Assyria also it passed into Asia Minor, being found on the
city standard of Ushak in Phrygia (33), engraved as 21-8, divided
into the Assyrian foot of 10-8, and half and quarter, 5-4 and 2-7.
Apparently the same unit is found (18) at Heraclea in Lucania,
21-86; and, as the general foot of the South Italians, or Oscan foot
of the jugerum,
(18), best defined by the 100 feet square being
and therefore = 10-80 or half of 21-60. A cubit of_2i -5 seems certainly
to be indicated in prehistoric remains in Britain, and also in early
Christian buildings in Ireland (25).
22-2.
Another unit not far different, but yet distinct, is found
apparently in Punic remains at Carthage (25), about 11-16 (22-32),
and probably also in Sardinia as 11-07 (22-14), where it would
In the Hauran 22-16 is shown by a
naturally be of Punic origin.
basalt door (British Museum), and perhaps elsewhere in Syria (25).
It is of some value to trace this measure, since it is indicated by some
prehistoric English remains as 22-4.
This unit may be that of the pre-Semitic Mesopotamians,
20-0.
as it is found at the early temple of Mujfayyir (Ur) ; and, with a few
other cases (25), it averages 19-97. It is described by Oppert (24),
of 222 susi or 39-96, double of
from literary sources, as the great
19-98; from which was formed a reed of 4 great U or 159-8. The
same measure decimally divided is also indicated by buildings in
Asia Minor and Syria (25).
19-2.
In Persia some buildings at Persepolis and other
places
(25) are constructed on a foot of 9-6, or cubit of 19-2; while the
modern Persian arish is 38-27 or 2X19-13. The same is found
very clearly in Asia Minor (25), averaging 19-3; and it is known in
literature as the Pythic foot (18, 33) of 9-75, or J of 19-5, if Censorinus is rightly understood. It may be shown by a mark (33) on
the 26th digit of Sharpe's Egyptian cubit = 19-2 in.
This measure does not seem to belong to very early times,
13-3.
and it may probably have originated in Asia Minor. It is found
there as 13-35 in buildings. Hultsch gives it rather less, at 13-1,
"
small Asiatic foot." Thence it passed to Greece, where it
as the
In Romano-African remains it is often
is found (25) as 13-36.
It lasted in Asia
found, rather higher, or 13-45 average (25).
at Mashita (A.D. 620),
apparently till the building of the palace
where it is 13-22, according to the rough measures we have (25).
And it may well be the origin of the dira* Stambuli of 26-6, twice
I3'3- Found in Asia Minor and northern Greece, it does not appear
unreasonable to connect it, as Hultsch does, with the Belgic foot
of the Tungri, which was legalized (or perhaps introduced) by
Drusus when governor, as | longer than the Roman foot, or 13-07;
this statement was evidently an approximation _by an increase of 2
digits, so that the small difference from 13-3 is not worth notice.
Further, the pertica was 12 ft. of 18 digits, i.e. Drusian feet.
Turning now to England, we find (25) the commonest building
foot up to the 1 5th century averaged 13-22. Here we see the Belgic
foot passed over to England, and we can fill the gap to a considerable
extent from the itinerary measures. It has been shown (31) that
the old English mile, at least as far back as the 1 3th century, was
It was therefore equal to 79,200 in., and
of 10 and not 8 furlongs.
divided decimally into 10 furlongs 100 chains, or looo fathoms.
For the existence of this fathom (half the Belgic pertica) we have
the proof of its half, or yard, needing to be suppressed by statute (9)
"
in 1439, as
the yard and full hand," or about 40 in., ^evidently
the yard of the most usual old English foot of 13-22, which would
We can restore then the old English system of long
be 39-66.
measure from the buildings, the statute-prohibition, the surviving
chain and furlong, and the old English mile shown by maps and
itineraries, thus:

The

;

^

U

foot,

13-22

3=yard,
39-66

2 = fathom,

7932

io=chain,
793

io=furlong,
7932

io=mile.
79,320

Such a regular and extensive system could not have been put into
use throughout the whole country suddenly in 1250, especially as
it must have had to resist the legal foot now in use, which was
(9) as early as 950. We cannot suppose that such a system
would be invented and become general in face of the laws enforcing

enforced

[ANCIENT HISTORIC/

the 12-in. foot. Therefore it must be dated some time before th
loth century, and this brings it as near as we can now hope to th_
Belgic foot, which lasted certainly to the 3rd or 4th century, and
is exactly in the line of migration of the Belgic tribes into Britain.
remarkable how near this early decimal system of Germany and
It
js
Britain is the double of the modern decimal metric system. Had it
not been unhappily driven out by the 12-in. foot, and
repressed
by statutes both against its yard and mile, we should need but a
small change to place our measures in accord with the metre.
The Gallic leuga, or league, is a different unit, being 1-59 British
miles by the very concordant itinerary of the Bordeaux pilgrim.
This appears to be the great Celtic measure, as opposed to the old
English, or Germanic, mile. In the north-west of England and in
Wales this mile lasted as 1-56 British miles till 1500; and the percl
of those parts was correspondingly longer till this century (31)
The " old London mile " was 5000 ft., and probably this was th
mile which was modified to 5280 ft., or 8 furlongs, and so became th
British statute mile.

STANDARDS OF AREA. We cannot here describe these in detail.
Usually they were formed in each country on the squares of the Ion
measures. The Greek system was
36 = hexapodes

foot,

100=
1.027 sq.

36-06

ft.

acaena,
102.68

The Roman system was
pes,

ioo=decempeda,

94 sq.ft.
jugerum,
6205 acre

94
2

25=aroura,

4=plethron.

2567

10,268

2 = jugerum,
4=actus,
36=clima,
3384
13,536
27,072
4=saltus.
ioo=centuna,

= heredium,

124-1

1-241

STANDARDS OF VOLUME.

There

496-4

great uncertainty as to th
exact values of all ancient standards of volume the only
precis
data being those resulting from the theories of volumes derive
from the cubes of feet and cubits. Such theories, as we have notice)
are extremely likely to be only approximations in ancient time
even if recognized then; and our data are quite inadequate fo
If certain equivalences between volumes
clearing the subject.
different countries are stated here, it must be plainly understo
that they are only known to be approximate results, and not
give a certain basis for any theories of derivation. All the actua
monumental data that we have are alluded to here, with the
amounts. The impossibility of safe correlation of units necessitate
a division by countries.
Egypt. The hon was the usual small standard by 8 vases whic
have contents stated in hons (8, 12, 20, 22, 33, 40) the mean is 29-:
cub. in. =*= -6; by 9 unmarked pottery measures (30) 29-1 =*=-i6, ar
divided by 20; by 18 vases, supposed multiples of hon (1), 32-1 ="=
These last are probably only rough, and we may take 29-2 cub. ir
="=
This was reckoned (6) to hold 5 utens of water (uten.-. 1471
-5.
grains), which agrees well to the weight; but this was probably an
approximation, and not derivative, as there is (14) a weight callec'
shet of 4-70 or 4-95 uten, and this was perhaps the actual weight of
hon. The variations of hon and uten, however, cover one anpthe
completely. From ratios stated before Greek times (35) the series <
multiples was
10= (Theban) io=sa.
io=apet (
8=hon, 4 honnu,
ro,
is

;

;

,

or besha
3-65 cub. in.

29-2

116-8

1168

(

4=tama
4672

11,680

116,800

"
(Theban) is the great Theban measure."
In Ptolemaic times the artaba (2336-), modified from the Persian
was general in Egypt, a working equivalent to the Attic metretesvalue 2 apet or J tama; medimnus = tama or 2 artabas, and fraction
down to rJjj artaba (35). In Roman times the artaba remainei
(Didymus), but $ was the usual unit (name unknown), and this
thus producing by *'
or T tt artaba (35)
was divided down to
artaba a working equivalent to the xestes and sextarius (35). Ali
a new Roman artaba (Didymus) of 1540- was brought in. Besid
the equivalence of the hon to 5 utens weight of water, the mathematical papyrus (35) gives 5 besha = | cubic cubit (Revillout'r

^

8
interpretation of this as I cubit is impossible geometrically; se
Rev. Eg., 1881, for data); this is very concordant, but it is ver
unlikely for 3 to be introduced in an Egyptian derivation, and
The other ratio ol
probably therefore only a working equivalent.
3
Revillout and Hultsch, 320 hons = cubit is certainly approximate. _
Here there are no monuments'
Syria, Palestine ana Babylonia.
data known; and the literary information does not distinguish tb
Mon
closely connected, perhaps identical, units of these lands.
over, none of the writers are before the Roman period, and many
relied on are medieval rabbis. A large number of their statement?
are rough (2, 18, 33), being based on the working equivalence o
the bath or epha with the Attic metretes, from which are sometime
drawn fractional statements which seem more accurate than they ar<
This, however, shows the bath to be about 2500 cub. in. There ar
two better data (2) of Epiphanius and Theodoret Attic medimnu
= 1 1 baths, and saton (J bath) = I f modii these give about 2240 an
2260 cub. in. The best datum is in Josephus (Ant. iii. 15, 3), when
10 baths = 41 Attic or 31 Sicilian medimni, for which it is agreed w
must read modii (33); hence the bath = 2300 cub. in. Thus thea
three different reckonings agree closely, but all equally depend on the
Greek and Roman standards, which are not well fixed. The Sicilian
modius here is ^, or slightly under J, of the bath, and so probably
,

;

:


Punic variant of the bath or saton of Phoenicia. One close datum, if trustworthy, would be log of water = Assyrian mina = bath about 2200 cub. in. The rabbinical statement of cub. of 21:5 holding 320 lbs. puts the bath at above 2400 cub. in.; their log-masure, holding six men's heads, seems to be over to rather than under this amount; but their reckoning of bath = cub. cubed is but approximate; by 21:5 it is 1240, by 25:1 it is 1990 cub. in. The earliest Hebrew system was:

| 3 lb. | 6 bath, 6 metretesor 1920. | 2200 | 3570 | baths, | 1920.

The 'issarón ("tenth-deal") is also called gomer. The log and cub are not found till the later writings; but the ratio of bin to 'issarón is practically fixed in early times by the proportions in Num. xv. 4-9. Epiphanes (XVII. 6) refers to the actual practice.

The Syrian system was (18):

| c.w. | w. 19 = s. 18 = bath or saton, | 18 = 30 = 190 | 300 = 190 | 300 =

The approximate value from capita = 2 Attic choinixes (Xenophon) warrants us in taking the achane as fixed in the following system, which places it closely in accord with the preceding.

In Persia Hulius:

| 1 a. | 40 = 78 = 23 = 37.5 | 10 = 20 = 40 =

The absolute values being fixed by artaba = 2 Attic choinixes (Herod. I. 198). The marai of the Pontic system is η of the above, and the Macedonian and Naxian marai of the Pontic (18). By the theory of marai = ⅔ of 20-6 = 175S; by marai = Assyrian ta'la = 25-6; the modern idea of the cub, the more likely theory of weight, rather than cub, connexion is nearer to the facts.

Attician System. This is so called from according with the Attician weight. The absolute data are all dependent on the Attic and Roman systems, as there are no monumental data. The series of names is the same as in the Attic system (18). The values are 1 Attica (Atheneus, Theophrastus, &c.), 1 bath, 100 bath, and more closely 11 to 12 times of Attic. Hence, the Attic cotyle = 17.5 cub., in., the Aeginetan is about 25.7. The Boeotian system (18) included the achane; if this = Persia, then cotyle = 24.7. Or, separately through the Roman system, the marais of Cypros (18) = 170 sextari.

The absolute values being fixed by artaba = 4 Attic choinixes (Herod. I. 198). The marais of the Pontic system is η of the above, and the Macedonian and Naxian marais of the Pontic (18). By the theory of marais = ⅔ of 20-6 = 175S; by marais = Assyrian ta'la = 25-6; the modern idea of the cub, the more likely theory of weight, rather than cub, connexion is nearer to the facts.

Aeginetan System. This is so called from according with the Attician weight. The absolute data are all dependent on the Attic and Roman systems, as there are no monumental data. The series of names is the same as in the Attic system (18). The values are 1 Attica (Atheneus, Theophrastus, &c.), 1 bath, 100 bath, and more closely 11 to 12 times of Attic. Hence, the Attic cotyle = 17.5 cub., in., the Aeginetan is about 25.7. The Boeotian system (18) included the achane; if this = Persia, then cotyle = 24.7. Or, separately through the Roman system, the marais of Cypros (18) = 170 sextari.

Attic or Usual Greek System. The absolute value of this system is from certain. The best data are three stone slabs, each with several standard volumes cut in them (11, 18), and two named vases. These two named vases, accounted for the standard vases, are 14-9-19-6; from a vase about 16-6; from the Panathenaic shield 17 (var. 16-2-18-2); from a Capuan vase 17-8; from the Gaminus shield 17-6 (var. 17-16). From these we may take 17.5 as a fair approximaition. It is supposed that the Panathenian vases were intended as metretes; this would show a cotyle of 14-4-17-1. The theories of connexion give, for the value of the cotyle, metretes = Aeginetan shield = 1890, which means of 1-16 cubic, = 10-6; metretes = ½ of 12-16 cubed, = 16-6; medium = 2 Attic talents, hectare = 30 mina, choinix = 21 minae, = 16-7; metretes = 3 cub. spatamhi (1 cub. spat = 12) = 17-5; cotyle = 0.65 bath or 2560 cub. in. But probably as good theories could be found for any other amount; and certainly the facts should not be set aside, as almost every author has done, in favour of some one of half a dozen theories. The system was fixed:

| t. | cotyle = 1 = 1 octobolon, 4 = cotyle, 12 = chozas, 1 = metretes. | 120 = 2 = 120 =

The system differed widely both in units and names from the preceding is found on the standard slab of Cythium in the southern Peloponnesus (Rev. Arch., 1872). Writers have unified it with the Attic, but it is decidedly larger in its unit, giving 19:4 (var. 19:1-19:8) for the supposed cotyle. Its system is—

| 4 = cotyle, 12 = hemilectus, 3 = chozas, 4 = another unit. | 120 = 30 = 120 = 120 =

And with this agrees a pottery cylindrical vessel, with official stamp on it (ΔΗΜΟΖΩΝ, &c.), and having a fine black line traced round the inside, near the top, to show its limit; this seems to be probably very early, and connected with the small system of the cotyle of Cythium. It has been described (Rev. Arch., 1872) as an Attic choinix. Cythium being the southern port of Greece, it seems not too far to connect this 86 cub. in. with the double of the Egyptian hekat, as it is different from every other Greek system.

Roman System. The celebrated Farnesian standard conoci of bronze of Vesuvian, "measure exactate in Capitolio F. X. cont. 2067 cub. ft. of the amphora 1654 by the system of Dresden (2) the amphora is 1655; by the conoci of Set Geneivève (2) 1700 cub. in., and by the ponderameasures at Pompeii (33) 1540 to 1840, or about 1620 for a mean. So the Phoenician cub, or about 1650, may be best adopted. The system for liquid was—

| quartarius = sextarius, 6 = conocius, 4 = urna, 2 = amphora. | 6 = 206 = 1650 =

Phoenician and old Carthaginian system was (18)—

| 1 = cotyle, 2 = syr. sextari, 15 = saline or saton, 1 = collation, 2 = bath-arta; 30 cub. in. | 44 = 770 = 4400 = 120 =

the Syrian being 1 Roman sextari.

The Babylonian system was very similar (18)—

| x capita = 15 = saline = xicks = 10 = honey, 6 = arsha. | 720 = 2330 = 143,800 =

The approximate value from capita = 2 Attic choinixes (Xenophon) warrants us in taking the achane as fixed in the following system, which places it closely in accord with the preceding.

In Persia Hulius:

| capita | 40 = arsha, 40 = achaon. | 170 = 143,800 =

This was the system of Sparta, of Boeotia (where the apermyra = 4 choinixes, the cophinis = 6 choinixes, and saxes or saton or hectara = 40, 100, 250, 500, 1000, and 2000, in various proportions, evidently Asiatic connections throughout), and of Cyprus (where 2 cotes = Cypros mediumus, of which 5 = mediumus of Salamis, of which 2 = mediumus).
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The standard of Babylonia became the parent of several other systems; and itself and its derivatives became more widely spread than any other standard. It was known in two forms—one system (24) of—

1. 60,000
2. 7750
3. 925
4. 465,000

and the other system double of this in each stage except the talent. These two systems are distinctly named on the weights, and are known to have been used and held in Babylonia (the former more so than the latter, and it is better to avoid the name Babylonian, as it has other meanings also.) There are no weights dating before the Assyrian bronze lion weights (9, 17, 38) of the 11th to 8th centuries B.C. Thirteen of the 29 and 17 weights for this were of standard weights (38) give 128-2; 16 stone duck weights (38), 126-5. A heavier value is shown by the precious metals—the gold plates from Karash and the 72-1 ounce of gold from the coinage of the city of Periai 129-2. Nine weights from Syria (44) average 128-8. This is the system of the "Babylonian" talent, by Herodotus = 70 minae of Euboic, by Pollux = 70 mina Attic, by Anfian = 72 minae Attic and, therefore, is nearly the same as the weight of 70 minae, as shown at Naucratis (28, 29), and less commonly at Delonch (29). In both places the distribution, a high type of 129 and a lower of 127, is like the monetary and trade varieties above noticed; while a smaller number of weights varied from 127 to 118 grams. At Memphis (44) the shekel is scarcely known, and a 1 mina weight was there converted into another standard (of 200). A few barrel weights are found at Karash, and several egg-shaped weight weights at Gebel (44); also two cumb weights from there (44) of 1 and 10 units are marked as 60 and 60, which can hardly refer to any unit but the heavy shekel, giving 245. Hultsch refers to Egyptian gold rings of Dynasty XVIII. of 125 grams. That this unit penetrated far to the south in early times is shown by the tribute of Kush (34) in Dynasty XVIII.; this is of 801, 1443 and 25,741 kats, or 15 and 27 manches and 71 talents when reduced to this system. And the later Ethiopic gold rings of 13-22, or 14-30, units, was 80-9 or more, and may therefore be the 10 sikhir or obols of 21-5. But the fraction 1/3, or a continued binary division repeated seven times, is such a likely mode of reducing that little strange, and seems to have been at times in Egypt a class of large glass scarabs for funerary purposes seem to be selected to the shekel (30). Whether this system or the Phoenician of 224 grams was that of the Hebrews is uncertain. There is no doubt but that in the Maccabean times and onward 218 was the shekel; but the use of the word darkonem by Ezra and Nehemiah, and the probabilities of their case, point to the darag-manch, 16 manche or shekel of Assyria; and the mention of 1 shkel by Nebuchadnezzar as poll tax nearly proves that the 129 and not 218 grams is intended, as 218 is not divisible by 3. But the Maccabean use of 218 may have been a revision to the older shekel; and this is strongly shown by the fraction 1/3 shekel (Sam. ix. 5), the continued mention of large decimal numbers of shekels in the earlier books, and the certain fact of 100 shekels being = mina. This would all be against the 129 or 258 shekel, and for the 218 or 224. There is, however, one possible exception: 300 talents of silver, (2 Kings xvi. 14) are 800 talents on Sennacherib's cylinder (34), while the 30 talents of gold is the same in both accounts. Eight hundred talents on the Assyrian silver standard would be 287—where 300—talents on the heavy trade or gold system, which is therefore probably the Hebrew. Probably the 129 and 224 systems coexisted in the country; but on the whole it seems more likely that that of 224 was the older, but the numbers for the shekel found in times—especially the 100 shekels to the mina is paralleled by the following Persian system (Hultsch)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>weight</th>
<th>talent of gold</th>
<th>mina</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>129</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>465,000</td>
<td>570</td>
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The Hebrew system being

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and, considering that the two Hebrew cubits are the Babylonian and Persian units, and the volumes also are Babylonian and Persian, it is the more likely that the weights should have come with these. From this east this passed to Asia Minor; and six multiples of 2 to 20 shekels (av. 127) are found among the haemistie weights of Troy (14), including those of the Early Bronze Age. In the later period of the city it is found in coinage (17); at Lampsacus 131-129, Phocaea 256-253, Cyzicus 252-247, Methymna 124-6, etc. In later times it was a standard weight of 1/3 drachm of the Attic drachm. The weight of Etruscan, leaden weights of Antioch (3), Callatis and Tomi being known, the standard of these eastern weights is 7700 for the mina, or 128. But the leaden weights of the west (44) from Corfi, etc., average 7580, or 126-3; this was found in their coinage and is the weight of a unit. The drachm it is commonly divided by 20, but later on many were adjusted to the Attic, 1/25. Six diak weights from Carthage (44) show 126. It is usually the case that a unit lasts later in trade than in coinage; and the prominence of this standard in Italy may show how it is that this mina (14 unciae = 7400) was known as the "Italic" in the days of Galen and Diocletian (2).

125 gns. 258 gns. 7750; 15,950; 465,000

A variation on the main system was made by forming a 516,000, and the 1/2 of the Hebrew series noted above. But it is more striking when it is found in the mina form which distinguishes the Persians from all other peoples of the ancient world. It is a type with two breasts on a rectangular block) a show a mina of 6250 (125-0); and it is singular that this class is exactly like weights of the 224 system found with it, but yet quite distinct in standard. This is found in Syria (38) as 258-2, in Phoenicia down to 440 B.C. (Terina, Carthage) and finally in Italy in unciae (44), and scrupula (44), and called litra (in Corfi?) It is known in the coinage of Hatra (18) as 620. And we may reasonably suppose that these digits (44) and perhaps therefore connected with this decimal mina) is shown by a series of bronzes with four curved sides and marked with circles (British Museum, place unknown), which may be Roman-Gallic, averaging 125-10. This weight would then be kept in use in Italy for many centuries, and be known, but it is only possible to use the range of both units, only it must be remembered that 129 was used as gold unit, and another silver unit derived from it. More likely then the 147 and 129 units originated independently in Egypt and Babylonia.

86 gns. 129 gns of gold was adopted an equal value of silver = 1720, on the proportion of 1:133, and this 8600; was divided in 10=172—which was used either in 516,000, this, or its half, 86, best known as the siglum (17). Such a proportion is indicated in Num. vii., where the gold spoon of 10 shekels is equal in value to the bowl of 130 shekels, or double that of 650 shekels. But in the time of Solomon (17) Khorsabad (18) we find to be 80 sigli of 84-6. The Persian silver coinage shows about 86-0; the danak was 1/3 of this or 28-7, Xeno- crates, and silver coins was that little strange, and seems to have spread, perhaps entirely, in consequence of the Persian domination; it varies from 174; downwards, usually 167, in Arazus, Cilicia and on to the Aegean coast, in Lydias and in Macedonia (17). The silver bars found at Troy averaging 2744, or 1/5 of 84 is 540. It is possible that this weighs 175-172 (17). By the Romans it was used on the Danube (18), two weights of the first legion there showing 8610; and this is the mina of 20 unciae (8400) named by Roman writers. The system was

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A derivation from this was the 1/2 of 172, or 57-3, the so-called Phoenician drachma, equal in silver value to the 84 of the gold 258 grains. It was used at Phocaea as 58-5, and passed to the colonies in Italy, and Viterbo and Viminacium (59 or 118). The colony of Massilia brought it into Gaul as 58-2-54-9.

224 gns. This that unit (commonly called Phoenician) is derived from the 129 system can hardly be doubted, both being connected with intimate connections. The relationship is shown by the 672,000, relation is 255:229:9:8; but the exact form in which the descent took place is not settled: 84 or 129 of gold is worth 57 of silver or a drachm, 1/3 of 230 (or by trade weight 127). This weight, of 84 which is that of the weight long maintained in Egypt, and was the drachm is the 1/ster, 172, or double of the Persian danak of 28-7, and the sacred unit of Didyma in Ionia was this half-drachm, 27-1. or thirdly, what is indicated by the Lydian coinage (17), 86 of
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The weight of drachm, as inscribed on Seleucid coins, varied from about 4.2 to 5.8 grams. The average weight of drachm, as found on the coins of the Achaemenid Persian Empire, was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm varied from 4.15 to 5.9 grams on the coins of the Pergamon Museum. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Parthian Empire was about 4.5 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Roman Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Byzantine Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Arab-Byzantine Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Islamic Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Mongol Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Qing Dynasty was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Manchu Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Japanese Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Russian Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Ottoman Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Turkish Republic was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Greek Republic was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Italian Republic was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Swiss Confederation was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Austrian Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Austro-Hungarian Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the German Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Weimar Republic was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Third Reich was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Soviet Union was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the United States of America was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the British Empire was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the Commonwealth of Nations was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the European Union was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the United Nations was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Monetary Fund was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Olympic Committee was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the World Health Organization was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Labour Organization was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Telecommunication Union was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Maritime Organization was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Civil Aviation Organization was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Organization of Migra- tion was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the International Fund for Agricultural Development was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the United Nations Children's Fund was about 4.25 grams. The weight of the drachm on the coins of the World Food Programme was about 4.25 grams. 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It also passed into Italy, but in a smaller multiple of 35 drachmae, or 12 Italian talanti, of which 7 were silver, 4 gold, and 1 stater. The Greek system (which cannot therefore be differently attributed) show a libra of 2400 or 4 of 600, which was divided in unciae and sextulae, and the full-sized mina as the 24 uncia mina, or talent of 12 bifida. The silver unit of Italy is a Liber (38) or 9900. Hultsch states this to be the old Etruscan pound.

With the trade mina of 9600 in Greece, and recognized in the Roman Empire, it is to be supposed that the Roman weight was half of this mina. At Athens it was 2 x 4900, and on the average of all the Greek weights it is 2 X 8235, so that 4950—the libra—is as close as we need expect. The division by 12 does not cease here; as every weight of 4950 came in the same scale. In the libra, as in most other standards, the value which happened to be first at hand for the coinage was not the mean of the whole of the values in the country; the Phoenician coinage shows that the small drachma was the first and the main medium of the trade, and of course a kind of weight was given, a stater, and also the mina, but the cuniothet was divided on the same scale, the Roman cuniothet below, and the Roman cuniothet above the average of trade weights, or the mean standard. Rejecting all weights of the lower order, the average of 44 (about 100 is 4966; while 42 later Greek weights (nomisma, &c.) average 4857, and 16 later Latin ones (solidus, &c.) show 4879. The coinage standard, however, was always higher (16): the oldest gold shows 5056, the Campanian Roman 5054, this is said to average 4105, the Constantinian solidi 5053 and the Justinian gold 4996. Thus, though it fell in the later empire, like the trade weight, yet it was always above that. Though it has no exact ratio to the congius or amphiara, yet it is common knowledge that it is the result of the coinage of the same standard, the weight in a degraded form, and the foot in an undegraded form, come from the East, it is needless to look for an exact relation between the two for a reason; and yet it seems close enough, or the imperial equivalent, 1000 ounces to the cubit foot in England. Böckh has remarked the great diversity between weights of the same age—those marked "Ad Augusti Temp" ranging 4971 to 5335, those tested by the fuzzy ancient Jews varied from 30 to 50, and of these, the British Museum (44) belonging together vary 4700 to 5168. The series was—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weight</th>
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<th>Notes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>siliqua</td>
<td>0.625 drachm</td>
<td>scope, sextula, uncia, libra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.641 drachm</td>
<td>0.625 drachm, sack, uncia, libra</td>
<td></td>
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<td>0.670 drachm</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.697 drachm</td>
<td>0.625 drachm, sack, uncia, libra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and the sextula after Constantine had the name of solidus as a coin weight, or nomisma in Greek, marked N on the weights. A beautiful set of multiples of the scupulum was found near Lyons (38), from I to I X 728 grams, showing a libra of 4976. In Byzantine times in Egypt glass was used for coin-weights (30), averaging 68-0 for the solidus—4866 for the libra. The Saxo and Norman coinage was in 4976, and 60-0 of the British Museum (44) belonging together vary 4700 to 5168. The series was—

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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Denominations. The denominations of trade weights and measures at present used in the United Kingdom are represented by the third table of Troy weight, which are regulated by the accuracy of the common weights and measures handled in shops.

Imperial Measures of Length—100 feet, 66 feet or a chain of 100 links, rod, pole, or perch, measures from 10 feet to 1 foot; 1 Board of Trade Model Regulations, 1892; Weights and Measures Acts, 1878, 1889, 1892. 1933.
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

18 inches; yard of 36 inches, 1/3 yard, 1/4 yard, and duodecimal, decimal and binary parts of the inch.

Imperial Measures of Capacity.—Liquid measures from 32 gallons to 1 gallon, quart, pint, 1/2 pint, 1/4 pint, 1/8 pint, 1/16 pint. Dry measures of bushel, 1 bushel, peck, gallon, quart, pint, 1/2 pint.

Apothecaries' Measures.—40 fluid ounces to 1/4 fl. oz., 16 fluid drachms to 1/4 fl. dr., 60 minims to 1 minim.

Avoirdupois Weights.—Central (100 lb.), 56 lb. (1 cwt.), 28 lb. 14 lb. (stone), 7, 4, 2, 1 lb.; 8, 4, 2, 1 1/4 ounce (8 drams); 4, 2, 1, 1/2 drams.

Troy Weights.—The ounce (480 gr.) and multiples and decimal parts of the ounce from 300 ounces to 0.001 oz.

Apothecaries' Weights.—10 oz. to 1 oz. (480 gr.); 4 drachms to 1 oz.; 2, 1 drachms; 2 scrupules to 1 scruple; and 6 grains to 1 grain.

Pennyweights.—20 dwt. (480 grains), 10, 5, 3, 2, 1 dwt.

Grain Weights.—4000, 2000, 1000 gr. (making 7000 gr. or 1 lb), 500 to 0.001 gr.

2. The international trade metric weights and measures (1897) handled in shops, &c., of which there are also Board of Trade standards, are set out as follows:

---

Fig. 9.—International Metric Trade Weights and Measures, 1897. A, linear; B, capacity; C, and D, weights.

Length.—Decimetre or 10 metres; double metre; metre or 1000 millimetres; decimetre or 0.1 metre; centimetre or 0.01 metre; millimetre.

Capacity.—20 litres; 10 litres or decalitre; 5, 2, 1, 0.5, 0.2, 0.1 decalitre; 0.05, 0.02, 0.01 centalitre; 0.005, 0.002, 0.001 (millilitre) litres.

Cubic Measures.—1000 litre), 500, 200, 100, 50, 20, 10, 5, 2 cubic centimetres, 1 c.c. or 1000 cubic millimetres.

Weights.—20, 10, 5, 2, 1 kilograms; 500 to 1 gramme; 5 to 1 decigram; 5 to 1 centigram; 5 to 1 milligram. (Series 5, 2, 1, i.e., with a duplicate weight of 2.)

3. Equivalents.—The metric equivalents of the units of the metric system in terms of the imperial system, as recalculated in 1897, are as follows:—

---

1 Metric Equivalents, King's Printers (1898).
The equivalents of the Russian weights and measures, in terms also of the imperial and metric weights and measures, were re-calculated in 1897.¹ The following are the leading equivalents:

```
1 Russian pound = 40 lb avoirdupois.
1 tsered = 96 zolotniks.
9216.8 dolis.  
1 quintal = 0.00015 ton.
1 tchert = 0.33 sagnet.
1 marc = 280 linias.
= 0.771200 yard.
1 vedro = = 100 tcharkas.
12-295 litres
2-7056 gallons.
1 tchert = 2-0991 hectolitres
= 57719 bushels.
```

4. Local Control.—The necessary local inspection and verification of weights and measures in use for trade (as distinct from the verbal and written use of weights and measures) is in the United Kingdom undertaken by inspectors of weights and measures, who are appointed by the local authorities, as the county and borough councils. An inspector is required to hold a certificate of qualification, and it is also compulsory for the owner or lessee of premises to which a certificate is issued to keep records of the periods at which such weights and measures were last inspected and verified. The local authorities of the United Kingdom, although not the local authorities of the Empire, have the power to make more stringent local regulations for the prevention of false weights and measures under the local bye-laws. In India the local inspection is generally carried out through the State, and a uniform system of local verification is thereby maintained.

5. Errors.—In the verification of weights and measures a margin of error is permitted to manufacturers and scale-makers, as it is found to be impossible to make two weights, or two measures, identical that between them some difference may not be found either by the balance or the microscope. For common weights and measures this margin of error is permitted in the manufacture of weights and measures, and for other weights and measures in use for commercial purposes in the United Kingdom, and similar margins of error are recognized in other countries. For instance, on 1 lb avoirdupois, weight made of brass, 2 grains in excess are allowed; on 1 oz. troy or apothecaries' weight, ±0.2 grain is allowed; on 1 pint pot, 4 fluid drachms is permitted; on 1 brass yard, 0.05 inch in excess or 0.02 inch in deficiency in length is allowed for ordinary trade purposes.

6. Foreign Weights and Measures.—Throughout the British Empire the imperial system of weights and measures is legal. In Russia, as in the United Kingdom and the United States, the national weights and measures are followed (§ 3 above), although the use of metric weights and measures is permissible.

7. Customary Weights and Measures.—In some districts of the United Kingdom, as well as in provincial districts of other countries, old local and customary denominations of weights and measures are still found to be in use, although their use may have been prohibited by law. So powerful is custom with the people.²

8. Legislation.—In everyday transactions with reference to weights and measures, the British legislature also exercises

¹ C.I.P.M., Procès-verbaux (1897), p. 155.
² Regulations, Birmingham, Glasgow, London, Manchester, &c.
³ Report Select Committee (1892); Merchant's Handbook, W. A. Browne (1892); Reports H.M. Representatives Abroad, Foreign Office, 1900-1901.

control in industrial pursuits. For instance, in weighing live cattle, owners of markets are now required to provide adequate accommodation.³ Useful statutes have also been passed to protect the working class, as in checking the weighing instruments used in mines in Great Britain, over which instruments wages are paid, and in the inspection of similar instruments used in factories and workshops. The Merchandise Marks Act 1887 makes it an offence also to apply in trade a false description, as to the number, quantity, measure, gauge or weight of goods sold; and this Act appears to reach offences that the Weights and Measures Acts may perhaps not reach.

9. Pharmaceutical Weights and Measures.—By the Medical Act of 1858, and the Act of 1862, the General Council of Medical Education and Registration of the United Kingdom are authorized to issue a "Pharmacopoeia" with reference to the weights and measures used in the dispensing of drugs, &c. The British Pharmacopoeia issued by the Council in 1892 makes no alteration in the imperial weights and measures required to be used by the Pharmacopoeia of 1864. For all pharmaceutical purposes, however, the use of the metric system alone is employed in all paragraphs relating to analysis, whether gravimetric or volumetric. For measures of capacity the Pharmacopoeia continues to use imperial measuring vessels graduated at the legal temperature of 65° F. The official names of the metric capacity units are defined at 24° C., as generally on the Continent. The British Pharmacopoeia follows foreign practice, and employs metric measures of capacity of similar instruments graduated at 15° C., or 60° F. Specific gravity bottles are also adjusted at 60° F., the figures indicating specific gravities being quoted obtained by dividing in each instance the weight of the solid or liquid by the weight of an equal bulk of water, both taken at 60° F.³

10. Gauges.—"Gauges," as understood at one time, included only those used in the measurement of barrels, casks, &c., and hence the term "gauge." For engineering and manufacturing purposes the more important linear gauges are, however, now used, adjusted to some fundamental unit of measure as the inch; although in certain trades, as for wires and flat metal gauges, it continues to be used of arbitrary scales and of merely numerical sizes, having no reference to a legal unit of measure; and such are rarely accurate. A standard gauge, however, exists (Order in Council, August 1885), based on the inch, but having numbered sizes from 7/0 (0.65 inch) to No. 50 (0.001 inch) to meet the convenience of certain trades.⁴

11. Screws.—The screw is an important productive measuring instrument, and in many cases a standard of an inch in length, or as a master-screw of 20 feet in length. The probable errors and eccentricities of small micrometer-screws have been carefully investigated by Mr. Hardwicke, the accuracy of leading screws used in workshops has not been sufficiently verified. For some engineering purposes it would appear to be desirable to produce master-screws to an accuracy of 20,000 of an inch to the foot of screw, so as to serve indirectly for the verification of "guiding gauges" for general use in workshops.⁵ Attempts in this direction were originally made by Whitworth, Clement, Dymkin, Rogers, Bond and others, but we still need a higher accuracy in screw-threads.

12. Educational.—Ordinary arithmetic books contain no certain references to local and customary weights and measures and to obsolete terms of no practical use to children. It appears to be desirable, as the Committee of Council on Education have decided, to recognize only the legal systems of weights and measures—the imperial and metric. The Education Code of Regulations for 1900 prescribes that the tables of weights and measures to be learned include those only which are in ordinary use, viz. in all classes or forms above the third the tables of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>ton, cwt, stone, lb, oz, and dr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>mile, furlong, rod or pole, chain, yd., ft., and inch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>sq. mile, acre, rood, pole, yd., ft. and inch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>cubic mile, cubic pole, cubic yard, cubic foot and inch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instruction in the principles of the metric system, and in the advantages to be gained from uniformity in the method of forming multiplies and sub-multiples of the unit, are, under this Code, to be

² Pharmacopoeia (1901); Calendar Pharmaceutical Society, 1902.
³ Order in Council, 26th August 1881.
Table of the Principal Foreign Weights and Measures now in use, and of their Equivalents in Imperial or in Metric Weights and Measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almude</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>16.8 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anomman (Amomman, Anomman)</td>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>0.055 quarter (dry measure), 5.50 bushels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ara</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1 metric are, 116.6 sq. yds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archin, or Arshin</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1 new archin (Law 1881) = 1 metre (39.37 inches) = 10 perches (decimetres)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archin, or Arshin</td>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>0.756 metre (launch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archeine, or Archin</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>0.7112 metre (launch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ardebe</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>5,447 bushels (Customs), 5 bushels (old measure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aree</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>= 100 sq. metres = 116.6 sq. yds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arpent</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 1 metric are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arroba</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>12.66 to 15 kilograms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artaha</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>1,808 bushel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aune</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1.885 metric ton (1812)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barilo</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>12.834 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barlo, or Tical</td>
<td>Siam</td>
<td>2.34 grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batman</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>61 lb av.; varies locally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behr</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>= 10 ocks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berri</td>
<td>Arabia</td>
<td>439.45 lb av., nearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bossean</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>= 1 metric litre (launch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bouteylka</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1.353 pint (wine bottle)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braga</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>362.52 metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bracelio</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0.670 metric ton (commercial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasse</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>373.72 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braxa</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>0.682 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bu, or Tseto</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3.036 square metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bushel</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Canada 2150.42 cubic inches, about 0.06644 imperial bushel, 1 bushel = 8 gallons = 32 quarts = 64 pints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burden</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Jersey 2-471 acres (old hectare), 160 square yards, or 4 gallons, 1 quart 3 gills imperial measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>560 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantor</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>949.72 lb av. (old weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantara piccolo</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>124.7 lb av. (old weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caphica</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>560 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cathy</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>1 lb av. See Tael.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cawnie</td>
<td>N. Borneo</td>
<td>1 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Siam</td>
<td>2-675 lb, or 500 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centigram</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1-322 acre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centilitre</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>100 lb av. (As in Great Britain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centimetre</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>100 lb av. (As in Great Britain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centimetre, cubic (c.c.)</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>100 lb av. (As in Great Britain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centimetre, square</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>100 lb av. (As in Great Britain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centner</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>100 lb av. (As in Great Britain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chain</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>566 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chang</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>10 in. = 9 ft 6 inches (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charpah</td>
<td>N. Borneo</td>
<td>10 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheek, or Tahil</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>14.9 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemica</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>0.208 gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenin</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>11.8 grams (silver weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ch’i’h</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Varies throughout China from 11 to 15.8 inches. For Customs purposes the Treaty Ch‘i’h = 14.1 inches, and 3 Ch‘i’h = 1 pu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chilgrome</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1 kilogramme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chin or Catty</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>= 1 lb av. (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ching</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>121 sq. feet (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ch’ing</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>72,600 sq. feet (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chittack</td>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>5 tola, or 900 grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ch’ok</td>
<td>Corea</td>
<td>1”7 in. (linear); 12” in. (building)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chùo</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>1.815 sq. feet (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chupah</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>1-666 lb av. of water at 62°F, as a measure of capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chupak</td>
<td>Straits Settlements</td>
<td>1 quart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collochoun</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>1-890 gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coss</td>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>1-936 metre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covardo</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>0.666 metre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covid, or Cubit</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>18 to 21 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covido (Great)</td>
<td>Arabia</td>
<td>15 inches approximately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuartillo</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1-16 litre (dry); 0-540 litre liquid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daktylon (Royal)</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1 centimetre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daribah</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>43-58 bushels (Customs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decagram</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 10 grams = 0.064 lbs av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decalitre</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 10 litres = 2-2 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decametre</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 10-936 yards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dégisatina</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>= 2400 square sagènes = 2.7 acres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decigramme</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 1 gram = 0.035274 lbs av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decilitre</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 1 litre = 0.676 pint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decimetre</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 10-936 inches = 0-01 metre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decimetre, cubic</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 1000 c.c. = 61-024 cubic inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decimetre, square</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>= 100 sq. centim. = 15-5 sq. in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denaro</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>1-17871 grams (old weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dennam</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1 metric are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirna, or Drâa, or Plc</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>= 27 inches usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirhem</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>1-761 drams av. (Customs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djerb</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1 hectare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dolia, or Dora</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>= 0-9668 grams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drachma</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>3-966 grams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drachmé (Royal)</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1-54-324 grams (gold weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drachme</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>= 27 inches (old measure of pike)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drachme</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1-761 drams av. (Customs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ducat</td>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>53-873 grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duim</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1 centimetre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eimer</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12-448 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1 metric. (Old ell = 27.08 inches)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ella</td>
<td>N. Borneo</td>
<td>1 yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elle</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>0.6514 yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endaseh, or Hindal</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Usually 25 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Falthe</td>
<td>Moldavia</td>
<td>1 hectare, 43 ares, 22 centaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farangea</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>3-773 bushels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fassen</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>55-564 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fass</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1-526 bushel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatan</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1 bushel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fattan</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>= 1-615 acre, but varies locally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feddan</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1-hectolitre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>1-038 acre (Masri). Also 1-127 acre locally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fenn</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>1-266 acre (old)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fjerekingkar</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>5-83 grains (silver weight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fod</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0-964 lat (Treaty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foglietto</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>0-8 pint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Canada 12-2 inches (old measure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshan</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>14-271 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Afirca</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>12-356 inch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given to the scholars in Standards IV., V., VI. and VII. as a preparation for this it is stated in the Code that it will be useful to give in Standard III. (arithmetic) elementary lessons on the notation of decimal fractions. (See Arithmetic.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Conversion Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fot</td>
<td>492 sq. ft. = 1 sq. m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foute, or Funt</td>
<td>0.9082 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foute, or Pied</td>
<td>1 English foot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frasco</td>
<td>2.5 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuss</td>
<td>12 zoll = 1-037 foot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>31 usa = 1 metre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallon</td>
<td>33.8 cubic inches = 1 cubic metre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>144 oz. av. weight of water as measure of capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallant</td>
<td>32 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gin</td>
<td>0.3607 peck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gisla</td>
<td>Measuring 360 lb av. of rice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>30 cubic centimeters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grain</td>
<td>0.960 grain (apothecaries)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gramme (gr.)</td>
<td>=15.4323554 grains av. troy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammè (Royal)</td>
<td>1 millimetres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gramo</td>
<td>1 gramme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grano</td>
<td>0.257 grain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grano</td>
<td>0.768 grain; also measure 0.065 in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groen</td>
<td>1663 grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guz, or Gudge</td>
<td>27 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>33 inches, Government Survey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>The guz, gueza or zer varies from 24 to 44 inches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabia</td>
<td>25 inches to 37 inches (Bassorah).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hat'th, or Moor</td>
<td>18 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilem, or Cubit</td>
<td>18 inches, or cubit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hectare</td>
<td>=100 ares, or 2.471 acres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hectogramme</td>
<td>100 gm. = 3.53 oz. av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hectolitre</td>
<td>100 litres = 2.75 bushels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hectometre</td>
<td>=109.36 yards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiyaka-ma</td>
<td>5797.989 grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huyak-kin</td>
<td>1524 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoon, See Tahli</td>
<td>15 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hu</td>
<td>5761 kg av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immi</td>
<td>57.51 acre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joy</td>
<td>1.5 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaima</td>
<td>0.576 gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kan</td>
<td>1 litre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanne or Kanna</td>
<td>1 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>39.4702 lb av. = 100 rots (Customs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>0.576 pint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karvar</td>
<td>100 batman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasassah</td>
<td>3,8824 yards (Customs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katti, Catty or Gin</td>
<td>1 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keila, or Pishi</td>
<td>Measure of 6 lb av. of rice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keina</td>
<td>1.848 cubic metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerat</td>
<td>19 inch measure (old)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kette, or Chain</td>
<td>169.9494 cem., or 109.936 yards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kew</td>
<td>117.085 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khat (New)</td>
<td>1 centimetre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kile</td>
<td>6.44 cubic metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kilogramme</td>
<td>1000 gram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kilometre</td>
<td>=1000 gm. = 2.0462243 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kin</td>
<td>0.601 kilogramme = 1.325 lb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klutter</td>
<td>1966.8 yd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Köddi</td>
<td>1.87 gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kollon (Royal)</td>
<td>1.36 litre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koku</td>
<td>=39,978 gallons. g. = 4,969 bushels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korn-tonde</td>
<td>138.97 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korn-tonde</td>
<td>3,821 bushels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korn-top Maal</td>
<td>160 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korrél</td>
<td>4 decigrammes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kotyle (Royal)</td>
<td>1 decigramme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kouza</td>
<td>9 quarts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koyan</td>
<td>5331 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kroina</td>
<td>12 litres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kung</td>
<td>78-96 straight (Treaty).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kup</td>
<td>10 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwan or Kuwan</td>
<td>3,75524 kilograms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyat</td>
<td>100 kayats = 3,652 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lak't</td>
<td>0.650 metric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last</td>
<td>30 hectolitres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Léag</td>
<td>5831 grains (silver weight).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lékhâ</td>
<td>229.83 sq. metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li</td>
<td>about 0.8 metric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liang</td>
<td>A small weight 0.53 grain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libbra</td>
<td>1 oz. 16 lâng = 1 chin = 1 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libra</td>
<td>1,027 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libra (Castilian)</td>
<td>Spain, Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libra, or Aratal</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line or Lige</td>
<td>0.0608 inch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linia</td>
<td>0.1 inch, 1 archine = 280 lianias.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litre</td>
<td>1 litre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litre (metric)</td>
<td>25 quarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livre (l)</td>
<td>0.09283 lb av. Apoth. livre = 11.9204 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livre-poids</td>
<td>4,858 kilogram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loth</td>
<td>New loth = 1 decagramme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>5761 kg av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mabud</td>
<td>2.04 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mailk</td>
<td>3 maik = 191 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marc, or Mark.</td>
<td>0.2448 kilogramme (old weight).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marco</td>
<td>4,645 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maass</td>
<td>8-206 lb av. Government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maatze</td>
<td>2-64 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mace</td>
<td>5'4' grains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>3,931 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>3 maik = 191 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>4,231-37 grams = 24 karats.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>8 oncas = 229-5 grams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maud</td>
<td>3550-54 grams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maund</td>
<td>270-9 grams, Postal lot = 257.2 grams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Megametre (astronomy)</td>
<td>U. States = 39.37 inches = 1 m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre (m.)</td>
<td>1000,000 metres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre, cubic</td>
<td>39.377 lb in. = 53.35 cubic feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre, square</td>
<td>= 100 square decimetres = 10.764 square feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre</td>
<td>0.9082 lb av.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre, cubic</td>
<td>1-691 bushel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meatre, square</td>
<td>= 1-786 cubic feet.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Meatre</td>
<td>0.9082 lb av.</td>
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<td>Meatre, cubic</td>
<td>= 1-786 cubic feet.</td>
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<td>Meatre, square</td>
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<td>= 1-786 cubic feet.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Meatre, square</td>
<td>= 1-786 cubic feet.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES


Mud ..... Netherlands ..... 1 hectolitre.

Myriagramme = 10 kilograms = 22.046 lb av.

Ngoma ..... East Africa ..... 74 kilias.

Nin ..... Siam ..... 4 inch.

Obola ..... Greece ..... 1 decigramme.

Ock ..... Turkey ..... Legal ock (1881) = 100 drachmas. New batman = 10 ocks, and kantar = 10 batmans ock = 1 kilogramme.

Octavillo ..... Spain ..... 0-29 litre.

Oitavo ..... Portugal ..... 1-72 litres.

Oke ..... Bulgaria ..... 1-72 litre (for liquids).

Cyprus ..... 2-128 kilogramme (old).

Egypt ..... 2-751 lb av. (Customs). 2-805 lb (Alexandria).

Greece ..... 2-80 lb = 1-282 kilogramme.

Turkey ..... 1-1518 pint. 2-834 lb av. (old weight).

Onca ..... Portugal ..... 28-688 grammes.

Once ..... France ..... 30-99 grammes (old).

Oncia ..... Rome ..... 30-95 grammes.

Onza ..... Netherlands ..... 1 hectogramme. 10 onzas = pond.

Ounce ..... U. States ..... Av. ounce = 437.5 grammes.

Packen ..... Russia ..... 1083-32 lb av.

Palamed (Royal) ..... Greece ..... 1 decimetre.

Palm ..... Holland ..... 1 decimetre.

Palmo ..... Portugal ..... 0-22 metre.

Paso ..... Spain ..... 0-2346 inches.

Para ..... N. Borneo ..... 90 lb av.

Parah ..... Ceylon ..... 5-99 pints.

Parahg. See Persak.

Parmak. See Archin.

Passercer ..... Bengal ..... 5 seers.

P6 ..... Portugal ..... 1/4 metre (old).

Pecheus (Royal) ..... Greece ..... 1 metre = 1-543 old pecheuse.

Pecul ..... China ..... 1339 lb av.

Perche ..... France ..... 22 square pieds de roi. In Quebec Canada 18 French feet.

Persak, or Parassa ..... Persia ..... Probably 8-86 miles = 6000 gur.

Plund ..... Germany ..... 16 unzen = 32 loth. Old weight.

Zoll. plund (1872) = 500 grammes.

Switzerland ..... 500 grammes = 16 unze.

Apost. pl. = 175 grammes.

Vienna ..... Plund = 500-06 grammes.

Zoll. plund (1871) = 500 grammes.

Pharagho. See Archin.

Pic ..... Cyprus ..... 2 feet.

Picul ..... Japan ..... Strait Settlements, Hong Kong.

North Borneo A measure of 180 lb weight of water.

Pick ..... Greece ..... 0-648 metre.

Pie ..... Rome ..... 11-73 inches.

Pied de Burgos ..... Spain ..... 11-13 inches.

Pied ..... Belgium ..... 11-81 inches = 10 pouncies.

Pied de Roy ..... Canada ..... 12-79 inches.

Pike ..... Paris ..... 0-328 metre.

Pyle ..... Turkey ..... Straight gramme.

Pint ..... U. States ..... 0-825 imperial pint.

Pinte ..... France ..... 0-931 litre.

Fipa ..... Portugal ..... 534 litres (Porto). 420 litres (Lisbon). 500 litres (officially).

Pipe ..... Gibraltar. 105 to 126 gallons.

Poile ..... See Keila.

Piede de Marc ..... France ..... 0-248 kilo = 8 onces.

Polegada ..... Portugal ..... 27-77 millimetres.

Fond ..... Netherlands ..... 1 kilogramme. Apothecaries = 375 grammes.

Pot ..... Denmark ..... 1 pint = 4 peacel.

Switzerland ..... 2-64 pints or 1-5 litre.

Belgium ..... 13 litre (dry). 1 litre (liquid).

Norway ..... 0-965 litre.

Pouve ..... France ..... 1-066 inch (old measure).

Pound, or Poud ..... Russia ..... 1 inch.

Found ..... U. States ..... Standard troy lb = 5760 grains.

Based on 7000 grains.

Russia ..... 0-9028 lb av. (0-9055 kilogramme).

Jersey ..... 7,561 grains = 1 oz. Jersey = 1 litre.

Pu ..... China ..... 70-5 inches = 5' chih.

Puddier ..... Madras ..... 2-89 pints. 100 cubic inches = Government puddier.

Pulgada ..... Spain ..... 0-927 inch.

Pund ..... Denmark ..... 1-125 lb av., or 500 grammes.

Norway ..... 0-4981 kilogramme.

Sweden ..... 6500 grains. Varies locally. 500-5 grain (apoth.).

Quart ..... U. States ..... See Bushel.

Quarto ..... Rome ..... 2-062 bushels.

Portugal ..... 3-46 litres.

Quintal ..... Portugal ..... 100 libras (Castilian) = 101-4 lb.

Spain ..... 58-752 kilogrammes, or 129-1 lb av.

Argentina ..... 100 libras, or 101-27 lb av.

Quintal (metric) ..... France ..... 100 kilogrammes = 1-986 cwt.

Quintale ..... Italy ..... 1 metric quintal.

Ratial ..... Persia ..... 1-014 lb av.

Rattel, or Rottle ..... Arabia ..... 1-02 lb av., nearly (dry measure).

Ri ..... Japan ..... 2-400 miles (itinerary). 2-118 miles (natural).

Rode ..... Denmark ..... 3-762 metres.

Roode ..... Netherlands ..... 1 dekametre.

Rotti, or Rottolo ..... Egypt ..... 0-905 lb av. (Customs). 0-9005 lb av. (Govt.).

Cairo ..... 2-206 lb great rottolo.

Alexandria ..... 0-715 lb less rottolo.

Rottolo mina = 1 okla.

Rugglo ..... Turkey ..... 2-513 pints (old measure).

Rubbo ..... Spain ..... 1-012 quarter (dry measure).

Sagane ..... Russia ..... 7 feet.

Schelfel ..... Germany ..... 50 litres, formerly 14-56 metzen (Prussian).

Schepele ..... Netherlands ..... 1 decilitre.

Schoppuen ..... Germany ..... 1/4 litre, formerly 0-11 gallon.

Se ..... Switzerland ..... 0-375 litre.

Seer ..... Japan ..... 181-9 square yards (9018 are).

Government seer = 2-45 lb av.

Bengal, 80 tolas weight of rice (beaped measure), about 60 cubic inches (struck measure).

Southern India = weight of 64 current rupees.


Bombay, old seer, about 28 lb.

Ceylon ..... Measure of 1-86 pint.

Persia ..... 16 micasles or 1136 grains weight (Sahr).

Note.—In India the seer, like the maund, varies considerably; usually 40 seers goes to a maund.

Seidel ..... Austria ..... 0-6224 pint.

Sen ..... Siam ..... 44-4 miles, nearly.

Ser ..... India ..... 1 litre (Indian Law, 1871).

Shaklu ..... Japan ..... 0-30 metre, also 9-1827 square decimetres; also 16-09 cubic centimetres.

Sheng ..... China ..... 1-813 pint.

Shih ..... China ..... 160 lb.

Sho ..... Japan ..... 1-804 litre.

Skao-pund ..... Sweden ..... 435-076 grammes, or 0-595 lb av.

Norway ..... 0-481 kilogramme, or officially 1 kilogramme.

Skeppe ..... Denmark ..... 17-30 litres.

Skisquepe ..... Norway ..... 17-37 litres.

Stab ..... Germany ..... 1 metre, 1-54 old fuss, but varied.

Stadron (Royal) ..... Greece ..... 1 kilometre.

Ster (metric) ..... Italy ..... 1 cubic metre.

Stereo ..... Italy ..... 1 metric stere.

Streepe ..... Holland ..... 1 millimetre.

Stremma ..... Greece ..... 1 metric are. 238-7 square pecheus (Constantinople).

Strich ..... Germany ..... 1 millimetre.

Striche ..... Switzerland ..... 1-187 millimetre.

Stunde ..... Germany ..... Old itinerary measure, 2-3 to 3-4 miles.
WEIGHT-THROWING, the athletic sport of hurling heavy weights either for distance or height. Lifting and throwing weights of different kinds have always been popular in Great Britain, especially Scotland and Ireland, and on the continent of Europe, particularly in Germany, Switzerland and Austria-Hungary. No form of throwing weights is included in the British athletic championship programme, although "putting the shot" (g.) and "hammering" (g.) are recognized championship events. In America throwing the 56-lb weight for distance belongs to the championship programme. It was once a common event in Great Britain at all important athletic meetings, the ordinary slightly conical half-hundredweight being used and thrown by the ring attached to the top; the ring, however, was awkward to grip, and a triangular handle was afterwards substituted. In America the 56-lb weight is a ball of iron or lead with a triangular or pear-shaped handle. The weight used to be thrown standing, but since 1888 it has been thrown from a 7-ft. circle with a raised edge, like that used for the hammer and shot. 

In throwing the athlete stands slightly stooping, with his feet about 18 in. apart and grasping the handle with both hands opposite his thighs. The weight is swung round and back past the right leg as far as possible, then up, over and round the head, as in the hammer-throw. One complete swing round the head is usually enough, as too much momentum is apt to throw the athlete off balance. The weight is then swung round together with the whole body as rapidly as possible, as in hammer-throwing. The athlete works himself to the front of the circle just before the moment of delivery and begins the final heave with his back towards the direction in which he wishes to throw the weight. This heave is accomplished by first cocking the body and then sharply turning the body and arms a vigorous upward movement at the same time, and following the weight through with the uplifted arms as it leaves the hands, but as they are not to cross the circle. With correct form the weight can be thrown much farther than usual, but there is not much power applied. In throwing for height the athlete stands beside the high-jump uprights and casts the weight over the cross-piece, making the swing and spin in a more vertical direction with a heave upward at the moment of delivery. Throwing for height and with one hand were formerly events in the American championship programme, but have been discontinued. The record for throwing the 56-lb weight for height is 15 ft 61 in., made by the American-Irishman John Flanagan. In throwing weights large and heavy men have an advantage over small, brute strength being the chief requisite, while a heavy body makes a better fulcrum while revolving than a light one.

WEI-HAI-WEI, a British naval and coal-storing station, on the N.E. coast of the Shan-tung peninsula, China, about 40 m. E. of the treaty port of Chi-fu and 115 m. from Port Arthur. It was formerly a Chinese naval station strongly fortified, but was captured by the Japanese in February 1895, and occupied by their troops until May 1898, pending the payment of the indemnity. Port Arthur having in the spring of that year been acquired by the Russian government under a lease from China, a similar lease was granted of Wei-hai-wei to the British government, and on the withdrawal of the Japanese troops the British fleet took possession, the flag being hoisted on the 24th of May 1898. No period was fixed for the termination of the lease, but it was stipulated that it should continue so long as Russia continued to hold Port Arthur. The lease of Port Arthur having been ceded to Japan in September 1905, the British lease of Wei-hai-wei was made to run for 21 years as long as Japan held Port Arthur.

The harbour is formed by an island named Liu-kung-tao running east and west across the mouth of a small bay, leaving an entrance at each end. Towards the mainland the water shoals, and the best anchorage is under the lee of the island. The native city is walled, and has a population of about 2000. The chief port is named Port Edward; it has good anchorage with a depth of 45 ft. of water. The leased area comprises, besides the harbour and island, a belt of the mainland, 20 English miles wide, skirting the whole length of the bay. The coast line of the bay is some 10 m., and the area of the leased extension 285 sq. m. Within this area Great Britain has exclusive jurisdiction, and is represented by a commissioner under the colonial office; and has, besides, the right to erect fortifications, station troops and take any other measures necessary for defensive purposes at any points on or near the coast in that part of the peninsula east of 121° 40'. Within that zone, which covers 1505 sq. m., Chinese administration is not interfered with, but no troops other than Chinese and British are allowed there. The territory consists of rugged hills rising to 1600 ft. and well-cultivated valleys. The hills also, as far as possible,
WEILBURG—WEIMAR 495

are terraced for cultivation and in some instances are planted with dwarf pine and scrub oak. It contains some 310 villages and a population of about 150,000. Chinese war-vessels are at liberty to use the anchorage, notwithstanding the lease; and Chinese jurisdiction may continue to be exercised within the walled city of Wei-hai-weii, so far as not inconsistent with military requirements. Wei-hai-weii was made the headquarters of a native Chinese regiment in the bay of Great Yarmouth, and organized and led by British officers; but this regiment was disbanded in 1902. Wei-hai-weii is used by the China squadron as a sanatorium and exercising ground. Its excellent climate attracts many visitors. Wei-hai-weii being a free port no duties of any kind are collected there. The import trade consists of timber, maize, paper, crockery, sugar, tobacco, kerosene oil, &c. Gold has been found in the territory, and silver, tin, lead and iron are said to exist. In each of the years 1903-1909 the expenditure exceeded the revenue (about $70,000 in 1909-1910), deficits being made good by grants from the British parliament.

WEILBURG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, picturesquely situated on the Lahn, just above the confluence of the Weil, 50 m. N.E. from Coblenz by the railway to Giessen. Pop. (1905) 3828. The old town, built on and around a rocky hill almost encircled by the river, contains a castle of the 16th century, formerly the residence of the dukes of Nassau-Weilburg, and later of the grand-dukes of Luxembourg. It has an Evangelical and a Roman Catholic church, the former, the Stadtkirche, containing the burial vaults of the princes of Nassau, a gymnasium and an agricultural college. Its industries include brewing and dyeing. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of the castles of Merenberg and Freienfels. Weilburg was in the 11th century the property of the bishops of Worms, from whom it passed to the house of Nassau. From 1355 to 1816 it was the residence of the princes of Nassau-Weilburg, a branch of this house.

See C. C. Spielmann, Führer durch Weilburg und Umgebung (Weilburg, 1893); and Geschichte der Stadt und Herrschaft Weilburg (Weilburg, 1896).

WEIMAR, a city of Germany, the capital of the grand-duchy of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach. It is situated in a fertile valley on the Ilm, a small tributary of the Saale, 50 m. S.W. of Leipzig and 141 m. S.W. of Berlin, on the main line of railway to Bebra and Frankfurt-on-Main, and at the junction of three lines to Jena, Gera and Berka and Rastenberg. Pop. (1885) 21,655; (1905) 21,121. Weimar owes its importance not to any industrial development, which the grand-dukes discourage within the limits of their Residenz, but to its intimate association with the classical period of German literature, which earned for it the title of 'the poets' city' and 'the German Athens.' The golden age of Weimar, covered by the reign of Charles Augustus (q.v.), 1777-1828, has left an indelible impress on the character of the town. In spite of its classical associations and of modern improvements, Weimar still retains much of its medieval character. The walls survive, indeed, only in isolated fragments, but the narrow winding streets of the older part of the town, and the market-place surrounded by houses with high-pitched gables and roofs are very picturesque. Of the churches the Stadtkirche (parish church), of which Herder became pastor in 1776, is a Gothic building dating from about 1400, but much altered in detail under classical influences. It contains the tombs of the princes of the house of Saxe-Weimar, including those of the elector John Frederick the Magnanimous and his wife, and of Duke Bernhard of Weimar, a hero of the Thirty Years' War. The altar-piece is a triptych, the centre-piece representing the Crucifixion; beside the cross Luther is represented, with the open Bible in his hand, while the blood from the pierced side of the Saviour pours on to his head. The picture is regarded as the masterpiece of Lucas Cranach (q.v.), who lived for a time at Weimar, in the Brück'sches Haus on the market-place. In front of the church is a statue of Herder, whose house still serves as the natural history museum. The other church, the Jakobs- or Hofkirche (court church) is also ancient; its disused churchyard contains the graves of Lucas Cranach and Musaeus. The most important building in Weimar is the palace, a huge structure forming three sides of a quadrangle, erected (1786-1803) under the supervision of Goethe, on the site of one burned down in 1774. A remnant of the old palace, with a tower, survives. The interior is very fine, and in one of the wings is a series of rooms dedicated to the poets Goethe and Schiller, and containing many beautiful portraits and other curiosities; and there are a number of exquisite mural paintings. Of more interest, however, is the house in which Goethe himself lived from 1782 to 1832. It was built by the duke as a surprise present for the poet on his return from his Italian tour, and was regarded at the time as a palace of art and luxury. It has therefore a double interest, as the home of the poet, and as a complete example of a German nobleman's house at the beginning of the 19th century, the furniture and fittings (in Goethe's study and bedroom down to the smallest details) remaining as they were when the poet died. The house is built round a quadrangle, in which is the coach-house with a room, inhabited by the poet, called the 'genius hujus loci,' the most famous. The interior, apart from the scientific and art collections made by Goethe, is mainly remarkable for the extreme simplicity of its furnishing. The Goethe-Schiller Museum, as it is now called, stands isolated, the adjoining houses having been pulled down to avoid risk of fire.

Of more pathetic interest is the Schillerhaus, in the Schillerstrasse, containing the humble rooms in which Schiller lived and died. The atmosphere of the whole town is, indeed, dominated by the memory of Goethe and Schiller, whose bronze statues, by Rieckel, group at the front of pedestrian (unsealed in 1833) stand in the market-place. The theatre, built under Goethe's superintendence in 1825, memorable in the history of art not only for its associations with the golden age of German drama, but as having witnessed the first performances of many of Wagner's operas and other notable stage pieces, was pulled down and replaced by a new building in 1907. The most beautiful monument of Goethe's genius in the town is, however, the park, laid out in the informal "English" style, without enclosure of any kind. Of Goethe's classic "conceits" which it contains, the stone altar round which a serpent climbs to eat the votive bread upon it, inscribed to the 'genius hujus loci,' is the most famous. Just outside the borders of the park, beyond the Ilm, is the "garden house," a simple wooden cottage with a high-pitched roof, in which Goethe used to pass the greater part of the summer. Finally, in the cemetery is the grand ducal family vault, in which Goethe and Schiller also lie, side by side.

Wieland, who came to Weimar in 1772 as the duke's tutor, is also commemorated by a statue (1857), and his house is indicated by a small monument. The town has been embellished by several other public buildings, including those of Charles Augustus (1785); Lucas Cranach (1886); Marie Seibach (1886); the composer Hummel (1885) and Franz Liszt (1904). Among the other prominent buildings in Weimar are the Grüner Schloss (18th century), containing a library of 200,000 volumes and a valuable collection of portraits, busts and literary and other curiosities; the old ducal dower-house (Wittumspalais); the library, in the palace, containing a small collection of the poet's works; the Teater, which, during the poet's day, was the seat of the Schiller's Verein, and which now contains a museum, and the poet's house, (Schiller'shaus), containing portraits, manuscripts, books, etc. The palace has been the seat of the Grand-ducal government, and the national library has its home there. Among the municipal establishments are a gymnasium, and Realschule, the Sophienstift (a large school for girls of the better class, founded by the grand-duchess Sophia), the grand-ducal school of art, geographical institutes, a technical school, commercial school, music school, teachers' seminaries, and deaf and dumb and blind asylums. An English church was opened in 1869. There are a few industries, printing, tanning and cloth-weaving. Various points in the environs of Weimar are also interesting from their associations. A broad avenue of chestnuts, about 2 m. in length, leads southwards from the town to the grand-ducal chateau 1

1 To be strictly accurate, they thus remained until the death of Goethe's great-granddaughter, whose descendants are still seated in the grand-duke for the nation, was then found to be so structurally rotten that the interior had to be largely reconstructed. Everything was, however, replaced in the exact position it had previously occupied.
of Belvedere, in the gardens of which the open-air theatre, used in Goethe’s day, still exists. To the north-east, at about the same distance from the town, are the tiny château and park of Tiefurt, on the banks of the Ilm, the scene of many pastoral court revels in the past. To the north-west is the Eutersberg, with the Eutersburg, a château which was another favourite resort of Charles Augustus and his friends.

The history of Weimar, apart from its association with Charles Augustus and his court, is of little general interest. The town is said to have existed so early as the 6th century. Till 1140 it belonged to the counts of Oranfünde; it then fell to Albert the Bear and the descendants of his second son. In 1247 Otto III. founded, a separate Weimar line of counts. In 1425 it became a fief of the lands of Thuringia, to whom it was ceded in 1385 with the extinction of the line of Otto III. At the partition of Saxony in 1485 Weimar, with Thuringia, fell to the elder, Ernestine, branch of the Saxon house of Wettin, and has been the continuous residence of the senior branch of the dukes of this line since 1572. Under Charles Augustus Weimar became a centre of Liberalism as well as of art. It had previously narrowly escaped absorption by Napoleon, who passed through the town during the pursuit of the Prussians after the battle of Jena in 1806. The grand-duke dissuaded him from abolishing the duchy by the tact and courage of the duchess Louisa.

The traditions of Charles Augustus were well maintained by his grandson, the grand-duke Charles Alexander (1818–1905), whose statue now stands in the Karlstraße. The grand-duke’s connexion with the courts of Russia and Holland—his mother was a Russian grand-duchess and his wife, Sophia Louisa (1824–1897), a princess of the Netherlands—tended to give the Weimar society a cosmopolitan character, and the grand-duke devoted himself largely to encouraging men of intellect, whether Germans or foreigners, who came to visit or to settle in the town. The art school, founded by him in 1838, has had a notable series of eminent artists among its professors, including Preller, Böcklin, Kalkreuth, Max Schmidt, Pauwels, Heumann, Verlat and Thöny. Under the patronage of Charles Alexander, also, Weimar became a famous musical centre, principally owing to the presence of Franz Liszt, who from 1848 to 1886 made Weimar his principal place of residence. Other notable conductors of the Weimar theatre orchestras were Eduard Lassen and Richard Strauss.

See: Schall, Weimar’s Merkwürdigkeiten einst und jetzt (Weimar, 1857); Springer, Weimar’s klassische Stätten (Berlin, 1868); Ruland, Die Schätze des Goethe National-Museums in Weimar (Weimar and Leipzig, 1857); Francke, Weimar und Umgebungen (3rd ed., Weimar, 1900); Kuhn, Weimar in Wort und Bild (4th ed., Jena, 1905).

WEINHEIM, a town of Germany, in the grand-duchy of Baden, pleasantly situated on the Bergstrasse at the foot of the Owenal, 11 m. N. of Heidelberg by the railway to Frankfort-on-Main. Pop. (1905) 12,560. It is still in part surrounded by the ruins of its ancient walls. The Gothic town hall; the ruins of the castle of Windeck and the modern castle of the counts of Berckheim; the house of the Teutonic Order; and three churches are the principal buildings. The town has various manufactures, notably leather, machinery and soap, and cultivates fruit and wine. The Bergstrasse boards through the town and forms a great tourist centre for excursions in the Owenal range. Weinehim is mentioned in chronicles as early as the 8th century, when it was a fief of the abbey of Lorsch, and it was fortified in the 14th century. In the Thirty Years’ War it was several times taken and plundered, and its fortifications dismantled.

See Hegewald, Der Luftkurort Weinehm an der Bergstrasse (Weinehm, 1895); Ackermann, Führer durch Weinehm und Umgebung (Weinehm, 1865); and Zinkgraf, Bilder aus der Geschichte der Stadt Weinehm (Weinehm, 1904).

WEINSBERG, a small town of Germany, in the kingdom of Württemberg, pleasantly situated on the Sulm, 5 m. E. from Heilbronn by the railway to Crailsheim. Pop. (1905) 2097. It has an ancient Romanesque church, a monument to the reformer Oecolampadius (q.v.), and a school of viticulture, which is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. On the Schlossberg above the town lie the ruins of the castle of Weilertrecht, and at its foot is the house once inhabited by Justinus Kerner (q.v.), with a public garden and a monument to the poet.

The German king Conrad III. defeated the Saxon Welf VI. of Brunswick near Weinsberg in December 1140, and took the town, which later became a free imperial city. In 1331 it joined the league of the Swabian cities, but was taken by the nobles in 1440 and sold to the elector palatine, thus losing its liberties. It was burnt in 1525 as a punishment for the atrocities committed by the revolting peasants. The famous legend of Weilvertrée ("women’s faithfulness"), immortalized in a ballad by Chamisso, is connected with the siege of 1140, although the story is told of other places. It is said that Conrad III. allowed the women to leave the town with their husbands, whereupon they came out with their husbands on their backs.

See Bernheim, "Die Sage von den treuen Weibern zu Weinsberg" (in the Forschungen zur deutschen Geschichte, vol. xv., Göttingen, 1875); Merk, Geschichte der Stadt Weinsberg und ihrer Burg Weilvertrée (Heilbronn, 1886).

WEIR, ROBERT WALTER (1803–1880). American portrait and historical painter, was born at New Rochelle, New York, on the 18th of June 1803. He was a pupil of Jarvis, was elected to the National Academy of Design in 1829, and was teacher of drawing at the United States Military Academy at West Point in 1833–1846, and professor of drawing there in 1846–1876. He died in New York City on the 1st of May 1880. Among his best known works are 'The Pirate,' 'The Pilgrims' (in the rotunda of the United States Capitol at Washington, D.C.); 'Landing of Hendrik Hudson'; "Evening of the Crucifixion"; "Columbus before the Council of Salamanca." "Our Lord on the Mount of Olives"; "Virgil and Dante crossing the Styx," and several portraits, now at West Point, and "Peace and War" in the Chapel there.

His son, JOHN FERGUSON WEIR (b. 1841), painter and sculptor, became a Member of the National Academy of Design in 1866, and was made director of the Yale University Art School in 1885. Another son, JULIAN WEIR (b. 1852), studied in his father, and under J. L. Gerome, and became a distinguished portrait, figure and landscape painter. He was one of the founders of the Society of American Artists in 1877, and became a member of the National Academy of Design (1880) and of the Ten American Painters, New York.

WEIR (from O. Eng. wer, a dam; cognate with werian, to defend, guard; cf. Ger. Wehr, defence), a barrier placed across rivers to raise the water-level for catching fish, for mills, or for navigation or for irrigation, the discharge of the river taking place over the crest or through openings made for the purpose. Reservoirs, formed by dams, or weirs, were erected across English rivers in Saxone times for holding up the water and catching fish, and fish-traps, with iron-wire meshes and eel baskets, are still used sometimes at weirs. Weirs are essential for raising the head of water for water-wheels at mills, and for diverting some of the flow of a river into irrigation canals; but they have received their greatest and most varied extension in the canalization of rivers for navigation. There are three distinct classes of weirs, namely, solid weirs, draw-doors weirs, which retain the water above them for navigation during the low stage of the river, and can be lowered or removed so as to leave the channel quite open in flood-time.

Solid Weirs.—The simplest form of weir is a solid, watertight dam of firm earthwork or rubble stone, faced with stone pitching, with cribs filled with rubble, with fascine mattresses weighted with stone or with masonry, and protected from undermining by shearing piling or one or more rows of well foundations. These weirs, if solidly constructed, possess the advantages of simplicity, strength and durability, and are also economical. However, however, they do not raise the water-level above them. This serious defect of solid weirs, where the riparian lands are liable to be injured by inundations, can be slightly mitigated by keeping down the crest of the weir some what below the required level, and then raising the water-level at the low stage of the river by placing a row of planks along the top of the weir.

Waste weirs resemble ordinary solid weirs in providing for the surplus discharge from a reservoir of an impounded river or mountain stream over their crest; but in reality they form part of a masonry
Lifting-gate Weirs.—The discharge of a river at a weir can be regulated as required and considerably increased in flood-time by introducing a series of openings in the centre of a solid weir, with sluice-gates or panels which slide in grooves at the sides of upright frames or masonry piers erected at convenient intervals apart.

The ordinary form of frame weir consists of a series of iron frames placed across a river on the face of which the doors are raised by a winch. Ordinary draw-doors, sliding in grooves of moderate size and raised against a small head of water, can be readily worked in spite of the friction of the sides of the doors against their supports; but with large draw-doors and a considerable head, the friction of the surfaces in contact offers a serious impediment in raising them. This friction has been greatly reduced by making the draw-doors, or sluice-gates, slide on each side against a vertical row of free-rollers suspended by an encircling chain; and the working is much facilitated by countering the doors. By these arrangements the large draw-door weir across the Thames at Richmond, with three spans of 66 ft. closed by lifting doors, each 12 ft. high and weighing 32 tons, can be fully opened in seven minutes by two men raising each door from the arched double foot-bridge (figs. 1, 2 and 3). This weir retains the river above it at half-tide level, in order to cover the mud-banks which had been bare at low tide between Richmond and Teddington by lowering of the low-water level, owing to the removal of various obstructions in the river below. The weir is raised out of the river as soon as the flood-tide on its lower side has risen to half-tide level, so as not to impede the flow and ebb of the tide up to Teddington above that level, and is not lowered till the tide has risen again to the same level. In order that the doors when raised may not impede the view under the arches, the doors are rotated automatically at the top by groves at the top of the piers, so as to assume a horizontal position and pass out of sight in the central space between the two foot-ways (fig. 2). The barrage at the head of the Nile delta, and the regulating sluices across the Nile at Assiout and Assa in Upper Egypt, are examples of draw-doors, with their numerous openings closed by sluice-gates sliding on free rollers, which control the discharge of water from the river for irrigation.

Frame Weirs.—The ordinary form of frame weir consists of a series of iron frames placed across a river on the face of which the doors are raised by a winch. Ordinary draw-doors, sliding in grooves of moderate size and raised against a small head of water, can be readily handled by a man, being inclined slightly against a vertical chain placed close together for shutting the weir; but panels of wood or sheet iron closing the space between adjacent frames and sliding in grooves at the sides and rolling-up curtains composed of a series of horizontal wooden laths connected by leather or wooden hinges, have also been employed. The needle weir, so called from the long, slender spars being termed aiguilles in France, had the merit of simplicity in its earliest form; and by means of some ingenious contrivances, comprising a hook, winch, lever and rotating bar, for assisting the weir-keepers in placing and releasing the needles, the system has been applied successfully to the weirs of greater height required on the Meuse, the Main and the Moldau (fig. 4). The needle weir has, however, attained its greatest development in the United States across the Big Sandy river at Louisa, where, instead of needles 3 to 4 ft. square, beams 12 in. square and 18 ft. long have been resorted to, provided with a steel eye at the top and a ring near the centre of gravity to enable them to be worked (fig. 5). The needles are put in place one by one against the raised frames, or trestles, by a derrick on a large lifting them by their ring, whilst a man on the foot-bridge, taking hold of the eye at the top, arranges them in position. The weir is opened by joining the needles together by a chain, passed through the eyes at the top and a line of wire through the central rings, so that when released at the top by the tilting of the escape bar by the derrick, they float down as a raft, and are caught by a man in a boat, or, when the current is strong, they are drawn to the bank by a rope attached to them previously to their release. The trestles of this weir are, as usual, hinged to the apron, so that in flood-time they may be completely lowered into a recess across the apron by means of chains actuated by a winch, leaving the channel perfectly open for the discharge of floods and for the passage of vessels when the lock is submerged. Whereas, however, ordinary frames placed nearer together than their height overlap one another, compelling water before the apron, the trestles of the Louisa weir lie clear of each other quite flat on the apron. The frame weir closed by sliding panels or rolling-up curtains (fig. 4) possesses the advantage of not being reduced or diminished in thickness towards the top in proportion to the reduced water-pressure, whereas the needles, being of uniform cross-section, have to be made stout enough to sustain the maximum bottom pressure at top and bottom as well.

An objection has occasionally been urged against frames lowered on to the bed of a river that they are liable to be covered over by detritus or dirt brought down by floods, and consequently are subject to injury or impediments in being raised. In order to

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obviated this, the frames have, in a few instances, been suspended from an overhead foot-bridge. The system was first proposed in a view of the canalization of the Rhone, which brings down large quantities of shingle and gravel; but it was first adopted for two weirs on the lower Seine under quite different conditions (fig. 7). The frames hang vertically from the bottom of the overhead bridge, and rest against a sill at the bottom when the weir is in operation, the openings between the frames being closed below the water-level by rolling-up curtains or sliding panels, which are lowered or raised by a travelling winch carried by a small foot-bridge formed by hinged brackets at the back of the frames, and situated a little above the highest flood-level. The weir is opened by removing the sliding panels or rolling up the curtains, and then lifting the hinged frames to a horizontal position under the overhead bridge by means of chains worked by a winch on the bridge. This system, which has been employed for the lowest weir on the Moldau, and for a weir at the upper end of the Danube canal near Vienna to shut out floods and strong ice, as well as on the Seine, possesses the merits of raising all the movable parts of the weir out of water in flood-time, and rendering the working of the weir very safe and easy. On the other hand, it involves the expense of a wide foot-bridge for raising the frames, and wide and high river piers, especially for the navigable passes where the bridge has to be raised high enough to afford the regulation headway for vessels at the highest navigable flood-level (fig. 7), so that its adoption should be restricted to positions where the conditions are quite exceptional.

The earliest form of shutter weir, known as a bear-trap, introduced in the United States in 1818, and subsequently erected across the Marne in France, consists of two wooden gates, each turning on a horizontal axis laid across the apron, inclined towards one another and abutting together at an angle in the centre when the weir is closed; the up-stream one serves as the weir, and the down-stream one forms its support, and both fall flat upon the apron for opening the weir.1 This weir is raised by admitting water under pressure beneath the gates through culverts in connection with the upper pool; and is lowered by unfastening the raised gates and letting the water under them escape into the lower pool. This old form of bear-trap has been used for closing an opening 52 ft. wide to provide for the escape of drift at the Davis Island weir across the Ohio. Improvements, however, in the bear-trap have been introduced in the United States, one of the best novel forms being shown in fig. 8, whereby the pass of a weir 80 ft. in width can be readily closed, opened or partially opened under a maximum head of 16 ft. by means of chains worked by a winch.2

The shutter weir, introduced on the upper Seine about the middle of the 19th century and subsequently adopted for weirs across several rivers in France, Belgium and the United States, consists of a row of wooden or iron shutters turning on a horizontal axis a little above their central plane, and raised against the back of each shutter, which is hinged to the apron of the weir, and supported when raised by an iron prop resting against an iron shoe fastened on the apron (fig. 9). The weir is opened by releasing the iron props from their shoes, either by a sideways pull of a tripping bar with projecting teeth laid on the apron and worked from the bank, or by pulling the props clear of their shoes by chains fastened to the bottom of the shutters; the unsupported trestles and shutters fall flat on the apron on the top of the props, as shown by dotted lines in fig. 9. The weir is raised again by pulling up the shutters to a horizontal position by their bottom chains from a special boat, or from a foot-bridge on movable frames, together with their trestles and the props which are replaced in their shoes. The discharge at the weir whilst it is raised is effected either by partially tipping some of the shutters by chains from a foot-bridge, or by opening butterfly valves resembling small shutters in the upper panels of the shutters. The addition of a foot-bridge greatly facilitates the raising and lowering of these shutter weirs, and also aids the regulation of the discharge; but it renders this form of weir much more costly than the ordinary frame weir, and where large quantities of drift come down with sudden floods, the frames of the bridge are liable to be carried away, and therefore boats must be relied upon for working the weir.

The drum weirs erected across shallow, regulating passes on the river Marne in 1857–1867 comprise a series of upper and under wrought-iron paddles, which can make a quarter of a revolution round a central axis laid along the sill of the weir. The straight, upper paddles form the weir, and can be raised against the stream by making the water from the upper pool press upon the upper faces of the slightly larger lower paddles, crooked for the purpose, causing them to revolve in a quadrant of a cylinder under the sill, known as the drum; and they can be readily lowered by cutting off the flow from the upper pool and putting the drum in communication with the lower pool, which connections can be adjusted by see-saw sluice-gates, so as to put the upper paddles in the intermediate position between vertical and horizontal (fig. 10). The merits of this weir in being easily raised against a strong current and in allowing of the perfect regulation of the discharge, are unfortunately, under ordinary conditions, more than counterbalanced by the necessity of carrying the drum and its foundations to a greater depth below the sill of the weir than the height of the weir above it. Accordingly, for several years its use was restricted to the Marne; but in 1853–1866 drum weirs were

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1 Rivers and Canals, p. 132 and plate iv, fig. 15.
adopted for closing the timber passes alongside the needle weirs placed across the Main, with a single upper paddle 39 ft. long and 5 ft. 7 in. high in each case; and a still larger drum weir was erected about the same time for closing the navigable pass of a weir across the Spree at Charlottenburg, with an upper paddle 32 ft. long and 4 ft. 7 in. high (fig. 10).

A peculiar and cheaper form of drum weir has been constructed across ten bays each 75 ft. wide on the Osage river near its confluence with the Missouri, where a hollow, wooden, cylindrical sector, stiffened inside by iron framing and revolving on an axis laid along the crest of the solid part of the weir, fits into a drum at the back lined with planking, having a radius of 9 ft. The weir is raised by admitting water from the upper pool into a wedge-shaped space left below the sector when it is lowered in the drum, which by its pressure lifts the sector out of the drum, forming a barrier, 7 ft. high, closing each bay of the weir. Provision has also been made for rendering the sector buoyant by forcing air into it, so that it can be raised when the head of water is insufficient to lift it by the pressure of the water from the upper pool. In spite of its high cost, the drum weir furnishes a valuable hydraulic contrivance for situations where it is very important to be able to close a weir of moderate height against a strong current and to regulate with ease and precision the discharge past a weir.

WEISMANN, AUGUST (1834- ), German biologist, was born at Frankfort-on-Main, on the 17th of January 1834, and studied medicine in Gottingen. After spending three years in Rostock, he visited successively Vienna (1858), Italy (1859) and Paris (1860), and from 1851 to 1862 he acted as private physician to the archduke Stephen of Austria at Schaumburg Palace. In 1863 he went to Giessen to devote himself to biological study under Leuckart, and in 1866 he was appointed extraordinary professor of zoology at Freiburg, becoming ordinary professor a few years later. His earlier work was largely concerned with purely zoological investigations, one of his earliest works dealing with the development of the Dipthera. Microscopical work, however, became impossible to him owing to impaired sight, and he turned his attention to wider problems of biological inquiry. Between 1858 and 1876 he published a series of papers in which he attacked the question of the variability of organisms; these were published in an English translation by R. Meldola in 1882, under the title Studies in the Theories of Descent, Darwin himself contributing a preface in which the importance of the nature and cause of variability in individuals was emphasized. Weismann's name, however, is best known as the author of the germ-plasm theory of heredity, with its accompanying denial of the transmission of acquired characters—a theory which on its publication met with considerable opposition, especially in England, from orthodox Darwinism. A series of essays in which this theory is expressed was collected and published in an English translation (Essays upon Heredity and Kindred Biological Problems, vol. i. 1886, vol. ii. 1892).

Weismann published many other works devoted to the exposition of his biological views, among them being Die Dauer des Lebens; Vererbung; Entwickelungsreihe; Naturgeschichte der Pflanzen als Grundlage einer Theorie der Vererbung; Die Keimplasms; Die Ablammung der Naturzuechtung; Allgemeine Entwicklungstheorie; Die wissenschaftliche Grundlage der Theorie der Vererbung; Das Keimplasma. For an account of his doctrines the reader is referred to the articles on HEREDITY, REGENERATION and REPRODUCTION.

WEISS, BERNHARD (1827- ), German Protestant New Testament scholar, was born at Konigsberg on the 20th of June 1827. After studying theology at Königsberg, Halle and Berlin, he became professor extraordinarius at Königsberg in 1857, and afterwards professor ordinarius at Berlin. In 1880 he was made superior consistorial councillor. An opponent of the Tübingen School, he published a number of important works, which are well known to students in Great Britain and America.


WEISSE, CHRISTIAN HERMANN (1801-1866), German Protestant religious philosopher, was born at Leipzig on the 20th of October 1801. He studied at Leipzig, and at first belonged to the Hegelian school of philosophy. In course of time, however, his ideas approximating to those of Schelling in his later years, he elaborated with J. H. v. Fichte a new speculative theism, and became an opponent of Hegel's pantheistic idealism. In his addresses on the future of the Protestant Church (Reden über die Zukunft der evangelischen Kirche, 1849), he finds the essence of Christianity in Jesus' conceptions of the heavenly Father, the Son of Man and the kingdom of Heaven. In his work on philosophical dogmatism (Philosophische Dogmatik oder Philosophie des Religionswissens, 1832), he seeks to idealize all the Christian dogmas, to reduce them to natural postulates of reason or conscience. He died on the 19th of September 1866.

His other works include: Die Idee der Gottheit (1833), Die philosophische Geheimlehre von der Unsterblichkeit des menschlichen Dichters (1834), Theorie von der Auferstehung (1835), Die evangelische Geschichte, kritisch und philosophisch bearbeitet (2 vols., 1838), and Psychologie und Unsterblichkeitslehre (edited by R. Seydler, 1866). See O. Pfleiderer, Development of Theology (1890); and H. Seydler, Christian Herm. Weisse (1886), and Religion and Wissenschaft (1887).

WEISSENBURG, a town in Germany, in the imperial province of Alsace-Lorraine, district of Lower Alsace, on the Lauter, at the foot of the eastern slope of the Vosges Mountains, 42 m. N.E. of Strassburg by the railway Basel-Strassburg-Mannheim. Pop. (1900) 6946. The beautiful Roman Catholic abbey church of SS. Peter and Paul, dating from the 13th century, contains some fine early stained glass. The industries include the manufacture of paper, matches, stockings and beer, and hops are grown. There are also extensively cultivated. Weissemburg grew up round a Benedictine abbey which was founded in the 7th century by Dagobert II. and became the seat of a famous school. Here Otfrid, who was a native of the district, completed (c. 868) his Old High German Gospel book (see GERMAN LITERATURE). The town became a free imperial city in 1205. It has been the scene of two memorable battles. The famous "Weissemburg lines," consisting of entrenched works erected by Villars in 1706 along the Lauter, and having a length of 12 m., were stormed in 1792 by the French under General Marmont. In 1870 the Allies were in their turn dispossessed by Pichegru in December and forced to retreat behind the Rhine. These lines, as well as the fortifications of Weissemburg, are now dismantled. On the 4th of August 1870 the Germans under the crown prince of Prussia, afterwards the emperor Frederick, gained the first victory of the war over a French corps (part of the army commanded by MacMahon) under General Douay, who was killed early in the engagement.
The name Weissenburg occurs in three other places: the town of Weissenburg-am-Sand in Bavaria (q.v.); a Swiss invalid resort in the Niedersimmental, above Lake Thun, with sulphate of lime springs, beneficial for bronchial affections; also a Hungarian comitats named Weissenburg or Suhlweissenburg as a capital.

**WEISSENSFELS,** a town of Germany, in the Bavarian district of Middle Franconia, situated in a pleasant and fertile country at the western foot of the Franconian Jura, 1300 ft. above the sea, and 33 m. by rail S.W. of Nuremberg by the railway to Munich. Pop. (1905) 6700. It is still surrounded by old walls and towers, and has two Gothic churches and a Gothic town-hall. The town has a mineral spring, connected with a hot spring at a distance of 500 m. of an elevation. A Roman castrum has recently been discovered, and there is a collection of antiquities in the modern school. The old fortalice of Wülzburg (2060 ft.) overlooks the town. Gold and silver flure, bricks, cement wares, beer and cloth are manufactured. Weissenburg dates from the 8th century, and in the 14th was made a free imperial town. It passed to Bavaria in 1806.

See C. Meyer, *Chronik der Stadt Weissenburg in Bayern* (Munich, 1904); and Fabricius, *Das Kastell Weissenburg* (Heidelberg, 1860).

**WEIZSÄCKER,** a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Saxony, situated on the Saale 20 m. S.W. of Leipzig and 19 m. S. of Halle by the main line to Bebra and Frankfort-on-Main. Pop. (1905) 30,894. It contains three churches, a spacious market-place and various educational and benevolent institutions. The former palace, called the Augustusburg, built in 1654-1660, lies on an eminence near the town; this spacious edifice is now used as a military school. Weizensfels manufactures machinery, ironware, paper and other goods, and has an electrical power-house. In the neighbourhood are large deposits of sandstone and lignite. Weizensfels is a place of considerable antiquity, and from 1656 till 1746 it was the capital of the small duchy of Saxe-Weizensfels, a branch of the electoral house of Saxony, founded by Augustus, second son of the elector John George I. The body of Gustavus Adolphus was embalmed at Weizensfels after the battle of Lützen.

See Sturm, *Chronik der Stadt Weizensfels* (Weizensfels, 1846); and Gerhardt, *Geschichte der Stadt Weizensfels* (Weizensfels, 1870).

**WEIZSÄCKER, KARL** (1852-1899), German Protestant theologian, was born at Oehringen near Heilbronn in Württemberg, on the 11th of December 1822. After studying at Tübingen and Berlin, he became Privatdozent at Tübingen in 1847 and eventually (1861) professor of ecclesiastical and dogmatic history. From 1856 to 1878 he helped to edit the *Jahrbücher für deutsche Theologie*; and his elaborate studies Untersuchungen über die evangelische Geschichte, ihre Quellen und den Gang ihrer Entwicklung (1864) and *Das apostolische Zeitalter der christ. Kirche* (1856, 2nd ed. 1859; Engl. trans. 1864-1865) made him widely known and respected. He died on the 11th of August 1899. His son, Karl von Weizsäcker (b. 1853), was appointed in 1900 Kultusminister for Württemberg.


**WEKERLE, SANTOR** [ALEXANDER] (1848-1902), Hungarian statesman, was born on the 14th of November 1848 at Mősz, in the comitat of Stuhlweissenburg. After studying law at the university of Budapest he graduated doctor juris. He then entered the government service, and after a period of probation was appointed to a post in the ministry of finance. He still, however, continued an academic career by lecturing on political economy at the university. In 1886 Wekerle was elected to the House of Deputies, became in the same year financial secretary of state, and in 1889 succeeded Tisa as minister of finance. Subsequently he dedicated himself to improving the financial position of the country, carried out the conversion of the State loans, and succeeded, for the first time in the history of the Hungarian budget, in avoiding a deficit. In November 1892 Wekerle succeeded Count Szápary as premier, though still retaining the portfolio of finance. At the head of a strong government he was enabled, in spite of a powerful opposition of Catholics and Magnates, to carry in 1894 the Civil Marriage Bill. The continued opposition of the clerical party, however, brought about his resignation on the 22nd of December 1894, when he was succeeded by Banffy. On the 1st of January 1897 he was appointed president of the newly created judicial commission at Budapest, and for the next few years held aloof from politics, even under the ex-lex government of Fejérváry. On the reconciliation of the king-emperor with the coalition he was therefore selected as the most suitable man to lead the new government, and on the 8th of April 1906 was appointed prime minister, taking at the same time the portfolio of finance. He resigned the premiership on the 17th of April 1906, but was appointed minister without portfolio. Consequently he relieved his ex-ministers and reappointed his old premiership and teaching and university lectures was in the following year appointed the first professor of Greek literature and archaeology at that or any German university. After serving as a volunteer in the campaign of 1814 he went to Copenhagen to edit the posthumous papers of the Danish archaeologist Georg Zeöga (1755-1809), and published his biography, *Zeöga Leben* (Stutt. 1819). His liberalism in politics having brought him into conflict with the university authorities of Giessen, he exchanged that university for Göttingen in 1816, and three years later received a chair at the new university of Bonn, where he established the art museum and the Library, of which he became the first librarian. In 1841-1843 he travelled in Greece and Italy (cf. his *Tagbuch*, Berlin, 1865), retired from the librarianship in 1854, and in 1861 from his professorship, but continued to reside at Bonn until his death. Welcker was a pioneer in the field of archaeology, and was one of the first to insist, in opposition to the narrow methods of the older Hellenists, on the necessity of co-ordinating the Greek art and religion with philosophy.

Besides early work on Aristophanes, Findar, and Sappho, whose character he vindicated, he edited Alman (1815), *Welcker* (1817), *Theologie* (1840), and *Theogonie of Homer* (1865), and published a *Sylloge epigrammatum Graecorum* (Bonn, 1828). His *Griechische Götterleere* (3 vols., Göttingen, 1837-1842) may be regarded as the first scientific treatise on Greek religion. Among his works on Greek literature the chief are Die Aschy- leische Triologie (1824, 6), Der epische Zyklus oder die Homerischen Gedichte (*vols. 1835, 49), Die griechischen Tragödien mit Rücksicht auf den epischen Zyklus geordnet (*vols. 1839-1841). His editions and biography of Zeöga, his Zeitschrift für Geschichte und Auskunft der alten Kunst (Göttingen, 1817, 8) and his *Alte Denkmüller* (5 vols., 1849-1864) contain his views on ancient art.


**WELDING** (i.e. the action of the verb "to weld," the same word as "to weld," to boil or spring up, the history of the word being to boil, to heat to a high degree, to heat heated iron; according to Skeat, who points out that in Swedish the compound verb *uppvarra* means to boil, the simple *vär* is only used in the sense of welding), the process of uniting metallic surfaces by pressure exercised when they are in a semi-fused state. It differs therefore from brazing and soldering. The surfaces to which in cold welds are united by the interposition of a fused cementing material. The conditions in which welding is a suitable process to adopt are stated in the article *FORGING*.

The technique of the work will be considered here.

The conditions for successful welding may be summed up as clean metallic surfaces in contact, a suitable temperature and rapid closing of the joint. All the variations in the forms of welds are either due to differences in shapes of material, or to
The practice of different craftsmen. The typical weld is the scarf. If, for instance, a bar has to be united to another bar or to an eye, the joint is made diagonally (scarfed) because that gives a longer surface in contact than a weld at right angles (a butt weld), and because the hammer can be brought into play better. Abutting faces for a scarf and the scarf are made slightly convex; the object is to force out any scale or dirt which might otherwise become entangled in the joint at the moment of closing and which would impair its union. The ends are upset (enlarged) previous to welding, in order to give an excess of metal that will permit of slight corrections being effected around the joint ("swaging") without reducing the diameter below that of the remainder of the bar. These principles are seen in other joints of diverse types, in the butt, the vee and their modifications. Joint faces must be clean, both chemically, i.e. free from oxides, and mechanically, i.e. free from dust and dirt, else they will not unite. The first condition is fulfilled by the use of a fluxing agent, the second by ordinary precautions. The flux produces with the oxide a fluid slag which is squeezed out at the instant of making the weld. The commonest fluxes are sand, used chiefly with wrought iron, and borax, used with steel; they are dusted over the joint faces both while in the fire and on the anvil. Mechanical cleanliness is ensured by heating the ends in a clean hollow fire previously prepared, and in brushing off any adherent particles of fuel before closing the weld. The scarf, the butt and the vee occur in various modifications of all kinds of forgings, but the principal precautions to be observed are the same in all. But in work involving the use of rolled sections, as angles, tees, channels and joists, important differences occur, because the awkwardness of the shapes to be welded involves cutting and bending and the insertion of separate welding pieces ("guts"). Welds are seldom made lengthwise in rolled sections, nor at right angles, because union is effected in such cases by means of riveted joints. But welding is essential in all bending of sections done at sharp angles or to curves of small radius. It is necessary, because a broken flange cannot be bent sharply; if the attempt be made when it is on an outer curve it is either ruptured or much attenuated, while on an inner curve it is crumpled up. The plater's smith therefore cuts the flanges in both cases, and then bends and welds them. If it is on an inner curve, the joint is a lap weld; if it is on an outer one, a fresh piece or gut is welded in. Gluts of rectangular section are used for cylindrical objects and rings of various sections. The edges to be united may or may not be scarfed, and the gluts, which are plain bars, are welded against the edges, all being brought to a wicking heat in separate furnaces. The furnace tubes of brass and the copper and iron pipes are welded in this way, sometimes by hand, but often with a power hammer, as also are all rings of angle and other sections on the vertical web.

The temperature for welding is very important. It must be high enough to render the surfaces in contact pasty, but must not be in excess, else the metal will become badly oxidized (burnt) and will not adhere. Iron can be raised to a temperature at which minute globules melt and fall off, but steel must not be heated nearly so much, and a moderate white heat must not be exceeded. Welds in steel are not so trustworthy nor so readily made as in iron.

Thermite Welding.—The alfinity of finely powdered aluminium for metallic oxides, sulphides, chlorides, &c., may be utilized to effect a reduction of metals with which oxygen, sulphur or chlorine combine. C. Vautin in 1894 found that when aluminium in a finely divided state was mixed with such compounds and ignited, an exceedingly high temperature, about 3000° C., was developed by the rapid oxidation of the aluminium. He found that metals which are ordinarily regarded as insusible were readily reduced, and in a very high degree of purity. These facts were turned to practical account by Dr H. Goldschmidt, who first welded iron and bars by means of molten iron produced by the process, to which the name of "thermit" is now commonly applied. The method has also been applied to the production of pure metals for alloying purposes, as of chromium free from carbon, used in the manufacture of chrome steel, of pure manganese for manganese steel, of molybdenum, ferro-vanadium, ferro-titanium and others used in the manufacture of high speed steels.

Thermite as a welding agent is produced by mixing iron oxides with finely granulated aluminium, in a special crucible lined with magnesia. On ignition, the chemical reactions proceed so rapidly that the contents would be reduced to liquid before the crucible could cool. The result of the reaction is that two layers are produced, the bottom one of pure iron, the top one of oxide of alumina or corundum. If the contents are poured over the edge, the bottom layer, first, is followed by the metal. But in welding the metal is poured first through the bottom upon the joint. It is practically pure wrought iron in a molten state, at 3000° C., or 5430° F. The heat is so intense that it is possible to open a clean joint in a flash. The joints are prepared by abutting them, and provision is made with clamps to grip and retain them in correct positions. Often, but not always, the part to be welded is enclosed in a mould, into which the thermite is tapped from the crucible. The applications of thermite welding are numerous. A wide field is that of tramway rails, of which large numbers have been successfully welded. Steel girder has been welded, the plate also have broken and faulty steel and iron castings, broken shafts, broken stop-nuts (for which crutchles 6 ft. in height with a capacity of 7 cwt. have been constructed), and wrought iron pipes. Another application is the repair of ship bottoms by the addition of a bar of iron rod to the mould, which prevents or greatly lessens the amount of piping in the head, due to shrinkage and occlusion of gases.

Electric Welding.—In electric welding and metal working the heat may be communicated to the metal by an electric arc, or by means of the electric resistance of the metal, as in the Thomson process. Arc welding and it appears to have been first made use of by de Meritens in 1881 for uniting the parts of storage-battery plates. The work-piece was placed upon a support or table, and connected with the positive pole of a source of current capable of maintaining an electric arc. The other pole was a carbon rod directed by the hand of the operator so as first to make contact with the work-piece, and then to effect the proper separation to maintain the arc. The heat of the arc was partly communicated to the work and partly dissipated in the hot gases escaping into the surrounding air. The result was a fusion of the metal lead of the storage-battery plate which united various parts of the plate. The process was somewhat similar to the operation of lead-burning by the hydrogen and air blowpipe, as used in the formation of joints in chemical tanks made of sheet-lead. The method of de Meritens has been modified by Bernardos and Olszewski, Slavienoff, Cofin and others.

In the Bernardos and Olszewski process the work is made the negative pole of a direct current circuit, and an arc is drawn between this and a carbon rod, to which a handle is attached for manipulating. As this rod is the positive pole, the negative sides of the battery may be inlayed with a conductor of the metal taking part in the operation, making it hard and brittle, and causing cracks in the joint or filling; the metal may, in fact, become very hard and unworkable. The Slavienoff modification of the arc-welding process consists in the employment of a metal electrode in place of the carbon rod. The metal electrode gradually melts, and furnishes fused drops of metal for the filling of vacant spaces in castings, or for forming a joint between two parts or pieces.

In arc welding, with a current source at practically constant current, a varying resistance in series with the heating arc is needed to secure stability in the arc current, as in electric arc lighting from constant potential lines. Little effective work can be done by the Bernardos and Olszewski method, in which the current is constant in the arc, and the value in some cases ranges above 500 amperes. The potential must be such that an arc of 2 to 3 in. in length is steadily maintained. This may demand a total of about 120 volts, the arc length varying with the current. In arc welding, the arc being made the positive pole of the current, the negative terminal of the metal taking part in the operation, making it hard and brittle, and causing cracks in the joint or filling; the metal may, in fact, become very hard and unworkable. The Slavienoff modification of the arc-welding process consists in the employment of a metal electrode in place of the carbon rod. The metal electrode gradually melts, and furnishes fused drops of metal for the filling of vacant spaces in castings, or for forming a joint between two parts or pieces.
The arc method is essentially a fusing process, though with due care to the holding of plastics to minute, small pieces should be welded by pressure and hammering. It has been found applicable in special cases to the filling of defective spots in iron castings, by fusing into bar holes, etc., or in the fusion of castings of iron, where the mass must be made so as to receive the addition gradually, and melted into union with the body of the piece by the heat of the arc. Similarly, and about a still more complete union between separate pieces of iron plate 1⁄2 in. or 1 in. in thickness has been effectual. In many cases of repair work the operator does not care to arrange the arc for operations to which the arc process is applicable in a natural, what limited, and depends to a large extent upon the skill acquired by the operator, who necessarily works with his eyes well screened from the light of the arc. The spot to be heated is the chief thing. The heat is communicated by the capsules of the arc, and, to a small extent, by the radiation from the hot carbon electrodes between which the arc is formed. The process is scarcely to be called electric in any true sense. Another curious operation, resembling in some respects the arc methods, has been proposed for the heating of metal pieces before they are brought under the hammer for forging or welding. The end of a metal bar is plunged into an electrolytic bath which is connected with the negative pole of an arc lit, or other electric circuit having a potential of 100 to 150 volts. The positive pole is connected with a metal plate as an anode immersed in the electrolyte, or, more simply, the container for the bath is made of sulphuric acid and sodium or potassium carbonate is a suitable electrolyte. That part of the bar which is immersed acts as a cathode of limited surface, and is at once seen to be surrounded by a luminous glow, with gas bubbling arising from it. The immersed end of the bar rapidly heats, and may even melt under the liquid of the bath. It is probable that the arc forms between the surface of the metal and the adjacent liquid, the interposed heat of which is in part communicated directly to the metal and in part lost in the bath. The whole action of the arc heating of the bath. This singular action appears to have been first made known by Holbe and Lagrange. It is distinctly a form of electric heating, and has no necessity of being associated with an alternating current, as welding, and is, moreover, wasteful of energy, as the heat is largely carried off in the liquid bath.

The process of Elihu Thomson first brought to public notice in 1886, has since that time been applied commercially on a large scale to various metal-welding operations. The metal pieces to be united are held in massive clamps and pressed together in firm contact; and a current is made to traverse the proposed joint, bringing it to the welding temperature. The union is effected by forcing the pieces together mechanically. The characteristic feature of the process is the fact that the heat is given out in the body of the metal.

The voltage does not usually exceed two or three, though it may reach four or five volts; but as the resistance of the metal pieces to be joined is low, the currents are much of very high intensity, sometimes reaching between 5,000 and 100,000 amperes. Even for the joining of small wires the current is rarely less than 100 amperes. Such currents cannot, of course, be carried more than a few feet without loss, even more directly, unless they are given to some definite section. With alternating currents, also, the effectiveness of the work speedily diminishes, on account of the inductive drop in the leads, if they are of any considerable length. The carrying of the welding current in a long lead is impracticable; the feet may be heated, and subjected to serious losses. These difficulties are overcome in the Thomson welding transformer, which resembles the step-down transformers used in alternating current practice, with the exception that the secondary coil or conductor, which forms part of the welding circuit, usually consists of only one turn of great section, S S (fig. 1). This is often made in the form of a copper casing, which surrounds or encloses the primary coil P P in whole or in part. The primary coil is of copper wire of many turns. The secondary casing, with the primary enclosed, is provided with the usual laminated iron-transformer core, I, constituting a closed iron-magnetic circuit of both primary and secondary circuits. The terminals of the single-turn secondary serve as connections and supports for the welding clamps C D, which hold the work properly in position to receive the fusing mass of metal. To adapt them, but usually 300 volts is employed, and the periodicity is about 60 cycles. Inasmuch as only the proposed joint and a small amount of metal on each side of it are concerned in the operation, the delivery of energy is closed localized. The chief electrical resistance in the welding circuit is in the projections between the clamps, where the electric energy is delivered and appears as heat. A portion of the energy is, as usual, lost in the transformation and in the resistance of the circuits elsewhere, but, by proper proportioning, the loss may be kept down to a moderate percentage of the total, as in other electric work.

The pieces are set firmly in the welding clamps, with the ends to be joined in abutment and in electric contact. The projection of each piece from the clamp varies with the section of the pieces, their form and the nature of the metal, and the time in which a joint is to be made; but it rarely exceeds the thickness or diameter of the pieces, except with metals of high heat conductivity such as copper. When the pieces are in place the current is turned into the primary coil of the transformer, sometimes in one, and in full force, but more often gradually. Switches and regulating devices in the primary circuit permit complete and delicate control. At least one of the clamps, D (fig. 1), is movable through a limited range towards and from the other, and thus the means of exerting pressure for forcing the softened metal into complete union. In large work the motion is given by a hydraulic cylinder and piston, under suitable control by valves. At about the time the current is cut off, it is usual to apply increased pressure. The softened metal is upset or pressed outwards at the joint and forms a characteristic burr, which may be removed by filing or grinding, or be hammered down while the metal is still hot. Sometimes the burr is objectionable, and is allowed to remain. Lap welds may be made, but butt welds are found to be satisfactory for most purposes. The appearance of round bars in abutment before welding is shown in fig. 2 at A; and at B they are represented as having been joined by an electric butt weld, with the slight upset or burr at the joint. Before the introduction of the Thomson process a few only of the metals, such as platinum, gold and iron, were regarded as weldable; now nearly all metals and alloys may be readily joined. Such combinations as tin and zinc, lead and copper, brass and bismuth, brass and iron, nickel, brass and German silver, silver and copper, copper and platinum, iron and German silver, tin and zinc, zinc and cadmium, &c., are easily made; even brittle crystalline metals like bismuth and antimony may be welded, as well as different metals and alloys whose fusing or softening temperatures do not differ too widely.

If the meeting ends conduct sufficiently to start the heating, it is not necessary that they should fit closely together, nor is it necessary that they should be quite clean, the effect of the incipient heating being to confer conductivity upon the scale and oxide at the joint.
WELDING

In some cases the application of a flux, such as borax, enables the welding to be accomplished at a lower temperature, thus avoiding risk of injury by excessive heating. While the pieces are heating, the increase of temperature may raise the specific resistance of the metal so that the current required will be lessened per unit of area, while on the other hand the growing perfection of contact during welding, by increasing the conducting area at the joint, compensates for this in that it tends to the increase of current. With some alloys like brass and German silver, which have a low temperature coefficient, this compensating effect is nearly absent. The increase of specific resistance of the metals with increase of temperature has another valuable effect in properly distributing the heating over the whole section of the joint. A portion which may be for the moment at a lower temperature than other portions will necessarily have a lower relative resistance, and more current will be diverted to it. This action rapidly brings any cooler portion into equipoise with the rest. It also prevents the overheating of the interior portions which are not losing heat by radiation and convection. The success of the electric process in welding metals which were not formerly regarded as weldable is probably due to a measure to this cause, and also to the ease of control of the operation, for the operator may work within far narrower limits of plasticity and fusibility than with the forge fire or blowpipe. The mechanical pressure may be automatically applied and the current automatically cut off after the completion of the weld. In some more recent types of welders the clamping and releasing of the pieces are also accomplished automatically, and nothing is left for the operator to do but to feed the pieces into the clamps. Repetition-work is thus rapidly and accurately done. The automatic welder represented in fig. 3 has a capacity of nearly 1000 welds per day. The capacity required is subject to considerable variation: the more rigid the material at the welding temperature, the greater is the necessary pressure. With copper the force may be about 600 pounds per square inch of section; with wrought iron, 1200 pounds; and with steel, 1800 pounds. It is customary to begin the operation with a much lighter pressure than that used when all parts of the pieces at the joint have come into contact. The pressure exerted in completing the weld has the effect of extruding from the joint all dust and slag, together with most of the metal which is rendered plastic by the heat. The strongest electric welds are those effected by this extrusion from the joint, in consequence of heavy pressure quickly applied at the time of completion of the weld. The unhammered weld, as ordinarily made by the electric process, has substantially the same strength as the annealed metal of the bar, the break under tensile strain, when the butt at the weld is left on, usually occurring a little to one side of the joint proper, where the metal has been annealed by heating. Hammering or forging the joint while the metal cools, in the case of malleable metals such as iron or copper, will usually greatly toughen the metal, and it should be resorted to where a more finished weld is desired. The strength of the subject is partially effected by placing the weld, while still hot, between dies pressed forcibly together so as to give to the weld some desired form, as in drop-forging.

The amount of electric energy necessary for welding by the Thomson process varies with the different metals, their electric conductivity, their heat conductivity, fusibility, the shape of the pieces, section at the joint, &c. In the following table are given some results obtained in the working of iron, brass and copper. The figures are of course only approximate, and refer to one condition alone of time-consumption in the making of each weld, and the more rapidly the work is done, the less, as a rule, is the total energy required; but the rate of output of the plant must be increased with increase of speed, and this involves a larger plant, the consequent expense of which is often disadvantageous. If in the following table the watts for a given section be multiplied by the time, the relation between the total energy required for different sections of the same metal, or for the same section of different metals, is obtained. These products are given under the head of watt-seconds. It will be seen that the energy increases more rapidly than the sections of the pieces—doubtless because the larger pieces take a longer time to weld, with the result that the increase of heat along the bars back from the joint. If the time of welding could be made the same for various sections, it is probable that the energy required would be nearly in direct proportion to the area of section of any given metal. This relation would however, only hold approximately, as there is a greater relative loss of heat by radiation and convection into the air from the pieces of larger sections. The time of welding in watt-seconds for different sections of copper will be found to be about half as much again as that for the same section of iron, while the amounts of energy required for equal sections of brass and iron do not greatly differ.

ENERGY USED IN ELECTRIC WELDING

**Iron and Steel.**

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<td>4.0</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>90</td>
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**Brass.**

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<td>36,000</td>
<td>50</td>
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**Copper.**

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<td>43,000</td>
<td>22</td>
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In practice, joints in solid bars or in wires are the most common, but the process is applicable to pieces of quite varied form. Joints in iron, brass, or lead pipe are readily made; strips of sheet metal are joined, as in band saws; bars or tubes are joined at various angles; sheet metal is joined to bars, &c. One of the more interesting of the recent applications of electric welding is the longitudinal seating of thin steel pipe. The metal is sketched in long strips, bent to form a hollow cylinder or pipe, and the longitudinal seam moves through a special welder, which passes a current across it. The work is completed by drawing the pipe through dies. The welding of a ring formed by bending a short bar into a circle affords an excellent illustration of the character of the currents employed in the Thomson process. Notwithstanding the comparatively free path around the ring through the full section of the bent bar, the current heats the annulated ends to the welding temperature. In this way large and narrow wheels, harness rings, pail and barrel hoops, and similar objects are extensively produced. The process is also largely applied to the welding of iron and copper wires used for electric lines and conductors, of steel axles, tires and metal frames used in canvas work, and of such parts of metallic pipes as the head, orclamps, crack hangers, seat posts, forks, and steel tubing for the frames. The heat, whether it be utilized in welding or brazing, is so readily localized that no metal is done the finishing of a short distance from the weld or joint. Parts can be accurately formed and finished before being joined, as in the welding of taper shanks to drills, the lengthening of drills, screw taps, or augers, and the like. Electric welding is applied to joints of pieces or to conditions of work which would be impracticable with the ordinary forge fire or gas blowpipe. A characteristic instance is the wire bands which hold in place the solid rubbers of vehicles. The process of the rubber forbids the application of the heat of a fire or blowpipe, but by springing the rubber back from the proposed joint and searing the ends of wire by the electric welding clamps, the union is rapidly and easily made. When the rubber of the tyre is released, it covers...
the joint, regaining its complete form. Special manufactures have in some cases arisen based upon the use of electric welding.

The welding of rails and the manufacture of various other electrically welded devices connected with them, vary widely in accordance with the work they have to do. A machine for forming metal rails is so constructed that the hubs are made in a group, and when brought together over rollers, are pressed to the radiating iron spoked wheels of the spokes. The two sections are then welded, and held in solid union with themselves. Another machine, designed for the manufacture of wire fences, are electrically welded simultaneously and rapidly. Galvanized iron wires are fed into the machine from reels in several parallel lines about a foot apart, and at intervals are crossed at right angles by wire sections cut automatically from another reel of wire. The humps are placed in the teeth of the transverse and the parallel lines. The machine delivers a continuous web of iron fencing, which is wound upon a drum and removed from the roller, and laid in rolls. In another type, some State railways are welded into continuous metal track. A huge welding transformer is suspended upon a crane, which is borne upon a car arranged to run upon the track as it is laid. The joint between the ends of two contiguous rails is made by welding lateral strip pieces, covering the joint at each side and taking the place of the ordinary fish-plates and bolts. The exertion of a greatly increased pressure at the finish of the welding seems to be only feasible for the terminal and strength of the joints. When properly made, the joint is strong enough to resist the strains of extension and compression during temperature changes. For electric railways the work may be done in a more necessarily rapid "welding" manner, using copper wires to convert them into continuous lines of return conductors for the railway current. In railway welding the source of energy is usually a current delivered from the trolley line itself to an apparatus located on the track, a current is induced to the circuit at a sufficient rate and amperage, such that the required current is obtained for feeding the primary circuit of the welding transformer. Power from a distant station is thus made to perform the necessary feats, even for tracks which are laid at a distance from the place where it is to be utilized. In this instance the work is stationary while the welding apparatus is moved from one joint to the next. Welding transformers are sometimes used to heat metal for annealing, for forging, bending, or shaping, for tempering, or for hardening. Under special conditions they are well adapted to these purposes, on account of the perfect control of the heating or energy delivery, and the rapidity and cleanliness of the operation.

Armour-plate annealing, it was practically impossible to render any portion of the hardened face of such armour workable by cutting tools without detriment to the hardness of the rest. A very heavy electric current is passed through the spot or area which it is desired to soften, so that, notwithstanding the rapid conduction of heat into the body of the metal, it is brought to a somewhat lower heat; in other words the spot shall not reharden, it is requisite that the rate of cooling shall be slower than when the heating current is cut off suddenly, the current therefore undergoes gradual diminution, under control of a suitable welding transformer, which has for its functions to maintain the terminals simply two copper blocks fixed in position, and mounted at a distance of an inch or more apart. These are placed firmly against the face of the armour plate, with the spot to be annealed bridging the contacts, or situated between them. As in track welding, the transformer is made movable, so that it can be brought into any position desired. When the annealing is to be done along a line, the secondary terminals, with the transformer, are slowly and steadily slid over the face of the plate, new portions of the plate being thus continually brought between the terminals, while those which had reached the proper heat are slowly removed from the terminals (E. T. 1).

WELDON, WALTER (1832-1885), English technical chemist, was born at Loughborough on the 31st of October 1832. In 1854 he began to work as a journalist in London in connexion with the Dial, which was afterwards incorporated in the Morning Star, and in 1860 he started a monthly magazine, Weldon’s Register of Facts and Occurrences relating to Literature, the Sciences and the Arts, which was discontinued after about three years’ existence. Though he was without practical knowledge of the science, Weldon turned to industrial chemistry, and in the course of a few years took out the patents which led to his “manganese-regeneration” process (see CHLORINE). This was put into operation about 1865, and by 1872 it was being used by almost every chlorine manufacturer of importance throughout Europe. He continued to work at the production of chlorine in connexion with the processes of alkali-manufacture (q.v.), and became a leading authority on the subject, but none of his later proposals—not even the Weldon-Pechiney magnesia process, which was established on a commercial scale only a year or two before his death—met with equal success. He died at Burston, Surrey, on the 20th of September 1885. He professed Swedenborgian principles and was a believer in spiritualism.

His son, WALTER FRANK RAPHAEL WELDON (1860-1906), was appointed in 1899 Linacre professor of comparative anatomy at Oxford.

WELF or GUELPH, a princely family of Germany, descended from Count Warin of Altorf (8th century), whose son Isenbrand is said to have named his family Welfen, i.e. whelps. From his son Welf I. (d. 824) were descended the kings of Upper Burgundy and the elder German line of Welf. Welf III. (d. 859) obtained the duchy of Carinthia and the March of Verona. With him the elder line became extinct, but his grandson in the female line, Welf IV. (as duke, Welf I.), founded the younger line, and was also ancestor of the line of Saxony. Welf IV. (d. 1169) by his marriage with a daughter of Magnus, duke of Saxony, obtained half of the latter’s hereditary possessions, including Lüneburg, and his son Henry the Proud (q.v.) inherited by marriage the emperor Lothair’s lands in Brunswick, &c., and received the duchy of Saxony. The power which the family thus acquired, and the consequent rivalry with the house of Hohenstaufen, occasioned the strife of Guelphs and Ghibelhines (q.v.) in Italy. Henry the Lion lost the duchies of Bavaria and Saxony by his rebellion in 1186, and Welf VI. (d. 1191) left his hereditary possessions in Upper Bavaria and his hereditary position to his son Henry VI. Thus, although one of the Welfs reigned as the emperor Otto IV., there remained to the family nothing but the lands inherited from the emperor Lothair, which were made into the duchy of Brunswick in 1235. Of the many branches of the house of Brunswick that of Wolfenbüttel became extinct in 1884, and that of Lüneburg received the electoral dignity of Hanover in 1692, and founded the Hanoverian dynasty of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714. For its further history see HANOVER.

The Hanoverian legitimists in the German Reichstag are known as Welfen.


WELHAVEN, JOHANN SEBASTIAN CAMMERMEYER (1807-1873), Norwegian poet and critic, was born at Bergen, the son of a pastor, in 1807. He first studied theology, but from 1828 onwards devoted himself to literature. In 1840 he became reader and subsequently professor of philosophy at Christiania, and delivered a series of impressive lectures on literary subjects. In 1836 he visited France and Germany; and in 1858 he went to Italy to study archaeology. His influence was extended by his appointment as director of the Society of Arts. He died at Christiania on the 21st of October 1873. Welhaven made his name as the representative of conservatism in Norwegian literature. In a long essay on Wergeland he opposed the theories of the extreme nationalists. He desired to see Norwegian culture brought into line with that of other European countries, and he himself followed the romantic tradition, being most closely influenced by J. L. Heiberg. He represented clearness and moderation against the extravagances of Wergeland. He gave an admirable practical exposition of his aesthetic creed in the sonnet cycle Norges Daerninge (1834). He published a volume of Dige in 1839; and in 1845 Nyere Dige. The collections of old Norse poetry made by Asbjörnsen and Moe influenced his talent, and he first showed his full powers as a poet in Nyere Dige. His descriptive poetry is admirable, but his best work was inspired by his poems on old Norse subjects, in which he gives himself unrestrainedly to patriotic enthusiasm. Other poems followed in 1848, 1851 and 1859.

WELHAVEN’S Samlede Skrifter were published in 1857 and in 1869.

WELL, the name given to an artificial boring in the earth through which water can be obtained. Two classes may be distinguished: shallow or ordinary wells, sunk through a permeable stratum until an impermeable stratum is reached; and deep and Artesian wells (q.v.), the latter named from Artois.
in France, which are sunk through an impermeable stratum down into a water-bearing stratum which overlies an impermeable stratum. Obviously ordinary wells can supply water very cheaply, but, since impurities readily reach them, there is great risk of contamination. The same does not apply to deep wells, such water being usually free from organic impurities. In ordinary wells, and in deep wells, the water requires pumping to the surface; in artesian wells, on the other hand, the water usually spouts up to a great height and adds height to its reputation.

The Tertiary and Secondary geological formations, such as those underneath London and Paris, often present the appearance of immense basins, the boundary or rim of the basin having been formed by an upheaval of the subjacent strata. In these formations it is often possible to find two or more impermeable layers of clay, so as to form a flat porous U tube, continuous from side to side of the valley, the outcrop on the surrounding hills forming the mouth of the tube. The water flowing down through the porous layer to the bottom of the basin forms there a subterranean pool, which with the liquid or semi-liquid column pressing upon it constitutes a sort of huge natural hydrostatic bells. It is obvious then, that if and when a breach is formed down through the upper impermeable layer to the surface of the lake, the water will be forced up by this pressure to a height above the surface of the valley greater or less according to the elevation of the level in the feeding column, thus forming another artesian well.

In the Tertiary formations, the porous layers are not so thick as in the Secondary, and consequently the occurrence of underground lakes is not so great in this formation; but occasionally boring a mere inch or so in the sandy clay beds, we find a greater number of them, and often a series of natural fountains may be obtained in the same valley, proceeding from water-bearing strata at different depths, and rising to the surface at different points.

It does not follow that all the essentials for an artesian well are present, though two strata with a porous stratum between may crop out round a basin. There must also be a continuity of the permeable bed for the uninterrupted passage of the water, and no breach in either of the confining layers by which the water might escape. It has occasionally happened that on deepening the bore, with the hope of finding water, it has come from the ground with great verve from the lower confining layer being pierced, and the water allowed to escape by another outlet. The subterranean pool is frequently of small extent, and of the nature of a channel rather than of a basin; the water in the channel is used up very fast, and artificial means must be resorted to for conserving and certain manufacturing purposes although it is stil for drinking.

The mechanical appliances employed in boring for water are practically the same as in boring for petroleum (q.v.).

The upper part of a deep well may be of brick, the construction being lined with steel pipes, or, better, it may be lined with metal for its entire length.

One of the most remarkable artesian wells is that at Grenelle, near Paris. The operation of boring extended from 1834 to 1841; after a depth of 1254 ft. had been reached (May 1837), a length of 270 ft. of the boring rods broke and fell to the bottom of the hole, and nearly fifteen months' constant labour was required to pick it up again. Discouraged by the delay, the French government was to have abandoned the project after a depth of 1500 ft. had been reached without any satisfactory result; but Arago prevailed on the government to proceed. The work was completed about 300 ft. below the correctness of Arago's theory. On the 26th February 1841, at a depth of 1798 ft., the boring rods suddenly sank a few yards, and with great difficulty, by working both with their primitive and their new machines, they obtained 600 gallons per minute, and at a temperature of nearly 82° F.

Prior to this no artesian boring had reached even 1000 ft.; and that of Grenelle was the deepest executed till the completion (12th August 1840) of one at Passy, in which 600 gallons of water per minute were obtained at a depth of 1072 ft., with a temperature of 168° F. In 1849, a depth of 1830 ft. was reached; the column of water to the height of 58 ft. from a depth of 1838 ft. The most remarkable feature of this spring is that the projecting force is due, not to hydrostatic pressure, but to that of carbonic gas, and that it extends over a bed of limestone, about 1680 ft. down. Modern mechanical improvements have enabled engineers to exceed these Artesian dimensions considerably, and wells have been produced in other parts of France, Paris, which is supplied from the same water-bearing stratum as that of Grenelle, was bored by Kind in a very short time, having been begun on 15th September 1855, and carried to a depth of 1732 ft. by March 1857. Its total depth is now about 1923 ft. with the diameter of 2 ft. 4 in. at the bottom; and it throws up a constant average rate of water of 500 gallons per minute, and a half million gallons per day to a height of 54 ft. above the ground.

Among other deep wells sunk in the Paris basin subsequently to those at Grenelle and Passy, the most remarkable is a deep well at a depth of 2905 ft. which was bored at the end of 1859 to a depth of 3100 ft. and a half years (1864-1867), for the purpose of obtaining a water-supply for the sugar refinery of Say in Paris; and the same engineer who executed this work (Dru) began in 1835 to a depth of 615 ft. the huge diameter of 6 ft. of the well in the district of Paris named Butte aux Cailles, to be carried down to a depth of 2500 to 2900 ft. In the Paris basin there are a great many other wells, varying from 300 to 1000 ft. in depth, and from 2 to 8 in. in the diameter of the bore-hole.

The Tertiary chalk strata over which London stands have been riddled with artesian borings for the sake of pure water supply. Many of the large London factories, railways, institutions are supplied by artesian wells over 300 ft. deep. At Merton in Surrey, at Brighton, at Southampton, all along the east coast of Lincolnshire, and in the low district between the chalk valleys near London and the Wash, artesian borings have long been known, and go by the name of blow-wells among the people of the district. The general level to which the water rises in the London district has been very sensibly raised by the immense number of perforations which have been made; and in several wells where the water formerly rose to the surface, it now requires to be pumped up.

None of the artesian borings in England have reached the depths found in those of the Continent. The average depth of the water-bearing stratum around Paris is six times that of the London chalk beds; and in some parts of Germany and of America, wells have been sunk to colossal depths in search of the water supply. In Chicago and Passy. In Chicago there are several wells more than 2000 ft. deep; and at West Chicago in Dupage county, Illinois, there is one 3081 ft. deep. In the city of St. Louis, Missouri, there is an artesian well 38 ft. deep, yielding a few gallons of salty water (temperature, 165° F); a minute; boring was stopped in September 1868. Among the deepest borings in the world are: a well in Putnam Heights, Windham county, Connecticut, 5604 ft. deep in diameter of 6 ft. in the shallow, rising to 4 ft. from the surface; one at Schlachenbach (5235 ft.), near Leipzig; one 12 m. south-east of Pittsburg, which is 5457 ft. deep and 61 in. in diameter. another at St. Louis, 4350 ft. deep and 6 in. in diameter, yielding gas, oil and salt water; and one (about 4200 ft.) at Spenbergen 20 m. from Berlin, sunk for the purpose of obtaining a supply of rock salt,—the salt deposit here is 9007 ft. thick.

The following are some of the other most important artesian sinkings that have been made. At Louisville, Kentucky, a bore of 3 in. was carried to a depth of 2086 ft. between April 1857 and the 18th March 1858; it yielded 240 gallons per minute rising 170 ft. high. At Charleston, South Carolina, there are: one well 2050 ft. deep and 4 in. in diameter, yielding 450 gallons a minute; another 1495 ft. deep and 4 in. in diameter; and three more each exceeding 1900 ft. in depth. In 1858 a well at Neusalwerk, near Minden, had reached the depth of 2288 ft. At Bourne, Lincolnshire, there is a well 95 ft. deep, which produces a million gallons of water per day; another well in Lawrence county, Alabama, is sufficient to supply the town and force the water to the tops of the highest houses. There is one in Philadelphia (Mount Vernon and 14th Sts.), 5051 ft. deep and 8 in. in diameter, yielding 2600 gallons a minute. There are several deep wells in South Dakota; in Aberdeen City there are two 1300 ft. deep with flows of 1350 and 10000 gallons, respectively, per minute. Two artesian wells at Croydon supply a million gallons of water per day; and Brighton draws over a million gallons from artesian sinkings. There is a well at Bages, near Perpignan, which gives 330 gallons per minute; and one at Tours, which jets about 6 ft. above ground, and gives 237 gallons per minute. One of these wells at Calli, 115 ft. deep, is 3 ft. in diameter; and the other 4 ft. in diameter; they are cost of water for the city and about a dozen other places. The average depth of these is from 160 to 200 ft., and the upper strata have only to be pierced to give a constant supply of water. The artesian system is working a labour for years before they reach the wished-for pool; and with only palm wood as a casing, they have great difficulty in keeping the bore-hole free from silting up. Bore-holes must be cleaned out periodically. Since 1858 an immense number of perforations have been made by French engineers, and the fortuitous effect upon the sandy desert plains has already made very considerable difference.

Kissingen well has a temperature of 66° F, that of St Louis
WELLES—WELLESLEY, MARQUESS

one of 73.8° F. that of Louisville 76° F., and that of Charleston 77° F. The average rate of increase of temperature is 1° for a descent of from 40 to 55 ft. In Hamburg the water of artesian wells is employed to maintain in large manufactories a constant temperature of 47° when it is freezing outside. Artesian waters have also been employed to reduce the extreme variations of temperature in jails.

WELLES, GIDEON (1802-1878), American political leader, was born at Glastonbury, Connecticut, on the 1st of July 1802. He studied for a time at Norwich University, Vermont, but did not graduate. From 1826 to 1837 he edited the Hartford Times, making it the official organ of the Jacksonian Democracy in southern New England. He served in the state House of Representatives in 1827, 1839-40, 1832 and 1834-35, was state comptroller in 1835 and 1834-43, was postmaster at Hartford in 1835-42, and was chief of the bureau of provisions and clothing in the Navy Department at Washington in 1845-49. Leaving the Democratic party on the Kansas-Nebraska issue, he assisted in the formation of the Republican party in Connecticut, and was its candidate for governor in 1856; he was a delegate to the Republican national conventions of 1856 and 1860. On the inauguration of President Lincoln in 1861 he was appointed secretary of the navy, a position which he held until the close of President Andrew Johnson's administration in 1865. Although deficient in technical training, he handled with great skill the difficult problems which were presented by the Civil War. The number of naval ships increased from 1861 and 1865 from 90 to 670, the officers from 13,500 to 67,000, the seamen from 7,000 to 41,500, and the annual expenditure from $12,000,000 to $23,000,000; important changes were made in the art of naval construction, and the blockade of the Confederate ports was effectively maintained. Welles supported President Johnson in his quarrel with Congress, took part in the Liberal Republican movement of 1872, and returning to the Democratic party, warmly advocated the election of Samuel J. Tilden in 1876. He died at Hartford, Connecticut, on the 11th of February 1878.

WELLESLEY, RICHARD COLLEY WESLEY (or WELLESLEY), Marquess (1760-1842), eldest son of the 1st earl of Mornington, an Irish peer, and brother of the famous duke of Wellington, was born on the 20th of June 1760. He was sent to Eton, where he was distinguished as a classical scholar, and to Christ Church, Oxford. By his father's death in 1781 he became earl of Mornington, taking his seat in the Irish House of Peers. In 1784 he entered the English House of Commons as member for Berkshire. Soon afterwards he was appointed a lord of the treasury by Pitt. In 1793 he became a member of the board of control over Indian affairs; and, although he was best known by his speeches in defence of Pitt's foreign policy, he was gaining the acquaintance with Oriental affairs which made his rule over India so effective from the moment when, in 1797, he accepted the office of governor-general. Wellesley seems to have caught Pitt's large political spirit during his intercourse with him from 1793 to 1797. That both had consciously formed the design of acquiring a great empire in India to compensate, at least in part, the loss of the American colonies is not proved; but the rivalry with France, which in Europe placed England at the head of coalition after coalition against the French republic and empire, made Wellesley's rule in India an epoch of enormous and rapid extension of English power. Clive won and Warren Hastings consolidated the British ascendancy in India, but Wellesley extended it into an empire. On the voyage outwards he formed the design of annihilating French influence in the Deccan. Soon after his landing, in April 1798, he learnt that an alliance was being negotiated between Tippoo Sultan and the French republic. Wellesley resolved to anticipate the action of the enemy, and ordered preparations for war. The first step was to effect the disbandment of the French troops entertained by the Nizam of Hyderabad. The invasion of Mysore followed in February 1799, and the campaign was brought to a rapid close by the capture of Seringapatam. In 1803 the restoration of the peshwa proved the prelude to the Maharrta war against Sindhiya and the raja of Berar. The result of these wars and of the treaties which followed them was that French influence in India was extinguished, that forty millions of population and ten millions of inhabitants were added to the British dominions, and that the powers of the Maharrta and all other princes were so reduced that England became the really dominant authority over all India. He found the East India Company a trading body, he left it an imperial power. He was an excellent administrator, and sought to provide, by the foundation of the college of Fort William, for the training of a class of men adequate to the great work of governing India. In connexion with this college he established the governor-general's office, to which civilians who had shown talent at the college were transferred, in order that they might learn something of the highest statesmanship in the immediate service of their chief. A free-trader, like Pitt, he endeavoured to remove some of the restrictions on the trade between England and India. Both the commercial policy of Wellesley and his educational projects brought him into hostility with the court of directors, and he more than once tendered his resignation, which, however, public necessities led him to postpone till the autumn of 1805. He reached England just in time to see Pitt before his death. He had been created an English peer in 1797, and in 1799 an Irish marquess.

On the fall of the fall of Pitt, 1807 Wellesley was invited by George III. to join the duke of Portland's cabinet, but he declined, pending the discussion in parliament of certain charges brought against him in respect of his Indian administration. Resolutions condemning him for the abuse of power were moved in both the Lords and Commons, but defeated by large majorities. In 1809 Wellesley was appointed ambassador to Spain. He landed at Cadiz just after the battle of Talavera, and endeavoured, but without success, to bring the Spanish government into effective co-operation with his brother, who, through the failure of his allies, had been compelled to retreat in Portugal. A few months later, after the duel between Canning and Castlereagh and the resignation of both, Wellesley accepted the post of foreign secretary in Perceval's cabinet. He held this office until February 1812, when he retired, partly from dissatisfaction at the inadequate support given to Wellington by the ministry, but also because he had become convinced that the question of Catholic emancipation could no longer he kept in the background. From early life Wellesley had, unlike his brother, been an advocate of Catholic emancipation, and with the claim of the Irish Catholics to justice he henceforward associated himself. In 1814 he was invited to join Lord Liverpool's administration, and he remained out of office till 1831, criticising with severity the proceedings of the congress of Vienna and the European settlement of 1814, which, while it reduced France to its ancient limits, left to the other great powers the territory that they had acquired by the partition of Poland and the destruction of Venice. He was one of the peers who signed the protest against the enactment of the Corn Laws in 1815. In 1821 he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Catholic emancipation had now become an open question in the cabinet, and Wellesley, as the orator of the aristocratic party, declared his wish to see the property of the Catholic church secured. The next opposition was believed in Ireland to herald the immediate settlement of the Catholic claims. The Orange faction was incensed by the firmness with which their excesses were now repressed, and Wellesley was on one occasion mobbed and insulted. But the hope of the Catholics still remained unfulfilled. Lord Liverpool died without having grappled with the problem. Canning in turn passed away; and on the assumption of office by Wellington, who was opposed to Catholic emancipation, his brother resigned the lord-lieutenancy. He had, however, the satisfaction of seeing the Catholic claims settled in the next year by the very statement of the Irish dominions, and in 1833 he resumed the office of lord-lieutenant under Earl Grey, but the ministry soon fell, and, with one short exception, Wellesley did not further take part in official life. He died on the
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26th of September 1812. He had no successor in the marquise, but the earldom of Mornington and minor honours devolved on his brother William, Lord Mornington, on the failure of whose issue in 1843 to the 2nd duke of Wellington.


WELLESLEY, a township of Norfolk county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 14 m. S.W. of Boston. Pop. (1890) 3600, (1900) 5072, of whom 1306 were foreign-born and 17 were negroes, (1910 census) 5413. Area, 104 sq. m. Wellesley is served by the Boston & Albany railway, and is connected with Natick (3 m. W.), Newton, Needham, Boston and Worcester by electric lines. The north-eastern boundary of the township is the Charles river, which divides it from the city of Newton. The surface of the township is hilly and abundantly wooded, with many small streams and lakes; the two principal villages are Wellesley Hills and Wellesley, and smaller villages are Wellesley Falls, Wellesley Farms and Wellesley Falls. The highest point is Maugas Hill (416 ft.), nearest Wellesley Hills village. In the northern part of Wellesley and extending into Weston is a large forest tract known as "The Hundreds." Within the township are parts of two of the reservations of the Metropolitan Park system, 60-07 acres of the Charles river reservation, and 4-58 acres of Hemlock Gorge. Hunnewell Park is the former home of Dr. W. T. G. Morton, who discovered the anaesthetic properties of sulphuric ether. West of Wellesley village, among the hills, lie Moses Hill and Lake Waban, on which are beautiful Italian gardens and (on the north side) the buildings and extensive grounds (350 acres) of Wellesley College (undesignated, 1875) for women, which was established by Henry Towle Durant (1822–1881), a prominent Boston lawyer. In 1916 the college had 150 instructors and 2131 students. The library (65,000 volumes in 1910) was endowed by Eben N. Horsford, the chemist and ethnologist; it contains a library of American linguistics collected by Major J. W. Powell and Mr. Horsford, and the Frances Pearson Plimpton library of early Italian literature. There are about 30 buildings, of which twelve are residential halls or cottages. Instruction is in classical, literary and scientific branches, and the degrees of A.B. and A.M. are awarded.

Wellesley was settled about 1640, being then within the limits of Dedham. When the township of Needham was set off from Dedham in 1711, Wellesley was included within the new territory, and in 1774 was organized as the west parish of Needham or West Needham. In 1881 it was incorporated under its present name.

See J. E. Fiske in D. H. Hart's History of Norfolk County (Boston, 1884).

WELHAUSEN, JULIUS (1844— ), German biblical scholar and Orientalist, was born at Hameln on the Weser, Westphalia, on the 17th of May 1844. Having studied theology at the university of Göttingen under Heinrich Ewald, he established himself there in 1870 as privat-docent for Old Testament history. In 1877 he was appointed professor of oriental theology in Greifswald. Resigning in 1882 owing to conscientious scruples, he became professor extraordinary of oriental languages in the faculty of philology at Halle, was elected professor ordinarius at Marburg in 1885, and was transferred to Göttingen in 1892. Wellhausen made his name famous by his critical investigations into Old Testament history and the composition of the Hexateuch, the uncompromising scientific attitude he adopted in testing its problems bringing him into antagonism with the older school of biblical interpreters. The best known of his works are De gentibus et familia Judaicae (Göttingen, 1870); Der Text des Evangeliums Matthaei (Göttingen, 1871); Die Pharisäer und Sadduzäer (Greifswald, 1874); Prolegomena zur Geschichte Israels (Berlin, 1882; Eng. trans., 1883; 5th German edition, 1890; first published in 1878 as Geschichte Israels); Mohammed in Medina (Berlin, 1882); Die Komposition des Hexateuchs und der historischen Bücher des Alten Testaments (1880, 3rd ed. 1899); Israelitische und jüdische Geschichte (1894, 4th ed. 1901); Reste arabischen Heidentums (1807); Das arabische Reich und sein Sturz (1902); Skizzen und Vorarbeiten (1884–1890); and new and revised editions of F. Bleeck's Einleitung in das Alte Testament (4, 1878–1893). In 1906 appeared Die christliche Religion, mit Einschluss der israelitisch-jüdischen Religion, in collaboration with A. Jülicher, A. Harnack and others. He also did useful and interesting work as a New Testament commentator. He published Das Evangelium Marcus, übersetzt und erklärt in 1903, Das Evangelium Matthäi und Das Evangelium Lucas in 1904, and Einleitung in die drei ersten Evangelien in 1905.

WELLINGBOROUGH, a market and town, in the north-western parishes of Northamptonshire, England, 63 m. N.N.W. from London by the Midland railway; served also by the London & North-Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 18,412. It lies on the declivity of a hill near the junction of the Ise with the Nene, in a pleasant well-wooded district. The church of St Luke is a beautiful building with Norman and Early English portions, but is mainly Decorated, with a western tower and spire. The grammar-schools, founded in 1594 and endowed with the revenues of a suppressed gild, include a school of the second and a school of the third grade, the former a building of regular shape, and the Renaissance style erected in 1888, and the latter a block of the old Elizabethan structure. Another educational endowment is Freeman's school, founded by John Freeman in 1711. There are also several charities. The principal public building is the corn exchange. The town is of some importance as a centre of agricultural trade; but the staple industry is in leather. A great impulse to the prosperity of the town was given by the introduction of the boot and shoe trade, especially the manufacture of uppers. Smelting, brewing and iron-founding are also carried on, as well as the manufacture of portable steam-engines, and iron ore is raised in the vicinity. In 1547 the abbey gave the church of Wellingborough to Crowland Abbey, and the grant was confirmed by King Edgar in 666. In the reign of Edward II. the abbot was lord in full. The town received the grant of a market in 1201. It was formerly famed for the chalybeate springs to which it owes its name, and in 1621 was visited by Charles I. and his queen, who resided in tents during a whole season while taking the waters. It was after its almost total destruction by fire in 1738 that the town was built on its present site on the hill.

WELLINGTON, ARTHUR WELLESLEY, 1ST DUKE OF (1769–1852), 2nd and 1st earl of Mornington, was the fourth son of Garrett (1735–1781) Wellesley or Wellesley, 2nd and 1st earl of Mornington, now remembered only as a musician. He was descended from the family of Colley or Cowley, which had been settled in Ireland for two centuries. The duke's grandfather, Richard Colley, 1st Baron Mornington (d. 1758), assumed the name of Wellesley on succeeding to the estates of Garrett Wesley, a distant relative of the famous divine. In Wellington's early letters the family name is spelt Wesley; the change to Wellesley seems to have been made about 1790. Arthur (born in Ireland in 1769) was sent to Eton, and subsequently to a military college at Angers. He entered the army as ensign in the 73rd Highlanders in 1787, passed rapidly through the lower ranks (in five different regiments), became major of the 33rd (now duke of Wellington's West Riding), and purchased the lieutenant-colonelcy of that regiment in 1793 with money advanced to him by his eldest brother. But in all these changes he did little regimental duty, for he was aide-de-camp to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland for practically the whole of these years. Before reaching full age he was returned to the Irish parliament by the family borough of Trim. Little is known of his history during these years, but neither in boyhood nor in youth do he appear to have made any mark among his contemporaries.

His first experience of active service was in the campaign of 1794–1795, when the British force under the duke of York was driven out of Holland by Pichegru. In 1796 he was sent with his regiment to India, being promoted colonel by brevet about the same time. It was thus as a commanding officer that he learnt

1At 24 Upper Merrion Street, Dublin, or at Dungan Castle, Meath, on the 29th of April or on 1st May; but both place and date are uncertain.
for the first time the details of regimental duty. He mastered them thoroughly, gained a minute acquaintance with every detail of the soldier’s life, learned the precise amount of food required for every mouth, the exact weight that could be carried, the distances that could be traversed without exhaustion, the whole body of conditions in short which govern the military activity of man and beast. It was to the completeness of his practical knowledge that Wellington ascribed in great part his later success. It is probable, moreover, that he at this time made a study of mechanics, hydraulics, science of war, and the theory of war. His formal training at Angers was altogether too slight to account for his great technical knowledge; no record, however, exists of the stages by which this was acquired except that as soon as he landed in India he began to devote fixed hours to study, giving up cards and the violin. This study was directed chiefly to the political situation of India, and when on his advice his eldest brother, Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquess Wellesley, accepted the governor-generalship of India, he became his trusted though unofficial adviser. In the war with Tippoo Saib the 32nd was attached to the Nizam’s contingent, and Colonel Wellesley commanded this division in the army of General (Lord) Harris. Though his military services in this short campaign were not of a striking character, he was appointed by his brother to the supreme military and political command in Mysore, in spite of the claims of his senior, Sir David Baird.

His great faculties now for the first time found opportunity for their exercise. In the settlement and administration of the conquered territory he rapidly acquired the habits and experiences of a statesman, while his military operations against Doodah, a robber chief, were conducted with extraordinary energy and success, Doodiah being killed and his army scattered. More important, however, than the military side of these operations was their political character. When pressed in Mysore, Doodiah moved into Mahrratta territory, whither Wellesley followed him. Here, negotiating and bargaining with the Mahrratta chiefs, Wellesley acquired a knowledge of their affairs and an influence over them such as no other Englishman possessed. Simple and honourable himself, he was shrewd and penetrating in his judgment of Orientals; and, unlike his great predecessor Clive, he rigidly adhered to the rule of good faith in his own actions and as regards the conduct of those with whom he had to deal. The result of Wellesley’s singular personal ascendancy among the Maharrrats came into full view when the Mahrratta War broke out. In the meantime, however, his Indian career seemed likely to be sacrificed to the calls of warfare in another quarter. Wellesley was ordered in December 1800 to take command of a body of troops collected for foreign service at Trincomalee, in Ceylon. It was at first intended that these troops should act against Java or Mauritius; their destination was, however, altered to Egypt, with a view to co-operation with Sir Ralph Abercromby’s expedition, and Baird was placed in command. Though deeply mortified at the loss of the command, Wellesley in his devotion to duty moved the troops on his own responsibility from Trincomalee to Bombay, from the conviction that, if they were to be of any use in Egypt, it was absolutely necessary that they should provision at Bombay without delay. But at Bombay Wellesley was attacked by fever, and prevented from going on. The troop-ship in which he was to have sailed went down with all on board.

He returned in May 1801 to Mysore, where he remained until the Mahrratta War broke out. The power of the Peshwa, nominally supreme in the Mahrratta territory, had been overthrown by his rivals Holkar and others, and he had himself fled. The Indian government undertook to restore his authority. Wellesley, now a major-general, was placed in command of a division of the army charged with this task. Starting from Seringapatam, he crossed the frontier on March 12, 1803, and moved through the southern Mahrratta territory on Poona. The march was one unbroken success, thanks to Wellesley’s forethought and sagacity in dealing with the physical conditions and his personal and diplomatic ascendancy among the chieftains of the district. No hand was raised against him, and a march of 600 m. was conducted without even a skirmish. Wellesley had intended to reach Poona on the 23rd of April. On the night of the 18th he heard that a rival of the Peshwa intended to burn the city. At once Wellesley pressed on with the cavalry and an infantry battalion in light order, and after a forced march of 32 hours entered Poona on the afternoon of the 20th, in time to save the city. The Peshwa was now restored, and entered into various military obligations with Wellesley, which he very imperfectly fulfilled.

In the meantime Sindia and Holkar, with the raja of Berar, maintained a doubtful but threatening aspect farther north. It was uncertain whether or not a confederacy of the northern Mahrrattas had been formed against the British Government. In these critical circumstances Wellesley was charged with “the general direction and control of military and political affairs in the territories of the Nizam, the Peshwa and the Mahrratta states and chiefs.” Armed with these powers, he required Sindia, as a proof of good faith, to withdraw to the north of the Nerbudda. Sindia, however, still held on. When, on the 6th of August 1803, Wellesley marched towards his capital, Sindia, on the 11th, crossed the Godavery ten days later, and moved against the combined forces of Sindia and the raja of Berar. Colonel Stevenson was meanwhile approaching with a second division from the east, and it was intended that the two should unite. On the 23rd of September Wellesley supposed himself to be still some miles from the enemy; he suddenly found that the entire forces of Sindia and the raja of Berar were close in front of him at Assaye. Weighing the dangers of delay, of retreat, and of an attack with his single division of 4500 men, supported only by 5000 native elephants of doubtful quality, Wellesley convinced himself that an immediate attack, though against greatly superior forces (30,000 horse, 10,000 European-drilled infantry and 100 well-served guns) in a strong position, was the wisest course. He threw himself upon the Mahrratta host, and, carrying out a bold manoeuvre under an intense fire, ultimately gained a complete victory, though with the loss of 2500 men out of a total probably not much exceeding 7000. In comparison with the battle of Assaye, all fighting that had hitherto taken place in India was child’s play. Wellesley himself had two horses killed under him. Uniting with Stevenson’s division, the conqueror followed up the pursuit, and brought the war to a close by a second victory at Argaum on the 29th of November, and the storming of Gawilghur on the 13th of December. The treaties with Sindia and the raja of Berar, which marked the downfall of the Mahrratta power, were negotiated and signed by Wellesley (who was made K.B. in Sept. 1804) in the course of the following month. Not yet thirty-five years old, he had proved himself a master in the sphere of Indian state management and diplomacy as on the field of battle. Had his career ended at this time, his Indian despatches alone would have proved him to have been one of the wisest and strongest heads that have ever served England in the East.

His ambitions now led him back to Europe, and in the spring of 1805 he quitied India. On his return home he was immediately sent on the abortive expedition to Hanover. In 1806 he was elected M.P. for Rye, in order to defend his brother, the governor-general, in the House, and in the following year he was Irish secretary for a few months. He was then employed in the expedition against Copenhagen, in which he defeated the Danes in the action of Kjøge (29th Oct.). In 1808, however, began the war (see Peninsular War) in which his brother had been so successfully established. In April he was promoted lieutenant-general and placed in command of a division of the troops destined to operate against the French in Spain or Portugal. The conduct of events is narrated in a separate article, and need only be summarized here. Finding that the junta of Corunna wished for no foreign soldiery, he followed his alternative instructions to act against Junot at Lisbon. He landed at Mondego Bay in the first week of August, and moved southwards, driving in the enemy at Roliça on the 17th of August. On the 21st the battle of Vimeiro was fought and won. In the midst of this
engagement, however, Sir Harry Burrard landed, and took over the command. Burrard was in turn superseded by Sir Hew Dalrymple, and the campaign ended with the convention of Cintra, which provided for the evacuation of Portugal by the French, but gave Junot's troops a free return to France. So great was the public displeasure in England at the escape of the enemy that a court of inquiry was held. After the battle of Corunna, Wellesley, who had in the meantime resumed his duties as Irish secretary, returned to the Peninsula as chief in command. He drove the French out of Oporto by a singularly bold and determined march, and then proceeded to march against Madrid by the valley of the Tagus. He had the support of a Spanish army under General Cuesta; but his movements were delayed by the neglect of the Spanish government, and Soult was able to collect a large force for the purpose of falling upon the English line of communication. Wellesley, unconscious of Soult's presence in force on his flank, advanced against Madrid, and defeated his immediate opponent, King Joseph, at Talavera de la Reina (g.v.) on the 27th-28th of July. The victory of Talavera, however, brought prestige but nothing else. Within the next few days Soult's approach of the English and Spanish forces were each reduced and Wellesley, disgusted with his Spanish allies, had no choice but to withdraw into Portugal and there stand upon the defensive.

A peacemaking with the title of Viscount Wellington and Baron Douro, was conferred upon him for Talavera. He was also made marshal-general of the Portuguese army and a Spanish captain-general. But his conduct after the battle was sharply criticized in England, and its negative results were used as a weapon against the ministry. Even on the defensive, Wellington's task was exceedingly difficult. Austria having made peace, Napoleon was at liberty to throw back his forces into the Peninsula. Wellington, foreseeing that Portugal would now be invaded by a very powerful army, began the fortification of the celebrated lines of Torres Vedras (see FORTIFICATION). The English army wintered about Almeida. A summer approach Wellington's anticipations were realized. Masséna moved against Portugal with an army of 70,000 men. Wellington, unable to save Ciudad Rodrigo, retreated down the valley of the Mondego, devastating the country, and at length halted at Busaco and gave battle. The French attack was repulsed, but other roads were open to the invader, and Wellington continued his line of camouflaged retreat. But was extricated from the lines of the French, and he sought in vain for an unprotected point. It was with the utmost difficulty that he could keep his army from starving. At length, when the country was exhausted, he fell back to Santarem, where, Wellington being still too weak to attack, he maintained himself during the winter. But in the spring of 1811 Wellington received reinforcements and moved forward. Masséna retreated, devastating the country to check the pursuit, but on several occasions his rearguard was deeply engaged, and such were the sufferings of his army, both in the invasion and in the retreat, that the French, when they re-entered Spain, had lost 30,000 men. Public opinion in England, lately so hostile, now became confident, and Wellington, whose rewards for Talavera had been opposed in both Houses, began to gain extraordinary popularity. In the meantime Soult, who was besieging Cadiz, had moved to support Masséna. But after capturing Badajoz, Soult learnt that Masséna was in retreat, and also that his own forces at Cadiz had been beaten. He in consequence returned to the south. Wellington, freed from pressure on this side, and believing Masséna to be thoroughly disabled, considered that the time had come for an advance into Spain. The fortresses of Almeida, Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz barred the roads. Almeida was besieged, and Wellington was preparing to attack Badajoz when Masséna again took the field, and marched to the relief of Almeida. The battle of Fuentes d'Oñoro followed, in which Wellington was only able to extricate the army from a dangerous predicament which "if Boney had been there" would have been a disaster. The garrison of Almeida too escaped, after blowing up part of the fortress. In the south, in spite of the hard-won victory of Albuera, the English attack on Badajoz had to be given up. The same misfortune attended a fresh stroke against Ciudad Rodrigo, and at the end of a campaign in which he had used all his skill and care to compensate for inferior numbers, he withdrew behind the Coa. He had meanwhile been given the local rank of general and had also received the Portuguese title of Conde de Vimeiro.

Wellington had from the first seen that, whatever number of men Napoleon might send against him, it was impossible, owing to the poverty of the country, that any great mass of troops could long be held to either attack or defend. Wellington, "the war support war," would fare worse in such conditions than his own troops with their organized supply service. It was so at the end of 1811. Soult had to move southwards to live, and the English were again more than a match for the enemy in front of them. Wellington resumed the offensive, and on the 19th of January 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo was taken by storm. Again, suddenly altering the centre of gravity, Wellington invested Badajoz in the middle of March. It was necessary at whatever cost to anticipate the arrival of Soult with a relieving army, and on the 6th of April Wellington ordered the assault. The feints to throw pressure towards Madrid, the British were masters of the defences caused Wellington to be charged with indifference to loss, but a postponement of the attack would merely have resulted in more battles against Soult. Of all generals Wellington was the last to waste a single trained man, and the sight of the breaches in Badajoz after the storm for a moment unnerved even his iron sternness.

The advance from Ciudad Rodrigo into Spain was now begun. Marmont, who had succeeded Masséna, fell back to the Douro, but there turned upon his assailant, and, by superior swiftness, threatened to cut the English off from Portugal. Wellington was faced with the necessity of using his army at a critical moment, and it was at Salamanca (g.v.) that there extricated himself from his peril by a most brilliant victory (July 22). The French fell back on Burgos. Instead of immediately following them, Wellington thought it wise to advance upon the Spanish capital. King Joseph retired, and the English entered Madrid in triumph.

Wellington's political effect was great, but the delay gave the French northern army time to rally. "The vigorous following of a beaten enemy was not a prominent characteristic of Lord Wellington's warfare," as Napier says. Burgos offered an obdurate defence. Moreover, Soult, raising the siege of Cadiz, and gathering other forces to throw pressure towards Madrid, Wellington was compelled once more to retire into Portugal. The effect of the campaign was, however, that the southern provinces were finally cleared of the invader. During this retreat he announced in general orders that the demoralization and misconduct of the British army surpassed anything that he had ever witnessed. Such wholesale criticism was bitterly resented, but indeed throughout his career Wellington, cold and punctilious, never secured to himself the affections of officers and men as Marlborough or Napoleon did. He subjugated his army and gave it brilliant victories, but he inspired few disciples except the minister as his own staff. To the end of his life his relations with the principal generals who served under him were by no means intimate.

Wellington had been made an earl after the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo, and the Spanish government created him duke of Ciudad Rodrigo about the same time. For Salamanca his reward was a marquessate, and a grant of £100,000 for the purchase of an estate. He was also made Duque da Victoria by the Portuguese regency, and before the opening of the campaign of 1813, which was to crown his work, he was given both the Garter and the Golden Fleece. He was now invested with the supreme command of the Spanish armies. He visited Cadiz in December 1812, and offered counsels of moderation to the democratic assembly, which were not followed. During the succeeding months he was occupied with plans and preparations, and at length, in May 1813, the hour for his final and victorious advance arrived. The Russian disasters had compelled Napoleon to withdraw some of his best troops from the Peninsula. Against a weakened and discouraged adversary Wellington took the field with greatly increased
numbers and with the utmost confidence. The advance of the allied army was irresistible. Position after position was evacuated by the French, until Wellington, driving everything before him, came up with the retreating enemy at Vittoria (June 21st). Soulé's combusts in the Pyrenees, and the desperate resistance of St Sebastian, prolonged the struggle through the autumn, and cost the English thousands of men. But at length the frontier was passed, and Soulé forced back into his entrenched camp at Bayonne. Both armies now rested for some weeks, during which interval Wellington gained the confidence of the successful result of his unvarying reproof of marauding, his business-like payment of expenses, and the excellent discipline which he maintained. In February 1814 the advance was renewed. The Adour was crossed, and Soulé was defeated at Orthes. At Toulouse, after the allies had entered Paris, but before the abdication of Napoleon had become known, the last battle of the war was fought. Peace being proclaimed, Wellington took leave of his army at Bordeaux, and returned to England, where he was received with extraordinary honours, created duke of Wellington, and awarded a most of the colonies of the East India Company.

After the treaty of Paris (May 30) Wellington was appointed British ambassador at the French capital. During the autumn and winter of 1814 he witnessed and reported the mistakes of the restored Bourbon dynasty, and warned his government of the growing danger from conspiracies and from the army, which was visibly hostile to the Bourbons. His insight, however, did not extend beyond the circumstances immediately before and around him, and he failed to realize that the great mass of the French nation was still with Napoleon at heart. He remained in France until February 1815, when he took Lord Castlereagh's place at the congress of Vienna. All the great questions of the congress had already been settled, and Wellington's diplomatic work here was not of importance. His imperceptible acquaintance with French feeling was strikingly proved in the despatch which he sent home on learning of Napoleon's escape from Elba. "He has acted," he wrote, "upon false or no information, and the king (Louis XVIII) will destroy him without difficulty and in a short time." Almost before Wellington's unfortunate prediction could reach London, Louis had fled, and France was at Napoleon's feet. The ban of the congress, however, went out against the common enemy, and the presence of Wellington at Vienna was to impress the allies at once to decide upon their plans for the campaign. To Wellington and Blücher were committed the invasion of France from the north, while the Russians and Austrians entered it from the east. Wellington, with the English troops and their Dutch, German and Belgian allies, took his post in the Netherlands, guarding the country west of the Charleroi road. Blücher, with the Prussians, lay between Charleroi, Namur and Liège. In the meantime Napoleon had outstripped the preparations of his adversaries. By the 13th of June he had concentrated his main army on the northern frontier, and on the 14th crossed the Sambre. The four days' campaign that followed, and the crowning victory of the 18th of June, are described in the article WATERLOO CAMPAIGN. Wellington's reward was a fresh grant of £200,000 from parliament, the title of prince of Waterloo and great estates from the king of Holland, and the order of the Saint-Ésprit from Louis XVIII.

Not only the prestige of his victories, but the chance circumstances of the moment, now made Wellington the most influential personality in Europe. The emperors of Russia and Austria were still far away at the time of Napoleon's second abdication, and it was with Wellington that the commissioners of the provisional government opened negotiations preliminary to the surrender of Paris. The duke well knew the peril of delaying the decision as to the government of France. The emperor Alexander was hostile to Louis XVIII, and the Bourbons generally; the emperor Francis might have been tempted to support the cause of Napoleon's son and his own grandson, who had been proclaimed in Paris as Napoleon II.; and if the restoration of Louis—which Wellington believed would alone restore permanent peace to France and to Europe—was to be effected, the allies must be confronted on their arrival in Paris with the accomplished fact. He settled the affair in his usual downright manner, telling the commissioners bluntly that they must take back their legitimate king, and refusing—perhaps with more questionable wisdom—to allow the retention of the tricolour flag, which to him was a "symbol of rebellion." At the same time the opposition of the most influential member of the commission and the most powerful man in France, Fouché, was overcome by his appointment, on Wellington's suggestion, as minister of police. The result was that when the emperor Alexander arrived in Paris he found Louis XVIII. already in residence in the Tuileries, and the problem before the allies was merely how to keep him there.

In the solution of this problem the common sense of Wellington and of Castlereagh, with whom the duke worked throughout in complete harmony, played a determining part; it was mainly owing to their influence that France escaped the dismemberment for which the German powers clamoured, and which was advocated for a while by Lord Liverpool and the majority of the British cabinet. Wellington realized the supreme necessity, in the interests of the Allies and of the prestige of France, of preventing any final dismemberment of the country, which such a dismemberment would have irretrievably damaged. It was this conviction that inspired his whole attitude towards French affairs. If he unwillingly refused to intervene in favour of Marshal Ney, it was because he believed that so conspicuous an example of treason could not safely be allowed to go unpunished. If he bore in silence the odium that fell upon him owing to the break-up of the collection of the Louvre, it was because he knew that it would be fatal to allow it to be known that the first initiative in the matter had come from the king. In the same spirit he carried out the immense and unique trust imposed upon him by the allies when they placed him in command of the international army by which France was to be occupied, under the terms of the second peace of Paris, for five years. By the terms of his commission he was empowered to act, in case of emergency, without waiting for orders; he was, moreover, to be kept informed by the French cabinet of the whole course of business. His power was immense, and it was well and wisely used. If he had no sympathy with revolutionary disturbers of the peace, he had even less with the fatuous extra-English revolutionary spirit. He was against the demand of the French republic for the reduction of the powers of the restored monarchy, which his influence was thrown into the scale of the moderate constitutional policy of which Richelieu and Decazes were the most conspicuous exponents. The administrative duties connected with the army of occupation would alone have taxed to the uttermost the powers of an ordinary man.1 Besides this, his work included the reconstruction of the military frontier of the Netherlands, and the conduct of the financial negotiations with Messrs Baring, by which the French government was able to pay off the indemnities due from it, and thus render it possible for the powers to reduce the period of armed occupation from five years to three. He was consulted, moreover, in all matters of international importance, notably the affairs of the Spanish colonies, in which he associated himself with Castlereagh in pressing those views which were afterwards carried into effect by George Canning.

The length of time during which France was to be occupied by the allies practically depended upon Wellington's judgment. On the 10th of December 1815 Pozzo di Borgo wrote to the duke enclosing a memorandum in which the emperor Alexander suggested a reduction in the army of occupation: "no more question of finance, but one of general policy, based on reason, equity and a severe morality"; at the same time he left the question of its postponement entirely to Wellington. To

1 Isolated fortresses were still holding out for Napoleon in September 1815, e.g. Longwy, which surrendered on the 20th. Much trouble was caused by the behaviour of some of the allied troops. Only the Dutch and British were all the time occupied of the country for the first months of the occupation are contained in the Bulletins de la correspondance de l'Intérieur, copies of which are preserved in the Foreign Office records (F.O. Congress. Paris. Castlereagh, August, &c., 1815).
Wellington, the proposal seemed premature; he would prefer to wait till “the assembly had published its conduct by its acts”1; for if the new chambers were to prove as intractable as the dissolved Chambre introuvable, the monarchy would not be able to dispense with its foreign tutors. To Castlereagh he wrote (December 11, 1816) that although he believed that the common people of the departments occupied, particularly those occupied by us,“were delighted,” he had determined the allies to make among them, among the official and middle classes the feeling was very different. In view of the weakness of the king’s government, to reduce the army would be to expose the excitable elements of the population to the temptation of attacking it. “Suppose I or my officers were forced to take military action. Suppose this were to happen in the Prussian cantonments. The whole Prussian army would be put in motion, and all Europe would resound with the alarm of the danger to be apprehended from the Jacobins in France.”2

The events of the next few months considerably modified his opinions in this matter. The new chambers proved their trustworthy quality by passing the budget, and the army of occupation was reduced by 30,000 men. Wellington now pressed for the total evacuation of France, pointing out that popular irritation had grown to such a pitch that, if the occupation were to be prolonged, he must concentrate the army between the Scheldt and the Meuse, as the forces, stretched in a thin line across France, were no longer safe in the event of a popular rising. But such a concentration would in itself be attended with great risk, as the detachments might be destroyed piecemeal before they could be assembled into a whole. Wellington still hoped that the immediate evacuation of France the principal subject of discussion at the congress which it was arranged to hold at Aix-la-Chapelle in the autumn of 1818. Here Wellington supported the proposal for the immediate evacuation of France, and it was owing to his common-sense criticism that the proposal of Prussia, supported by the emperor Alexander and Metternich, to establish an “army of observation” at Brussels, was nipped in the bud. The conduct of the final arrangements with Messrs Barrié and Hope, which made a definitive financial settlement between France and the allies possible, was left entirely to him.3

On Wellington’s first entry into Paris he had been received with popular enthusiasm, but he had soon become intensely unpopular. He was held responsible not only for the occupation itself, but for every untoward incident to which it gave rise; even Blücher’s attempt to blow up the Pont de Jena, which he had prevented, was laid to his charge. His characteristically British temper was wholly unsympathetic to the French, whose sensibility was irritated by his cold and slightly contemptuous attitude. Two attempts were made to assassinate him. After the second the prince regent commanded him to leave Paris and proceed to the headquarters at Cambrai.4 For the first time the duke disobeyed orders; the case, he wrote, was one in which he was “principally and personally concerned,” and he alone was in a position to judge what line of action he ought to pursue. His work in Paris, however, was now finished, and on the 30th of October, in a final “order of the day,” he took leave of the international troops under his command. On the 23rd of October, while still at Aix, he had received an offer from Lord Liverpool of the office of master-general of the ordinance, with a seat in the cabinet. He accepted, though with some reluctance, and only on the condition that he should be at liberty, in the event of the Tories going into opposition, to take any line he might think proper.

For the next three years “the Duke” was little before the world. He supported the repressive policy of Liverpool’s cabinet, and organized the military forces held ready in case of a Radical rising. It was his influence with George IV. that led to the readmittance of Canning to the cabinet after the affair of the royal divorce had been settled. It was only in 1822, however, that the tragic death of his friend Londonderry (Castlereagh) brought him once more into international prominence. Londonderry had been on the eve of starting for the conference at Vienna, and the instructions which he had drawn up for his own guidance were handed over by Canning, the new foreign secretary, to Wellington, who proceeded in September to Vienna, and thence in October to Verona, whether the conference had been adjourned. Wellington’s official part at the congress is outlined elsewhere (see Verona, Congress of). Unofficially, he pointed out to the French plenipotentiaries, arguing from Napoleon’s experience, the extreme danger of an invasion of Spain, but at the same time explained, for the benefit of the duke of Angoulême, the best way to conduct a campaign in the Peninsula.

Wellington’s intimate association for several years with the sovereigns and statesmen of the Grand Alliance, and his experience of the evils which the Alliance existed to hold in abeyance naturally led him to dislike Canning’s aggressive attitude towards the autocratic powers, and to view with some apprehension his determination to break with the European concert. He realized, however, that in the matter of Spain and the Spanish colonies the British government had no choice, and in this question he was in complete harmony with Canning. This was also at first the case in respect to the policy to be pursued in the Eastern Question raised by the war of Greek independence. Both Canning and Wellington were anxious to preserve the integrity of Turkey, and therefore to prevent any isolated intervention of Russia, and Wellington seemed (Canning disagreed) to use the alliance of France and Russia as an instrument for the purpose of securing an arrangement between Great Britain and Russia on the Greek question, through which it was hoped to assure peace in the East. In February 1826, accordingly, the duke was sent to St Petersburg, ostensibly to congratulate the emperor Nicholas I. on his accession, but more especially—to use Wellington’s own words—to “induce the emperor of Russia to put himself in our hands.”5 In this object he signally failed. He was, indeed, received in St Petersburg with all honour; but as a diplomatist the “Iron Duke”—whom Nicholas, writing to his brother Canning, described as “cold and broken (casse)”6—was no match for the “Iron Tsar.” As for the Greeks, the emperor said bluntly that he took no interest in “ces messieurs,” whom he regarded as “rebels”; his own particular quarrel with Turkey, arising out of the non-fulfilment of the treaty of Bucharest, was the concern of Russia alone; the ultimatum to Turkey had, indeed, been prepared before Wellington’s arrival, and was despatched during his visit. Under stress of the imminence of the peril, Nicholas was at no pains to conceal, the duke was driven from concession to concession, until at last the tsar, having gained all he wanted, conceded to come to an arrangement with Great Britain in the Greek question. On the 4th of April was signed the Protocol of St Petersburg, an instrument which—as events were to prove—fettered the free initiative not of Russia, but of Great Britain (see Turkey: History; Greece: History).7

After the death of the duke of York on the 5th of December 1826 the post of commander-in-chief was conferred upon Wellington. His relations with Canning had, however, become increasingly strained, and when, in consequence of Lord Liverpool’s illness, Canning in April 1827 was called to the head of the administration, the duke refused to serve under him. On the day after the resignation the duke sat in the cabinet he also resigned his offices of master of the ordnance and commander-in-chief, giving as his reason “the tone and temper of Mr Canning’s letters,” though it is difficult to see in these letters any adequate reason for such a course (see Maxwell’s Life, ii. 190). The effect of his withdrawal was momentous in its bearing upon Eastern affairs. Canning, freed from Wellington’s restraint, carried his intervention on behalf of Greece a step further, and 8 Memorandum to Canning of January 26, 1826 (Well. Despatches ii. 335).

1 F. O. Continent; Paris; Wellington (No. 32).

2 See the interesting letter of Lord Castlereagh to Lord Liverpool preserved in the Foreign Office Records (Congress; Paris; Viscount Castlereagh, July 7–20, 1815), dated July 8, 1815.

3 Maxwell, Life, ii. 114 ff.

4 Suppl. Despatches, xii. 325.

5 Suppl. Despatches, ii. 335.

6 See the interesting letter of Lord Castlereagh to Lord Liverpool preserved in the Foreign Office Records (Congress; Paris; Viscount Castlereagh, July 7–20, 1815), dated July 8, 1815.

concluded, on the 27th of July, the treaty of London, whereby France, England and Russia bound themselves to put an end to the conflict in the East and to enforce the conditions of the St. Petersburg protocol upon the belligerents. Against this treaty Wellington protested, on the ground that it "specified means of compulsion which were neither more nor less than measures of war." His apprehensions were fulfilled by the battle of Navarino. Wellington died on the 5th of August 1852, and was succeeded as premier by Lord Goderich. The duke was at once again offered the post of commander-in-chief, which he accepted on the 17th of August. On the fall of Lord Goderich's cabinet five months later Wellington became prime minister. He had declared some time before that it would be an act of madness for him to take this post; but the sense of public duty led him to accept it when it was pressed upon him by the king. His cabinet included at the first Huskisson, Palmerston and other followers of Canning. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts having been carried in the House of Commons in the session of 1828, Wellington, to the great disappointment of Tories like Lord Eldon, recommended the House of Lords not to offer further resistance, and the measure was accordingly carried through. Soon afterwards a quarrel between the duke and Huskisson led to the retirement from the ministry of all its liberal members. It was now hoped by the so-called Protestant party that Wellington, at the head of a more united cabinet, would offer a steady resistance to Catholic emancipation. Never were men more bitterly disappointed. The Clare election and the progress of the Catholic Association convinced both Wellington and Peel that the time had come when Catholic emancipation must be granted; and, submitting when further resistance would have led to civil war, the ministry itself brought in at the beginning of the session of 1829 a bill for the relief of the Catholics. Wellington, who had hitherto always opposed Catholic emancipation, explained and justified his change of front in simple and impressive language. His undoubted seriousness and his immense personal reputation did not, however, save him from the excesses of calumny and misinterpretation; and in order to impose some moderation upon his aspersers the duke thought it necessary to send a challenge to one of the most violent of these, the earl of Winchelsea. No mischief resulted from the encounter.

Catholic emancipation was the great act of Wellington's ministry; in other respects his tenure of office was not marked by much success. The imagination and the breadth of view necessary to a statesman of the highest order were not part of his endowment, nor had he the power of working harmoniously with his subordinates. His Eastern policy was singularly short-sighted. There might have been good reason, from Wellington's point of view, for confining the fleets of Britain and France to the Mediterranean, and allowing the Turks to conquer Greece; but when, in consequence of this treaty, the battle of Navarino had been fought, the Turkish fleet sunk, and the independence of Greece practically established, it was the weakest of all possible courses to withdraw England from its active intervention, and to leave to Russia the gains of a private and isolated war. This, however, was Wellington's policy; and, having permitted Russia to go to war alone in 1828, nothing remained for him but to treat Greece as a pawn in Russia's hands, and to cut down the territory of the Greek kingdom to the narrowest possible limits, as if the sullen resistance to this determination, carried, an inaccessible mountain-tract, inhabited by the bitterest of his enemies, could permanently add to the strength of the Ottoman empire. The result was the renunciation of the Greek crown by Prince Leopold; and, although, after the fall of Wellington's ministry, a somewhat better frontier was given to Greece, it was then too late to establish this kingdom in adequate strength, and to make it, as it might have been made, a counterpoise to Russia's influence in the Levant. Nor was the indulgence shown by the cabinet towards Dom Miguel and the absolutists of Portugal quite worthy of England. That Wellington actively assisted despotic governments against the constitutional movements of the time is not true. He had indeed none of the sympathy with national causes which began to influence British policy under Canning, and which became so powerful under Palmerston; but the rule which he followed in foreign affairs, so far as he considered it possible, was that of non-intervention. As soon as Catholic emancipation was carried, the demand for parliamentary reform and extension of the franchise agitated Great Britain from end to end. The duke was ill informed as to the real spirit of the nation. He conceived the agitation for reform to be a purely fictitious one, worked up by partisans and men of disorder in their own interest, and expressing no real want on the part of the public at large. Met with a firm resistance, it would, he believed, vanish away, with no worse result than the possible plunder of a few houses by the city mobs. Wholly unaware of the strength of the forces which he was provoking, the duke, at the opening of the parliament which met after the death of George IV., declared against any parliamentary reform whatever. This declaration led to the immediate fall of his government. Lord Grey, the chief of the new ministry, brought in the Reform Bill, which was resisted by Wellington as long as anything was to be gained by resistance. When the creation of new peers was known to be imminent, however, Wellington was among those who counselled the abandonment of a hopeless struggle. His opposition to reform made him for a while unpopular. He was hoisted by the mob on the anniversary of Waterloo, and considered it necessary to protect the windows of Apsley House with iron shutters.

For the next two years the duke was in opposition. On the removal of Lord Althorp to the House of Lords in 1834, William IV. unexpectedly dismissed the Whig ministry and requested Peel to form a cabinet. Wellington thought that Peel should be at the head of the government, and served under him, during the few months that his ministry lasted, as foreign secretary. On Peel's later return to power in 1841 Wellington was again in the cabinet, but without departmental office beyond that of commander-in-chief. He supported Peel in his Corn-Law legislation, and throughout all this later period of his life, whether in office or in opposition, gained the admiration of discerning men, and excited the wonder of vagabonds, by his habitual subordination of party spirit and party connexion to whatever appeared to him the real interest of the nation. On Peel's defeat in 1846 the duke retired from active public life. He was now nearly eighty. His organization of the military force in London against the Chartists in April 1848, and his letter to Sir John Burgoyne on the defences of the country, proved that the old man had still something of his youth about him. But the general character of Wellington's last years was rather that of the old age of a great man idealized. To the unbroken splendours of his military career, to his honourable and conscientious labours as a parliamentary statesman, life unusually serene and calm. The passions excited during the stormy epoch of the Reform Bill had long passed away. Venerated and beloved by the greatest and the lowest, the old hero entered, as it were, into the immortality of his fame while still among his countrymen. Death came to him at last in its gentlest form. He passed away on the 14th of September 1852, and was buried under the dome of St. Paul's, in a manner worthy both of the nation and of the man. His monument, by Alfred Stevens (q.v.), stands in the nave of the cathedral.

Alexander H. Mac Nicol--The Wellington Despatches, edited by Gurwood; Supplementary Despatches; and Wellington Despatches, New Series, edited by the second duke of Wellington. Unlike Napoleon's despatches and correspondence, everything from Wellington's pen is absolutely trustworthy: not a word is written for effect, and no fact is misrepresented. Almost all the political memoirs of the period 1830-1850 contain more or less about Wellington in his later life. Those of Greville and Croker have perhaps most of a good deal of this kind of Russian archives, is given in F. de Maret's Recueil des traités conclus par la Russie. See also Sir Herbert Maxwell, Life of Wellington (2 vols., London, 1881): and the general literature of the Peninsula War (q.v.).

WELLINGTON, a town of Wellington county, New South Wales, Australia, 248 m. by rail N.W. of Sydney. Pop. (1901) 2988. The river Macquarie is here spanned by a fine railway bridge. There are rich gold-bearing reefs in the vicinity of the
town and gold dredging is a growing industry; wheat growing is the most considerable agricultural pursuit, but fruit trees and vines are cultivated with success. Stock-rearing also is extensively followed on account of the fine pastureage in the district.

In the vicinity are several fine churches, and among educational institutions the chief is the Victoria University. An excellent school of art and several public libraries are provided, the latter including that in the house of parliament. The museum contains a beautiful Maori house of carved woodwork, and botanical collections. There are several public parks and gardens on well-chosen elevated sites, the principal being the Botanical Garden, from which the city and port are well seen. Shipping is controlled by a harbour board (1880). The extensive wharves are amply served by hydraulic machinery and railways. Wellington was founded in 1840, being the first settlement of New Zealand colonists, and the seat of government was transferred here from Auckland in 1865. The town is under municipal government.

WELLS, CHARLES JEREMIAH (1798–1879), English poet, was born in London, probably in the year 1798. He was educated at Cowden Clarke’s school at Edmonton, with Tom Keats, the younger brother of the poet, and with R. H. Horne. He became acquainted with John Keats, and was the friend “who sent me some roses,” to whom Keats wrote a sonnet on the 29th of June 1816—

>“When, O Wells! thy roses came to me,
My sense with their deliciousness was spelt;
Some roses had they, that, with tender plea,
Whisper’d of peace and truth and friendliness unquelled.”

Unfortunately, Wells soon afterwards played a cruel practical joke on the dying Tom Keats, and reappears in the elder poet’s correspondence as “that degraded Wells.” Both with Keats and Reynolds, Wells was in direct literary emulation, and his early writings were the result of this. In 1822 he published _Stories after Nature_—or rather, in the manner of Boccaccio, tempered by that of Leigh Hunt—a curious little volume of brocaded prose. At the close of 1823, under the pseudonym of H. L. Howard, appeared the Biblical drama of _Joseph and his Brethren_ (dated 1824). For the next three years Wells, like Hazlitt, as he said, “every night,” but in 1827 the two men were estranged. When Hazlitt died, in September 1830, Wells took Horne to see his dead friend, and afterwards raised a monument to the memory of Hazlitt in the church of St Anne’s, Soho. His two books passed almost unnoticed, and although Hazlitt said that _Joseph and his Brethren_ was “more than original, aboriginal, and a mere experiment in comparison with the vast things” Wells could do, he forbore to review it, and even disowned the young poet from writing any more. Wells was now practising as a solicitor; and when he fancied that he was failing and proceeded to South Wales, where he occupied himself with shooting, fishing and writing poetry until 1835, when he removed to Broxbourne, in Hertfordshire. In 1840 he left England, never to set foot in it again. He settled at Quimper, in Brittany, where he lived for some years. A story called _Claribel_ appeared in 1845, and one or two slight sketches later, but several important tragedies and a great deal of miscellaneous verse belonging to these years are lost. Wells stated in a letter to Horne (November 1877) that he had composed eight or ten volumes of poetry during his life, but that, having in vain attempted to find a publisher for any of them, he burned the whole mass of MSS. at his wife’s death. The only work he had retained was a revised form of _Joseph and his Brethren_, which was praised in 1838 by Wade, and again, with great warmth, by Horne, in his _New Spirit of the Age_, in 1844. The drama was then once more forgotten, until in 1863 it was read and vehemently praised by D. G. Rossetti. The tide turned at last; _Joseph and his Brethren_ became a kind of shibboleth—a rite of initiation into the true poetic culture—but still the world at large remained indifferent. Finally, however, Swinburne wrote an eloquent study of it in the _Fortnightly Review_ in 1875, and the drama itself was reprinted in 1876. The old man found it impossible at first to take his revival seriously, but he woke up at length to take a great interest in the matter, and between 1876 and 1878 he added various scenes, which are in the possession of Mr Buxton Forman, who published one of them in 1895. After leaving Quimper,
WELLS, D. A. — WELLS

Wells went to reside at Marseilles, where he held a professorial chair. He died on the 17th of February 1879.

From R. H. Horne, the author of Orion, the present writer received a letter from the personal appearance of Wells in youth. He was short and stumpy, with dark red hair, a sanguine complexion, and bright blue eyes; he used to call himself "the cub," in reference to the habitual roughness of his manners, which he was able to resolve at will into the most taking sweetness and good-humour. Wells's wife who had been a Miss Emily Jane Hill, died in 1874. Their son, after his father's death, achieved a notoriety which was unpoetical, although recorded in popular song, for he was the once-famous "man who broke the bank at Monte Carlo."

The famous Joseph and his Brethren, concerning which criticism has recovered its self-possession, is an overgrown specimen of the pseudo-Jacobean drama in verse which was popular in ultra-poetical circles between 1820 and 1830. Its merits are those of rich versification, a rather florid and voluble eloquence and a subtle trick of reserve, akin to that displayed by Webster and Cyril Tourneur in moments of impassioned dialogue. Swinburne has said that there are lines in Wells "which might more naturally be mistaken, even by an expert, for the work of the young Shakespeare, than any to be gathered elsewhere in the fields of English poetry." Thus the author of The Heart of Midlothian would have avoided the dulness of subject-matter and the slowness of evolution which impede the reader's progress through this wholly undramatic play. Joseph and his Brethren, in fact, although it has been covered with eulogy by the most illustrious enthusiasts, is less a poem than an odd poetical curiosity.

In 1867 a reprint was published of Joseph and his Brethren, with Swinburne's essay, and reminiscences by T. Watts-Dunton. (E. G.)

WELLS, DAVID AMES (1828-1868), American economist, was born in Springfield, Massachusetts, on the 17th of June 1828. He graduated at Williams College in 1847, was on the editorial staff of the Springfield Republican in 1848, and at that time invented a machine for folding newspapers and book-sheets. He then removed to Cambridge, graduated at the Lawrence Scientific School in 1851, and published in 1859-1863 with George Bliss (1793-1873) an Annual of Scientific Discovery. In 1866 he patented a process for preparing textile fabrics. His essay on the national debt, Our Burden and Our Strength (1864), secured him the appointment in 1865 as chairman of the national revenue commission, which laid the basis of scientific taxation in the United States. In 1866-1870 he was special commissioner of revenue and published important annual reports; during these years he became an advocate of free trade, and he argued that the natural resources of the United States must lead to industrial supremacy without the artificial assistance of a protective tariff which must produce an uneven development industrially. The creation of a Federal Bureau of Statistics in the Department of the Treasury was largely due to Wells's influence. In 1871 he was chairman of the New York State Commission on local taxation which urged the abolition of personal taxes, except of moneyed corporations, and the levy of a tax on the rental value of dwellings to be paid by the occupant; and in 1878 he reported on New York canal tolls. In 1877 he was president of the American Social Science Association. He died in Norwich, Connecticut, on the 5th of November 1888.

He edited many scientific text-books, and wrote The Creed of the Free Trader (1875), Robinson Crusoe's Money (1878), Our Merchant Marine (1852), The Primer of Tariff Reform (1881), Practical Economics (1883), Principles of Taxation (1882), Recent Economic Changes (1889).

WELLS, HERBERT GEORGE (1866-1946), English novelist was born at Bromley, Kent, on the 21st of September 1866, the son of the Rev. George Henry Wells, and professor of classics and Hebrew, who taught at Midhurst grammar school and at the Royal College of Science, where he was trained in physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology and biology. He graduated B.Sc. of London University in 1888 with first-class honours, taught science in a private school, and subsequently did private coaching. In 1893 he began to write for the Pall Mall Gazette, of which he was dramatic critic in 1895. He also wrote for Nature and the Saturday Review. After the success of his fantastic story The Time Machine (1895) he gave his time chiefly to the writing of romances, in which the newest scientific and technical discoveries were used to advance his views on politics and sociology. But he did not confine himself to fiction. His Anticipations (1902) showed his real gift for sociological speculation. Beginning with a chapter on the means of locomotion in the 20th century, it went on to discuss war, the conflict of languages, faith, morals, the elimination of the unfit, and other general topics, with remarkable acuteness and constructive ability. In The Discovery of the Future (1902), Mankind in the Making (1903), A Modern Utopia (1905) and New Worlds for Old (1908) his socialist theories were further developed. As a novelist, meanwhile, he had taken a very high place. Some earlier stories, such as The Wheels of Chance (1896) and Love and Mr Lewisham (1900), had proved his talent for drawing character, and pure fantasies like The War of the Worlds (1898) his abundant invention; but Kipps (1905) and Tono-Bangy (1906) showed a great advance in artistic power. The list of his works of fiction includes The Stolen Bacillus and other Stories (1893), The Wonderful Visit (1895), The Island of Doctor Moreau (1896), The Plattner Story and Others (1897), When the Sleeper Wakes (1899), The First Men in the Moon (1901), The Food of the Gods (1904), In the Days of the Comet (1906), The War of the Worlds (1908), Aune Veronica (1909), The History of Mr. Polly (1910).

WELLS, SIR THOMAS SPENCER, 1st Bart. (1818-1887), English surgeon, was born at St Albans on the 3rd of February 1818, and received his medical education in Leeds, Dublin and St Thomas's Hospital, London, M.R.C.S. (1841). From 1841 to 1848 he served as a surgeon in the navy, and in 1848 he went to Paris to study pathology. In 1853 he settled in London, and took up ophthalmic surgery, interrupting his work to go out to the East in the Crimean War. In 1854 he became surgeon to the Samaritan Free Hospital for Women and Children, London. His reputation in surgery had obtained for him in 1844 the fellowship of the Royal College of Surgeons, and he subsequently became a member of council, Hunterian professor of surgery and pathology (1878), President (1882) and Hunterian Orator (1883).

In 1883 he was made a baronet. His name is best known in connexion with his successful revival of the operation of ovariotomy, which had fallen into disrepute owing to the excessive mortality attending it; and in his skillful hands, assisted by modern surgical methods, the operation lost almost all its danger. His book Diet in Diseases of Infancy and Childhood (1859), Sir Spencer Wells married in 1853 Miss Elizabeth Wright, and had a son and daughters. He died on the 31st of January 1897. His estate at Golder's Hill, Hampstead, was sold after his death to the London County Council and converted into a public park.

WELLS, a city, municipal borough and market town in the Wells parliamentary division of Somerset, England, 20 m. S. of Bristol, on the Great Western and Somerset & Dorset railways. Pop. (1901) 24,440. It is a quiet, old-fashioned place, lying in a hollow under the Mendip Hills, whose spurs rise on all sides like islands. The city is said to have derived its name from some springs called St Andrew's Wells, which during the middle ages were thought to have valuable curative properties. During Saxon times Wells was one of the most important towns of Wessex, and in 905 it was made the seat of a bishopric by King Edward the Elder. About the year 910-912 Bishop John de Villula removed the see to Bath; and for some years Wells ceased to be an episcopal city. After many struggles between the secular clergy of Wells and the regulars of Bath, it was finally arranged in 1180 that the see should be held by the bishop of “bishop and Wells,” and should for the future be elected by delegates appointed partly by the monks of Bath and partly by the canons of Wells. The foundation attached to the cathedral church of Wells consisted of a college of secular canons of St Augustine, governed by a dean, sub-dean, chancellor and other officials. The diocese covers the greater part of Somerset. The importance of the city is almost wholly ecclesiastical; and the theological college is one of the most important in England.
Wells is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area 720 acres.
The central part of one of the most magnificent of all the secular churches of England, was executed principally by Bishops Reginald Fitz-Jocelyn (1171-1191), Savaricus (1192-1205) and Jocelyn (1206-1242). According to the usual medieval practice, the eastern part of the church was begun first, and the choir was consecrated for use long before the completion of the nave, the western part of which, with the magnificent series of statues on the façade, is commonly attributed to Bishop Jocelyn. With him was associated a famous architect in Elias de Derham, who was his steward in 1236, and died in 1245. The upper half of the two western towers has never been built. The whole church, 160 ft. high, was built early in the 14th century; the beautiful octagonal chapter-house on the north side, and the lady chapel at the extreme east, were the next important additions in the same century. The whole church is covered with stone groining of various dates, from the Early English of the choir to fan vaulting of the central tower. Its plan consists of a nave (161 ft. in length and 82 in breadth) and aisles, with two short transepts, each with a western aisle and two eastern chapels. The choir and its aisles are of unusual length (153 ft.), and behind the high altar are two smaller transepts, beyond which is the very rich Decorated screen, showing the entire interior of the cathedral. On the north of the choir is the octagonal chapter-house, the vaulting of which springs from a slender central shaft; as the church belonged to secular clergy, it was not necessary to place it in its usual position by the cloister. The cloister, 160 by 150 ft., extends along the whole southern wall of the nave. The extreme length of the church from east to west is 383 ft. The oak stalls and bishop’s throne in the choir are magnificent examples of 15th-century woodwork, still well preserved.

The glory of the church, and that which makes it unique among the many splendid buildings of medieval England, is the wonderful series of sculptured figures which decorate the exterior of the west front. The whole of the façade, 150 ft. wide, including the two western towers, is completely covered with this magnificent series; there are nine tiers of single figures under canopies, over 600 in number, mostly large size, with some as much as 8 ft. in height, and other smaller statues; these represent angels, saints, prophets, kings and queens of the Saxon, Norman and Plantagenet dynasties, and bishops and others who had been benefactors to the see. There are also forty-eight reliefs with subjects from Bible history, and immense representations of the Last Judgment and the Resurrection, the New Jerusalem, and the City of David. The whole of this position is devised so as to present a comprehensive scheme of theological and history, evidently thought out with much care and ingenuity. As works of art, these statues and reliefs are of high merit. Their compositions are of the deepest kind, and are gracefully treated with true sculptural simplicity, and the pose of the figures remarkable for dignity. A great variety of hands and muscles are clearly distinguishable, and no effort is traceable in this mass of sculpture, but in very few cases does the work fail conspicuously below the general level of excellence.

The interior of the central tower presents an interesting example of the skilful way in which the medieval builders could turn an unexpected constructional necessity into a beautiful architectural feature. While it was being built the four piers of the great tower arches showed signs of failure, and, therefore, in order to strengthen them, a second lower arch was built below each main arch of the tower; and on this a third inverted arch was added. Thus the piers received a steady support along their whole height from top to bottom; and yet the opening of each archway was blocked up in the smallest possible degree. So the cases of the two adjacent arches on each side of the tower have a very striking and graceful effect; nothing similar exists elsewhere.

Of great beauty is the cathedral as the bishop’s palace, a moated building, originally built in the form of a quadrangle by Bishop Jocelyn, and surrounded by a lofty circuit wall. The hall and chapel are beautiful structures, mostly of the 14th century. There were originally two halls, one belonging to the principal and twelve vicars; finer remains of this, dating from the 15th century, and other residences of the clergy stand within and near the cathedral close. At least six of these are among the most beautiful examples of medieval domestic architecture. In England.

The church of St Cuthbert is one of the finest of the many fine parochial churches in Somersethire, with a noble tower and spire at the west end, originally cruciform building, but the central tower fell in during the 14th century, and the whole building was much altered during the Perpendicular period. Though much damaged, a very interesting reredos exists behind the high altar; it consists of a " Jesse tree " sculptured in relief, erected in 1470. Another beautiful reredos was discovered in 1848, hidden in the plaster on the east wall of the lady chapel, which is on the north side.

There was a Roman settlement at Wells (Theorodunum, Fonticuli, Tidington, Welwier, Welles), this site being chosen on account of the springs from which the town takes its name, and the Roman road to Cheddar passed through Wells. King Ine founded a religious house there in 704, and it became an episcopal see in 910. To this latter event the subsequent growth of Wells is due. There is evidence that Wells had become a borough owned by the bishops of Wells before 1160, and in that year Bishop Robert granted the first charter, which exempted his burgesses from certain tolls. Other charters granted by Bishop Reginald before 1180 and by Bishop Savaric about 1207 gave the burgesses of Wells the right to jurisdiction in their own disputes. These charters were confirmed by John in 1291, by Edward I. in 1290, by Edward III. with the grant of new privileges in 1334, 1341, 1343 and 1345, by Richard II. in 1377, by Henry IV. in 1399 and by Henry VI. in 1424. Wells obtained charters of incorporation in 1580, 1683, 1688 and 1835. It was represented in parliament from 1205 to 1808. Fairs on March 3, October 14 and November 30 were granted before 1160, and in 1201 fairs on May 9, November 25 and June 25 were added. They were important in the middle ages for the sale of cloth made in the town, but the fairs which are now held on the last Tuesdays in January, May, July, November and December are noted for the sale of cheese. The market days for the sale of cattle and provisions are Wednesdays and Saturdays. Silk-making, stocking-making and gloving replaced the cloth trade in Wells, but have now given place to brush-making, corn and paper milling, which began early in the 19th century.

See Victoria County History, Somerset; Thomas Serel, Lectures on Wells (1880).

WELLS, a city of Jackson county, Ohio, U.S.A., about 30 m. S.E. of Chillicothe. Pop. (1880) 952; (1890) 4277; (1900) 845, of whom 311 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 6875. Land area (1906), 6-62 sq. m. Wells is served by the Baltimore & Ohio South-western, the Hocking Valley, the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton, and the Detroit, Toledo & Ironon railways, and is connected by an electric line with Jackson (pop. in 1910, 5468), the county-seat, about 10 m. S.W. Immediately N. of the city is Lake Almo Park. Wells is situated in a coal and iron mining country; among the city’s manufactures are iron and cement, and in 1905 the value of the factory product was $3,184,295, 41-4% more than in 1900. The municipality owns and operates its water-works and its electric lighting plant. Wells (named in honour of Harvey Wells, its founder) was settled in 1871, and was chartered as a city in 1876.

WELLSVILLE, a city of Columbiana county, Ohio, U.S.A., about 35 m. S. of Youngstown, on the Ohio river. Pop. (1890) 5247; (1900) 6146 (475 being foreign-born and 113 negroes); (1910) 7769. Wellsville is served by the Pennsylvania railway, and by an interurban electric line connecting with Rochester, Pa., and Steubenville, Ohio. It is in a region which has rich deposits of coal, natural gas, oil and clay; and there are various manufactures. The neighbourhood was first settled in 1795 by one James Clark of Washington county, Pennsylvania, who bought a tract of 304 acres here and who transferred it a year afterwards to his son-in-law, William Wells, in whose honour the settlement was named in 1820 when it was platted. From 1832 to 1852 Wellsville was an important shipping point on the Ohio, with daily steamboats to Pittsburgh; it was incorporated as a village in 1845, and was chartered as a city in 1890.

The town of 2,350, two miles north of the Ohio river, is 12 m. S.W. of Linz by rail. Pop. (1900) 12,187. It is situated on the river Traun and possesses an interesting parish church, in Gothic style, rebuilt in the 15th century, but the oldest part supposed to date from the 9th century. The town draws a supply of natural gas, used for lighting, heat and motive power, from deep artesian borings first made in 1881. It has an important trade in corn, timber, horned cattle, pigs and horses, fowls, dairy produce and lumber; and considerable manufactures, including machinery,
cast-iron, copper and brass goods, calico, gunpowder, oil, paper, articles in felt, flour, leather and biscuits. Welsh stands on the site of the Roman Osbala, and was in the 4th century the residence of the dukes of Lambach-Wels. The actual town dates from the 11th century.

**Wels, the name of a famous family of German merchants, members of which held official positions in the city of Augsburg during the 13th century. The family first became important during the 15th century, when the brothers Bartholomew and Lucas Wels carried on an extensive trade with the Levant and elsewhere, and had branches in the principal trading centres of south Germany and Italy, and also in Antwerp, London and Lisbon. The business was continued by Anthony (d. 1578), the son of Lucas Wels, who was one of the first among the Germans to use the sea route to the East, which had been discovered by Vasco da Gama. The Welsers were also interested in mining ventures; and, having amassed great wealth, Anthony’s son Bartholomew (1488–1561) lent large sums of money to Charles V., receiving in return several marks of the imperial favour. Bartholomew and his brother Antony, however, are chiefly known as the promoters of an expedition under Ambrose Dulong (d. 1552), which in 1528 seized the province of Caracas in Venezuela. With the consent of Charles V., this district was governed and exploited by the Welsers, but threatened to become, like the Spanish government, and the undertaking was abandoned in 1555. After Bartholomew’s death the business was carried on by three of his sons and two of his nephews; but the firm became bankrupt in 1614. Bartholomew’s niece Philippine (1537–1580), the daughter of his brother Francis (1497–1572), married the Archduke Ferdinand, son of the emperor Ferdinand I.

Perhaps the most famous member of the Wels family was Antony’s grandson, Marcus (1528–1614). Educated in Italy, Marcus became burgomaster of Augsburg, but was more distinguished for his scholarship and his writings. The most important of his many works is his *Rerum Bellicarum Libri quinque*, dealing with the early history of the Bavarians, which was translated into German by the author’s brother Paul (d. 1620). His works, Marcus Welsers opera historica et philologica, were collected and published with a biography of Marcus by C. Arnold (Nuremberg, 1683). The Augsburg branch of Welsers became extinct in 1797, and a branch which settled at Nuremberg in 1878; but the Uml branch of the family is still flourishing.

**Welsh, or Leges Walliae.** There is, comparatively speaking, no great distance of time between the *leges barbarorum* and the Laws of Wales, when those branches of the latter show y similarity, may almost be the same idea of law as the former; and, apart from the fact that Wales became permanently connected at the end of the 12th century with a Teutonic people, the English, it has been noticed that in Wales Roman and Germanic, but no traces of a specific Welsh, law are found. King Howel Dda (i.e. the Good), who died in 950, is the originator of the Welsh code.1 In the preface it is stated that Howel, seeing the laws and customs of the violated with impunity, summoned the archbishop of Menevia, other bishops and the chief of the clergy, the nobles of Wales, and six persons (four laymen and two clerks) from each comity, to meet at a place called Y Ty Gwyn ar Dav, or the white house on the river Tav, repaired thither in person, selected from the whole assembly twelve of the most experienced persons, added to their number a clerk or doctor of laws, named Blgwyr, and to these thirteen confided the task of examining, retaining, expounding and abrogating. Their compilation was, when completed, read to the assembly, and, after having been confirmed, proclaimed. Howel caused three copies to be written, one of which was to accompany the court for daily use, another was deposited in the court at Aberfraw, and a third at Dinewr. The bishops denounced sentence of excommunication against all transgressors, and soon after Howel himself went to Rome attended by the archbishop of St David’s, the bishops of Bangor and St Asaph and thirteen other personages. The laws were recited before the pope and confirmed by his authority, upon which Howel and his companions returned home.2 All this could not have been effected before Howel had subjected Wales to his own rule, therefore not before 943. We have three different recensions of the laws, one for North Wales, another for Dyfed, or Dyfed and South Wales, a third for Gwent or North-east Wales. We do not know how far these recensions were uniform in the beginning; but a variance must have occurred shortly after, for the manuscripts in which the codes are preserved differ greatly from each other. The code was originally compiled in Welsh, but we have no older MSS. than the 12th century, and even the earliest ones (especially those of the Venedocta recension) contain many interpellations. The Latin translations of the code would seem to be very old, though even here we have no earlier MSS. (belonging to the 11th century). The Latin text is much shorter than the Welsh, but we do not know whether this abridgment was made on purpose, or whether the translation is an imitation of an earlier text. The texts present only a few traces of Roman law, which, however, are evidently additions of a later period.

1 There is no historical foundation for the legendary laws of a prince Dyrmal (or Dyrnwal) Moel Mud, nor for the Laws of Marsia, which are said to belong to a period before the Roman invasion, even so early as 400 years before Christ. An English translation by the side of the Welsh text of the so-called trials of Dywnwal Moel Mud is given by Owen, in The Ancient Laws of Wales.

2 The whole body of Welsh laws was published in one volume by Aneurin Owen under the direction of the commissioners of the public records as *Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales* (London, 1841). The text of Howell’s laws has been edited by A. W. Wade-Evans as *Welsh Medieval Law* (London, 1906).

**WELSHPOOL (or Welshpool, so called because Pool, its old name, is used in its modern form as the name of a kind of Welsh wool).** Welshpool, or W. as it is generally written, is a market town and municipal and contributory parliamentary borough of Montgomeryshire, N. Wales, in the upper Severn valley, on the Montgomeryshire canal and the Cambrian railway, 8 m. N. of Montgomery, and 182 m. from London. Pop. (1901) 6121. Its buildings and institutions include the old Gothic church of St Mary, the Powysland Museum, with local fossils and antiquities, and a library, vested (with its science and art school) in the corporation in 1887. Powis Castle (about a mile S.W. of the town) is the seat of Earl Powis, who has a large collection of local and miscellaneous curiosities. The flannel manufacture has been transferred to Newtown, but Welshpool has tweeds and woollen shawls, besides a fair trade in agricultural produce, malting and tanning. The town returned a member to parliament from 1556 to 1728, was again enfranchised in 1832, and now (with Llanfyllin, Llanidloes, Montgomery, Machynlleth and Newtown) forms the Montgomery district of parliamentary boroughs. A charter was granted to the town by the lords of Powis, confirmed by James I. (1615), and enlarged by Charles II. The castle was begun, in or about 1100, by Cadigan ab Bleddy ab Gydyw (Cynmy), and finished by Gwenwynwyn; in 1196 it was besieged, undermined and taken by Hubert, archbishop of Canterbury. Retaken by Gwenwynwyn in 1197, it was dismantled by Llewelyn, prince of N. Wales, in 1253. It then remained for several years in the hands of the lords of Powis. During the Civil War, then lord Powis, a royalist, was imprisoned, and the castle was later demolished. Powis Castle, being of red sandstone, is usually called in Welsh Castell Coch (red castle). In the park is Llanfyllin (black pool), whilst Welshpool is said to be named from the market or market division of Shropshire, England, 11 m. N. of Shrewsbury on the London & North Western railway. Pop. (1901) 3706. It is a pleasantly situated town with a considerable agricultural trade. The church of St Peter and St Paul retains a Norman tower. Flour-milling and tanning are the chief industries. In the neighbourhood is the splendid domain of Hawkstone.

In the reign of Edward the Confessor Wem was held as four manors, but at the time of the Domesday Survey William
Pantuli was holding the whole as one manor of Roger, earl of Shrewsbury, from whom it passed to the Boteler, barons of Wem. The famous Judge Jeffreys was among the subsequent lords of the manor and was treated by the beakers of Wem in 1620 with the lands of his own son and heir in 1720 the title became extinct. The town was a borough by prescription, but there appears to be no mention of burgesses before the 15th century. In 1495 Ralph, Lord Greystock, is said to have granted a charter, no longer extant, to his tenants in the manor, and in 1674 the freeholders, “bourgeois holders” and copyholders, of Wem brought an action against Daniel Wichlery, then lord of the manor, for the establishment of customs and privileges chiefly connected with the tenure of their lands and tenements, which was decided in their favour. The borough was extinguished in 1874, but the two bailiffs, both elected as the town’s last lord of the manor, one by his steward, the other by a borough jury, but in the beginning of the 16th century there were only seventy-two burgesses and their rights seem to have gradually disappeared. An urban district council was formed in 1900. Wem has never been represented in parliament. The market was originally held on Sunday under grant from John to Warin Fitz Gerald in 1205, but in 1351, in consequence of a protest from the archbishop of Canterbury, it was changed to Thursday, on which day it is still held. The grant of 1205 also included a fair at the feast of St Peter and Paul, which was maintained until 1606. In the following year, when fairs were also held at the feast of St Mark, chiefly for linen cloth, under grant from Charles I, to Thomas Howard in 1636, and at the feast of St Martin, bishop of Tours, for the sale of hops. A great fire which broke out at Wem on the 3rd of March 1677 caused damage to the extent of £2,577.

See Victoria County History, Shropshire; Samuel Garbet, The History of Wem (1818).

WEMBLEY, an urban district in the Harrow parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, 10 m. N.W. of St Paul’s Cathedral, and 10 m. by London & North Western railways. Pop. (1901) 4519. Wembley adjoins Sudbury on the east; the district is residential, but lacks natural attractions except in the case of Wembley Park, a pleasant wooded recreation ground, owned by a company. Here a tower was begun on the site of the Eiffel Tower in Paris, and projected to exceed it in height, reaching 1300 ft., but only a short stage was completed. The manor of Wembley belonged to the priory of Kilburn until that foundation was dissolved by Henry VIII.

WEMYSS, EARLS OF, the title held by a Scottish family who had a long and distinguished history, and who were connected with the history of Scotland during the whole of the 17th century, and of which various members had attained distinction. In 1628 Sir John Wemyss, who had been created a baronet in 1629, was raised to the peerage as Baron Wemyss of Elcho; and in 1633 he became earl of Wemyss, and Baron Elcho and Methel, in the peerage of Scotland. He took part with the Scottish parliament against Charles I, and died in 1649. On the death of David, 2nd earl of Wemyss (1610-1679), the estates and titles passed to his daughter Margaret, countess of Wemyss, whose son David, 3rd earl of Wemyss, succeeded on her death in 1705. His son James, 4th earl (1689-1756), married a great heiress, Jane, daughter of Lord Digby, and made a large fortune by gambling. His son David, Lord Elcho (1721-1787), was implicated in the Jacobite rising of 1745, and was consequently attainted, the estates passing to his younger brother James, while the title remained dormant after his father’s death, though it was assumed by Elcho’s brother Francis, who took the name of Charteris on inheriting his maternal grandfather’s estate. A reversal of the attainder was granted in 1756 to his descendant Francis Charteris Wemyss Douglas (1772-1853), who had been created Baron Wemyss of Wemyss in the peerage of the United Kingdom in 1821, and had assumed the name of Charteris Wemyss Douglas on inheriting some of the Douglas estates through a female ancestor. Thenceforward the title descended in the direct line.

WEMYSS, a parish of Fifeshire, Scotland, embracing the villages of East and West Wemyss and the police burgh of Buckhaven, a fishing port lying on the northern shore of the Firth of Forth, 23 m. S.W. of Leven, on the North British Railway Company’s branch line from Thornton Junction to Methil. Coal mining is the principal industry of the district, the coal being exported from the port of Methil, of which the harbour was constructed by David, 2nd earl of Wemyss (d. 1679), the town being made a burgh of barony in 1662. Population of Buckhaven, including Methil and Innerleven (1901), 8828; of East Wemyss, 2522; of West Wemyss, 1253; of Wemyss parish, 15,631. The district is of much archaeological and historic interest. On the shore to the north-east are two square towers which are supposed to have formed part of Macduff’s castle; and near them are the remarkable caves (weems, from the Gaelic, 3amaim) from which the district derives its name. Several of the great Roman arch-sculptures, believed some to be the work of the Christian missionaries who found shelter here; by others ascribed to the same prehistoric agency as the inscribed stones of northern Scotland. Near East Wemyss is Wemyss Castle, the ancient seat of the family of the same name which has played a conspicuous part in Scottish history. It was at Wemyss castle that Mary, queen of Scots, first met the earl of Darnley, in 1565, and her room is still known as “the Presence Chamber.”

WENCELESLAUS (1361-1419), German king, and, as Wenceslaus IV, King of Bohemia, was the son of the emperor Charles IV, and Anna, daughter of Henry II, duke of Schweidnitz. Born at Nuremberg on the 26th of February 1361, he was crowned king of Bohemia in June 1363, and invested with the margravate of Brandenburg in 1373. In September 1370 he married Joanna (d. 1386) daughter of Albert I, duke of Bavaria, and was elected king of the Romans or German king at Frankfort on the 10th of June 1376, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle on the 6th of July following. He took some part in the government of the empire during his father’s lifetime, and when Charles died in November 1378 became sole ruler of Germany and Bohemia, but handed over Brandenburg to his half-brother Sigismund, his choice was a period of confusion both in church and state, and although he appears to have begun to rule with excellent intentions, he was totally unfit to cope with the forces of disorder. Germany was torn with feuds, the various orders for the establishment of peace were disregarded, and after 1380 the king paid very little attention to German affairs. In 1383 he inherited the duchy of Luxembourg from his uncle Wenceslaus and in 1387 assisted his half-brother Sigismund to obtain the Hungarian throne.

For some time Wenceslaus ruled Bohemia successfully, but he fell out of favour with the Bohemians and was deposed in 1397. He resisted the crown of Hungary but was defeated and put to death at Varna in 1396. The Bohemians were so now in 1397 and 1398, and Wenceslaus II was out of power for a year. He then assumed the government of his country with great energy and success, and was crowned on the 13th of June 1398 in Prague. He was evidently a man of great talents and a most able administrator, and his government was marked by a spirit of independence and energy. His foreign policy was directed towards the maintenance of peace, and he was fortunate in having the support of the emperor Sigismund. In 1400 he returned to Hungary, and Wenceslaus regained his
freedom and with it his authority in Bohemia; and after the death of the German king Rupert in 1410 appears to have entertained hopes of recovering his former throne. Abandoning this idea, however, he voted for the election of Sigismund in 1411, but stipulated that he should retain the title of king of the Romans. His concluding years were disturbed by the troubles which arose in Bohemia over the death of John Huss, and which the vacillating king did nothing to check until compelled by Sigismund. In the midst of these disturbances he died at Prague on the 16th of August 1419. His second wife was Sophia, daughter of John, duke of Bavaria-Munich, but he left no children. Wenceslaus was a capable and educated man, but was lacking in perseverance and industry. He neglected business for pleasure and was much addicted to drunkenness. He favoured the teaching of Huss, probably on political grounds, but exercised very little influence during the Hussite struggle.

See Th. Lindner, Geschichte des deutschen Reiches vom Ende des 14ten Jahrhunderts bis zur Reformation, part i. (Brunswick, 1875-1886), and "Die Wahl Wenzels," in der Forschungen zur deutschen Geschichte, Band iv. (Göttingen, 1862-1886); F. M. Pelzel, Lebensgeschichte des römischen und böhmischen Königs Wenceslaus (Prague, 1786-1790); F. Palacky, Geschichte von Böhmen (Bände iii. and iv.) (Prague, 1871). E. Th. Kreyenschultze und W. Kretschmer, Geschichte der Kurfürsten (Rostock, 1887). The article by Th. Lindner in the Allgemeine deutsche Biographie, Band xi., should also be consulted for a good account of his life and works.

WEN-CHOW-FU, a prefectural city in the province of Chekiang, China, and one of the five ports opened by the Chifu convention to foreign trade, situated (28° 1' N., 120° 31' E.) on the south bank of the river Gou, about 20 m. from the sea. The population is estimated at 80,000. The site is said to have been chosen by Kwo P'oh (A.D. 275-324), a celebrated antiquary who recognized in the adjacent mountain peaks a correspondence with the stars in the constellation of the Great Bear, from which circumstance the city was first known as the Tow or Great Bear city. Subsequently the appearance in its vicinity of a white deer carrying a flower in its mouth was deemed so favourable an omen as to more than justify the change of its name to Luh or Deer city. Its present name, which signifies the "mild district," and is correctly descriptive of the climate, though not of the inhabitants, was given to it during the Ming dynasty (1368-1644). The walls, which were built in the 10th century, are about 4 m. in circumference, 35 ft. in height, and 12 ft. broad at the top. The streets are paved with brick and are wide, straight and clean. The gates, seven in number, were erected in 1508. The width of the city Wén-chow is about 1560 m. S.S.E. by road from Peking and 660 m. E.S.E. of Hankow. The British consul and the customs outdoor staff occupy foreign-built houses on Conquest Island, which lies abreast of the city. The neighbourhood is hilly and pretty, while opposite the north-west gate Conquest Island forms a picturesque object. The island is, moreover, more beautiful than healthy. The port, which was opened to foreign trade in 1876, has not justified the expectations which were formed of it as a commercial centre, and in 1908 the direct foreign trade was valued at £10,000 only.

There is no foreign settlement at Wén-chow, and the foreign residents are mainly officials and missionaries. The tea trade of Wén-chow-Fu, formerly important, has declined owing to careless cultivation. A considerable native export trade in wood, charcoal, bamboo, medicines, paper umbrellas, oranges, otter skins and tobacco leaf is carried on. The imports are chiefly cotton yarn and piece goods, kerosene oil, palm-leaf fans, ailinette dyestuffs, and matches.

WENDEN (Lettish: Vendi), a town of western Russia, in the gubernia of Pskow, 160 m. by rail N.E. of Riga. Pop. (1827) 6,327. Here are the well preserved ruins of a former castle of the Brethren of the Sword, afterwards (from 1257) of the grand-master of the Teutonic Knights. In 1577 the garrison blew it up to prevent it from falling into the hands of Ivan the Terrible of Russia. It was rebuilt, but has been in ruins since a fire in 1748.

WENDOVER, a market town in the Aylesbury parliamentary division of Buckinghamshire, England, 33 m. N.W. of London by the Metropolitan and the Great Central joint railway. Pop. (1901) 2,926. It is picturesquely situated in a shallow defile of the Chiltern Hills, towards their western face. Wendover is a quiet town of no great activity. Its church of St Mary is mainly Decorated, and a few old houses remain.

Wendover (Wendore, Wendoore, Wendour) is on the Upper Ockfield Way, which was probably an ancient British road, and various traces of a British settlement have been found in the town and neighbourhood. In 1087 the king held the manor of Wendover, and therefore it belonged to the ancient demesne of the crown. There is no trace of any incorporation of the town. Two burgesses were summoned to the parliaments of 1300, 1307 and 1309, but no further returns were made until 1625. In 1632 Wendover lost its right of separate representation. It is noteworthy that John Hampden and Edmund Burke both represented the borough. In 1646 Edward IV. confirmed to his tenants and the residents within the borough that they had always held every Thursday. For a short period the day was changed to Tuesday, but the market was given up before 1888. Hugh de Gurnay held a fair in Wendover on the eve, feast and morrow of St John the Baptist, granted him in 1214. Another fair was granted to John de Molyns in 1347-1348 on the eve, feast and morrow of St Barnabas, but in 1646 Edward IV. confirmed to the town the right of holding fairs. In 1889 the town was incorporated.

WENDT, HANS HINRICH (1853-1907), German Protestant theologian, was born in Hamburg on the 18th of June 1853. After studying theology at Leipzig, Göttingen and Tübingen, he became in 1885 professor ordinarius of systematic theology at Heidelberg, and in 1893 was called to Jena. His work on the teaching of Jesus (Die Lehre Jesu, 1886-1890; Eng. trans. of second part, 1892) made him widely known. He also edited several editions (5th to 6th, 1880-1893) of the Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles in H. A. W. Meyer's series. In 1904 he delivered two addresses in London on "The Conscience of Sweden and the Christian Element in Revelation, and Typical Forms of Christianity," as the Essex Hall Lectures (published, 1904).

His works include: Die christliche Lehre von der menschlichen Vollkommenheit (1882), Der Erfahrungsweg für die Wahrheit des Christentums (1897), and Das Johannesevangelium (1900; Eng. trans., 1902).

WENLOCK, a municipal borough in the Ludlow and Wellington parliamentary divisions of Shropshire, England, extending on both sides of the river Severn. Pop. (1901) 15,866. It includes the market towns of Broseley, Madeley and Much Wenlock (q.v.). The parish of Madeley includes the small towns of Ironbridge and Coalport, with part of Coalbrookdale (q.v.). The district is in part agricultural, but contains limestone quarries, some coal-mines and iron-works. The borough is under a mayor, 8 aldermen and 24 councillors. Area, 22,657 acres.

Wenlock (Wenloche) is said to be of pre-Roman origin, but owed its early importance to the nunnery founded c. 680 by St Milburg, daughter of Merewald, king of Mercia. This was destroyed by the Danes but refounded as a priory by Earl Roger de Montgomery in 1077. It was abandoned by the Conqueror until Roger de Montgomery founded a house of the Clinker order on its site. The town was a borough by prescription, and its privileges began with the grants made to the priory and its tenants. It was incorporated under the name of "Baliff, Burgesses and Commonality" by Edward IV. in 1468 at the request of Sir John Wenlock, Kt., and "in consideration of the laudable services which the men of the town performed in assisting the king to gain possession of the crown," and the charter was confirmed in
1547 by Henry VIII. and in 1631 by Charles I. The bailiff was to be chosen annually by the burgesses, but his election seems to have depended entirely upon the lord of the manor, and, after a contest in 1821 between Lord Forester and Sir W. W. Wyone, the lord of the manor at that date, who was nominated by each of them. In the report of 1853 the borough is said to consist of seventeen parishes and to be unfit for corporate government. By the charter of Edward IV. the town obtained the right of sending two members to parliament, but was disfranchised in 1885. The first grant of a market and fair is dated 1227, when the prior of Wenlock obtained licence to hold a fair on the vigil, day and morrow of the Nativity of St John the Baptist, and a market every Monday. The incorporation charter of 1468 granted these to the burgesses, who continue to hold them.

\[\text{(This text is not clearly legible and is omitted.)}\]

\[\text{WENLOCK GROUP—WENSLEYDALE, BARON (1782–1880), English judge, was born near Lincolnshire on the 22nd of March 1782. He was educated at Macclesfield grammar school and Trinity College, Cambridge. He had a brilliant career at the university, winning the Craven scholarship, Sir William Browne’s gold medal, and being fifth wrangler and senior chancellor’s medallist in classics. Called to the bar at the Inner Temple he rapidly acquired an excellent common law practice and in 1828 was raised to the king’s bench, while still of the junior bar. In 1834 he was transferred from the king’s bench to the court of exchequer, where for one of the twenty years he exercised considerable influence. The changes introduced by the Common Law Procedure Acts of 1854, 1855 proved too much for his legal conservatism and he resigned in December of the latter year. The government, anxious to have his services as a law lord in the House of Lords, proposed to confer on him a life peerage, but this...}\]
was opposed by the House of Lords (see Peerage), and he was eventually created a peer with the usual remainder (1896). He died at his residence, Amphilth Park, Bedfordshire, on the 27th of February 1895, and having outlived his three sons, the title became extinct.

WENSLYDALE, the name given to the upper part of the valley of the river Ure in the North Riding, Yorkshire, England. It is celebrated equally for its picturesque scenery and for the numerous points of historical and other interest within it. The Ure rises near the border of Yorkshire and Westmorland, in the uplands of the Pennine Chain. Its course is generally easterly as it is confined by uplands, but on descending upon the central plain of Yorkshire it takes a landmark course, passing through Ripon and Boroughbridge to form, by its union with the Swale, the river Ouse, which drains to the Humber. The name Wensleydale is derived from the village of Wensley, some 25 m. from the source of the river, and is primarily applied to a section of the valley extending 10 m. upstream from that point, but is generally taken to embrace the whole valley from its source to a point near Jervaulx abbey, a distance of nearly 40 m., below which the valley widens out upon the plain. The dale is traversed by a branch of the North-Eastern railway from Northallerton.

As seen from Hawes, the dale presents a series of landscapes in which the broken limestone craggs of the valley-walls and the high-lying moors beyond them contrast finely with the rich land at the foot of the hills. Beyond Hawes, towards the source, the valley soon becomes wide, bare and shallow, less rich in contrast, but wilder. On both sides throughout the dale numerous narrow tributary vales open out. Small waterfalls are numerous. The chief are Aysgarth Force, on the main stream, Mill Gill Force on a tributary near Askrigg, and Hardraw Scar beyond Hawes, the finest of all, which shoots forth over a projecting parapet of limestone so as to leave a clear passage behind it. The surrounding cliffs complete a fine picture. The small river Bain, joining the Ure near Askrigg, forms a pretty lake called Semer or Semmer Water, 3 m. in length.

Following the valley upward, the points of chief interest apart from the scenery are these. JERVAULX ABBEY was founded in 1156 by Cistercians from Byland, who had previously settled near Askrigg. The remains are mainly transitional Norman and Early English, and are not extensive. Of the great church hardly any fragments rise above ground-level, but the chapter-house, reECTORY and cloisters remain in an excellent state. In a beautiful ivy-clad woodland. Above the small town of Middleham, where there are large training stables, rises the Norman keep of Robert Fitz-Ranulph, which passed to the Nevills, being held by the "King-maker," Warwick. The subsidiary buildings date down to the 14th century. In Cover Dale near Middleham is the ruined Premonstratensian abbey of Coverham, founded here in the 13th century and retaining a gatehouse and part of a walled cloister. Farther up Wensleydale Bolton Castle stands high on the north side. This was the stronghold of the Scroopes, founded by Richard I's chancellor of that name. Its walls, four corner-towers and fine position still give it an appearance of great strength.

WENTWORTH, the name of an English family distinguished in the parliamentary history of the 16th and 17th centuries. The Wentworths traced descent from William Wentworth (d. 1308) of Wentworth Woodhouse, in Yorkshire, who was the ancestor of no fewer than eight distinct lines of the family, two main branches of which were settled in the 14th century at Wentworth Woodhouse and North Elmshill respectively. From the elder, or Wentworth Woodhouse branch, were descended Thomas Wentworth the celebrated earl of Strafford (q.e.), and through him the Watson-Wentworths, marquess of Rockingham in the 18th century; and the earls FitzWilliam of the fascinating branches who settled in Derbyshire. To the younger branch of John Wentworth (d. 1452), great-grandson of the above-mentioned William, Roger, who was a son of John Wentworth (fl. 1413) of North Elmshill, Yorkshire, acquired the manor of Nettlestead in Suffolk in right of his wife, a grand-daughter of Robert, Baron Tibetol, in whose lands this manor had been included, and who died leaving an only daughter in 1372. Roger's son Henry (d. 1482) was twice married; by his first wife he was the ancestor of the Wentworths of Gosfield, Essex; by his second of the Wentworths of Lillingstone Lovell, Buckinghamshire.1 Another of Roger Wentworth's sons, Sir Philip Wentworth, was the grandson of Margery, wife of John Seymour, mother of the Protector Somerset and of Henry VIII's wife Jane Seymour, and grandmother of King Edward VI. Margery's brother Sir Robert Wentworth (d. 1528) married a daughter of Sir James Tyrrell, the reputed murderer of Edward V. and his brother in the Tower; and Sir Robert's son by this marriage, Thomas Wentworth (1501—1551), was summoned to parliament by writ in 1539 as Baron Wentworth of Nettlestead. He was one of the peers who signed the letter to the pope in favour of Henry VIII's divorce from Catherine of Aragon, and in 1541 was created Baron and Earl of Surrey. He died in 1551 and left no issue.

THOMAS WENTWORTH, 2nd Baron Wentworth of Nettlestead (1525—1584), was the eldest son of the above-mentioned 1st Baron. He served with distinction under his relative the Protector Somerset at the battle of Pinkie in 1547; but in 1551 he was one of the peers who condemned Somerset to death on a charge of felony. He was a trusted counsellor of Queen Mary, who appointed him deput of Calais. Wentworth was the last Englishman to hold this post, for, on the 7th of January 1558, he was beheaded at Tyburn. His son by his second marriage was the last representative as to the defensive condition of the fortress having been disregarded by the English Council some years earlier. Wentworth himself remained in France as a prisoner of war for more than a year, and on his return to England in 1559 he was sent to the Tower for having surrendered Calais; but he was acquitted of treason. He died on the 11th of January 1584. His eldest son William married a daughter of Lord Burghley, but predeceased his father, whose peerage consequently passed to his second son Henry (1556—1593), who was one of the judges of Mary, queen of Scots, at Fotheringhay in 1587. This Henry was the 3rd Baron Wentworth of Nettlestead (1617—1667), who was the eldest son of Henry, whom he succeeded as 4th Baron Wentworth of Nettlestead in 1593. In 1614 he inherited from an aunt the estate of Toddington in Bedfordshire, till then the property of the Cheyney family, and here he made his principal residence. In 1626 he was created earl of Cleveland, and in the following year he served under Buckingham in the expedition to La Rochelle. Adhering to the king's cause in the parliamentary troubles, he attended his kinsman Strafford at his execution, and afterwards was a general on the royalist side in the Civil War. The earl of Cleveland was taken prisoner at the battle of Newbury. Cleveland commanded a cavalry regiment at Worcester in 1651, when he was again taken prisoner, and he remained in the Tower till 1656. He died on the 25th of March 1667. His early extravagance and the fortunes of war had greatly reduced his estates, and Nettlestead was sold in 1643. Cleveland was described by Clarendon as "a man of signal courage and an excellent officer"; his cavalry charge at Cropredy Bridge was one of the most brilliant incidents in the Civil War, and it was by his bravery and presence of mind that Charles II. was enabled to escape from Worcester. At his death the earldom of Cleveland became extinct. He outlived his son Thomas (1613—1645), who was called up to the House of Lords in his father's lifetime as Baron Wentworth, and whose daughter Henrietta Maria became Baroness Wentworth in her own right on her grandmother's death. This lady, who was the duke of Monmouth's mistress, died unmarried in 1686. The barony of Wentworth then reverted to Cleveland's daughter Anne, who married the 2nd Lord Lovelace, from whom it passed to her grand-daughter Martha (d. 1745), wife of Sir John Byron, who married the 3rd Lord Lovelace, and from whom it descends to a descendant of Anne's daughter Margaret. Edward Noel, who was created Viscount Wentworth of Wellesborough in 1762, the viscounty came extinct at his death, and the barony again passed through the female line in the person of Noel's daughter Judith to the latter's daughter Anne Isabella, who married Lord Byron the 1st in 1817.

1 In the 16th century Lillingstone Lovell was in Oxfordshire, that portion of the county being surrounded by Buckinghamshire, with which it was afterwards incorporated.
WENTWORTH, W. C.—WENZEL

poet; and from her to Byron's daughter Augusta Ada, whose husband was in 1838 created earl of Lovelace. The barony of Wentworth was thereafter held by the descendants of this nobleman in conjunction with the earldom of Lovelace.

Paul Wentworth (1533–1593), a prominent member of parliament in the reign of Elizabeth, was a member of the Lillingstone Lovell branch of the family (see above). His father Sir Nicholas Wentworth (d. 1577) was one of the members of Parliament for Peter's house, and he first came into notice by the freedom with which in 1566 he criticized Elizabeth's prohibition of discussion in parliament on the question of her successor. Paul, who was probably the author of the famous puritan devotional book The Miscellany, or Regestri and Methodical Historie of Orisons (London, 1613), died in 1593. He became possessed of Burnham Abbey through his wife, to whose first husband, William Tyldesley, it had been granted at the dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII.

Peter Wentworth (1590–1656) was the elder brother of the above-mentioned Paul, and like his brother was a prominent puritan leader in parliament, which he first entered as member for Barnstaple in 1571. He took a firm attitude in support of the liberties of parliament against encroachments of the royal prerogative, on which subject he delivered a memorable speech on the 8th of February 1576, for which after examination by the Star Chamber he was committed to the Tower. In February 1587 Sir Anthony Cope (1548–1614) presented to the Speaker a bill abrogating the existing ecclesiastical law, together with a puritan revision of the Prayer Book, and Wentworth supported him by bringing forward certain articles touching the liberties of the House of Commons; Cope and Wentworth were both committed to the Tower for interference with the queen's ecclesiastical prerogative. In 1593 Wentworth again suffered imprisonment for presenting a petition on the subject of the succession to the Crown; and it is probable that he did not regain his freedom, for he died in the Tower on the 10th of November 1596. While in the Tower he wrote A Pithie Exhortation to her Majesty for establishing her Successor to the Crown, a famous treatise preserved in the British Museum. Peter Wentworth was twice married, to a first wife, by whom he had no children, was a cousin of Catherine Parr, and to his second a sister of Sir Francis Walsingham, Elizabeth's secretary of state. His third son, Thomas Wentworth (c. 1568–1623), was an ardent and sometimes a violent opponent of royal prerogative in parliament, of which he became a member in 1604, continuing to represent the city of Oxford from that year until his death. He was called to the bar in 1604 and became recorder of Oxford in 1607. Another son, Walter Wentworth, was also a member of parliament.

Sir Peter Wentworth (1592–1675) was a grandson of Peter Wentworth, being the son of Peter's eldest son Nicholas, from whom he inherited the manor of Lillingstone Lovell. As sheriff of Oxfordshire in 1634 he was charged with the duty of collecting the levy of ship-money, in which he encountered popular opposition. He was member for Tamworth in the Long Parliament, but refused to act as a commissioner for the trial of Charles I. He was a member of the council of state during the Commonwealth; but was denounced for immorality by Cromwell in April 1653, and his speech in reply was interrupted by Cromwell's forcible expulsion of the Commons. Sir Peter, who was a friend of Milton, died at Oxford on 12th of December 1675, having never been married. By his will he left a legacy to Milton, and considerable estates to his grand-nephew Fisher Dike, who took the name of Wentworth; and this name was borne by his descendants until dropped in the 18th century by Wentworth Dike Wentworth, great-grandfather of Sir Charles Wentworth Dike (q.v.).


WENTWORTH, WILLIAM CHARLES (1793–1872), the "Australian patriot," who claimed descent from the great Stratford, but apparently without sufficient reason, was born in 1793 in Norfolk Island, the penal settlement of New South Wales, where his father D'Arcy Wentworth, an Irish gentleman of Roscommon family, who had emigrated in 1700 and later became a prominent official, was then government surgeon. The son was educated in England, but he spent the interval between his schoolings at Greenwich and his matriculation (1816) at Peterhouse, Cambridge, in Australia, and early attracted the attention of Governor Macquarie by some adventurous exploration in the Blue Mountains. In 1816 he published in London a work on Australasia in two volumes, and in 1823 he only just missed the chancellor's medal at Cambridge (won by W. M. Praed) with a stirring poem on the same subject. Having been called to the bar, he returned to Sydney, and soon obtained a fine practice. With a fellow barrister, Wardell, he started a newspaper, the Australian, in 1824, to advocate the cause of self-government and to champion the "emancipists"—the former convicts, now freed andProgress against the "exclusiveists"—the officials and the more aristocratic settlers. With Wardell, Dr. William Bland and others, he formed the "Patriotic Association," and carried on a determined agitation both in Australia and in England, where they found able supporters. The earlier object of their attack was the governor, Sir Ralph Darling, who was recalled in 1831 in consequence, though he was acquitted by a select committee of the House of Commons of the charges brought against him by Wentworth in connexion with his severe punishment of two soldiers, Sudds and Thompson, who had perpetrated a robbery in order to obtain their discharge (a favourite dodge at the time), and one of whom, Sudds, had died. Wentworth continued, under the succeeding governor, Sir Richard Bourke, who was guided by him, and Sir George Gipps, with whom he had constant differences, to exercise a powerful influence; and in 1842, when the Constitution Act was passed, it was generally recognized as mainly his work. He became a member of the first legislative council and led the "squatter party." He was the founder of the university of Sydney (1852), where his son afterwards founded a career in his honour, and he took part in the promotion of the new constitution for the colony (1854), subsequently (1861) becoming president of the new legislative council. But things had meanwhile moved fast in the colony, and Wentworth's old supremacy had waned, since Robert Lowe (afterwards Lord Sherbrooke) and others had come into prominence in the political arena. He had done his work for colonial autonomy, and was becoming an old man, somewhat out of touch with the new generation. For some years before 1861 he stayed chiefly in England, where in 1857 he founded the "General Association for the Australian Colonies," with the object of obtaining from the government, a federal constitution under which the two colonies and in 1862 he definitely settled in England, dying on the 20th of March 1872. His body was taken to Sydney and accorded a public funeral by the unanimous vote of the New South Wales legislature.

WENZEL, KARL FRIEDRICH (1740–1793), German metalurgist, was born at Dresden in 1740. Disliking his father's trade of bookbinding, for which he was intended, he left home in 1755, and after taking lessons in surgery and chemistry at Amsterdam, became a ship's surgeon in the Dutch service. In 1760, tired of sea-life, he went to study chemistry at Leipzig, and afterwards devoted himself to metallurgy and assaying at his native place with such success that in 1786 he was appointed...
chemist to the Freiberg foundries by the elector of Saxony. In 1785 he became assessor to the superintending board of the foundries, and in 1786 chemist to the porcelain works at Meissen. He died at Freiberg on the 26th of February 1793.

In consequence of the quantitative analyses he performed of a large number of salts, he has been credited with the discovery of the law of neutralization (Vordrüssungen über die chemische Verschiedenheit der Körper, 1777). But this attribution rests on a mistake first made by J. B. Berzelius and copied by subsequent writers, and Werner's published work (as pointed out by G. H. Hess in 1840) does not warrant the conclusion that he realized the existence of any law of invariable and reciprocal proportions in the combinations of acids and bases.

WEPENER, a town of the Orange Free State, 82 m. by rail S.E. of Bloemfontein, and 2 m. W. of the Basuto border. Pop. (1904) 1366, of whom 822 were whites. It lies in a rich grain district, and 3 m. north by the Caledon river are large flour mills. The town, named after the leader of the Boers in their war with the Basuto chief Mosheph in 1865, was founded in 1886. In April 1900 it was successfully defended against the Boers under Christiana de Wet by a Cape force of Irregulars commanded by Colonel E. H. Dalgety.

WERDAU, a town of Germany, in the kingdom of Saxony, on the Pleisse, in the industrial district of Zwickau, and 40 m. S. of Leipzig. Pop. (1905) 10,473. Its chief industries are cotton and wool-spinning and the weaving of cloth, but machinery of various kinds, paper and a few other articles are also manufactured. In addition to the usual schools, Werdau contains a weaving-school. The town is mentioned as early as 1364 and in 1388 it was purchased by the margrave of Meissen, who afterwards became elector of Saxony.

See Stichard, Chronik der Fabriksstadt Werdau (2nd ed., Werdau, 1865).

WERDEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine province, on the river Ruhr, 6 m. by rail S. of Essen. Pop. (1905) 11,029. It has an interesting Roman Catholic church which belonged to the Benedicite abbey founded about 800 by St Ludger, whose stone coffin is preserved in the crypt. The abbey buildings are used as a prison. The manufacture of cloth, woollens, shoes and paper, dyeing, tanning, brewing and distilling are the principal industries. In the neighbourhood are stone quarries and coal mines. Werden grew up around the Benedicite abbey, which was dissolved in 1802. The Codex Argenteus of Ulfila, now in the university library at Upsala, was discovered here in the 16th century.

See Flügel, Chronik der Stadt Werden (Düsseldorf, 1887); and Führer durch Werden (Werden, 1887).

WERDER, KARL WILHELM FRIEDRICH AUGUST LEOPOLD, COUNT VON (1808–1887), Prussian general, entered the Prussian Garde du Corps in 1825, transferring the following year into the Guard Infantry, with which he served for many years as a subaltern. In 1839 he was appointed an instructor in the Cadet Corps, and later he was employed in the topographical bureau of the Great General Staff. In 1842–1843 he took part in the Russian operations in the Caucasus, and on his return to Germany in 1846, was placed, as a captain, on the staff. In 1848 he married. Regimental and staff duty alternately occupied him until 1865, when he was made major-general, and given the command of a brigade of Guard Infantry. In the Austrian War of 1866 he was greatly distinguished himself at Gitschin (Jěn) and Königgrätz at the head of the 3rd division. He returned home with the rank of lieutenant-general and the order pour le mérite. In 1870, at first employed with the 3rd Army Headquarters and in command of the Württemberg and Baden forces, he was after the battle of Wörth entrusted with the operations against Strassburg, which he captured after a long and famous siege. Promoted general of infantry, and assigned to command the new XIVth Army Corps, he defeated the French at Dijon and at Nuits, and, when Bourbaki's army moved forward to the east, Werder again fought with great success at the action of Villersel, which enabled him to cover the Germans besieging Belfort. On the 15th, 16th and 17th of January 1871, von Werder with greatly inferior forces succeeded in holding his own on the Lissaine against all Bourbaki's efforts to reach Belfort, a victory which aroused great enthusiasm in southern Germany. After the war von Werder commanded the Baden forces, now called the XIVth Army Corps, until he retired in 1879. On his retirement he was raised to the dignity of count. He died in 1887 at Grüssow in Pomerania. The 30th (4th Rhineland) Infantry regiment bears his name, and there is a statue of von Werder at Werder in the Rhineland.


WERGELAND, HENRIK ARNOLD (1808–1845), Norwegian poet and prose writer, was born at Christiansand on the 17th of June 1808. He was the eldest son of Professor Nikolai Wergeland (1780–1848), who had been a member of the constitutional assembly which proclaimed the independence of Norway in 1814 at Eidsvold. Nikolai was himself pastor of Eidsvold, and the poet was thus brought up in the very holy of holies of Norwegian patriotism. He entered the university of Christiansia in 1825 to study for the church, and was soon the leader of a band of enthusiastic young men who desired to revive in Norway the spirit and independence of the old vikings. His earliest efforts in literature were wild and formalless. He was full of imagination, but without taste or knowledge. He published poetical fortes under the pseudonym of "Sifil Sifaffa"; these were followed in 1828 by an unsuccessful tragedy; and in 1829 by a volume of lyrical and patriotic poems, Dige, fjerste Ring, which attracted the liveliest attention to his name. At the age of twenty-one he became a power in literature, and his enthusiastic preaching of the doctrines of the revolution of July made him a force in politics also. Meanwhile he was tireless in his efforts to advance the national cause. He established popular libraries, and tried to alleviate the widespread poverty of the Norwegian peasantry. He preached the simple life, denounced foreign luxuries, and set an example by wearing Norwegian homespun. But his numerous and various writings were coldly received by the critics, and a monster epic, Skabeuen, Mennesket og Messias (Creation, Man and Messiah), 1830, showed no improvement in style. It was remodelled in 1845 as Mennesket. From 1831 to 1835 Wergeland was submitted to severe satirical attacks from J. S. le Welhaven and others, and his style improved in every respect. His nationalistic political propaganda lacked knowledge and system. His partisans were alienated by his inconsistent admiration for King Carl Johan, by his unpopular advocacy of the Jewish cause, and by the extravagance of his methods generally. His popularity waned as his poetry improved, and in 1840 he found himself a really great lyric poet, but an exile from political influence. In that year he became keeper of the royal archives. He died on the 12th of July 1845. In 1898 a statue was erected to his memory by his compatriots at Fargo, North Dakota. His works are: Husums Blomsterstykke (1840), Vedlen (1841), Jidens (1842), Jodinden (1844) and Den Engelske Lods (1844), form a series of narrative poems in short lyrical metres which remain the most interesting and important of their kind in Norwegian literature. He was less successful in other branches of letters; in the drama, neither his Campbellner (1837), Venetianerne (1843), nor Skadetornerne (1848), achieved any lasting success; while his elaborate contribution to political history, Norges Konsulents Historie (1841–1843), is forgotten. The poems of his later years include many lyrics of great beauty, which are among the permanent treasures of Norwegian poetry.

Wergeland's Samlede Skrifter (9 vols., Christiania, 1852–1857) were edited by H. Lassen, the author of Henrik Wergeland og hans Evne (1866), and also by C. H. Schwanenflügel, Henrik Wergeland (Copenhagen, 1877), and J. G. Kraft, Norsk Forfatter-Lexikon (Christiania, 1857), for a detailed bibliography.

WERGILD, WERGILD OF BERG, the Anglo-Saxon term for the fine paid by, e.g., a murderer to the relatives of the deceased in proportion to the rank of the latter. The word was part of the Anglo-Saxon common law, and its origin is unknown. It represented the substitution of compensation for personal retaliation, resulting from the rise in authority of the power of the community as such. (See CRIMINAL LAW; HOMICIDE; AND TETUNIC PEOPLES.)
WERMELSKIRCHEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine province, situated 4 m. S.W. from Lenneb by rail and at the junction of a line to Renscheid. Pop. (1906) 15,469. It contains an Evangelical and a Roman Catholic church and a Latin school. Wermelskirchen is the centre of many thriving industries, chief among which are the manufacture of silks, cotton and silk ribbon, cotton, and metal goods. Distilled spirits are also produced. 

WERMUND, an ancestor of the Mercian royal family, a son of Whittleg and father of Offa. He appears to have reigned in Angel, and his story is preserved by certain Danish historians, especially Saxo Grammaticus. According to these traditions, his reign was long and happy, though its prosperity was eventually marred by the raids of a warlike king named Athilas, who slew Frowinus, the governor of Schleswig, in battle. Frowinus's death was avenged by his two sons, Kerto and Wigo, but their conduct in fighting together against a single man was thought to form a national disgrace, which was only obliterated by the subsequent single combat of Offa. It has been suggested that Athilas, though called king of the Swedes by Saxo, was really identical with the Eadgils, lord of the Myrtingas, mentioned in Widisith. As Eadgils was a contemporary of Ermanric (Eormenric), who died about 370, his date would agree with the indication given by the genealogies which place Wermund nine generations above Penda. Frowinus and Wigo are doubtless to be identified with the Frawine and Wig who figure among the ancestors of the kings of Wessex.

For the history of the Franks, see WORMS. The aggression against Wermund in his later years, told by the Danish historians and also by the Vitae duorum Offorum, see OFA; also Saxo Grammaticus, Gesta Danorum, edited by A. Holder, pp. 105 ff. (Strassburg, 1886); Vitae duorum Offorum (in Waite's edition of Matthew Paris, London, 1640). See also H. M. Chadwick, Origin of the English Nation (Cambridge, 1907).

WERNER, ANTON ALEXANDER VON (1843- ), German painter, was born at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, on the 9th of May 1843. He first studied painting at the Berlin Academy, pursued his studies at Karlsruhe, and, having won a travelling scholarship upon the exhibition of his early works, he visited Paris in 1867, and afterwards Italy, where he remained for some time. On his return he received several state commissions, and in the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War in 1870 he was sent with the staff of the third corps d'armée, and stayed in France till the close of the campaign. In 1873 he was appointed professor at the Berlin Academy, of which he afterwards became director. Among his more important works must be named "The Captitation of Sedan," "Proclamation of the German Empire at Versailles," "Moltke before Paris," "Moltke at Versailles," "The Meeting of Bismarck and Napoleon III. ," "Christ and the Tribute Money," "William I. visiting the Tombs," "The Coronation" and "the Napoleon," and some other of the subjects for the Triumphant Arch at Berlin. Von Werner's work is chiefly interesting for the historic value of his pictures of the events of the Franco-German War.


WERNER, ABRAHAM GOTTLOB (1750-1817), father of German geology, was born in Upper Lusatia, Saxony, on the 25th of September 1750. The family to which he belonged had been engaged for several hundred years in mining pursuits. His father was inspector of Count Solm's iron works at Wehrau and Lowenthal where Werner's infancy was cultivated in him a taste for minerals and rocks. The boy showed early promise of distinction. He began to collect specimens of stones, and one of his favourite employments was to pore over the pages of a dictionary of mining. At the age of nine he was sent to school at Bunzlau in Silesia, where he remained until 1764, when he joined his father at Wehrau with the idea of ultimately succeeding him in the post of inspector. When nineteen years of age (1769) he journeyed to Freiberg, where he attracted the notice of the officials, who invited him to attend the mining school of the town, and study mining. This was the turning point in Werner's career. He soon distinguished himself by his industry and by the large amount of practical knowledge of mineralogy which he acquired. In 1771 he repaired to the university of Leipzig and went through the usual curriculum of study, paying attention at first chiefly to the subject of law, but continuing to devote himself with great ardour to mineralogical pursuits. While still a student he wrote his first work on the external characters of minerals under the title "Natur und Vater der Handelsfragen," (1774), which at once gave him a name among the mineralogists of the day. In 1775 he was appointed inspector in the mining school and teacher of mineralogy at Freiberg. To the development of that school and to the cultivation of mineralogy and geognosy he henceforth, for about forty years, devoted the whole of his active and indefatigable industry. From a mere provincial institution the Freiberg academy under his care rose to be one of the great centres of scientific light in Europe, to which students from all parts of the world flocked to listen to his eloquent teaching. He wrote but little, and though he elaborated a complete system of geognosy and mineralogy he never could be induced to publish it. From the notes of his pupils, however, the general purport of his teaching was well known, and it widely influenced the science of his time. He died at Freiberg on the 30th of June 1817.

One of the distinguishing features of Werner's teaching was the care with which he taught lithology and the succession of geological formation; a subject to which he applied the name geognosy. His "Triumph der geognosy" was the result of the brilliant researches of J. G. Lehmann and G. C. Fuchs (1722-1773). He showed that the rocks of the earth are not disposed at random, but follow each other in certain definite order. Unfortunately he had never enlarged his experience by travel, and the sequence of rock materials of which he had recognized in Saxony was believed by him to be of universal application (see his Kurze Klassifikation und Beschreibung der verschiedenen Gebirgsarten, 1787). He taught that the rocks were the precipitates of a primordial ocean, and followed each other in successive deposits of world-wide extent. Volcanoes were regarded by him as abnormal phenomena, probably due to the combustion of subterranean beds of coal. Basalt and similar rocks, which even then were recognized by other observers as of igneous origin, were believed by him to be water-formed accumulations of the same ancient ocean. Hence arose one of the great historical controversies of geology: Werner's geognosy and the metaphysical theory of origin of rocks, and were known as Neptunist; their opponents, who recognized the important part taken in the construction of the earth's crust by subterranean heat, were styled Vulcanists. R. Jameson, the most distinguished of his British pupils, was for many years an ardent teacher of the Wernerian doctrines. Though much of Werner's theoretical work was erroneous, science is indebted to him for so clearly demonstrating the chronological succession of rocks, for the enthusiastic zeal which he infused into his pupils, and for the impulse which he thereby gave to the study of geology.

See S. G. Frisch, Lebensbeschreibung A. G. Werners (Leipzig, 1825); Currie, Biog. de Werner, (Paris, 1776); and Sir A. Geikie, Founders of Geology (1897; 2nd ed., 1906).

WERNER, FRIEDRICH LUDWIG ZACHARIAS (1768-1823), German poet, dramatist and preacher, was born on the 18th of November 1768 at Königsberg in Prussia. From his mother, who died a religious maniac, Werner inherited a weak and unbalanced nature, which his education did nothing to correct. At the university of his native place he studied law; but Rousseau and Rousseau's German disciples were the influences that shaped his view of life. For years he oscillated violently between aspirations towards the state of nature, which betrayed him into a series of rash and unhappy marriages, and a sentimental admiration—in common with so many of the Romantists—for the Roman Catholic Church, which ended in 1811 in his conversion. Werner's talent was early recognized and obtained for him, in spite of his character, a small government post at Warsaw, which he exchanged afterwards for one at Berlin. In the course of his travels, and by correspondence, he got into touch with many of the men most eminent in literature at the time; and succeeded in having his plays put on the stage, where they met with much success. In 1814 he was ordained priest, and, exchanging the pen for the pulpit, became a popular preacher at Vienna, where, during ten years, he served. In 1823, by a curious and eloquent but fanciful sermons were listened to by crowded congregations. He died at Vienna on the 17th of January 1823.

Werner was the only dramatist of the Romantic movement
WERNIGERODE—WERWOLF

who—thanks to the influence of Schiller—was able to subordinate his exuberant imagination to the practical needs of the stage. His first tragedy, Die Söhne des Tals (1803—1804), is in two parts, and it was followed by Das Kreuz an der Ostsee (1805). More important is the Restoration drama Martin Luther, oder die Wehe der Kraft (1807), which, after his conversion to Catholicism, Werner recanted in a poem Weihe der Unkraft (1813). His powerful one-act tragedy, Der viertendazwanzigste Februar (1815, but performed 1816), was the first of the so-called "fate tragedies." Attila (1808), Wanda (1810) and Die Mutter der Makkabder (1820) show a falling-off in Werner's powers.

Werner's Theodor was first collected (without the author's consent) in 6 vols. (1816-1818); Ausgegebene Schriften (15 vols. 1860-1861), with a biography by K. J. Schütz. See also J. E. Hitzig, Lebensabriß F. L. Z. Werners (1825); H. Dünzter, Zwei Bekehrte (1873); J. Minor, Die Schicksalsdramen in ihrem Haupt-vertreten (1883) and the same author's volume, Das Schicksalsdrama (in Kürschner's Deutsche Nationalliteratur, vol. 151, 1884); F. Poppenberg, Zacharias Werner (1893).

WERWOLF, a town of Germany in the province of Prussian Saxony, 13 m. by rail S.W. of Halberstadt, picturesquely situated on the Holzemme, on the north slopes of the Harz Mountains. Pop. (1905) 13,137. It contains several interesting Gothic buildings, including a fine town hall with a timber façade of 1498. Some of the quaint old houses which have escaped the numerous fires that have visited the town are elaborately adorned with wood-carving. The gymnasium, occupying a modern Gothic building, is the successor of an ancient grammar-school, which existed until 1825. Brandy, cigars and dyestuffs are among the manufactures; the palace above the town rises the château of the prince of Stolberg-Wernigerode. A pavilion in the park contains the library of 117,000 volumes, the chief feature in which is the collection of over 3000 Bibles and over 5000 volumes of hymnology. Wernigerode is the chief town of the county (Grafschaft) of Stolberg-Wernigerode, which has an extent of 107 sq. m., and includes the Brocken within its limits.

The counts of Wernigerode, who can be traced back to the early 12th century, were successively vasals of the margraves of Brandenburg (1268), and the archbishops of Magdeburg (1381). On the extinction of the family in 1429 the county fell to the counts of Stolberg, who founded the Stolberg-Wernigerode branch in 1645. The latter surrendered its military and fiscal independence to Prussia in 1714, but retained some of its sovereign rights till 1876. The counts were raised to princely rank in 1890.

See Förstemann, Die Gräflich-Stolbergische Bibliothek in Wernigerode (1866), and G. Sommer, Die Grafschaft Wernigerode (Halle, 1883).

WERTH [WEERT], JOHANN, COUNT von (c. 1595-1652), German general of cavalry in the Thirty Years' War, was born between 1590 and 1600 at Büttgen in the duchy of Jülich. His parents belonged to the numerous class of the lesser nobility, and at an early age he left home to follow the career of a soldier of fortune in the Walloon cavalry of the Spanish service. In 1622, at the taking of Jülich, he won promotion to the rank of lieutenant. He served as a colonel of cavalry in the Bavarian army in 1630. He obtained the command of a regiment, both titular and effective, in 1642, and in 1633 and 1634 laid the foundations of his reputation as a swift and terrible leader of cavalry forays. His services were even more conspicuous in the great pitched battle of Nördlingen (1634), after which the emperor made him a Freiherr of the Empire, and the elector of Bavaria gave him the rank of lieutenant field-marshall. About this time he armed his regiment with the musket as well as the sword. In 1635 and 1636 his forays extended into Lorraine and Luxemburg, after which he projected an expedition into the heart of France. Starting in July 1636, from the country of the lower Meuse, he raided far and wide, and even urged the cardinal infante, who commanded in chief, to "plant the double eagle on the Louvre." Though this was not attempted, Werth's horsemen appeared at St Denis before the uprising of the French national spirit in the shape of an army of fifty thousand men at Compiègne forced the invaders to retire whence they had come. The memory of this raid lasted long, and the name of "Jean de Werth" figures in folk-songs and serves as a byogue to quiet unruly children. In 1637 Werth was once more in the Rhine valley, destroying convoys, retaining besieged towns, and surprising the enemy's camps. In February 1638 he defeated the Weimar troops in an engagement at Rheinfelden, but shortly afterwards was made prisoner by Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. His hopes of being exchanged for the Swedish marshal Horn were disappointed, for Bernhard had to deliver up his captive to the French. The terrible Jean de Werth was brought to Paris, amidst great rejoicings from the country people. He was lionized by the society of the capital, visited in prison by high ladies, who marvelled at his powers of drinking and his devotion to tobacco. So light was his captivity that he said that nothing bound him but his word of honour. However, he locked forward with anxiety for his release, which was delayed until March 1642 because the imperial government feared to see Horn at the head of the Swedish army and would not allow an exchange.

When at last he reappeared in the field it was as general of cavalry in the imperial and Bavarian and Cologne services. His first campaign against the French marshal Guébriant was uneventful, but his second (1643) in which Count Mercy was his commander-in-chief, ended with the victory of Tüttlingen, a surprise on a large scale, in which Werth naturally played the leading part. In 1644 he was in the lower Rhine country, but he returned to Mercy's headquarters in time to take a brilliant share in the battle of Freiburg. In the following year his resolution and bravery, and also his uncontrollable rashness, played the most conspicuous part in deciding the day at the second battle of Nördlingen. Mercy was killed in this action, and Werth succeeded to the command of the defeated army, but he was soon superseded by Field-marshall Gelten. Johann von Werth was disappointed, but remained sufficiently loyal to his soldierly code of honour, and found an outlet for his anger in renewed military activity. In 1647 differences arose between the elector and the emperor as to the allegiance due from the Bavarian troops, in which, after long hesitation, Werth, fearing that the cause of the Empire and of the Catholic religion would be ruined if the elector resumed control of the troops, attempted to take his men over the Austrian border. But they refused to follow, and escaping with great difficulty from the elector's vengeance Werth found a refuge in Austria. The emperor was grateful for his conduct in this affair, ordered the elector to rescind his ban, and made Werth a count. The last campaign of 1648 (1648-1649), after which he was released, he retired to live on the estates which he had bought in the course of his career, and on one of these, Benakate near Königgrätz, he died on the 16th of January 1652.

See Lives by F. W. Barthold (Berlin, 1826), W. von Janko (Vienna, 1874), F. Teicher (Augsburg, 1877).

WERWOLF (from A.S. wer; cf. Lat. vir, man; and wolf; or, according to a later suggestion, from O.H.G. wer, i.e. wearer of the wolf-skin), a man transformed temporarily or permanently into a wolf. The belief in the possibility of such a change is a special phase of the general doctrine of lycanthropy (q.v.). In the European history of this singular belief, wolf transformations appear as by far the most prominent and most frequently recurring instances of alleged metamorphosis, and consequently in most European languages the terms expressive of the belief have a special reference to the wolf. Examples of this are found in the Gr. ἄλμωστος, Russian volkodlak, Eng. "werewolf," Ger. wölfe, Fr. loup-garou. More general terms (e.g. Lat. veripellis; Russ. obozor; O. Norse, hウンamr; Eng. "turncoat," "transform") are sufficiently numerous to furnish some evidence that the class of animals into which metamorphosis was possible was not viewed as a restricted one. But throughout the greater part of Europe the werewolf is preferred; there are old traditions of his existence in England, in Wales and in Ireland; in southern France, Germany, Lithuania, Bulgaria, Servia, Bohemia, Poland and Russia he can hardly be pronounced extinct now; in Denmark, Sweden,
Norway and Iceland the bear competes with the wolf for pre-eminence.

In Greek mythology the story of Lycaon supplies the most familiar instance of the werewolf. According to one form of it Lycaon was transformed into a wolf as a result of eating human flesh; one of those who were present at periodical sacrifice on Mount Lycaon was said to suffer a similar fate. Pliny, quoting Euanthes, tells us (Hist. Nat. viii. 22) that a man of the family of Antaeus was selected by lot and brought to a lake in Arcadia, where he hung his clothing on an ash and swam across. This resulted in his being transformed into a wolf, and he wandered in this shape nine years. Then, if he had attacked no human being, he was at liberty to swim back and resume his former shape. Probably the two stories are identical, though we hear nothing of participation in the Lycaean sacrifice by the descendant of Antaeus. Herodotus (iv. 105) tells us that the Neuri, a tribe of eastern Europe, were annually transformed for a few days, and Virgil (Eccl. viii. 98) is familiar with transformation of human beings into wolves. There are women, so the Armenian belief runs, who in consequence of deadly sins are condemned to pass seven years in the form of a wolf. A spirit comes to such a woman and brings her a wolf's skin. He orders her to put it on, and no sooner has she done this than the most frightful wolfish cravings make their appearance and soon get the upper hand. Her better nature conquered, she makes a meal of her own children, one by one, then of her relatives' children according to the degree of relationship, and finally the children of strangers begin to fall a prey to her. She wanders forth only at night, and doors and locks cannot hold her in. She is then a wolf, and is a more terrible werewolf when she returns to human form and removes her wolf's skin. In these cases the transformation was involuntary or virtually so. But by side with this belief in involuntary metamorphosis, we find the belief that human beings can change themselves into animals at will and then resume their own form.

The expedients supposed to be adopted for effecting change of shape may here be noticed. One of the simplest apparently was the removal of clothing, and in particular of a girdle of human skin, or the putting on of such a girdle—more commonly the putting on of a girdle of the skin of the animal whose form was to be assumed. This last device is doubtless a substitute for the assumption of an entire animal skin, which also is frequently found. In other cases the body is rubbed with a magic salve. To drink water out of the footprint of the animal in question, to partake of its brains, to drink of certain enchanted streams, were also considered effectual modes of accomplishing metamorphosis. Olaus Magnus says that the Livonian werewolves were initiated by draining a cup of beer specially prepared, and repeating a set formula. Ralston in his Songs of the Russian People gives the form of incantation still familiar in Russia. Various expedients also existed for removing the beast-shape. The simplest was the act of the enchanter (operating either on himself or on a victim); another was the removal of the animal girdle. To kneel in one spot for a hundred years, to be reproached with being a werewolf, to be saluted with the sign of the cross, or addressed thrice by baptismal name, to be struck three blows on the forehead with a knife, or to have at least three drops of blood drawn were also effectual cures. In other cases the transformation was supposed to be accomplished by Satanic agency voluntarily submitted to, and that for the most loathsome ends, in particular for the gratification of a craving for human flesh. "The werewolves," writes Richard Verstegan (Restitution of Decayed Intelligence, 1628), "are certayne sorcerers, who having annoyted their bodies with an oyentment which they make by the instinct of the devil, and putting on a certayne enchanted girdle, doe not onely unto the view of others seeme as wolves, but to their owne thinking have both the shape and nature of wolves, so long as they wear the said girdle. And they doe dispose themselves as very wolves, in wourrying and killing, and most of humane creatures." Such were the views about lycanthropy current throughout the continent of Europe when Verstegan wrote. France in particular seems to have been infested with werewolves during the 16th century, and the consequent trials were very numerous. In some of the cases—e.g. those of the Gandillon family in the Jura, the tailor of Châlons and Roulet in Angers, all occurring in the year 1598,—there was clear evidence against the accused of murder and cannibalism, but none of association with wolves; in other cases, as that of Gilles Garnier in Dôle in 1573, there was clear evidence against some wolf, but none against the accused; in most cases, with one approach. When moral evidence was drawn there was no other readiness in the accused to confess and even to give circumstantial details of the metamorphosis, which is one of the most inexplicable concomitants of medieval witchcraft. Yet, while this lycanthropy fever, both of suspects and of suspected, was at its height, it was decided in the case of Jean Grenier at Bordeaux, in 1603, that lycanthropy was nothing more than an insane delusion. From this time the *loup-garou* gradually ceased to be regarded as a dangerous heretic, and fell back into his pre-Christian position of being simply a "man-wolf-fiend," who entertained heretical opinions. In Prussia, Livonia and Lithuania, according to the bishops Claus Magnus and Majolus, the werewolves were in the 16th century far more destructive than "true and natural wolves," and their heterodoxy appears from the assertion that they formed "an accused college" of those "desirous of innovations contrary to the divine law." In England, however, where at the beginning of the 17th century the punishment of witchcraft was still zealously prosecuted by James I., the wolf had been so long extinct that that pious monarch was himself able (Demonologie, lib. III.) to regard "warwooles" as victims of delusion induced by a "natural superabundance of melancholie." Only a few cases, such as the cat, the hare and the weasel, remained for the malignant sorcerer to transform himself into; but he was firmly believed to avail himself of these agencies. Belief in witch-animals still survives among the uneducated classes in parts of the United Kingdom.

The werewolves of the Christian dispensation were not, however, all heretics, all viciously disposed towards mankind. "According to Baronius, in the year 617, a number of wolves presented themselves at a monastery, and tore in pieces several friars who have been mentioned, as with the others mentioned, as giving special attention to this subject: Wier, De praestoipis daemonum (Amsterdam, 1653); Bodin, Demonomanie des sorciers (Paris, 1550); Bouquet, Discours des sorciers (Lyons, 2nd ed. 1668);
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Lancr. Tableau de l'inconstance de maires anges (Paris, 1613); Psellus, De operatione daemonum (Paris, 1615); see also Glanvil, Dictionarium triunphalum, for the English equivalents of lycanthropy. Treating solely confined to lycanthropy are rare both in medieval and in modern times; but a few are well known, as, for instance, those of Bouquet and Nynaud, De la lycanthropie (Paris, 1615). See also Lebuscher, Über die Werwölfe (1850); Grisebach, The Book of Werewolves (Stuttgart, 1862); Baring Gould, The Book of Were-wolves (London, 1886). Also the bibliography to Lycanthropy, and Andre, Ethnographische Parallelen, 2 ser., 62-80, Tyler, Primitive Culture, 1: 1; P. Schillot, Traditions de la Hesse-Breide, 1: 289.

(N. W. T.; J. F. M.L.)

WESEL JOHANN RUCHRAT VON (d. 1481), German theologian, was born at Oberwesel early in the 15th century. He appears to have been one of the leaders of the humanist movement in Germany, and to have had some intercourse and sympathy with the leaders of the Hussites in Bohemia. Erzur was in his day the headquarters of a humanism which was both devout and opposed to the rationalist and Thomist theology which prevailed in the universities of Cologne and Heidelberg. Wesel was one of the professors at Erfurt between 1445 and 1456, and was vice-rector in 1458. In 1460 he was appointed preacher at Mainz, in 1462 at Worms, and in 1479, when an old and worn-out man, he was brought before the Dominican inquisitor Gerhard Elten of Cologne. The charges brought against him took a theological turn, though they were probably prompted by dislike of his philosophical views. They were chiefly based on a treatise, De indultentia, which he had composed before the first two parts of the treatise, De potestate ecclesiastica. He died under sentence of imprisonment for life in the Augustinian convenl in Mainz in 1481.

It is somewhat difficult to determine the exact theological position of Wesel. Ullmann claims him as a "reformer before the Reformation," but, while he mastered the formal principle of Protestantism, that scripture is the sole rule of faith, it is more than doubtful that he had that experimental view of the doctrines of grace which lay at the basis of Reformation theology. He held that Christ is man's righteousness in so far as they are guided by the Holy Ghost, and the love towards God is shed abroad in their hearts, while clearly shows that he held the medieval idea that justification is an habitual grace implanted in men by the gracious act of God. He seems, however, to have protested against certain medieval ecclesiastical ideas which he held to be excrescences erroneously grafted on Christian faith and practice. He objected to the whole system of indulgences; he denied the infallibility of the church, on the ground that the church contains within it sinners as well as saints; he insisted that papal authority could be upheld only when the pope remained true to the evangel; and he held that a sharp division ought not to be drawn between ecclesiastical sentences and punishments, and the judgments of God.

The best account of Wesel is to be found in K. Ullmann's Reformers before the Reformation. His tract on Indulgences is published in Walch's Monumenta Medii Aevi, vol. 1, while a report of his trial is given in Ortin Gratius's Passiacis rerum exstipendiarum et fama famam (ed. by Brown, London, 1663); and d'Argent's Collectio juridicorum de novis erroribus (Paris, 1728). See also Otto Clemen's article in Herzog-Hauck's Realencyclopdäie fur Theol. und Kirche (3rd ed., Leipzig, 1908), xxii, 127.

WESEL, a fortress town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Westphalia at the confluence of the Rhine and the Lippe, 46 m. S. of Münster and 35 m. N.W. of Duisburg. Pop.(1905) 23,337 (45% Protestants), including a considerable garrison. There is a junction of five railway lines, and the Rhine is crossed by a large railway bridge and by a bridge of boats. The inner line of fortifications was razed in 1806, and the defensive works now consist only of the citadel and three detached forts, one of which, Fort Blücher, serves as a tête-de-pont on the left bank of the Rhine. Wesel contains some quaint old houses, and a town hall, dating from 1396, with an elaborate façade, and containing a valuable collection of old silver plate. The large Protestant church of St. Willibrord has a choir, built 1422-1526, which is one of the noblest Gothic structures on the Lower Rhine, and a modern nave (1892-96). The Mathena church dates from 1429-1477. The two Roman Catholic churches, the castle, now the commandant's house (built in 1417), the Berliner Tor—Berlin gate—built in 1722 and recently restored, the Lower-Rhenish museum of antiquities and the modern gymnasium and military hospital, are among the other chief buildings. Wesel carries on a considerable trade in grain, timber, colonial goods, tobacco, &c., facilitated by new harbour accommodation and wharves at the mouth of the Lippe. It has manufactures of wire, leaden pipes and other metal goods, cement, sugar, &c.

Wesel, formerly known as Lippermünde, was one of the points which Charlemagne directed his operations against the heathen Saxons. In 1366 it was invested by the Hanseatic league, and it became a flourishing commercial town, and though repeatedly subject to the counts of Cleves, was a member of the Hanseatic league, and as late as 1521 a free imperial city. It was occupied by the Spaniards in 1614, by the Dutch in 1629, by the French in 1672, also during the Seven Years' War, and in 1805, and was ceded to Prussia in 1814. A monument outside the town commemorates the deaths of Ferdinand von Schill's officers who were shot here on the 16th of September 1809 after their unsuccessful attempt at strabasburg. Wesel is occasionally spoken of as Unterwesel, to distinguish it from Oberwesel, a small town on the Rhine, above St. Goar.

See Gantesweiler, Chronik der Stadt Wesel (Wesel, 1883), and Reinhold, Verfassungsgeschichte Wesels (Breslau, 1888).

WESER (O. Ger. Visurach, Wisura, Lat. Visurgis), one of the chief rivers of Germany, formed by the union of the Weser and the Fulda, which branches into the right Prussian, and the left Hanseatic, Weser. Wesel, after flowing generally north and entering the North Sea below Bremerhaven, between Jade Bay and the estuary of the Elbe. The mouth is 170 m. from Münden, but the winding course of the river is 270 m. long; if the measurement be made from the source of the Werra, in the Thüringer Wald, the total length of the stream is 440 m. At Münden the river surface is 380 ft. above sea-level; the most rapid fall in its course is between Karlshafen and Münden in Westphalia. Nearly the entire course of the Weser lies in Prussia, but it also touches part of Brunswick and Lippe, and after flowing through Bremen expands into an estuary separating the duchy of Oldenburg from the Prussian province of Hanover. Between Münden and Stade its course lies through a picturesque valley flanked by irregular and disjointed ranges of hills (Reinhardswald, Sollingwald, Weser Hills, &c.); but after it emerges from these mountains by the narrow pass called the "Porta Westfalica," near Minden, its banks become flat and uninteresting. The breadth of the river varies from 110 yds. at Münden to 220 yds. at Minden, 230 yds. at Bremen, 14 m. at Ellisleth and 74 m. at its entrance into the sea.

The Weser on the whole is shallow, and navigation above Bremen is sometimes interrupted by drought. Until 1804 the fairway up to Bremen had a minimum depth of little over 8 ft.; thereafter important works were undertaken, the minimum depth was made 18 ft., and the importance of Bremen as a port was greatly enhanced. Boats of 350 tons can ascend generally as far as Münden. A system of waterways (the Geeste and Hadelner canals, meeting one another at Bedekess) connects the estuary of the Weser with that of the Elbe. A canal between the Hunte and the Leda gives connection with the Ems. On the upper Weser (above Bremen) the navigation, which is interrupted by occasional rapids, is assisted by locks and weirs. The principal navigable points on the right are the Ahrensee, Droptee, Lune and Geeste, and on the left the Diemel, Nethe, Emmer, Werra, Aue and Hunte. The Werra and Fulda are both navigable when they unite to form the Weser, the Fulda being canalsized between Casel and the town of Fulda for a distance of 172 m.; the Aller, Wümme, Geeste and Hunte are also navigable. Below the junction of the Hunte the Weser, hitherto a single stream, is divided into two large channels and several islands. The Weser drains a basin estimated at 18,630 sq. m.

The navigation of the Weser was long hampered by the various vexatious claims and rights of the different states through which its course passes, but the Great Powers in 1858 included the Werra and the Fulda, changed its ruler no less than thirty-five times on its way to the sea. In 1823, however, a treaty was established, fixing the line of demarcation between the main stream of the Weser and the Fulda, and the Weser further improved in 1856 and 1865; and when Prussia took possession of Hanover and Hesse-Nassau in 1866 the chief difficulties in the way of organizing the river-trade disappeared. The principal town on the Weser is Bremen. Other towns past which it flows
between Münden and the sea are Karlsfahen, Höxter, Holzminen, Bodenwerder, Hameln, Rinteln, Vlotho, Münden, Stolzenau, Nienburg, Vogezeack, Elisabeth, Brake, Geestemünde and Bremen. Wesley gave up his name to a department in the short-lived kingdom of Westphalia; the chief town was Osnabrück.

**WESLEY (FAMILY).** The Wesley family sprang from Wales, near Wells in Somerset. Their pedigree has been traced back to Guy, whom Athelstan made a thane about 938. One branch of the family settled in Ireland. Sir Herbert Wesley of Westleigh, Devon, married Elizabeth, daughter of William, who died in Ireland. Their third son, Bartholomew, studied both medicine and theology at Oxford, and, in 1699, married the daughter of Sir Henry Colley of Kildare. In 1660 he held the rectories of Catherston and Charmouth in Dorset valued at £35. 10s. per annum. He was ejected in 1662 and gained his living as a doctor. He was buried at Lyne Regis on February 17th, 1670.

His son, John Wesley, grandfather of the founder of Methodism, was born in 1676 and studied at New Inn Hall, Oxford, where he became proficient in Oriental languages and won the special regard of John Owen, then vice-chancellor of the university. Cromwell's trials annoyed him. He was appointed clergyman to the parish of Elsfleth, in Westphalia, in 1636, where he served as visiting chaplain to the family of Sir John Winterborn of Bremerhayen, near Hameln. Here he gained the name of the youngest of the four sons of his grandfather's curate. Within a year he was made a deacon of the English church in the town of Westphalia, and the town council gave him a pension.
Oxford, with an annual allowance of £40 as a Charterhouse scholar. His health was poor and he found it hard to keep out of debt, but he made good use of his opportunities. A scheme of study which he drew up for 1722 with a time-table for each day of the week is still to be seen in his earliest diary, which became the property of Mr George Stamped of Great Grimsby. The diary runs from April 5, 1725, to February 19, 1727. A friend describes Wesley at this time as "a young fellow of the finest classical taste, and the most liberal and manly sentiments." He was "gay and sprightly, with a turn for wit and humour."

The standard edition of Wesley's Journal (1909) has furnished much new material for this period of Wesley's life, the Rev. N. Curnock having unravelled the difficult cipher and shorthand in which Wesley's early diaries were kept. He reached the conclusion that the religious friend who directed Wesley's attention to the writings of Thomas à Kempis and Jeremy Taylor, in 1725, was Miss Betty Kirkham, whose father was rector of Stanton in Gloucestershire. Up to this time Wesley says he had no notion of inward holiness, but went on "habitually," in 1725, to attend the evening service at the church in Lincoln, and on the 17th of March 1726 was elected fellow of Lincoln. His private diaries, seven of which are in the hands of Mr Russell J. Colman of Norwich, contain monthly reviews of Wesley's reading. It covered a wide range, and he made careful notes and abstracts of it. He generally took breakfast or tea with some congenial friend and occasionally to discuss the deepest subjects. At the coffee house he saw the Spectator and other periodicals. He loved riding and walking, was an expert swimmer and enjoyed a game of tennis.

He preached frequently in the churches near Oxford in the months succeeding his ordination, and in April 1726 he obtained leave from his college to act as his father's curate. The new material in the Journal describes the simple matter of his life. He read plays, attended the village fairs, shot plovers in the fenland, and enjoyed a dance with his sisters. In October he returned to Oxford, where he was appointed Greek lecturer and moderator of the classes. He gained considerable reputation in the disputations for his master's degree in February 1727. He was now free to follow his own course of studies and began to lose his love for company, unless it were with those who were drawn like himself to religion. In August he returned to Lincolnshire, where he assisted his father till November 1729. During those two years he paid three visits to the university. In the summer of 1729 he was up for two months. Almost every evening found him with the little society which had gathered round Charles.

When he came into residence in November he was recognized as the father of the Holy Club. It met at first on Sunday evenings, then every evening was passed in Wesley's room or that of some other member. They read the Greek Testament and the classics; fasted on Wednesday and Friday; received the Lord's Supper every week; and brought all their life under review. In 1730 William Morgan, an Irish student, visited the gaol and reported that there was "no beholding any lawyer's work upon him in prison," he agreed to visit the Castle twice a week and to look after the sick in any parish where the clergyman was willing to accept their help. Wesley's spirit at this time is seen from his sermon on "The Circumcision of the Heart," preached before the university on the 1st of January 1733. In 1736 he said it "contains all that I now teach concerning salvation from all sin, and loving God with an undivided heart," and four years later this theology was "the key that opened the remainder of his income. He already displayed those gifts for leadership which were to find so conspicuous a field in the evangelical revival. John Gomblot, a member of the Holy Club, who afterward assumed the calling of a bishop, "has been the wife and nurse of every activity as to be always gaining ground, and so steadfastly that he lost none. What proposals he made to any were sure to charm them, because they saw him always the same." He wore an air of authority yet never lacked address or "assuming anything to himself above his contemporaries." William Law's books produced a great impression on Wesley, and on his advice the young tutor began to read mystic authors, but he saw that their tendency was to make good works appear mean and insipid, and he soon laid them aside.

Wesley had not yet found the key to the heart and conscience of his hearers. He says, "From the year 1729 I did not preach much, but saw no fruit to my labour. Indeed it could not be that I should; for I neither laid the foundation of repentance nor of preaching the Gospel, taking it for granted that all to whom I preached were educated in the religious and moral teaching of the Church. From the year 1729 to 1734, laying a deeper foundation of repentance, I saw a little fruit. But it was only a little; and no fruit of fruitfulness. If I did not preach from the pulpit, from 1734 to 1738, speaking more of faith in Christ, I saw more fruit of my preaching." Looking back on these days in 1777, Wesley felt "the Methodists at Oxford were all one body, and, as it were, one man, zealous for the religion of the Bible, of the Primitive Church, and, in consequence, of the Church of England; as they believed it to come nearer the scriptural and primitive plan than any other national church on earth." Almost every Methodist was small and probably never exceeding twenty-five. John Clayton, afterwards chaplain of the Collegiate Church of Manchester, who remained a strong High Churchman; James Hervey, author of Meditations among the Tombs, and Ithamar and Aspicia; Benjamin Ingham, who became the Yorkshire evangelist; and Thomas Broughton, afterwards secretary of the S.P.C.K., were members of the Holy Club, and George Whitefield joined it on the eve of the Wesley's arrival at Oxford.

Wesley's father died on April 25, 1735, and in the following October John and Charles took ship for Georgia, with Benjamin Ingham and Charles Delamotte. John was sent out by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and hoped to labour as a missionary among the Indians, but though he had many interesting conversations with them the mission was found to be impracticable. The cabin of the "Simmonds" became a study for the four Methodists. The calm confidence of their Moravian fellow-passengers amid the Atlantic storms contrasted with Wesley's restlessness. Wesley does not possess the faith which counts out fear. Closer acquaintance with these German friends in Savannah deepened the impression. Wesley needed help, for he was beset by difficulties. Mrs Hawkins and Mrs Welch poisoned the mind of Colonel Ogilthorpe against the brothers for a time. Wesley's attachment to Miss Hopkey also led to much pain and disappointment. All this is now seen more clearly in the standard edition of the Journal. Wesley was a stiff High Churchman, who scrupulously followed every detail of the rubrics. He insisted on baptizing children by trine immersion, and refused the Communion to a pious German because he had not been baptized by a minister who had been episcopally ordained. At the same time he was accused of "introducing into the church and service at the altar compositions of psalms and hymns not inspected or authorized by any proper judicature." The list of grievances presented by Wesley's enemies to the Grand Jury at Savannah gives abundant evidence of his unwearing labours for his flock. The foundation of his future work as the father of Methodist hymnody was laid in Georgia. His first Collection of Psalms and Hymns (Charlestown, 1737) contains five of his incomparable translations from the German, and on his return to England he published another Collection in 1738, with five more translations from the German and one from the Spanish. In April 1736 Wesley formed a little society of thirty or forty of the serious members of his congregation. He calls this the second rise of Methodism, the first being at Oxford in November 1729. The company in Savannah met every Wednesday evening "in order to a free conversation, begun and ended with singing and prayer." A select company of these met at the parsonage on Sunday afternoons. In 1781 he writes, "I cannot but observe that there were never first rudiments of the Methodist societies."

In the presence of such facts we can understand the significance of the mission to Georgia. Wesley put down many severe things against himself on the return voyage, and he saw afterwards that even then he had the faith of a servant though not that of a son. In London he met Peter Böhler who had been ordained by Zinzendorf for work in Carolina. By Böhler Wesley was convinced that he lacked "that faith whereby alone we are saved." On Wednesday, May 24, 1738, he went to a society meeting in Aldersgate Street where Luther's Preface to the Epistle to the Romans was being read. "About a quarter
before nine, while he was describing the change which God works in the heart through faith in Christ, I felt my heart strangely warmed. I felt I did trust in Christ, Christ alone, for salvation; and an assurance was given me that he had taken away my sins, even mine, and saved me from the law of sin and death." Mr Lecky points out the significance of that event. "It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that the scene which took place at that humble meeting in Aldersgate Street forms an epoch in English history. The conviction which then flashed upon one of the most powerful and most active intellects in England is the true source of English Methodism." (History of England in Eighteenth Century, ii. 559.)

In January, 1739, during the summer of 1738 in visiting the Moravian settlement at Herrnhuth and returned to London on September 16, 1738, with his faith greatly strengthened. He preached in all the churches that were open to him, spoke in many religious societies, visited Newgate and the Oxford prisons. On New Year's Day, 1739, the Wesleys, Whitefield and other friends had a Love Feast at Fetter Lane. In February Whitefield went to Bristol, where his popularity was unbounded. When the churches were closed against him he spoke to the Kingswood colliers in the open air, and after six months, when the Wesleyan could not take up the work. Wesley was in his friend's congregation on April 1, but says, "I could scarcely reconcile myself to this strange way of preaching in the fields... having been all my life (till very lately) so tenacious of every point relating to decency and order, that I should have thought the saving of souls almost a sin, if it had not been done in a church." Next day Wesley followed Whitefield's example. His fears and prejudices melted away as he discerned that this was the very method needed for reaching the multitudes living in almost heathen darkness. He already had the means of shepherding those who were impressed by the preaching. On the 21st of May 1738 he wrote in his journal: "This evening our little society began, which afterwards met in Fetter Lane." Among its "fundamental rules" we find a provision for dividing the society into bands of five or ten persons who spoke freely and plainly to each other as to the "real state" of their hearts. The bands united in a conference every Wednesday evening. The society first met at James Hutton's shop, "The Bible and Sun," Wild Street, west of Temple Bar. About the 25th of September it moved to Fetter Lane. Wesley describes this as the beginning of his "Methodism." After the field preaching began converts multiplied. They found all the world against them, and Wesley advised them to strengthen one another and talk together as often as they could. When he tried to visit them at their homes he found the task beyond him, and therefore invited them to meet him on Thursday evenings. This meeting was held in the end of 1739 at the Foundery in Moorfields which Wesley had just secured as a preaching place. Grave disorders had arisen in the society at Fetter Lane, and on the 25th of July 1740 Wesley withdrew from it. About 25 men and 42 women also left and cast in their lot with the society at the Foundery. The centenary of Methodism was kept in 1839, a hundred years after the society first met at the Foundery.

Wesley's headquarters at Bristol were in the Horse Fair, where a room was built in May 1739 for two religious societies which had been accustomed to meet in Nicholas Street and Baldwin Street. To meet the cost of this Captain Fox suggested that each member should give a penny per week. When it was urged that some were too poor to do this, he replied, "Then pay the cost of the room, or you are not in the cause." This was in gory of a movement they can n't do anything for. I will call on them weekly, and if they can give nothing I will give for them as well for myself." Others followed his example and were called leaders, a name given as early as the 5th of November 1738 to those who had charge of the bands in London. Wesley saw that here was the very means he needed to watch over his flock. The leaders thus became a body of lay pastors. Those under their care formed a class. It proved more convenient to meet together and this gave opportunity for religious conversation and prayer. As the society increased Wesley found it needed "still greater care to separate the precious from the vile." He therefore arranged to meet the classes himself every quarter and gave a ticket "under his own hand" to every one "whose seriousness and good conversation" he found no reason to doubt. The ticket furnished an easy means for guarding the meetings of the society against intrusion. "Bands" were formed for those who wished for closer communion. Love-feasts for fellowship and testimony were also introduced, according to the custom of the primitive church. Watchnight services were due to the suggestion of a Kingswood collier in 1740. Wesley issued the rules of the united societies in 1743. "Those who wished to enter the society must have "a desire to flee from the wrath to come, to be saved from their sins." When admitted they were to give evidence of their desire for salvation; "by doing no harm; by doing good of every possible sort; by attending upon all the means of grace." It was expected that all who could do so would contribute the penny a week suggested in Bristol, and give a shilling at the renewal of their quarterly ticket. Wesley had at first to take charge of the contributions, but as they grew larger he appointed stewards to receive the money, to pay debts, and to relieve the poor. Wesley himself stipulated that no person who had been a week before Wesley's field of labour was extended to the north of England in May 1742. He found Newcastle ripe for his message. English Christianity seemed to have no power to uplift the people. Dram-drinking was spreading like an epidemic. Freethinkers' clubs flourished. "The old religion," Lecky says, "seemed everywhere loosening round the minds of men, and indeed it had often no great influence even on its defenders." Some of the clergy in country parishes were devoted workers, but special zeal was not encouraged or discouraged.

The doctrine of election had led to a separation between Whitefield and the Wesleys in 1741. Wesley believed that the grace of God could transform every life that received it. He preached the doctrine of conscious acceptance with God and daily growth in holiness. Victory over sin was the goal which he set before all his people. He made his appeal to the conscience in the clearest language, with the most cogent argument, and with all the weight of personal conviction. Hearers like John Nelson felt as though every word was aimed at themselves. No preacher of the century had this mastery over his audience. His doctrine may be described as Evangelical Arminianism and its standards are his own four volumes of sermons and his Notes on the New Testament.

Up till 1742 Wesley's work was chiefly confined to London and Bristol, with the adjacent towns and villages or the places which lay between them. On his way to Newcastle that year Wesley visited Birrast, where John Nelson, the stone-mason, had already been working. On his return he held memorable services in the churchyard at Epworth. Methodism this year spread out from Birrast into the West Riding. Societies were also formed in Somerset, Wills, Gloucestershire, Leicester, Warwickshire, Nottinghamshire and the south of Yorkshire. In the summer Charles Wesley visited Wednesday, Leeds and Newcastle. Next year he took Cornwall by storm. The work in London was prospering. In 1743 Wesley secured a west-end centre at West Street, Seven Dials, which for fifty years had a wonderful history. In August 1747 Wesley paid his first visit to Ireland, where he had such success that he gave more than six years of his life to the country and crossed the Irish Channel forty-two times. Ireland has its own conference presided over by a delegate from the British conference. Wesley's first visit is said to have been on October 21. He paid twenty-two visits, which stirred up all the Scottish churches.

Such extension of his field would have been impossible had not Wesley been helped by a heroic band of preachers. Wesley says: "Joseph Hutton was the first lay preacher that assisted me in England, in the year 1738." That was probably help in the Fetter Lane Society, for Wesley then had no preaching place of his own. John Cennick, the hymn-writer and schoolmaster at Kingswood, began to preach there in 1739. Thomas Maxwell, who was left to meet and pray with the members at the Foundery during the absence of the Wesleys, began to preach. Wesley hurried to London to check this irregularity, but his mother urged him to hear Maxwell.
for himself, and he soon saw that such assistance was of the highest value. The autobiographies of these early Methodist preachers are among the classics of the Evangelical Revival. As the work advanced Wesley held a conference with his associates in 1744. Besides himself, and his brother, four other clergymen were present and four "lay brethren." It was agreed that "lay assistants" were allowable, but only in cases of necessity. This necessity grew more urgent every year. At last, in 1745, an organization was made for the purpose. The body was the "assistant," who had general oversight of the work, the others were "helpers." The conference became an annual gathering of Wesley's preachers. In the early conversations doctrine took the foremost place, but as his methods of preaching and its growing organization occupied more time and more attention.

In February 1784 Wesley's deed of declaration gave the conference a legal constitution. Wesley became president of the organization and the project was made more permanent. The executive was thus fortified. Every year we meet once a year, fill up vacancies in their number, appoint a president and secretary, station the preachers, admit proper persons into the ministry, and take general oversight of the societies. In October 1769 a Methodist chapel was opened in New York. At the conference of 1769 two preachers, Richard Boardman and Joseph Plumer, volunteered to go out to take charge of the work. In 1771, Francis Asbury, the Wesley of America, crossed the Atlantic. Methodism grew rapidly, and it became essential to provide for its people with the sacraments. In September 1784 Wesley ordained his clerical helper, Dr Coke, superintendent (or bishop), and instructed him to ordain Asbury as his assistant and prevent the growth of the church from being led astray. Wesley and Thomas Vasey were ordained by Wesley, Coke and Crockett to administer the sacraments in America. Wesley had reached the conclusion in 1746 that bishops and presbyters were essentially of one order (see Methodism, sect. "United States")

He told his brother in 1785: "I firmly believe that I am a scriptural υπερασπιστής as much as any man in England or in Europe; for the uninterrupted succession I know to be a fable, which no man ever did or can prove." Other orders for the administration of the sacraments in Scotland, the colonies and England followed. The interests of his work stood first with Wesley. He did everything that strong words against separation could do to bind his societies to the Church of England; he also did everything that legal documents and ordinances could do to secure the permanence of that great work for which God had raised him up. In the words of Canon Overton and Rev. F. H. Relton (Hist. of Eng. Ch. 1714-1800): "It is purely a modern notion that the Wesleyan movement ever was, or ever was intended to be, except by Wesley, a church movement." Despite his strong sayings, it was Wesley who broke the links to the church, for, as Lord Mansfield put it, "ordination is separation." Wesley's account of his itinerancy is given in his famous Journal, of which the first part appeared about 1730. Mr Birrell has called it "the most amazing record of human exertion ever penned by man." It is certainly Wesley's most picturesque biography and the most vivid account of the evangelical revival that we possess. The rapid development of his work made a tremendous strain upon Wesley's powers. He generally travelled about 5000 m. a year and preached fifteen sermons a week. He had constant encounters with the mob, but his tact and courage never failed. His rule was always to look a mob in the face. Many dreadful stories are told of his presence of mind and the skilful appeals which he made to the better feeling of the crowd.

Wesley's writings did much to open the eyes of candid men to his motives and his methods. Besides the incomparable Journal, his Apologies to Men of Reason and Religion also produced an extraordinary effect in allaying prejudice and winning respect. He constantly sought to educate his own people. No man in the 18th century did so much to create a taste for good living and to grow up in the way he had found. Sir Leslie Stephen pays high praise to Wesley's writings, which went "straight to the mark without one superfluous flourish." As a social reformer Wesley was far in advance of his time. He provided work for the deserving poor, supplied them with clothes and food in seasons of special distress. The profits on his cheap books enabled him to give away as much as £1400 a year. He established a lending stock to help struggling business men and did much to relieve debtors who had been thrown into prison. He opened dispensaries in London and Bristol and was keenly interested in medicine.

Wesley's supreme gift was his genius for organization. He was by no means ignorant of this. "I know this is the peculiar talent which God has given me." Wesley's special power lay in his quickness to avail himself of circumstances and of the suggestions made by those about him. The class-meeting, the love-feast, the watch-night, the covenant service, leaders, stewards, lay preachers, all were the fruit of this readiness to avail himself of suggestions made by men or events. Wesley skilfully wove these into his system, and kept the whole machinery moving harmoniously. He inspired his preachers and his people with his own spirit and made everything subordinate to his overarching purpose, the spread of scriptural holiness throughout the land.

In 1751 Wesley married Mary Vazeille, a widow, but the union was unfortunate and she finally left him. John Fletcher, the vicar of Madeley, to whom Wesley had turned as a possible successor, died in 1785. He had gone to Wesley's help at West Street after his ordination at Whitehall in 1757 and had been one of his chief allies ever since. He was beloved by all the preachers, and his Checks to Antinomianism show that he was a courteous controversialist. Charles Wesley died three years after Fletcher. John Wesley died on 25th April 1791, after a life of usefulness and labor. He had reaped the harvest he had sown. Honours were lavished upon him. His people hailed every appearance among them with delight, and his visits to various parts of the country were public holidays. His interest in everything about him continued unabated. He had a wealth of happy stories which made him the most delightful of companions in the homes of his people. Robert Southey never forgot how Wesley kissed his little sister and put his hand on her head and blessed him. Alexander Knox says, "So fine an old man I never saw! The happiness of his mind bemedled forth in his countenance. Every look showed how fully he enjoyed "The gay remembrance of a life well spent." Wherever Wesley went, he diffused a portion of his own felicity." He preached his last sermon in Mr. Belson's house at Leatherhead on Wednesday, the 23rd of February 1791; wrote next day his last letter to Welburn, urging him to carry on his crusade against the slave trade; and died in his house at City Road on the 2nd of March 1791, in his eighty-eighth year. He was buried on the 9th of March in the graveyard behind City Road chapel. His long life enabled him to perfect the organization of Methodism and to inspire his preachers and people with his own ideals, while he had conquered opposition by unwavering patience and by close adherence to the principles which he sought to teach.

See also Methodism, and the articles on the separate Methodist bodies; see also Wesley Family (J. T.)

WESLEY, SAMUEL (1766-1837), English musical composer, son of Charles Wesley (see above), was born at Bristol on the 24th of November 1766, and developed so precociously a talent for music that at three years old he played the organ and at eight composed an oratorio entitled Ruth—a fact which is duly chronicled on a curious portrait, painted in 1774, and afterwards engraved, wherein he is represented in the childlike costume of the period. Though suffering for many years from an accidental injury to the brain, Wesley was long regarded as the most brilliant organist and the most accomplished extempore fugue-player in England. He may indeed be regarded as the father of modern organ-playing, for he it was who, aided by his friends Benjamin Jacob and C. F. Horn, first introduced the works of Sebastian Bach to English organists, not only by his superb playing, but by editing with Horn, in 1810, the first copy of Das wohltemperirte Clavier ever printed in England. Wesley's last performance took place on the 12th of September 1837 at Christ Church, Newgate Street, London, where, after hearing the wonderful performances of Mendelssohn, he was himself induced to play an extempore fugue. He died on the 11th of October 1837, leaving a vast number of MS. and printed compositions.

His brother Charles (1757-1815) was also an accomplished organist, and still more famous was his son, Samuel Sebastian (q.v.).

WESLEY, SAMUEL SEBASTIAN (1810-1876), English composer and organist, natural son of Samuel Wesley, the eminent composer, was born in London on the 14th of August 1810.
was one of the Children of the Chapel Royal from 1819, held various unimportant posts as organist from the age of fifteen, and in 1832 was appointed to Hereford Cathedral. His career as a composer began with his splendid anthem, "The Wilderness," which was probably written for the opening of the Hereford organ in that year. In 1834 it fell to him to conduct the Festival of the Three Choirs, and in the following year he resigned Hereford for Exeter Cathedral; and during the next six years his name became gradually more and more widely known. In 1842 Dr Hook, afterwards dean of Chichester, offered him a large salary to become organist of Leeds parish church, and at Leeds much of his finest work as a composer was done. In 1849 he quitted this post for Winchester, and the pecuniary advantages for his sons. He was at Winchester until 1863, when he offered himself as a candidate for Gloucester Cathedral, the last of his many posts. He again conducted the Three Choirs Festivals of 1865, 1868, 1871 and 1874. A civil list pension of £30 a year was conferred on him in 1873; he died at Gloucester on the 10th of April 1876, and was buried at Exeter.

Like his father he was a very eccentric man; but his compositions show powers that are found in very few Englishmen of his date. If the Works of the Younger Wesley is a small book of his best work, are far more important and more extensive than most compositions elsewhere. He was a man of large proportion, and the talents of his life are not so much after his face. But even the compositions from which we make up an anthems of ordinary length. They are masterly in design, fine in inspiration and expression, and noble in character. His "Blessed be the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ," "already thou hast," "Ascribe unto the Lord," "O Lord, Thou art my God," and many others, are masterpieces in their way, and in all of these, as in the service in E., published with a rather trenches preface in 1845, there is a happy combination of resources of harmony with the tempered cathedral style, a combination which naturally alarmed the orthodox party of his time.

**WESLEYAN METHODIST CHURCH**, one of the chief branches of Methodism (q.v.). On the day of John Wesley's death the preachers in London sent a brief note to those stationed in the country. "Dear Brother, The melancholy period we have so long dreaded is now arrived. Our aged and honoured Father, Mr Wesley, is no more! He was taken to Paradise this morning, in a glorious manner, after a sickness of five days. We have not time to say more at present relative to his Demise. Only what respects out future Oeconomy. This injunction he laid upon us, and all our Brethren on his death-bed, That we each continue in our respective Station till the time appointed for the next Conference at Manchester. We have, therefore, no doubt but you will, with us, readily comply with his Dying Request. The more so, as this is consonant with the determination of the Conference held at Bristol when he was supposed to be near death there, and confirmed in succeeding Conferences."

In 1790 there were 294 preachers and 71,665 members in Great Britain, 19 missionaries and 5300 members on the mission stations; 198 preachers and 43,625 members in the United States. The 6th of April was kept as a day of fasting and prayer, and the 1st of July was thus set apart in order to seek divine guidance for the approaching conference. The crisis was serious. The large proportion of Wesley's members had been gathered by the preachers of his own sect. He had been taught to observe the sacraments and naturally desired that provision should be made for their administration in their own chapels. Some felt that they could not go to the Lord's Table where the clergyman was a worldly man; others went, but with much fear and doubt. The Church party was influential and resolute to maintain close relations with the Church of England. Their object was to prevent Methodism becoming independent. There was also a small but determined party that leaned to dissent. The struggle between these conflicting tendencies soon began. On the 30th of March 1791 nine preachers sent out the famous Halifax circular making suggestions as to the choice of president and other matters that must come before the conference. The first signature to this circular was that of William Thompson who was afterwards elected as the first president. On the 4th of May eighteen laymen met at Hull and expressed their conviction that the usefulness of Methodism would be promoted by its continued connection with the Church of England. They would not consent to the administration of the sacraments by the preachers in Hull, nor to Methodist preaching at the time when Wesley's preachers held in church. A trenchant reply to this circular was prepared by Alexander Kilham (q.v.), one of the younger Methodist preachers.

The conference met in Manchester on the 26th of July 1791. A letter from Wesley (dated Chester, April 7, 1785) was read, beseeching the members of the Legal Conference not to use their powers for selfish ends but to be absolutely impartial in stationing the preachers, selecting boys for education at Kingswood School, and disposing of connexional funds. The conference at once resolved that all privileges conferred by Wesley's Poll Deed should be accorded to every preacher in full connexion. To supply the lack of Wesley's supervision the circuits were now grouped together in districts. At first the preachers of the district elected their own chairman, but they were afterwards appointed by the conference. Regulations as to its business were issued in 1812. As to the sacraments and the relations of Methodism to the Church of England the decision was: "We engage to follow strictly the plan which Mr Wesley left us." This was ambiguous and was interpreted variously. Some held that it forbade the administration of the sacraments outside the Church; others they might be administered in the Church. But that it left Methodism free to follow the leadings of Providence as Wesley had always done. During the year the difficulties of the situation became more apparent. Wesley had given the sacrament to the societies when he visited them and this privilege was greatly missed. The conference of 1792 was so much perplexed that it resorted to the casting of lots. The decision was thus reached that the sacraments should not be administered that year. This was really shelving the question, but it gave time for opinion to ripen, and in 1793 it was resolved by a large majority that "the societies should have the privilege of the Lord's Supper in the forms which, in the Conference's opinion, were most calculated to promote the most genuine and useful spirit of devotion and love in the meetings for the administration of the Lord's Supper, so far as the same may be conducted by the preachers, unless a majority of the trustees, stewards and leaders of any chapel approved, and assured the conference that no separation was likely to ensue. The consent of conference had to be given before any change was made.

In 1796, Alexander Kilham, who refused to abstain from agitation for further reform, and accused his brethren of priestcraft, was expelled from their ranks and the New Connexion was formed with 5000 members (see METHODIST NEW CONNECTION). The conference of 1797 set itself to remove any ground for distrust among the societies and to enlist their hearty support in all branches of the work. Annual accounts were to be published of various funds. The Circuit Quarterly Meeting had to approve the arrangements for the support of the preachers. The preachers had long been accustomed to consult the leader's meetings of their societies, but it was now clearly decided that stewards and leaders should be appointed in connexion with the leaders' meeting, and certain rights were granted to that meeting as to the admission and expulsion of members. Local preachers had to be accepted by the local preachers' meeting, and the powers of trustees of chapels were considerably extended. The constitution of Methodism thus practically took the shape which it retained till the admission of lay representatives to conference in 1878. No period in the history of Methodism was more critical than this, and in none was the prudence and good sense of its leaders more conspicuous. Advance was quietly made along the lines now laid down. The preachers had agreed in 1793 that all distinction between those
whom Wesley had ordained and their brethren should cease. In the minutes of conference for 1818 "Rev." appears before the names of preachers who were members of the Missionary Committee. Jabez Bunting (q.v.), who had become the acknowledged leader of the conference, wished to have its young ministers set apart by the imposition of hands, but this scriptural custom was not introduced till 1836.

Meanwhile, Methodism was growing into a great missionary church. Its work in the West Indies was firmly established in Wesley's lifetime. In 1786 eleven hundred negroes were received into the society in the island of Barbadoes, and the number of superintending these missions and providing funds for them had so far retarded on Dr Coke, who took his place as the missionary bishop of Methodism. In 1813 he prevailed on the conference to sanction a mission to Ceylon. He sailed with six missionaries on the 30th of December, but died in the following May in the Indian Ocean. To meet these new responsibilities a branch Missionary Society had been formed in Leeds in October 1813, and others soon sprang up in various parts of the country. The Centenary of the Missionary Society falls in 1913, but Mr T. E. Mort, Miss Mort's really date from 1766 when Dr Coke landed at Antigua. The American missions were opened in 1791, and Missions were begun in Madras, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Australia, and on the west coast of Africa. Two missionaries were sent to the Friendly Islands in 1826, and in 1835 a mission was undertaken among the cannibals of Fiji, which spread and deepened till the whole group of islands was transformed. The work in China began in 1831: the Burma mission was established in 1837. The rapid progress of the Transvaal and Swaziland missions has been almost embarrassing. The Missionary Jubilee in 1863-68 yielded £179,000 for the work abroad. As the growth of these missions permitted conferences have been formed in various countries. Upper Canada had its conference in 1834, France in 1852, Australia in 1855, South Africa in 1882. The missionary revival which marked the Nottingham Conference of 1906 quickened the interest at home and abroad and the Foreign Field (monthly) is prominent among missionary periodicals. The Women's Auxiliary, founded in 1858, kept its jubilee in 1908. It supports schools and medical missions, homes and orphanages. In 1828 the erection of an organ in Brunswick Chapel, Leeds, led to a violent agitation and a small body of Wesleyan Methodists, dissenting from the church, came away. This division was led by Dr Warren, a preacher of ability and influence, who was disappointed because no place was found for him in the newly-formed Theological Institution. He tried to awaken general opposition to the Institution scheme, and being suspended from his office as superintendent by a special district meeting, appealed to the law courts, which sustained the action of the district meeting. He was expelled from the conference and joined the Wesleyan Methodist Association in 1836, but shortly afterwards became a clergyman in Manchester. In his first conference in 1744 Wesley asked, "Can we have a seminary for labourers?" The answer was: "If God spare us to another Conference." Next year the subject was broached with the reply: "Not till God give us a proper tutor." The idea was not realized in his lifetime, but Wesley did everything in his power to train his preachers. He gathered them together and read with them as he had done with his pupils at Oxford; he urged them to spend at least five hours a day in reading the best books. He made this challenge, "I will give each of you, as fast as you will read them, books to the value of £5." In 1834 Hebdale Academy was taken as a training place for ministers; and in 1839 the students moved to Abney House, Stoke Newington. Didsbury College was opened in 1843, Richmond in 1843. Headingley was added in 1868, Handsworth in 1881.

The Centenary of Methodism was celebrated in 1839 and £221,939 was raised as a thank-offering; £71,600 was devoted to the colleges and schools; £75,000 was given to the missionary society, which spent £50,000 on a new building for the Abney House in Bishopsgate Within; £38,000 was set apart for the removal of chapel debts, &c.

Methodism was now recognized as one of the great moral and spiritual forces of the world. Its progress was rapid, but in 1849 there came a disastrous check. There was much jealousy of Dr Bunting, the master mind of Methodism, to whose foresight and wisdom large part of its success was due. Fly-sheets were issued attacking him and other eminent ministers. James Everett, Samuel Dunn and William Griffith were expelled from the ministry, and an attempt was made to prevent them from meeting till a large debt had been paid. Those who now led the Connexion joined the reformers of 1838 and 1836 and formed the Methodist Free Churches. In 1852 the Missions of the Connexion were reorganized by the Methodist New Connexion, and the June Quarterly Meeting obtained the right to approve conference with memorials. Various other provisions were made which increased confidence. It was not till 1856 that the Connexion began to show signs of recovery from the shock. The following year, 1857, the New Connexion was dissolved, and the June Quarterly Meeting obtained the right to approve conference with memorials. Various other provisions were made which increased confidence.

Methodism began its work for popular education in a very modest way. In 1837 it had nine infant schools and twenty-two schools for children. A grant of £5000 was made from the Centenary Fund for the provision of Wesleyan day schools. In 1844 the Connexion, under the direction of 1843, directed that greater attention must be given to this department, and a committee met in the following October which selected 700 schools for the next seven years, and an Education Fund raised of £5000 a year. In 1849 the Normal Training College for the education of day-school teachers was opened at Westminster, and in 1872 a second college was opened in Battersea for school-mistresses. Westminster provides for 120 and Southlands for 110 students. They supply teachers not only for Wesleyan, but for council schools all over the Kingdom. They have also received grants from the various day-schools. Methodism possesses the Lexden Schools, Castle Hill, Mount at Colwyn Bay and prosperous boarding-schools for boys and girls in many parts of the country.

Methodism has also done much work in the army. Dr William Harris Rule (1802-1890), who was appointed chaplain at Gibraltar in 1832, won for it fuller recognition from the authorities. Charles H. Kelly, his colleague at Aldershot, and R. W. Allen had been at Blackheath during the war, and were in the army. When the army and the navy was developed. Capitation grants have made it possible to organize the work at every station at home and abroad. The work of the army and navy carried on by soldiers is done, to a great extent, by the men. The service done by Methodist chaplains in war time, and especially in the Boer War, won the warmest recognition from the authorities.

Laymen were introduced into the Wesleyan conference. They had been members of the committee appointed in 1803 to "guard our privileges in these perilous times," and had gradually taken their place on the missionary and other committees. Circuit and district meetings were increased, and the laymen's right to attend and their right to attend was established. Some of the Annuity Committee were created in 1819 and the financial business of each district soon came under its control. Out of the Annual Home Missionary gathering sprang a system of committees of review which, in 1852, James H. Rigg suggested might be enlarged and combined into a kind of diet composed of representatives of all the classes and levels of society. This was called the Commission, which was composed of 300 ministers and 300 laymen. In 1892 the district meeting became known as the District Synod, and in 1893 the circuits began to choose representatives to the Synod in addition to the circuit stewards. The great advance in organization made with such peace and goodwill was commemorated in 1878 by the Thanksgiving Fund which reached £297,500. Dr Rigg, the president of that year, put £2000 into the movement, and every department of Methodist work at home and abroad showed the benefits of the fund.

The Forward Movement in Methodism dates from that period. A bolder policy won favour. Methodism realized its strength and position. Its work in the colonies. The Missions to Africa. Methodist missions to India were founded in 1819. The President of the Missionary Committee, the Rev. Peter Thompson was sent to work in the East End. Next year the Revs. Hugh Price Hughes and Mark Guy Pearson began the West London Mission. Every succeeding year has seen a rapid development of the work. Missions have been built in the principal towns of England, Scotland and Ireland. Great congregations have been gathered, and the work done for uplifting the fallen and outcast has earned the gratitude of all good men. The Manchester mission is regarded as one of the glories of that city. The Forward Movement will always be associated with the name of Hugh Price Hughes (q.v.). Village Methodism shared in this development, and has increased in numbers and in the large towns. Chapels which had been closed were reopened; an entrance was found into many new villages. Weak circuits were grouped together and gained energy and development. Methodism was behind the Home Mission of that National Children's Home and Orphanage founded by Dr Bowman Stephenson in 1869. Its headquarters are in Bethnal Green, but it has branches in various parts of the country. It cares not only for waifs and strays, but for cripples and delicate children. Orphans of respectable parents have a home at Birmingham,
and the reformatory school has done splendid service for lads who have committed a first offence. Dr A. E. Gregory, who in 1900 succeeded Dr Stephenson, has seen remarkable progress in all departments of the great institution under his care. Sir Simon Relton, who was a training and home at Ilkeley, founded by Dr Stephenson in 1902, also has done much to help in these modern developments of Methodism.

The Chapel Committee, which has its headquarters in Manchester, has a staff of over 250 and a total weekly attendance of about twenty-five millions. The number of Methodist chapels in 1818 was 2000; in 1839, 3500; in 1890, 8666. The sitting increased from a million in 1851 to about 2,375,000. The total expenditure of the society in that period has been about twenty millions. Debts amounting to £2,266,013 have been paid off since 1854. More than half a million has been advanced in loans and of this nothing has been paid off, the whole amount is still outstanding and of this £892,114 was contributed. London Methodism owes more than can be told to the Metropolitan Chapel Building Fund which was founded in 1861. The names of the Rev. Williams and Sir Francis Lyttel, Sir W. N. M'Arthur, will always be associated with this fund which has promoted the erection of some hundred new chapels. The Extension Fund, established in 1872, largely by the help of Sir Francis Lyttel and Mr M'Arthur, has done more for the churches in the villages and country. About two thousand chapels have been assisted with grants and loans. Similar work has been done in Scotland by a fund established in 1878. North and South Wales also have benefited by this extension fund. A secretary and committee were appointed in 1905 to carry out these developments of work in London. The work of the Metropolitan Chapel Building Fund and the London Mission is taken over by this new committee.

In the case of Sunday schools which began to spring up all over England in the last years of the life of Wesley, the first rules for the management of Methodist Sunday schools were issued by the Conference in 1827. In 1857 there were 3,339,160 scholars in 953,614 schools. A quarter of the preaching places, however, had no schools. The Education Committee was formed in 1838 to take oversight of the work of the Methodist Sunday School Union, which was founded in 1873, was formed into a department in 1897 and is doing much to guide and develop the work. The Temperance Committee was formed in 1875; a temperance secretary was set apart in 1880 and the temperance work has been conducted by a committee in Westminster. The Wesley Guild Movement, established in 1901, has its headquarters in Leeds and is doing a great work for the young people of Methodism.

The date of his death was kept in 1891. Memorable services were held in City Road Chapel, which was restored and rendered more worthy of its historic position. Wesley's station was placed in the foreground. In 1898 the rooms in Wesley's house, where for country and urban villages. About two thousand chapels have been assisted with grants and loans. Similar work has been done in Scotland by a fund established in 1878. North and South Wales also have benefited by this extension fund. A secretary and committee were appointed in 1905 to carry out these developments of work in London. The work of the Metropolitan Chapel Building Fund and the London Mission is taken over by this new committee.

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arranged, so that it is not possible to single out any one as the centre of the whole system. The authority of the Bible Wesselin would support when necessary, not by the priest but by the divinity professor. His views on the sacraments anticipated those of Zwingli rather than Luther.

See Vita Wesseli Groningensis, by Albert Hardenberg, published in an incomplete form in the preface to Wesselin's collected works (Amsterdam, 1611; this preface also contains extracts from the work, and is in the handwriting of a writer who had evidently read a text of Wesselin). W. Murerling, Com. Hist. Theol. de Wesseli Gansfortii vita, &c. (1831); K. Ullmann, Reformers before the Reformation (the second edition in German is a second, but larger edition of a previous work entitled Johann Wesselin, ein Vorgänger Luther's (1834); J. Friedrich, Johann Wesselin, ein Bild aus der Kirchengeschichte Luthers &c. (1823); A. Rischel, History of the Reformers, Justification and Reconciliation (Edinburgh, 1872); J. J. Doedes, "Hist.-literarisches zur Biographie J. Wesseli," in Theol. Studien und Kritiken (1870).

WESSELNYI—WESSEX

WESSELNYI, MIKLÓS, BARON (1766-1850), Hungarian statesman, son of Baron Miklós Wesselényi and Iolna Cseréi, was born at Zátó, and was educated at his father's castle by Mózes Pataky in the most liberal and patriotic direction. In 1823 he permanently entered public life and made the acquaintance of Count Stephen Széchenyi whom he became one of the leaders of the liberal movement in the Upper House. In 1833 appeared his Balitólelek (Prejudices), which was for long a prohibited book. He was the foremost leader of the Opposition at the diet of 1834, and his freely expressed opinions on land-redemption, together with his efforts to give greater publicity to the debates of the diet by printing them, involved him in three ill-advised revolutionary propositions. He was imprisoned at Gräfenberg, whither he had gone to be cured of an eye trouble, and two years later became quite blind. Subsequently he did much for agriculture, children's homes and the introduction and extension of the silk industry in Hungary. The events of 1848 brought him home from a long residence abroad, but he was no longer the man he had been, and soon withdrew again to Gräfenberg. He died on the 21st of April 1850, on his way back to Hungary.

See Perencze Szilágyi, Life and Career of Baron Nicholas Wesselényi the Younger (Hun. Budapest, 1876).

WESSEX, one of the kingdoms of Anglo-Saxon Britain. The story of its origin is given in the Saxon Chronicle. According to this the kingdom was founded by two princes, Cerdic, and Cynric his son, who landed in 494 or 495 and were followed by other settlers in 501 and 514. After several successful battles against the Welsh they became kings in 510. Very few of the localities connected with the story of these kingdoms can be identified with certainty, but such identifications as there are point to the southern part of Hampshire. In 530 Cerdic and Cynric are said to have conquered the Isle of Wight, which they gave to two of their relatives, Stuf and Whittac. Cynric died in 534. Cynric defeated the Britons at Salisbury in 535 and again in conjunction with his son Cælin at Beranbrough, probably Barbury Hill, in 536. At his death in 540 he was succeeded by Cælin, who is mentioned by Bede as the second of the English kings to hold an imperium in Britain. With him we enter upon a period not perhaps of history, but at least of more or less reliable tradition. How far the earlier part of the story deserves credence has been and still is much debated. At all events no value can be attached to the dates given in the Chronicle. The preface to this work places Cerdic's assumption of the sovereignty six years after his landing, that is, in the year 500, and assigns him a reign of sixteen years, which makes his death fall eighteen years before 534, the date recorded in the annals. Again, while the annals record Cælin's accession in 540 and his expulsion in 542, the preface with other early authorities assigns him a reign of only seven years. Another noticeable discrepancy is, in the Chronicle and elsewhere, represent Cynric as grandson of Cerdic and son of a certain Creoda. Suspicion likewise attaches to the name Cerdic, which seems to be Welsh, while we learn from Bede that the Isle of Wight, together with part at least of the Hampshire coast, was colonized by Jutes, who apparently had a kingdom distinct from that of Wessex. For these reasons the story of the foundation of Wessex, though it appears to possess considerable antiquity, must be regarded as open to grave suspicion. It is worthy of note that the dynasty claimed to be of the same origin as the royal house of Bernicia and that two of Cerdic's ancestors, Freawine and Wig, figure in the story of Vermund, king of Angel.

Whatever may be the truth about the origin of the kingdom, and it is by no means impossible that the invasion really proceeded from a different quarter, we need not doubt that its dimensions were largely increased under Cælin. In his reign the Chronicle mentions two great victories over the Welsh, one at a place called Bedicanford in 571, by which Aylesbury and the upper part of the Thames valley fell into the hands of the West Saxons, and another at Deorham in 577, which led to the capture of Gloucester, Bath and Gloucester. Cælin is also said to have defeated Æthelberht at a place called Wilcombain (possibly Wimbledon) in 568. In 592 he was expelled and died in the following year. Of his successors Ceol and Ceawlin we know little though the latter is said to have been engaged in constant warfare. Ceawlin was succeeded in 611 by Cynewigis, whose son Cwichelm provoked a Northumbrian invasion by the attempted murder of Edwin in 626. These kings are also said to have come into collision with the Mercian king Penda, and it is probable that the province of the Hwicae (g.) was lost in their reign. With the death of the Mercian king Æthelberht, who was not Cynewigis's daughter, to the throne of Northumbria, both Cynewigis and Cwichelm were baptized. Cynewigis was succeeded in 642 by his son Cenwalh, who married and subsequently divorced Penda's sister and was on that account expelled by that king. After his return he gained a victory over the Welsh near Pen-selwood, by which a large part of Somerset came into his hands. In 661 he was again attacked by the Mercians under Wulhere. At his death, probably in 573, the throne is said to have been held for a year by his widow Seaxburh, who was succeeded by Aescwine, Cynewigis's daughter, and Cenwalh's wife. Cynewigis, however, the kingdom was in a state of disunion from the death of Cenwalh to the accession of Ceawlin in 685, which greatly increased its prestige and conquered the Isle of Wight, the inhabitants of which he treated with great barbarity. After a brief reign Ceawlin went to Rome, where he was baptized, and died shortly afterwards, leaving the kingdom to Ine. By the end of the 7th century a considerable part at least of Devonshire as well as the whole of Somerset and Dorset seems to have come into the hands of the West Saxons. On the resignation of Ine in 756, the throne was obtained by Æthelheard, apparently his brother-in-law, who had to submit to the Mercian king Æthelberht, whom he seems to have been attacked in 733. Cuthred, who succeeded in 740, at first acted in concert with Æthelbeald, but revolted in 752. At his death in 736 Ægberht succeeded. The latter, however, on account of his misgovernment was deserted by most of the leading nobles, and with the exception of Hampshire the whole kingdom came into the hands of Cynwulf. Ægberht, after putting to death the last of the princes who remained faithful to him, was driven into exile and subsequently murdered, but vengeance was afterwards taken on Cynwulf by his brother Cynewigis. Cynwulf was succeeded in 796 by Bertric, who married Eadburg, daughter of the Mercian king Offa. Her violent and murderous conduct led to the king's death in 802; and, it is said, caused the title of queen to be denied to the wives of later kings. Bertric was succeeded by Ægberht (q.v.), the chief event of whose reign was the overthrow of the Mercian king Beorhnoth in 825, which led to the establishment of West Saxon supremacy and to the annexation of Wessex, Sussex, Surrey, Kent and Essex.

Æthelward (q.v.), son of Ægberht, succeeded to the throne of Wessex after the murder of Æthelnoth in 839, while the eastern provinces went to his son or brother Æthelstan. A similar division took place on Æthelwald's death between his two sons Æthelred and Æthelberht, but on the death of the former in 858 Æthelberht united the whole in his own hands, his younger brothers Æthelred and Alfred renouncing their claims. Æthelberht was succeeded in 865 by Æthelred, and the latter by Alfred in 871. This was the period of the great Danish invasion which culminated
in the submission of Guthrum in 878. Shortly afterwards the kingdom of the Mercians came to an end and their leading earl, Æthelred accepted Alfred's overlordship. By 886 Alfred's authority was admitted in all the provinces of England which were not under Danish rule. From this time onwards the history of Wessex is the history of England.

**Kings of Wessex.**

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of Harvard College, made in 1639 and revoked in 1660 by the General Court of Massachusetts). In 1717 this part of Marlboro, with other lands, was erected into the township of Westboro, to which parts of Sutton (1726), Shrewsbury (1726 and 1732) and Upton (1753) were subsequently annexed, and from which Northboro was separated in 1766.

WEST BROMWICH, a market town and municipal, county and parliamentary borough of Staffordshire, England, 6 m. N.W. of Birmingham, on the northern line of the Great Western railway. Pop. (1851) 59,338, (1901) 65,175. The appearance of the town, like its growth as an industrial centre of the Black Country, is modern. It is, however, of ancient origin; thus the church of All Saints, formerly St Clement, was given by Henry I. to the convent of Worcester, from which it passed to the priors of Sandwell, who rebuilt it in the Decorated period, the present structure (1872) following their plan. The chief public buildings are the town hall (1875), the Institute (1886), providing instruction in science and art, under the corporation since 1894, the free library (1874) and law-courts (1891). The picturesque Oak House, of the 16th century, was opened as a museum and art gallery in 1898. Among schools is one for pauper children in which engineering, baking, spade-husbandry, &c., are taught. Sandwell Hall, formerly a seat of the earls of Dartmouth, contains a school for daughters of clergymen, &c. The house, standing in pleasant wooded grounds, is on the site of the Benedictine priory of Sandwell, founded in the time of Henry II. There are charities founded by the families of Stanley and Whorwood (1613 and 1614). Dartmouth Park is a recreation ground of about 60 acres; others are Farley, Kenwick and Hill Top Park. Numerous mines work the extensive coalfields, which include a thirty-foot seam. There are large iron and brass foundries and smelting furnaces, and malting and brickmaking are carried on. The parliamentary borough returns one member. The town is governed by a mayor 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 4,880 acres.

WESTBROOK, a city of Cumberland county, Maine, U.S.A., on the Presumpscot river, 3 m. N.W. of Portland. Pop. (1890) 66,32, (1900) 72,83 (1673 foreign-born), (1910) 8,281. It is served by the Maine Central and the Boston & Maine railways. In Westbrook are the Walker Memorial Library (1894) and the Warren Library (1879). The river provides water-power, and among the manufactures are paper, silks, cotton goods, &c. In 1814 Westbrook was separated from Falmouth and incorporated as a town, with the name of Westbrook, and in 1815 the present name was adopted in honor of Colonel Thomas Westbrook, who had distinguished himself in wars with the Indians. In 1871 Deering, now a part of Portland, was taken from the township. A city charter was granted to Westbrook in 1889 and adopted in 1891.

WESTBURY, RICHARD BETHELL, 1ST BARON (1800–1873), lord chancellor of Great Britain, was the son of Dr Richard Bethell, and was born at Bradford, Wilt. Taking a high degree at Oxford in 1818, he was elected a fellow of Waltham College. In 1823 he was called to the bar at the Middle Temple. On attaining the dignity of queen's counsel in 1830 he rapidly took the foremost place at the Chancery bar and was appointed vice-chancellor of the county palatine of Lancaster in 1831. His most important public service was the reform of the then existing mode of legal education, a reform which ensured that students before call to the bar should have at least some acquaintance with the elements of the subject which they were to profess. In 1831 he obtained a seat in the House of Commons, where he continued to sit, first as member for Aylesbury, then as member for Wolverhampton, and in 1846 was returned as member for Westminster. On being called to the liberals, he became solicitor-general in 1832 and attorney-general in 1856 and again in 1859. On June 26, 1861, on the death of Lord Campbell, he was created lord high chancellor of Great Britain, with the title of Baron Westbury of Westbury, county Wilts. The ambition of his life was to set on foot the compilation of a digest of the whole law, but for various reasons this became impracticable. The conclusion of his tenure of the chancellorship was unfortunately marked by events which, although they did not render personal corruption imputable to him, made it evident that he had acted with some laxity and want of caution. Owing to the reception by parliament of reports of committees nominated to consider the circumstances of certain appointments in the Leeds Bankruptcy Court, as well as the granting a pension to a Mr Leonard Edmunds, a clerk in the patent office, and a clerk of the parliaments, the lord chancellor felt it incumbent upon him to resign his office, which he accordingly did on the 4th of July 1865, and was succeeded by Lord Cranworth. After his resignation he continued to take part in the judicial sittings of the House of Lords and the privy council until his death. In 1872 he was appointed arbitrator under the European Assurance Society Act 1872, and his judgments in that capacity have been collected and published as the "Arbitration of Lord Westbury’s Cases." He was the author of "The Bar in England," and of a "Memoir of Mr. F. S. Reily." As a writer on law he made no mark, and few of his decisions take the highest judicial rank. Perhaps the best known is the judgment delivering the opinion of the judicial committee of the privy council in 1863 against the heretical character of certain extracts from the well-known publication Essays and Reviews. His principal legislative achievements were the passing of the Divorce Act 1857, and of the Land Registry Act 1862 (generally known as Lord Westbury’s Act), the latter of which in practice proved a failure. What chiefly distinguished Lord Westbury was the possession of a certain sarcastic humour; and numerous are the stories, authentic and apocryphal, of his exercise. In fact, he and Mr Justice Maule fill a position analogous to that of Sydney Smith, convenient names to whom "good things" may be attributed. Lord Westbury died on the 20th of July 1873, within a day of the death of Bishop Wilberforce, his special antagonist in debate.

See Life of Lord Westbury by T. A. Nash.

WESTBURY, an urban district in the Westbury parliamentary division of Wiltsshire, England, on the river Biss, a small tributary of the Lower Avon. Pop. (1891) 3205. It is 95 m. W. by S. of London by the Great Western railway, and lies within 1 m. of the Somerset border, sheltered on the east by the high tableland of Salisbury Plain. All Saint's church is Norman and later, with a magnificent nave. In the south transept stands a monument to Sir James Ley, earl of Marlborough and president of the council in 1620; the "good earl" addressed in a sonnet by Milton. A chained black-letter copy of Erasmus’ Paraphrase of the New Testament is preserved in the south-chapel. In the suburb of Westbury Leigh is the Palace Garden, a moated site said to have been a royal residence in Saxony times. Westbury (Wesberie, Wesbar) figures in Domesday as a manor held by the king. The manor was granted by Henry II. to Reginald de Pavey in 1172–1173, and from then onwards passed through various families until in 1810 it was purchased by Sir M. M. Lopez from the earl of Abingdon. A post mortem was held for Westbury in 1361–1362, but the earliest mention of the town as a borough occurs in 1442–1443. The charter of incorporation is lost (tradition says it was burnt), and the town possesses no other charter. The title of the corporation was "Mayors and Burgesses of Westbury," and it consisted of a mayor, recorder and 13 capital burgesses. The borough returned two members to parliament from 1448. In 1832 the number was reduced to one, and in 1885 the representation was merged in that of the county. In 1252 Henry III. granted to Walter de Pavey a yearly fair for three days from October 31, and a weekly market on Friday. Henry VI. in 1460 granted three fairs yearly for three days from April 22, Whit Monday and September 13 respectively, and a market on Thursdays. In 1835 the mayor's fair was held at Whitsuntide, and the lord of the manors of Easedale and Mitford, at his own cost, held one on the first Tuesday in September and a pleasure fair on Easter and Whitsunday; in 1888 on the first Tuesday in September and on the 24th of that month; the former still exists. In 1673 there was a market on Friday, in 1835 a nominal one on Tuesday and after 1875 it ceased. During the 18th and 19th centuries there was a considerable trade in malt, bricks, tiles and cloth. The last, once the most extensive, has now sunk into insignificance, while the others exist only on a small scale.
WES T C H E S T E R, a borough and the county-seat of Chester county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., about 20 m. W. of Philadelphia. Pop. (1890) 8,215; (1900) 9,324, of whom 566 were foreign-born and 1777 were negroes; (1910 census) 12,267. West Chester is served directly by the Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia, Baltimore & Washington railroads and by an interurban electric line to Philadelphia; electric lines connect with the Philadelphia & Reading at Lenape, 4 m. to the south-west, and to Coatesville, 10 m. to the west. The borough lies about 450 ft. above sea-level in an undulating country. At West Chester are the West Chester State Normal School (1871), the Darlington Seminary (non-sectarian; for girls), founded in 1851 by Smeldy Darlington (1827–1899; principal of the school from 1851–1883), the Friends' (Orthodox) Select School. There are fine botanical gardens in Marshall Square. Among the public buildings are a county courthouse (1847–1848), a county jail and a county hospital (1892–1893), the public library and a large Y.M.C.A. building. The colonial Turk's Head Hotel here has been so called since 1768 and was probably first opened in 1762. West Chester is in a farming country with important market-gardens and dairy farms; among its manufactures are dairy implements, foundry work, mahogany, wagon and carriage manufactures and malted barley.

The factory product in 1905 was valued at $2,737,135. There are several large nursery farms here. West Chester was first settled in 1713, succeeded Chester as the county-seat in 1784–1786, and was incorporated as a town in 1788 and as a borough in 1799. During the War of Independence the battle of Brandywine was fought about 7 m. S. of West Chester on the 11th of September 1777, and on the 20th General Anthony Wayne, with a small force, was surprised and routed by the British at Paoli, about 8 m. N.E.

Westcott, BROWNE, Foss (1812–1901), English divine and bishop of Durham, was born on the 12th of January 1825 in the neighbourhood of Birmingham. His father, Frederick Brooke Westcott, was a botanist of some distinction. Westcott was educated at King Edward VI. school, Birmingham, under James Prince Lee, where he formed his friendship with Joseph Barber Lightfoot (q.v.). In 1844 Westcott obtained a scholarship at Trinity College, Cambridge. He took his William Browne's medal for a Greek ode in 1846 and 1847, the Members' Prize for a Latin essay in 1847 as an undergraduate and in 1849 as a baccelor. He took his degree in January 1854, obtaining double firsts in theology and mathematics. He was a first wrangler, Isaac Todhunter being senior. In classics he was senior, being bracketed with C. B. Scott, afterwards headmaster of Westminster. After obtaining his degree, Westcott remained for four years in residence at Trinity. In 1849 he obtained his fellowship; and in the same year he was ordained deacon and priest by his old headmaster, Prince Lee, now bishop of Manchester. The time spent at Cambridge was devoted to most strenuous study. He took pupils; and among his pupils there were reading with him, almost at the same time, his school friend Lightfoot and two other men who became his attached and lifelong friends, E. W. Benson and F. J. A. Hort (q.v.). The inspiring influence of Westcott's intense enthusiasm left its mark upon these three distinguished men; they regarded him not only as their friend and counsellor, but as in an especial degree their teacher and oracle. He devoted much attention to philosophical, patriotic and historical studies, but it soon became evident that he would throw his strength into New Testament work. In 1851 he published his Norrisian prize essay on the Epistle of St. John the Divine. In 1857 he became an assistant master at Harrow, and soon afterwards he married Miss Whithard. He prosecuted his school work with characteristic vigour, and succeeded in combining with his school duties an enormous amount both of theological research and of literary activity. He worked at Harrow for nearly twenty years under Dr. C. J. Vaughan and Dr. Montagu Butler, but while he was always consistently successful in inspiring a few senior boys with something of his own intellectual and moral enthusiasm, he was never in the same measure capable of maintaining discipline among large numbers. The writings which he produced at this period created a new epoch in the history of modern English theological scholarship. In 1855 he published the first edition of his History of the New Testament Canon, which, frequently revised and expanded, became the standard English work upon the subject. In 1859 there appeared his Characteristics of the Gospel Miracles. In 1860 he expanded his Norrisian essay into an Introduction to the Study of the Gospels, a work remarkable for insight and minuteness of study, as well as for reverential treatment combined with considerable freedom from traditional lines. Westcott's work for Smith's Dictionary of the Bible, notably his articles on Canon, "Maccabees," "Liturgy," and "Exegesis," resulted in a large volume, and led to the composition of his subsequent valuable books, The Bible in the Church (1864) and a History of the English Bible (1866). To the same period belongs The Gospel of the Resurrection (1866). As a piece of consecutive reasoning upon a fundamental Christian doctrine it deservedly attracted great attention. Its width of view and its recognition of the claims of historical science and pure reason were thoroughly characteristic of Westcott's mode of discussing a theological question. At the time when the book appeared his method of apologetic marksmanship was not only popular but was a standard pattern. The excellence of the work is impaired by the difficulty of the style. In 1865 he took his B.D., and in 1870 his D.D. He received in later years the honorary degrees of D.C.L. from Oxford (1881) and of D.D. from Edinburgh (1883). In 1868 Westcott was appointed examining chaplain by Bishop Connor Magee (of Peterborough); and in the following year he accepted a canony at Peterborough, which necessitated his leaving Harrow. For a time he contemplated with eagerness the idea of a renovated cathedral life, devoted to the pursuit of learning and to the development of opportunities for the religious and intellectual benefit of the diocese. But the regius professorship of divinity at Cambridge fell vacant, and Lightfoot, who was then Hulsean professor, declining to become a candidate himself, insisted upon Westcott's standing for the post. It was due to Lightfoot's support almost as much as to his own great merits that Westcott was elected to the chair on the 1st of November 1870. This was the turning-point of his life. He now occupied a great position for which he was supremely fitted, and at a juncture in the reform of university studies when a theologian of liberal views, but uninterruptedly respected for his mature learning and his doctrine, and slightly-minded but broad-minded and educated for usefulness, supported by his friends Lightfoot and Hort, he threw himself into the new work with extraordinary energy. He deliberately sacrificed many of the social privileges of a university career in order that his studies might be more continuous and that he might see more of the younger men. His lectures were generally on Biblical subjects. His Commentaries on St. John's Gospel (1881), on the Epistle to the Hebrews (1886) and the Epistles of St. John (1883) resulted from his public lectures. One of his most valuable works, The Gospel of Life (1892), a study of Christian doctrine, incorporated the materials upon which he was engaged in a series of more private and esoteric lectures delivered on week-day evenings. The work of lecturing was an intense strain to him, but its influence was immense: to attend one of Westcott's lectures—even to watch him lecturing—was an experience which lifted and solemnized many a man to whom the references to Origen or Rupert of Deutz were almost ludicrously unintelligible. Between the years 1878 and 1881 Westcott was also continually engaged in work for the revision of the New Testament, and, simultaneously, in the preparation of a new text in conjunction with Hort. The years in which Westcott, Lightfoot and Hort could thus meet frequently and naturally for the discussion of the work in which they were all three so deeply engrossed formed a happy and privileged period in their lives. In the year 1881 there appeared the famous Westcott and Hort text of the New Testament, upon which had been expended nearly thirty years of incessant labour. The reforms in the regulations for degrees in divinity, the formation and first revision of the new theological tripos,
the inauguration of the Cambridge mission to Delhi, the institution of the Church Society (for the discussion of theological and ecclesiastical questions by the younger men), the meetings for the divinity faculty, the organization of the new Divinity School and Library and, later, the institution of the Cambridge Clergy Training School, were all, in a very real degree, the result of Westcott's energy and influence as regius professor. To this list should also be added the Oxford and Cambridge preliminary examination for candidates for holy orders, with which he was from the first most closely identified. The success of this very useful scheme was due chiefly to his sedulous interest and help.

The departure of Lightfoot to the see of Durham in 1879 was a great loss to Westcott. He was compelled now to lead the take the lead in matters where Lightfoot's more practical nature had previously been predominant. In 1883 Westcott was elected to a professorial fellowship at King's. Shortly afterwards, having previously resigned his canonry at Peterborough, he was appointed by the crown to a canonry at Westminster, and accepted the position of examining chaplain to Archbishop Benson. His little edition of the Paragraph Psalter (1879), arranged for the use of choirs, and his admirable lectures on the Apocalypse (1882) and Historical Divinity (1883), are amongst the best results of his vacations spent at Peterborough. He held his canonry at Westminster in conjunction with the regius professorship. The strain of the joint work was very heavy, and the intensity of the interest and study which he brought to bear upon his share in the labours of the Ecclesiastical Courts Commission, of which he had been appointed a member, added to his burden.

Preaching at the Abbey gave him a valuable opportunity of dealing with social questions. His sermons were generally portions of a series; and to this period belong the volumes Christia Consummator (1886) and Social Aspects of Christianity (1887).

In March 1890 he was nominated to the see of Durham, there to follow in the steps of his beloved friend Lightfoot, who had died in December 1889. He was consecrated on the 1st of May at Westminster Abbey by Archbishop Thompson (of York), Hort being the preacher, and enthroned at Durham cathedral on the 15th of May. The change of work and surroundings could hardly have been greater. But the sudden immersion in the practical administration of a northern diocese gave him new strength. He surprised the world, which had supposed him to be a recluse and a mystic, by the practical interest he took in the mining population of Durham and in the great shipping and artisan industries of Sunderland and Gateshead.

Upon one famous occasion in 1892 he succeeded in bringing to a peaceful solution a long and bitter strike which had divided the masters and men in the Durham collieries; and his success was due to the confidence which he inspired by the extraordinary moral energy of his strangely "prophetic" personality, at once thoughtful, vehement and affectionate. His constant endeavour to call the attention of the Church to the religious aspect of social questions was a special note in his public utterances. He was a staunch supporter of the co-operative movement, and he was practically the founder of the Christian Social Union. He continually insisted upon the necessity of promoting the cause of foreign missions, and he gladly gave four of his sons for the work of the Church in India. His energy was remarkable to the very end. But during the last two or three years of his life he aged considerably. His wife, who had been for some years an invalid, died rather suddenly on the 28th of May 1901, and he dedicated to her memory his last book, Lessons from Work (1901). He preached a farewell sermon to the miners in Durham cathedral at their annual festival on the 29th of July. He was compelled by a short, sudden illness, and he passed away on the 27th of July.

Westcott was no narrow specialist. He had the keenest love of poetry, music and art. He was himself no mean draughtsman, and used often to say that if he had not taken orders he would have become an architect. His literary sympathies were wide. He never would tire of praising Euripides, while few men had given such minute study to the writings of Robert Browning. He followed with delight the development of natural science studies at Cambridge. He spared no pains to be accurate, or to widen the basis of his thought. Thus he had one summer vacation to the careful analysis of Conte's 'Postulates in Science'.

He studied assiduously The Sacred Books of the East, and earnestly contended that no systematic view of Christianity could afford to ignore the philosophy of other religions. The outside world was wont to regard him as a mystic; and the mystical, or sacramental, view of life enters, it is true, very largely into his teaching. He had in this respect many points of similarity with the Cambridge Platonists of the 17th century, and with F. D. Maurice, for whom he had profound regard. But in other respects he was very practical; and his strength of will, his logical and irresistible reasoning, and his habit of making his conclusions very evident in influence wherever the subject under discussion was of serious moment. He was a strong supporter of Church reform, especially in the direction of obtaining larger powers for the laity.

He kept himself aloof from all party strife. He describes himself when he says, "The student of Christian doctrine, because he strives after exactness of phrase, because he is conscious of the inadequacy of any one human formula to exhaust the truth, will be filled with sympathy for every genuine endeavour towards the embodiment of right opinion. Partial views attract personal ridicule. The principles which has made him in many cases a poor controversialist, it may be said that a more controversialist cannot be a real theologian" (Lessons from Work, pp. 84-85). His theological work was always distinguished by the place which he assigned to Divine Revelation in Holy Scripture and in the teaching of history. His own studies have largely contributed in England to the better understanding of the doctrines of the Resurrection and the Incarnation. His work in conjunction with Hort upon the Greek text of the New Testament will endure as one of the greatest achievements of English Biblical criticism. The principles which he laid down in the introduction to the text had been arrived at after years of elaborate investigation and continual correspondence and discussion between the two friends. The place which it almost at once took among scientific scholars in Great Britain and throughout Europe was a recognition of the great advance which it represented in the use and classification of ancient authorities. His commentaries rank with Lightfoot's as the best type of Biblical exegesis produced by the English Church in the 19th century.

The following is a bibliography of Westcott's more important writings, giving the date of the first editions:—Elements of the Gospel Harmony (1851); History of the Canon of First Four Centuries (1853); Characteristics of Gospel Miracles (1859); Introduction to the Study of the Gospels (1863); The Bible in the Church (1864); The Gospel of the Incarnation (1866); The Gospel of the Apocalypse (1867); Christian Themes in Holy Writ (1873); A Manual of Theology (1881); Commentary on the Epistle of St. John (1881); Commentary on the Epistle of St. Peter (1882); Commentary on the Epistle to the Hebrews (1882); From Strength to Strength (1890); The Epistle to the Hebrews (1892); The Incarnation and Common Life (1893); Some Lessons of the Revised Version of the New Testament (1897); Christian Aspects of Life (1897); Lessons from Westminster Abbey (1901); Lives by his son B. F. Westcott (1903), and by J. Clayton (1906).

WESTERLEY, a township of Washington county, Rhode Island, U.S.A., in the extreme S.W. part of the state, about 44 m. S.S.W. of Providence, separated from Connecticut on the W. by the Pawcatuck river, which forms the northern boundary
of the township also. Pop. (1800) 6813, (1900) 7241, (1788
being foreign-born and 185 negroes), (1905, state census) 8381,
(1910) 8606. Area, about 31 sq. m. Westerly is served by the
New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and by interurban
electric lines connecting with Norwich and New London, Conn.
The township includes several small villages, connected by
electric railways, the best known being Watch Hill, which has
fine sea-bathing. Larger villages are Westerly, in the western
district of the township and at the head of navigation (for small
vessels) on the Pawcatuck river, and Niantic, in the north-
eastern part of the township. In Westerly there is a public
library (1894), with 23,523 volumes in 1909. Beyond Watch
Hill Point on the S.W. point of an L-shaped peninsula, running
first W, and then N., is Napatree Point, on which is Fort Mans-
field, commanding the N.E. entrance to Long Island Sound.
The township is the centre of the granite industry of the state;
the quarries are near the villages of Westerly and Niantic.
The granite is of three kinds: white statuary granite, a quartz
monzonite, with a fine even-grained texture, used extensively
for monuments; blue granite, also a quartz monzonite and also much
used for monuments; and red granite, a biotite granite, red
with mottling, grey in colour and rather coarse in texture, used for buildings. Among the manufactures are cotton and woolen goods, thread
and printing presses. The water supply is from artesian wells.
The first settlement here was made in 1661, and the township
was organized in 1669, when the present name was adopted
instead of the Indian Misquamicut (meaning "salmon") by
which it had been called. In 1686 the name was changed to
Havemshire, but in 1689 the present name was restored.
See Frederic Denison, "Westerly and its Witnesses," for Two Hundred
and Fifty Years, 1620-1870 (Providence, R.I., 1875).

WESTERMANN, FRANCOIS JOSEPH (d. 1794). French
general, was born at Molsheim in Alsace. At an early age he
entered a cavalry regiment, but soon left the service and went
to Paris. He embraced enthusiastically the ideas of the Revolution,
and in 1790 became greffier of the municipality of Haguenau.
After a short imprisonment on a charge of inciting émeutes at
Haguenau, he returned to Paris, where he joined Danton and
played an important part in the attack on the Tuileries on the
10th of August 1792. He accompanied Dumouriez on his cam-
paigns and assisted him in his negotiations with the Austrians,
being arrested as an accomplice after the general's defection.
He succeeded, however, in proving his innocence, and was sent
with the rank of general of brigade into La Vendée, where he
distinguished himself by his extraordinary courage, by the
audacity of his manoeuvres, and by his severe treatment of the
insurgents. After suffering a defeat at Châtillon, he vanquished
the Vendéans at Beaupréau, Laval, Granville and Baugé, and
in December 1793 annihilated their army at Le Mans and Savenay.
He was then summoned to Paris, where he was pro-
ounced with the Dantonist party and executed on the 5th
of April 1794.
See P. Holl, Nos généraux alsaciens ... . Westermann (Strassburg,
1900).

WESTERN AUSTRALIA, a British colonial state, forming part
of the Commonwealth of Australia. (For Map, see Aus-
tralia.) This portion of Australia lies to the west of 120° E.
longitude and to the north of 20° S. latitude. Its area is
1,660,000 sq. m., or 1,400 m. in length and 850
in breadth, and has a coast-line of 3900 m. It is divided into
five districts—Central, Central Eastern, South-Eastern, North
and Kimberley. The Central or settled district, in the south-
west, is divided into twenty-six counties. Apart from the coast
lands, the map presents almost a blank, as the major portion is
practically a dry waste of stone and sand, relieved by a few
shallow salt lakes. The rivers of the south are small—the Black-
wood being the most considerable. To the north of this are the Murchison and Gascoyne, the latter running from the
Upper Gosse to the sea through Toolbrunup and Toolomah, the
last is 400 m. long. Shark's Bay receives the Gascoyne (200 m. long), with its tributary the Lyons.
1 See T. N. Dale, The Chief Commercial Granites of Massachusetts,
New Hampshire and Rhode Island (Washington, 1908), Bulletin
354 of the United States Geological Survey.

Still farther north, where the coast trends eastward, the principal rivers are the Ashburton, the Fortescue and the De Grey. Kimberley district to the north-east has some fine streams—the
Fitzroy and Ord and their tributaries, on some of which (the
Mary, Elvira, &c.) are the goldfields, 250 m. south of Cambridge
Gulf. The Darling mountain range is in the south-west, Mount
William reaching 3000 ft; in the same quarter are Toolbrunup (3341 ft.), Ellen's Peak (3420), and the Stirling and Victoria
ranges. Gardner and Moreley are flat-topped ranges. Mount
Elizabeth rises behind Perth. Hampton tableland overlooks the
Wanneroo river, and the northern boundary of the Darling
ranges extends due west, while the contact with the south-west
ranges is a belt of Lower Palaeozoic and Mesozoic deposits; but the reappear-
ance of the granitic rocks at King George Sound and Albany may be
considered as the boundary of the Archean. The Darlington
coast, the scar of the Archean plateau forms the Darling Range
behind Perth. Further north, behind Shark's Bay, the plateau
recedes from the coast, and trends north-westward through the
Gascoyne Range. The tableland which extends to the north of the
Darling Range and the goldfield of Coolgardie were classified by
H. P. Woodward into six parallel belts, running northward and southward,
but with a slight trend to the west. The westernmost belt consists of clay
slates, quartzites and schists, and is traversed by dykes of diorite and felsite; the belt forms the western
part of the Archean plateau, along the edge of the coastal plain. The
second belt consists of gneisses and schists, and forms the western
part of the Archean plateau, the chief, particularly at Mount
Gibb-Maitland, is the Green-bushes tin-field, and various other minerals, such as
graphite and asbestos. Then follows a wide belt of granitic rocks; it has no permanent surface water and is bare of minerals, and,
therefore, named for the effective system of drainage and prospecting of the country to the east. This granitic belt
ends to the east in the first auriferous belt, which extends from the
Phillips river, on the southern coast, to Southern Cross, on the
Perth to Kalgoorlie railway; thence it goes through Mount Magnet, Lake
Austin and the Murchison Goldfield at Nannine, and through the
Peak Goldfield to the heads of the Gascoyne and Ashburton rivers.
To the east of this belt is a barren band of granites and gneises,
succeeded again eastward by the second auriferous belt, including the
chiefs goldfields of Westralia. They begin on the south with the
Dundas Goldfield, and the mining centre of Norseman; then to the
north follow the goldfields of Esperance, Mount Barlow, Mount
Boulder, and the now less important field of Coolgardie. This line continues thence through the goldfields of Leonora and Mount
Margaret, and reappears behind the western coast in the Pillarra
Range. The rocks of the central and northern districts, of sandstone
and other basic schists, traversed by dykes of granite, diorite and
porphyrite, with some peridotites. Some of the amphibolites have
been crushed and then silicified into jasperoids, so that they much
resemble altered sediments.

The Palaeozoic group is represented by the Cambrian rocks of the
Kimberley Goldfield, which have yielded Olenellus foresti. There
are no certain indications of the Cambrian rocks of Australia, while the Silurian is representated in the King Leopold Range of
Kimberley, and, according to H. P. Woodward, in the contorted,
unfossiliferous quartzites and shales of the Stirling Range, north of
Dundas. The rocks of the southern quarter are the Carboniferous,
and other basic schists, traversed by dykes of granite, diorite and
porphyrite, with some peridotites. Some of the amphibolites have
been crushed and then silicified into jasperoids, so that they much
resemble altered sediments.
between the Wooraloo and Minilya rivers. The upper and middle types of Carboniferous include coalmeasures with Sigmatopteris and Lepidodendron in the Kimberley district, and the coals of the Irwin coalfield, the age of which is proved by the internation of the coal seams with beds containing the ammonite *Phylloceras subhaqueo* from the *Carb. australis* of Western Australia. The Mesozoic rocks were discovered in 1861, and their chief outcrop is along the western coast plains of Western Australia between Geraldton and Perth. The fauna is obtained by many methods, but only for the most part by transport. In the fossils indicate a Lower Jurassic age; and, according to Etheridge, some of the fossils are Lower Cretaceous. The Collie coalfield, to the east of Bunbury, is generally regarded as Mesozoic. Its coal is inferior to that of Western Australia, and in some beds the average of 34 analyses is 11.77% of moisture, and 8.62% of ash. According to Etheridge its age is Permo-Carboniferous. The Karajini district contains Mesozoic rocks and the great plains of the north are an extension of the Great Australian Bight, whence they extend inland for 150 m. They have no surface water, but the rainfall in this district nourishes aridicous wells. The occurrence of marshes is rare and it is a rather dry land, but it is not so dry as the north, as it is now and then wet by the bores, as at Carnarvon, where they appear to be over 100 ft. in thickness. The coastal region also includes sheets of sand and sandstone, with deposits of brown coal as on the Fitzmaurice river on the south coast, and in the basin of the Gascoyne. The Archean plateau of the interior is covered by wide sheets of sublateral and lacustrine deposits, which have accumulated in the basins and these include beds of Recent age. They are the rocks of the interior, and confine the Kainozoic species. In places the materials have been roughly arrowed by river action, as in the north, and the deep lead of Kanowna. The clays contain the bones of the Diprotodon, so that they are probably of Upper Triassic age. The pre-Cambrian species are those that are represented by the basists of Bunbury and Black Point, north of Flinders Bay. A bibliography of Western geology has been issued by Maitland, Bulletin of the Geological Survey of Western Australia, No. 1, 1898. An excellent summary of the mineral wealth of the state has been given by Maitland, Bulletin 8, No. 4, 1900, pp. 7-23, also issued in the Year-book of Western Australia. The main literature of the geology of Western Australia is in the Bulletins of the Geol. Survey, and in the reports of the Mines Department. A general account of the gold-mining has been given by A. G. Charleton, 1907; and also by Donald Clark, Geol. Survey of New Zealand (1904). [W. G. Chambers, Flora.—Judged by its vegetable forms, Western Australia would seem to be older than eastern Australia, South Australia being of intermediate type. As in the case of Western Australia, the vegetation is also rich and southern and African on the western. There are few western and Polynesian representatives than in the eastern colonies. European forms are extremely scarce. Compared with the other side of Australia, a third of the genera on the south-west is almost wanting in the south-east. In the latter, 55, having more than ten species each, have 1260 species; but the former has as many as 55 of its 86 genera. There are 55 of the latter, the species in all generally peculiar. There are few natural orders and genera westward, but more species. Baron von Müller declared that "nearly half of the whole vegetation of the Australian continent has been transferred to the Western district, and the rest belongs to the Eastern territory." He includes 9 Malvaceae, 6 Euphorbiaceae, 2 Rubiaceae, 9 Proteaceae, 47 Leguminosae, 10 Myrtaceae, 12 Compositae, 5 Labiateae, 6 Cynoglossaceae, 13 Convolvulaceae, 16 Gramineae, 3 Fibrobaceae, 4 Euphorbiaceae, 6 Sapotaceae, and 6 Convolvulaceae, each with its separate species. The Melaleuca Leucomedon is the paperbark tree of settlers. The rigid-leaved Banksia is known as the honeysock. Cassininae are the heaths of the kingdom, and the Eucalyptus, the elegant eucalyptus. Beautiful flowering shrubs distinguish the south-west; and the deserts are all abode with flowers after a fall of rain. Poison plants are generally showy Leguminosae, Sida and the Gastrodiolum. The timber trees of the south-west are almost unequaled. Of the Eucalypts, the jarrah or mahogany, E. marginata, is first for value. It runs over five deep forest districts, and it is known in the west as the jarrah. Malcolm Fraser assigns 14,000 sq. m. to the jarrah, 10,000 to E. viminalis, 2300 to the karri (E. colosea or E. diversicolor), 2400 to York gum (E. leosplata), 800 to the red gum (E. angustifolia), and 500 to the marri (E. telephila). Not much good wood is got within 20 m. of the coast. The coachbuilder's coop rises over 300 ft. Morrel furnishes good timber and rich oil. An ever-increasing trade is done in the timber of the south-west. Fauna.—Among the mammals are the Macropus giganteus, M. irma, M. dama, M. brachyurus, Lagorchesis fasciata, Belomiga pigra, Pseudochires cooki, Dasyurus geoffroii, Tarsipes rostratus, Anachirus apicalis, Perameles obesa, Perameles myurus, Myrmecobius fasciatus. Fossil forms partake of the existing marsupial character, Diprotodon being allied to the wombat, and Phalanger the koala. South of the coast, the south-west; but the banded one, a species, is in Shark's Bay. Nocturnal phalangers live in holes of trees or in the ground. Carnivorous mammals are found in the south-west, and there are three kinds of wombat, the red or common wombat, Opossum the north-east, and Perameles pongamollaceus at Shark's Bay. The dalyge or Heterolepis lagotis is at Swan river and Hylpospriscus in the south-west. The platypus (Ornithorhynchus) and the echidna are the only forms of the monotremata. The seal, whale and dugong occur in the adjacent seas. The west is not so rich as the east of Australia in birds. Many forms are absent and others but poorly represented, though some are peculiar to the west. The timbered south-west has the greatest variety of birds, which are scarce enough in the dry and treeless district. Of lizards the west has 12 genera not found in eastern Australia. Of snakes there are but 15 species to 3 in Tasmania and 31 in New South Wales. While the poisonous sorts are 2 to 1 in the east, the venomous snakes are not so prevalent; but the platypus (Ornithorhynchus) is only an article of food. The freshwater fishes are not all like those of the east. They include the mullet, snapper, pipe fish, guard fish, bonita, rock cod, shark, saw fish, parrot fish and cobra. Under these classes the freshwater fishes of the south-west are divided for natives at Shark's Bay; the trepang or biche-de-mer is also met with in the north. Insects are well represented, especially Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, Hemiptera, Hemiptera and Diptera. Cattle.—With the little grassland over the whole area is considerable. Western Australia differs from the country to the east in having no extensive ranges to collect water, while the trade winds blow off the dry land instead of from the ocean; for these two reasons the climate is very dry. Thunderstorms often supply almost the only rainfall in the interior. The south-western corner, the seat of settlements, is the only portion where rain can be depended on; and even there few places have a rainfall of 40 in. As one goes northward the moisture lessens. The north-west and all the coast along to Kimberley, but most of that district suffer from such dryness. The south coast, exposed to polar breezes, with uninterrupted sea, has to endure lengthened droughts. In the Swan river region the rainfall is in winter, being brought by north-west winds, and summers have little moisture. While the south wind cools the settled region, it comes over the parched interior to the southern coast. The climate of South Australia, north and south, is the utmost, but it is from the south in summer to Kimberley and the north-west. In one season the land breeze is hot, in another cool, but always dry. The climate of the West is divided into two distinctive regions, the winter and the summer. The winter commences somewhat abruptly, being ushered in by heavy rains; it begins usually not earlier than the middle of April or later, and lasts 83 days or 2 months, and ends the first of October. The winters are, as a rule, very mild, but there is some cold weather in July and August, and though there is little at the coast, frost is not uncommon inland. The summer is heralded by an occasional hot day in October, in November the weather becomes settled and continues warm until the end of March. In the four months, December to March, the maximum temperature in the shade reaches one on an average on 37 days, but as a rule the heat does not last long, the evenings and nights being tempered by a cool breeze. In the interior the climate resembles that of the south-west in regard to the occurrence of two seasons only. The winter, however, has much less rain than on the coast, and is cold, clear and bracing. The summer, as a rule, hot, but is tempered in the south by occasional cool changes, though unrelied as the tropic is approached. Within the tropics there are two seasons, the wet and the dry. The winter is most unpleasant, the temperature rarely falling below 100°F.; the dry season, which lasts from April to October, is much more comfortable. There is 1 in 6 or 10 at Perth is 23 in. falling on 110 days; the mean maximum temperature is 74° in the month of July; and the minimum 51°F.; at Coolgardie the mean maximum temperature is 77°-8° in the month of August, and the mean minimum 51-9° the month of August. The mean maximum is 93°-9° and the minimum 75°-4°. Population.—Population made very slow increase under the old conditions of settlement, and even when gold was discovered in 1882 at Kimberley, and five years later at Yalgarn, no great impetus was given to the colony, and at the census of 1881 the population was still under 50,000. The sensational gold finds
at Coolgardie in 1892, however, had a most important influence in drawing population, and in three and a half years the population was doubled: during a portion of this time the rush of miners to the gold-fields was so great as to be reminiscent of the experience of the eastern colonies during the 'fifties. At the end of 1895 the population was 254,770, comprising 150,405 males and 104,284 females. The slowness of the early growth and the more rapid strides of later years will be gathered from the following figures: pop. (1860) 15,227, (1870) 25,084, (1880) 29,019, (1890) 46,290, (1895) 101,238, (1901) 194,899. The chief towns of Western Australia are: Perth—the capital—56,000, Fremantle 23,068, Kalgoorlie 6,766, Boulder 56,3. The number of the population of Coolgardie, for example, was returned in July 1894 as having within its municipal boundaries 12,000 people; in 1905 it had only 3,380.

The births during 1905 numbered 75,828 and the deaths 2,706, the rates per thousand population being respectively 30-30 and 8-83, showing a net increment of 19-47 per 1000. In the period 1861-1865 the birth-rate was 39-07 per 1000. Between 1886 and 1890 it stood at 36-88; then came a rapid decline, and in 1896 was reached the low level of 22-67 per 1000. In 1903 the rate was 30-34 per 1000. The decline in the birth-rates has been a common experience and is due to a reduction in the birth-rate largely due to a large degree in the decline in the proportion of females to males. In 1870 the females numbered 62% of the males, and in 1880 75%, while in 1895 the proportion was only 45%. The proportion of deaths is thus the reverse of the total birth-rate, which in 1897 was 16-99 per 1000, has steadily declined in recent years. The large influx of young unmarried men in the years following the gold-rushes, mining, and railway construction, has resulted in an excess of males to single women, and the marriage-rates increased from 7 per 1000 in the five years 1891-1895 to 10-7 per 1000 in 1897. In 1905 the rate stood at the more normal level of 8-48. Except for a slight influx of population in the three years 1884-1887, due to the gold discoveries at Kimberley, there was very little immigration to Western Australia prior to 1891; in that year, however, there was a considerable troop of population from the eastern colonies, notably from New South Wales and South Australia, and in the seven years that followed the 1891 population of the colony gained nearly 110,000 by immigration alone. In 1898 there was still a large inflow of population, but the outflow also was great, and in 1898 and the following year the two streams balanced one another; but 1900 showed an excess of 6,000, and 1905 of 7,617 gained by immigration.

Western Australia is the most sparsely populated of all the states; only the coastal fringe and the gold-fields show any evidences of settlement, and if the area were divided amongst the population there would be but ten persons to 52 sq. m. The population is almost exclusively of British origin, and only differs from that of the other states in that there is a larger body of Australian-born, who are not natives of the colony itself. The vast majority are members of the Church of England; one-fourth belong to other Protestant denominations, and one-fourth are Roman Catholics.

Administration.—In 1890 Western Australia, up to that time a crown colony administered by a governor, was granted responsible government. The legislative authority is vested in a parliament composed of two Houses—a Legislative Council, whose thirty members are elected for six years, and a Legislative Assembly of fifty members, elected by adult suffrage (men and women). As a portion of the Commonwealth, Western Australia sends fifty two representatives to the federal parliament. In a country so sparsely settled, the municipal government has little scope for operation.

So far forty-four municipalities have been gazetted. Besides the municipalities there are district roads boards, elected by the ratepayers of their respective districts to take charge of the formation, construction and maintenance of the public roads throughout their districts. There were in 1905 ninety-four such boards in existence. Some of the districts are of enormous size: For example, has an area of 14,536 sq. m; Coolgardie North has 7,068 sq. m.; Nullagine has 9,838 sq. m., and the Upper Gascoyne has 136,000 sq. m. Over areas of this kind little effective work can be accomplished, but where the districts are small the administration is much the same as in the municipalities. The receipts from rates of all local districts in 1905 was £104,756, and the grants by the government £80,938, making a total of £185,694.

Education.—Attendance at school is compulsory upon all children over six years and under fourteen years of age. Instruction is imparted only in secular subjects, but the law allows special religious teaching to be given during half an hour each day by clergymen to children of their own denomination. Education is free on account of inability to pay fees, of living more than a mile from school, or of having attended school for more than 400 days. In the year 1905 the average attendance was 13,151, of which 11,315 were on public instruction, the great bulk of which was devoted to primary schools. The number of schools supported by the state in that year was 335, the teachers numbered 888, the children present at school 7,078, and the average attendance 23,703. There were in 1905 99 private schools with 350 teachers and 7353 scholars, the average attendance being 6128. Judged by the number of persons arrested, crime is more prevalent in Western Australia than in any other part of the Commonwealth, and is being combated by some of the best and most enterprising of the Australian population; at the same time many undesirable persons flocked to the state in numbers which would give a high rate of crime.

Finance.—The discovery of gold and the settlement on the gold-fields of a large population, for the most part consumers of durable and necessaries, was the source of Western Australia's prosperity. In 1891 the revenue was £297,670, that is, £10, 15s. per inhabitant; in 1895 it rose to £1,125,041, or £12, 10s. per inhabitant; and in 1905 £1,735,340, or £14, 18s. 6d. per inhabitant. The chief sources of revenue in 1905 were: customs and excise, £1,027,868; other taxation, £231,738; railways, £1,629,956; public lands, £257,291; and the net profits of mines, £164,773, a sum equal to £6, 10s. 4d. per inhabitant, involving an interest charge of £574,492 or £2, 1s. 6d. per inhabitant. The proceeds of the loans were used largely for the purpose of railway extension—the expenditure on this service at the middle of 1906 was £3,618,770; on water supply and sewerage works, £2,982,390; on telegraphs and telephones, £59,308; on harbour and river improvements, £1,182,730; and the purchase of gold-fields, £573,082, on development of agriculture, £597,189.

Defence.—The local defence force of Western Australia in 1905 comprised 57 permanent artillerymen, 772 militia, 580 volunteers, and 464 cadets. The defence of the state is undertaken by the federal government.

Minerals.—Gold-mining is the main industry, and in 1905 16,832 miners were engaged directly or indirectly in the mineral industry. Of these the chief minerals mined were gold, silver, coal, tin and copper. The value of the gold produced in 1905 was £2,204,514, a falling off of £18,572 as compared with 1904. The dividends paid by the gold-mining companies for that year amounted to £2,167,639 as against £2,205,547 in 1904. Up to 1905 the total recorded mineral production of Western Australia amounted to £6,512,490, representing £537,901 of that sum; while £137,793,842 had been paid in dividends.

Western Australia ranks as the largest gold producer of the Australian Colonies. Gold-mining operations which had been going on between Greenough and Mulla Mulla on the Geraldton-Cue railway line were discontinued in 1905, the bore hole, carried to a depth of 1418 ft. having failed to show coal. The tonnage of gold produced in 1905 amounted to 16,206; of tin, £65,840; of silver, £44,278. The value of the coal produced in that year was £55,312.

Indians.—The agricultural possibilities of the state are more restricted than those of the eastern states, as the rainfall in the southern and temperate portion does not extend far from the coast, and the land where the fall is satisfactory is only good over small areas of land. The area cultivated in 1871 was 14,870 acres; in 1891, 64,000 acres; and in 1905, 467,122 acres. The principal crops grown in the year last named were: wheat, 195,071 acres; oats, 15,713 acres; hay, 124,900 acres. The wool on hand was 1,470,076, and the hay crop was 1,122,410 tons per acre. In 1905 the number of sheep depastured was 3,120,763, cattle, 631,825; horses, 97,979. These figures show an increase for the past ten years. The number of sheep has increased considerably in late years. In 1871, 2,000,000 lb. of wool were exported; in 1881, 4,100,000 lb. in
WESTERN AUSTRALIA

1891, 8,800,000 lb; in 1900, 9,514,000 lb; and in 1905, 17,489,402 lb; the value of the latter being $594,872.

Western Australia has very extensive forests of timber, and it has been estimated that the forested surfaces cover more than 20 million acres, of which 8 million acres are jarrah; 1,200,000 acres, karri; 200,000 acres, tuart; 7 million acres, wandoow; and 4 million acres, York gum, yate, sandwood and jam. The principal timber ports is jarrah, karri and wandoo, and the exports being about $656,000 annually. There are 30 saw-mills in operation, employing altogether 2750 hands.

Fisheries are taking an important position, and comprise pearl shell, fishing, salmon, and oyster fishing. The payments from these fisheries have been increasing. In 1899 the exports amounted to $110,667, and in 1904 they were $171,237.

Mandurah, at the mouth of the Murray, and Fremantle have preserving sheds for mullet and snapper. Guano beds are worked to much advantage at the Laccadive Isles. Salt is produced largely at Rottnest Island. Raisins are dried, and the oil of castor trees is expressed. The mulberry tree succeeds well, and sericulture is making progress. Dugong oil is got from Shark's Bay. Honey and wax are becoming valuable exports; from the abundance of flowers the hives can be emptied twice a year. Manna and gums of various kinds are among the resources of the country. Among the wines made are the Risling, Burgundy, Sweetwater, Hock and Fontainbleau.

Commerce.—All the great lines of steamers trading between Australia and Europe make one of the ports a place of call both on the outward and homeward voyages; this makes the shipping very large compared with the population. In 1891 the tonnage entered and cleared equalled 21 tons per head, and in 1905 14.3 tons. The shipping coming from Europe at Fremantle is shown by the following figures.

The trade of Bunbury was shipping 92,281 tons, imports $59,197; Broome, shipping 32,191 tons, imports $48,653; other ports, shipping 18,366 tons, imports $18,730.

The trade has increased very rapidly under the influence of the gold discoveries, as the following figures show:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Per Head</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>147,913</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>95,789</td>
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<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>226,000</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>201,196</td>
<td>8.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>1881</td>
<td>404,831</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>502,770</td>
<td>17.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>1,264,471</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>851,563</td>
<td>45.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>6,448,159</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>9,871,219</td>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
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About 54% of the trade is with Great Britain and 21% with the other Commonwealth states.

Railways.—Western Australia is the only state of Australia in which there is any considerable length of railway lines not owned by the State. The railway line in 1857 was not more than 655 m. were privately owned. The divergence of the policy of Western Australia from that pursued by other states was caused by the inability of the government to construct lines at a time when the extension of the railway was most urgently required in the interests of settlement. Private enterprise was therefore encouraged by liberal grants of land to undertake the work of construction. Changed conditions have modified the state policy in respect of landgrants, and in 1897 the government acquired the Great Southern railway. 243 m. in length, one of the two trunk lines in private hands. The cost of constructing and equipping the state lines open for traffic in 1900 was $4,500,000; the earnings for that year amounted to $6,101,129, the working expenses were $1,256,003, and the net receipts $5,115,126; this represents a return of 36.6% upon the capital.

Posts and Telegraphs.—The postal business has grown enormously since the gold discoveries. In 1905 there were 295 post offices as compared with 86 in 1891. In the latter year the letters despatched and received were 3,300,000 letters; the newspapers and periodicals were 1,000,000; the money orders amounted to $1,634,597. There were sixteen public telephone exchanges and 4877 telephones in use at the end of that year.

Banking.—There are six banks of issue, with 109 branches in various parts of the country. The liabilities of these banks in 1904 averaged $5,205,176, and the assets $6,999,350; the note circulation was $2,548,610; the deposits bearing interest $1,475,610; deposits not bearing interest $3,258,204, making the total deposits $4,733,910. The gold and silver held by the banks, including bullion, was $2,129,304. The savings banks are directly controlled by the government. In 1903 there were 54,873 depositors in these banks with $2,079,763, being an average of $37. 18s. per depositor. In 1891 there were only 3564 depositors and $6,181 at credit.

HISTORY.—The Western and northern coasts of the colony are dotted with numerous islands and reefs. The Great Barrier Reef, stretching for 1,200 miles from Cape York to the northern coast of Queensland, is the longest barrier reef in the world. The reefs are covered with a profusion of coral and marine life. The area of the reef is estimated at 200,000 square miles. The coral is used for building and for the manufacture of coral beads and other decorative objects.

The discovery of the coast may be attributed to Portuguese and Spanish navigators, who were in the seas northward of Australia as early as 1520. The next visitors, nearly a century later, were the Dutch. John Edel explored the coast in 1616, and Captain J. F. M. de Twee in 1628. The "Guilde Zeepaard" in 1629 landed along the south coast of Western Australia. The territory belonging to Nuyt's Land. Tasman made a survey of the north shore in 1644, but did not advance far on the western border. Dampier was off the west coast in 1696 and 1699, naming Shark's Bay. Vancouver entered Cook Sound in 1778. The French, under D'Entrecasteaux, were off Western Australia in 1792; and their commodore Baudin, of the "Géographe" and "Naturaliste," in 1801 and 1802 made important discoveries along the western and north-western shores. Captain Flinders about the same time paid a visit to the Southern and northern lands and beyond the South Australian boundary. Freycinet went thither in 1818. Captain King surveyed the northern waters between 1818 and 1822. The earliest settlement was made from Port Jackson, at the end of 1825. Owing to a fear that the French might occupy King George Sound, Major Lockyer carried thither a party of convicts and soldiers, seventy-five in all, and took formal British possession, though Vancouver had previously done so. Yet the Dutch had long before declared New Holland, which then meant only the western portion of Australia, to be Dutch property. This continued occupation returned to Sydney in 1829. In 1827 Captain Stirling was sent to report upon the Swan river, and his narrative excited such interest in England as to lead to an actual free settlement at the Swan river. Captain Fremantle, R.N., in 1827 took official possession of the whole country. Stirling's account stimulated the emigration ardour of Sir F. Vincent, and Messrs Peel, Macqueen, &c., who formed an association, securing from the British government permission to occupy land in Western Australia proportionate to the capital invested, and the number of emigrants they despatched thither. In this way Mr Peel had a grant of 250,000 acres, and Colonel Latour of 103,000. Captain (afterwards Sir James) Stirling was appointed lieutenant-governor, arriving June 3, 1829. The people were scattered on large grants. The land was poor, and the forests heavy; provisions were at famine prices; and many left for Sydney or Hobart Town. The others struggled on, finding a healthful climate, and a soil favouring fruits and vegetables, whilst their stock grazed in the more open but distant quarters. The overland journey of Eyre from Adelaide to King George Sound in 1830-1834, through a waterless waste, discouraged settlers; but Grey's overland walk in 1838 from Shark's Bay to Perth revealed fine rivers and good land in Victoria district, subsequently occupied by farmers, graziers and miners. The difficulties of the settlers had compelled them to seek help from the British treasury, in the offer to accept convicts. These came in 1859; but transportation ceased in 1868, in consequence of loud protests from the other colonies.

The progressive history of Western Australia may be said to commence in 1870, when its energetic and capable governor, Sir Frederick Weld, began to inaugurate public works on a
large scale. It was still the day of small things, for the colony, though of the enormous extent of 1,000,000 sq. m., was practically unknown, its resources were restricted, and its population scanty. However, a beginning was then made, and the first Loan Bill to raise money for pushing on telegraphs, for surveying lines of projected railways, and above all for starting exploring expeditions, passed the Legislative Council. The colony was fortunate in possessing two brothers of the best practical type of explorer, John and Alexander Forrest. The object of their earliest expeditions was to find more land available for pastoral or agricultural settlement. Vast distances in various directions were covered, and severe hardships, chiefly from want of water, were undergone by these hardy pioneers. Perhaps the most famous of these journeys was that accomplished by Mr. (afterwards Sir) John Forrest between Eucla and Adelaide in 1870.

Some dauntless explorers—notably Mr. Ernest Giles, the Gregories and Mr. Austin—had also contributed to the growing knowledge of the resources of the vast territory, and the state owes and gratefully acknowledges its debt to these stalwart and splendid pioneers. Although, in consequence of the vast amount of gold which had been found in the eastern colonies, principally in Victoria, all these explorations had carried an immense amount of gold, it was not until 1851 that the government geologist reported indications of auriferous country in the Kimberley district, and the first payable gold-field was shortly afterwards "proclaimed" there. Exploring expeditions in every direction were then started both privately and publicly, and prosecuted with great vigour. Within five years gold-fields were proclaimed at Yilgarn, about 200 m. to the east of Perth, and the discovery of patches of rich alluvial gold in the Pilbara district quickly followed, but the rush for the Coolgardie and Kalgoorlie gold-fields did not begin until 1893.

The year 1893 saw the colony grow rapidly in population, and the desire for the extension of responsible government. Two years before, a practically unanimous vote of the Legislative Council had affirmed the principle of autonomy, and the general election in the following year showed more plainly the desire of the people of Western Australia for the self-government which had enabled the eastern colonies to control their own affairs successfully for thirty years. The new Legislative Council of 1894 therefore drafted a Constitution Bill, which after some discussion was forwarded to Lord Knutsford, the Secretary of State for the Colonies. This Bill was rejected before the Imperial Parliament, and another Bill was then rejected by that assembly, chiefly owing to the misunderstanding of vital questions, such as the control of crown lands, the scantiness of the scattered population, and other less important details. However, the governor of that day, Sir Frederick Napier Broome, K.C.M.G., having satisfied himself that the constitutional change was necessary not only for the immediate needs of the rapidly growing colony, but in view of the larger question of Imperial Federation, supported the demands of the Legislature in every possible way. A clear and able statement of the colonists' case, which appeared above his signature in The Times in the summer of that year, helped to bring about a better understanding of the subject; and a slightly modified Constitution Bill having been passed by the new Legislative Council, the governor and two members of the Legislature (Sir T. C. Campbell and Mr. S. H. Parker, Q.C.) were selected to proceed to England as delegates to explain and urge the wishes of the colonists upon the Imperial Parliament. A select committee, with Baron de Worms as chairman, was appointed, and the matter was carefully considered, with the satisfactory result that the Bill enabling the Queen to grant a constitution to Western Australia passed its third reading in the House of Commons on 4th July, and received the royal assent on 5th August 1890.

Since then the colony has made great progress. Sir John Forrest, who was for ten years its Premier, brought to his arduous task not only administrative ability of a very high order, but a thorough and intimate knowledge of the needs and resources of the vast colony over so much of which he had travelled.

For a long time the advantages of Federation were not so apparent to the people of Western Australia as to those of the eastern colonies, and although Sir John Forrest consistently and patiently laboured at every opportunity to explain the principles of the Bill framed by the committee of the Imperial Parliament, and approved by the Imperial Government, to Sir Alfred Holt, Lord Carnarvon, the then Secretary of State for the Colonies, and by the late Sir Charles Wordsworth, the Governor of New South Wales, there was much misapprehension, chiefly to the questions of tariff and free trade, and to the loss of the individual control of such sources of revenue as customs, postal and telegraphic services. Of the financial arrangements, for trade, it was urged in favour of Federation, but that was hardly enough to counterbalance the fears of the local producer, who had become accustomed to a protective tariff. The gold-fields expressed a desire to remain more or less independent of the colony, and although a numerous deputation of persons, including the Prime Minister, the Chief Justice, the Clerk of the Legislative Council, and the Secretary of the Colonies, was received by the Lord Lieutenant, it received scant encouragement. It was regarded in the light of a party move, and did not prove successful. Still there was great hesitation on the part of many of the colonists of Western Australia to join the Commonwealth without receiving a pledge for the retention of their own customs dues for five years, and early in 1900 Sir John Forrest made a personal attempt to obtain this concession from the sister governments. He was, however, unsuccessful, as was Mr. S. H. Parker, Q.C., who in the same year accompanied the delegates from the eastern colonies to London, and endeavoured to obtain the insertion in the Enabling Bill of certain recommendations of the Imperial Committee in Perth. Yet as a whole the people of Western Australia were loyal to the Federal cause, and therefore it was considered best to submit the Bill to a referendum of the electors, when a majority of over 25,000 votes decisive in the Northern Federation was obtained. The people of Western Australia should have the right to enact their own tariff as against the sister states for the desired five years, decreasing annually at the rate of one-fifth of the amount of the original duty until the whole was dropped.

(M. A. B.)

WESTFIELD, a township of Hampden county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Westfield river, about 10 m. W. of Springfield. Pop. (1890) 9,605; (1900) 12,310 (2441 being foreign-born); (1905, state census) 13,611; (1910) 16,044. It is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford and the Boston & Albany railways, and is connected with Springfield, Holyoke and Huntington by electric lines. The township lies in and on either side of a deep alluvial valley, 6-7 m. long from east to west and 2-3 m. wide, and includes the large village of Westfield, which was settled in 1720, and the township of Whist Whip Conduit. Although it was the largest in the world; this industry was begun here early in the 19th century. Other important manufactures are foundry and machine-shop products, paper, thread and bicycles. In 1905 the value of the product factory was $5,818,130, an increase of 31 % since 1900. A trading port, known by the Indian name Woronoco (or Woronoko), was established here about 1640. In 1669 the township, which had previously been part of Springfield, was erected under its present name—it was then the westernmost township in Massachusetts. Land was added to it in 1713, and part was taken from it to form Southfield (1770) and Northfield, (1773), to Montgomery (1775) and Russell (1792), and to West Springfield (1802).


WESTGATE-ON-SEA, a watering-place in the Isle of Thanet parliamentary division of Kent, England, 2 m. W. by S. of Margate on the South-Eastern & Chatham railway. Pop. (1901) 2738. It is of modern growth and noted for its healthy climate. Facing the sea there are gardens and promenades over 1 m. in length, and there is a marine drive along the top of the cliffs. There are also golf links and other appointments of a popular resort. BIRCHINGTON, immediately to the west (pop. 2218), is also a growing resort. The church of All Saints is
WEST HAM—WEST INDIES

Perpendicular, with an Early English tower, and contains some interesting monuments.

WEST HAM, a municipal, county, and parliamentary borough of Essex, England, forming an eastward suburb of London. Pop. (1891) 204,003, (1900) 267,358. The parish stretches north and south from Wanstead and Leyton to the Thames, and east and west from East Ham to the river Lee. It is divided into four wards—Church Street, Stratford-Langthorne, Plaistow and Upton. The church of All Saints has a good Perpendicular tower, but the remainder is extensively restored. There are a number of old monuments. In the restoration of 1866 some early mural painting was discovered in the church, and carefully woven; remaining above the nave.

There are several modern churches, and a Franciscan monastery and school (St Bonaventure’s). West Ham Park (80 acres) occupies the site of Ham House and park, for many years the residence of Samuel Gurney, the banker and philanthropist. The place was purchased for £25,000, and vested in the corporation of London for the use of the public. Of this amount the Gurney family contributed £10,000 and the corporation the same sum, the remaining £10,000 being collected from the inhabitants of West Ham by Mr. Gurney. The park was opened in 1874. Mrs Elizabeth Fry lived in a house in Upton Lane, on the confines of her brother’s park. In 1762 the number of houses in West Ham parish was stated to be 700, of which “455 are mansions and 245 cottages.” Now few large houses remain, but the smaller houses have greatly increased. There are numerous chemical and other manufactures which have been removed from London itself; and the large population can also be traced in part to the foundation of the Victoria and Albert docks at Plaistow. Included within the borough are the extensive railway works of the Great Eastern railway at Stratford. This industrial centre is continued eastward in the urban district of East Ham (pop. 66,018), where the old village church of St Mary Magdalene retains Norman portions. West Ham is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. Area 4,683 acres.

At the time of the Conquest West Ham belonged to Aelastan and Leurted, two freemen, and at Domescadal to Ralph Geron and Ralph Peverel. West Ham village was included in the part which descended to the Gernons, who took the name of Montfichet. The manor of West Ham was settled upon Stratford-Upon-Abbey, founded by William de Montfichet, in 1254 for monks of the Cistercian order. The abbey stood in the marshes, on a branch of the Lea known as the Abbey Creek, about 1½ m. south of Stratford Broadway. West Ham received the grant of a market and annual fair in 1253. The lordship was given to the abbey of Stratford, and, passing to the crown at the dissolution, formed part of the dowry of Catherine of Portugal, and was therefore called the Queen’s Manor. In 1583 the urban sanitary district was erected into a parliamentary borough, returning two members for the northern and southern divisions respectively. It was incorporated in 1886.

WEST HAVEN, a borough of Orange township, New Haven county, Connecticut, U.S.A., on New Haven Harbor and separated from New Haven by the West river. Pop. (1900) 52,477 (833 foreign-born); (1910) 83,453. West Haven is served by the New York, New Haven, & Hartford railway. It is mainly a residential suburb of New Haven. There is a public park, and Savin Rock, rising from Long Island Sound, is a summer resort. West Haven was set apart from New Haven in 1822 and was united with North Milford to form the township of Orange; it was incorporated as a borough in 1873.

WEST HOBOKEN, a town of Hudson county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the N.E. part of the state, adjoining Hoboken and Jersey City. Pop. (1890) 11,665; (1900) 23,004, of whom 9119 were foreign-born; (1910, census) 25,403. For transportation facilities the town depends upon the railways serving Hoboken and Jersey City. West Hoboken lies about 2½ m. W. of the Hudson river, occupies a pleasant site somewhat higher than that of its neighbouring municipalities, and commands a fine view of the surrounding country. Among the prominent buildings are a Carnegie library, St Michael’s Monastery (containing a theological school), a Dominican Convent, and several fine churches; and there are two Roman Catholic orphanages. The town is an important centre for the manufacture of silk and silk goods; in 1905 the value of these products was $4,211,018. West Hoboken was created a separate township in 1861, from a part of the township of North Bergen, and in 1884 was incorporated as a town.

WESTHOUNTON, an urban district in the Westhoughton parliamentary division of Lancashire, England, 5 m. W.S.W. of Bolton on the Lancashire and Yorkshire railway. Pop. (1900) 14,317. There are coal mines in the neighbourhood, and the town manufactures coal and cement. Westhoughton before the time of Richard II. was a manor belonging to the abbey of Cockersand. It was confiscated at the Reformation, and since then has been vested in the crown. The army of Prince Rupert assembled on Westhoughton moor before the attack on Bolton.

WEST INDIES, THE, sometimes called the Antilles (q.v.), an archipelago stretching in the shape of a rude arc or parabola from Florida in North America and Yucatan in Central America to Venezuela in South America, and enclosing the Caribbean Sea. The islands are divided into two large groups, the Greater Antilles (Cuba, Jamaica, Haiti and Porto Rico), and the Lesser Antilles (comprising the remainder). The Lesser Antilles are again divided into the Windward Islands and Leeward Islands. Geographically, the Leeward Islands are those part of St Lucia and the Windward, St Lucia and those to the south of it; but for administrative purposes the British islands in the Lesser Antilles are grouped as is shown in the table given later.

Geology.—The West Indies are the remnants of a submerged mountain chain, the continuation of which towards the west must be sought in the mountains of Honduras. In Haiti the chain divides, one branch passing through Jamaica and the other through Cuba, the Cayman Islands and the Mysterious Bank. In Das Antilis der Erde, E. Suess divides the Antilles into three zones: (1) the first or interior zone, which is confined to the Lesser Antilles, is entirely of volcanic origin and contains many recent volcanic cones. In it the island of St Lucia, the Archipelago of Barbadoes, and St Kitts to Grenada and the Grenadines. The western part of the deep-cleft island Guadeloupe belongs to this zone. (2) The second zone consists chiefly of Cretaceous and early Tertiary rocks. In the western part of the archipelago they are broad, including the whole of the island of Barbadoes, but in the east it is restricted to a narrow belt which comprises the Virgin Islands (except Anegada), Anguilla, St Bartholomew, Antigua, the eastern part of Guadeloupe and part of Barbadoes. (3) The third and outermost zone is formed of Miocene and later beds, and the islands which compose it are flat and low. Like the second zone it is broad in the west and narrow in the east. It includes the Bahamas, Anegada, Sombrero, Barbuda and part of Barbadoes. Geologically, Florida and the plain of Yucatan may be looked upon as belonging to this zone. Neither Trinidad nor the islands off the Venezuelan coast can be said to belong to any of these three zones. Geologically they are a part of the mainland itself. They consist of gneisses and schists, supposed to be Archeaean, eruptive rocks, Cretaceous, Tertiary and Quaternary deposits; and the strike of the older rocks varies from E. & W. to W.S.W. & E.N.E. The deposits are much more nearly allied to the Greater Antilles and to Central America than they are to the Lesser Antilles; and there is accordingly some reason to believe that the arc formed by the West Indian Islands is really continuous with that to the south. In the Greater Antilles recognized by Suess are fairly clearly defined, the geological history of the Lesser Antilles, with which must be included the Virgin Islands, can only be conjectured. In this group the oldest beds composed of Cretaceous rocks, with occasional beds of limestone and occasional Cretaceous fossils. These are overlaid by sediments of terrigenous origin, and the whole series was folded before the deposition of the next succeeding strata. The nature of these Cretaceous deposits clearly indicates the neighbourhood of an extensive area of land;
but during the succeeding Eocene period and the early part of the Oligocene, a profound subsidence led to the deposition of the Globigerina chalks and white Radiolarian earths of Jamaica, Cuba and Haiti, which to the present day appear to have been almost completely submerged, and the similar deposits of Barbados and Trinidad point to a similar subsidence beyond the Windward Islands. In the middle of the Oligocene period a mighty upheaval, according to the theory of continental drift, has raised the Antilles far above their present level, and united the islands with one another, and perhaps with Florida. A subsequent subsidence, and a series of minor oscillations finally resulted in the production of the present topography.

The geology of the Lesser Antilles is somewhat different. In some of the islands there are old volcanic tuffs which may possibly be the primary rocks, the surface of which, however, has been so altered, as to here continue throughout the Tertiary period and even down to the present day. Another important difference is that except in Trinidad and Barbados, which do not properly belong to the Caribbean region, the surface of the Lesser Antilles has been covered by the sea. Antilles and there is no evidence that the area ever sank to abysmal depths.

In the foregoing account the chronology of R. T. Hill has been followed; but there is still considerable difference of opinion as to the ages and correlation of the various Tertiary deposits and consequently as to the dates of the great depression and elevation. It is quite possible that the present faunal province and the Antilles in the Pliocene and Pleistocene periods. Moreover, on the evidence of submerged valleys, he concludes that practically the whole of the Caribbean Sea, and perhaps the adjacent sea, is the shallow eastern bay of the West Indian bridge, between North and South America.¹

The mineral wealth of the islands is not remarkable. Gold, silver, and iron ore of some value: lumber, oil, coal, mercury, arsenic, antimony, manganese, and rock salt either have been or are worked. Asphalt is worked to considerable advantage among the pitch lakes of Trinidad. Opal and chalcedony are the principal precious stones.

Climate.—As in most tropical countries where considerable heights are met with—and here over 15,500 sq. m. lie at an elevation of more than 500 ft. above sea-level—the average of the hottest month (in so far as heat and cold are concerned) varies at different altitudes, and on the higher parts of many of the islands a marked degree of coolness may generally be found. With the exception of parts of the Bahamas, all the islands lie between the Tropic of Cancer (23° 27′ and 82° 5′. The extreme heat, however, is greatly tempered by the sea breezes, and by long, cool, refreshing nights. Frost is occasionally formed in the cold season when half falls, but snow is unknown. The seasons may be divided as follows. The short wet season, or spring, begins in April and lasts from two to six weeks, and is succeeded by the short dry season, when the thermometer remains almost stationary at about 80° F. In July the heat increases to an extent well nigh unbearable. No change occurs till after a period varying from the end of July to the beginning of October, when the great rainfall of the year begins, accompanied by tremendous winds and heavy rain showers. This season is known as the "hurricane months." The annual rainfall averages 63 in. These storms arise in the Atlantic and towards the east. For a day or two the hurricane, a whirlwind, including in its limited path two points towards the north, the polar tendency becoming gradually more marked as the distance from the equator increases. When the hurricanes reach latitude 25° N., they curve to the northeast, and often break off round 30° N. and at the northern portion of the Gulf of Mexico, where after which they follow the coast line of North America. Their rate of speed varies considerably, but may be said to average 300 m. per day among the islands. The usual signs of the approach of the hurricane are an ugly and threatening appearance of the weather, sharp and frequent puffs of wind, increasing in force with each blast, accompanied with heavy rain, and the water coming from the direction of the approaching storm. December marks the beginning of the long dry season, which, accompanied by fresh winds and occasional hail showers, lasts till April. The average temperature of the islands is generally uniform throughout the year, about 80° F, in the rear of the glycine, and about 82° in the afternoon. The maximum is 87°, and the minimum 75°.

Flora.—The flora of the islands is of great variety and richness, as considerable efforts of the people of the islands are very flourishing in a wild state or under cultivation; grain, vegetables, and fruits, generally common in cool climates, may be seen growing in profusion in the islands which border the Atlantic, where the climate is one of the driest in the world, and which border the Atlantic, where the climate is one of the driest in the world.

The following list of the West Indian Islands gives their area and population. Notwithstanding the numbers and wide-spreadings, produce the most valuable woods and delicious fruits. Palms are in great variety, and there are several species of gum-producing trees. Some locust trees have been estimated to have attained an age of 4000 years, and are as thick as a man can encircle, and of immense height and bulk. Piptadenia, on account of its almost imperishable character when in the ground, is used as a material for house-building. Xanthoxylum, the admired and valuable satin-wood of China, is plentiful. Sapium, a red heartwood, has a market on account of its toughness; and fruit-woods yield a useful oil and afford reliable timber; and tree ferns of various species are common. Fimihito is plentiful.

Hymenoclonium striatum covers many of the plains, and affords food for cattle.

Fauna.—The fauna of the region is Neotropical, belonging to that region which includes South and part of Central America, although great numbers of birds from the North-American portion of the Holarctic realm migrate to the islands. The resident birds, however, are mostly Neotropical, and are divided into two main sub-groups, the native and the non-migrating. These are as, in most island groups, rare. The agouti abounds, and wild pigs, and dogs are sufficiently numerous to afford good sport to the hunter, as well as smaller game, in the shape of armadillos, muskrats, and raccoons. The non-migrating birds include trogons, sugar-birds, chattering-ants, and many parrots and humming birds. Waterfowl and various kinds of pigeons are in abundance. Reptiles are various, both the boa and adder are innocuous, while lizards, scorpions, tarantulas and centipedes are everywhere. Insects are in great numbers, and are often annoying. Among domestic animals mules are largely reared, and where the country affords suitable pasture and forage cattle-breeding is practised.

Area and Population.—The following list of the West Indian islands gives their area and population.
operations of educational institutions, and of large numbers of missionaries of various religious denominations, the percentage of illegitimate births among the population of the British West Indian islands remains very high—in Barbados about 54; in Jamaica, 63; in Trinidad, 59% of the general births; and 79% of the East Indian.

The population of the West Indies represents many original stocks, the descendants of which have developed variations of habits and customs in their New World environment. They may be divided into six main classes: (1) Europeans—immigrants (British, French, Spanish and in a lesser degree Dutch, Danish and German) and West Indian born; (2) African negroes—imported (excluding quantity) and West Indian born; (3) a mixture of Europeans and Africans; (4) coolies from India—imported and West Indian born; (5) Chinese; (6) aboriginal Indians of more or less pure descent. Of these, the people of pure African blood are in a large majority, the "coloured" race of mixed European and African blood being next in numerical importance. Under British influence the negroes of the West Indies have become British in thought and habit; and it would seem that the stimulating influence of European direction and encouragement is absolutely necessary for the future development and prosperity of the islands. In Dominica and Haiti the negroes are left to drift along, while the French and Danish islands show no great sign of progress.

British Colonies, Government, &c.—The British West India colonies are either crown colonies—that is to say, their government is absolutely under the control of the British Colonial Office, the official members of their councils predominating, and the unofficial members being nominated by the crown, as in the Windward and Leeward Islands—or they have a measure of representative government, as in the Bahamas, Barbados and Jamaica, in which all or part of the legislatures are elected and are more or less independent of crown control. The laws of the various colonies are English, with local statutes to meet local needs. The governors and high officials are appointed by the crown; other officials are appointed by the governor. Each governor acts under the advice of a privy council. In matters of detail the colonies present a variety of forms of government (for which see the separate articles). Federation has been widely discussed and is held desirable by many, but in view of the insular character of the colonies, the considerable distances separating some of them, and in many instances the lack of common interests (apart from certain broad issues), the project appears to be far from realization.

The only fortified places in the British West Indies are Jamaica, Barbados and St Lucia—all of importance as coaling stations. In many of the islands there are local volunteer forces. The police forces of the colonies are in the main modelled on the Irish constabulary, supplemented by rural constabulary. The force is usually officered by Europeans.

Economic Conditions.—The West Indian colonies have suffered from periods of severe economic depression, though from the early years of the 20th century there has been good evidence of recovery and development. An obvious reason for temporary depression is the liability of the islands to earthquakes and hurricanes, in addition to eruptions in the volcanic islands, such as those in St Vincent and Martinique in 1902. For example, the great earthquake of January 1907 in Jamaica may be recalled, and hurricanes caused serious damage in Jamaica in August 1903 and November 1909, and in the Bahamas in September and October 1908. A treasury fund has been established in Jamaica as a provision against the effects of such disasters and it has been stated that the expenses (apart from certain incidental costs) which accompanies these storms is of great ultimate benefit to the soil. The British West Indian colonies do not offer opportunities for ordinary labouring immigrants. Barbados is the only island where the land is entirely settled. But the settlement, planting and development of lands elsewhere involve a considerable amount of capital, and manual labour is provided by the natives or East Indian coolies. Attempts to settle European labourers have been unsuccessful. The West Indian negro, as a labouring class, has frequently been condemned as averse from regular work, apathetic in regard to both his own and his colony's affairs, immoral and dishonest. In so far as these shortcomings exist, they are due to the tendencies inherited from the period of slavery, to the ease with which a bare livelihood may be obtained, and to other such causes. But for the most part the negroes appreciate their advantages under British government and are quick to assimilate British customs and ideas. Advances in the system of peasant proprietorship have brought beneficial results. The drafting of large numbers of labourers from the West Indies to the Panama Canal, though causing a shortage of labour and involving legislation in some of the islands, exercised a moral effect on the natives by enlarging their horizon.

The growth of general prosperity in the British West Indies is attributed partly to the revival of the sugar industry, to the development of the fruit trade; to the increase in the cultivation of cocoa and cotton; to the volume of tourist travel, which swells year by year; and to such local developments as the "boom" in Trinidad oil. It was pointed out in the Report of the Royal Commission on Trade Relations between Canada and the West Indies (Cd. 5366, London, 1910) that "the geographical position of the West Indian Colonies must always tend to throw them under the influence of the fiscal system either of the United States or of the Dominion of Canada. Attempts have been made from time to time to obtain for these Colonies special advantages in the markets of the United States. . . . The Colonial policy of the United States has now finally stopped in that direction," and the connexion with the Dominion has therefore become of paramount importance. The Dominion government admitted the West Indies to the British preferential tariff (25% under existing duties) in 1898. The preference was raised to 32½ in 1900. In 1905 the duties imposed on bounty-fed beef sugar in the United States, which had opened the market there to West Indian sugar, were abolished, and a surtax (since removed) was placed on German imports into Canada. Both acts enhanced the value of the Canadian market to the West Indies, while that of the American sugar market was further reduced when in 1901 sugar from Porto Rico began to be admitted thereto free of duty, and when special terms were extended to sugar from the Philippine Islands and Cuba in 1902. The Canadian connexion was thus largely instrumental in saving the sugar industry in the West Indies from severe depression, if not from the actual extinction foreseen by a Royal Commission in 1897. This commission pointed out, in particular, the danger which threatened those colonies where sugar provided practically the sole industrial and commercial interest. On a recommendation of this commission the Imperial Department of Agriculture was established in 1898, its cost being met from imperial funds. It is under a commissioner with headquarters at Barbados. Its functions are to maintain and supervise botanical and experimental stations, to establish agricultural schools, arrange agricultural teaching in other schools, create scholarships, and issue publications. The department has been largely instrumental in establishing new industries and thus relieving many islands from dependence on the sugar industry alone.

The negotiations for commercial relations between the West Indies and Canada began in 1866; in 1872 proposals for steamship subsidies were accepted. The Commission of 1900 recommended that the governments should continue to subsidize Canadian steamers, and also suggested various improvements. In 1901 a line of subsidized steamers had been begun between Jamaica and England, but this contract expired, and the mail contract was determined in 1910, and recommendations were put forward for a steamship service between Canadian and West Indian ports with improvements additional to those recommended by the Commission. It may be added that the

1 In The Times of May 24, 1910, where, in an imperial supplement, a number of articles on the West Indian colonies appear.
Commission also made recommendations for the reduction of the high cable rates between the West Indies and the United Kingdom.

Besides sugar, the principal products of the islands are cocoa, fruits and cotton. Cotton-growing reached importance in a very short time owing largely to the efforts of the Imperial Government of India to develop the cotton industry. West Indian cotton was first grown only in 1903, and in that island and elsewhere (Antigua, St Kitts, Montserrat) good crops are now obtained. Grenada is almost entirely, and Trinidad, Dominica and Barbados largely, clothed with upland forest. The spice trade is of growing importance, and there is a demand for bottled fruit in Canada and elsewhere. The variety of fruits grown is great; the bananas and oranges of Jamaica, the pine-apples of the Bahamas and the local pine-apples of the Bahamas may be mentioned as characteristic.

It must be borne in mind, however, that the islands as a whole cannot be said to possess a community of commercial interests. Even the industries already indicated are by no means equally distributed throughout the islands; moreover there are certain local industries of high importance, such as the manufacture of rum in Jamaica, the production of oil from the oilfields (the development of which was first seriously undertaken about 1905) in Trinidad, and the production of arrowroot in St Vincent. Sponges are an important product of the Bahamas, and salt of the Turks Islands, rubber plantations have been successfully exploited in several islands, such as Trinidad, Dominica and St Lucia. (See further articles on the various islands.)

History.—In all the British colonies there is full religious toleration. The Church of England Province of the West Indies is divided into the following bishoprics: Jamaica, Nassau (i.e. Bahamas), Trinidad, St Vincent, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Barbados, Windward Islands, (British) Guiana. With the exception of Barbados and British Guiana, the Church of England is disestablished, disendowment taking place gradually, the churches thus becoming self-supporting. In Barbados the Church is both established and endowed. In the Bahamas and Jamaica disendowment is gradually taking place; in Trinidad and British Guiana the Church of England receives endowment concurrently with other religious bodies. The Windward Islands, Leeward Islands, British Guiana and British Honduras are totally disendowed. In all the islands, except Trinidad, St Lucia, Grenada and Dominica, the Church of England, though the Church of Rome, being the only Church with the exception of other bodies, is the most numerous of any denomination. There are Roman Catholic bishops at Port-of-Spain (Trinidad), Roseau (Dominica—for the Leeward Islands), Jamaica, British Guiana and Barbados (resident at Georgetown), British Honduras, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Haiti (archbishop and four bishops), Santo Domingo (archbishop), Cuba (archbishop and bishop), Porto Rico and Curagao. Other religious denominations working actively in the West Indies are the Baptists, Wesleyans, Presbyterians, Congregationalists and Moravians.

The archipelago received the name of the West Indies from Columbus, who hoped that, through the islands, he had found a new route to India. The name of Antilles was derived from the fact that Columbus, on his arrival here, was supposed to have reached the fabled land of Antilia. Columbus first landed on San Salvador, generally identified with Watling Island of the Bahamas, and several voyages to this new land were made in rapid succession by the great discoverer, resulting in the finding of most of the larger islands, and a more intimate knowledge of those already known. The importance of its latest possession was at once recognized by the court of Spain, and, as a first move towards turning the West Indies to profitable account, numbers of the natives, for the most part a harmless and gentle people, were shipped overseas and sold into slavery, others being employed in forced labour in the mines which the Spaniards had opened throughout the archipelago, and from which large returns were expected. Thus early in its history began that traffic in humanity with which the West India plantations are so widely associated, and which endured for so long a time. Government being wrongfully inflicted upon them, the aborigines at last took arms against their masters, but with the result which might have been expected—their almost utter extinction. Many of the survivors sought release from their sufferings in suicide, and numbers of others perished in the mines, so that the native race soon almost ceased to exist. Spain was not long allowed to retain an undisputed hold upon the islands: British and Dutch seamen soon sought the new region, accounts concerning the fabulous wealth and treasure of which stirred all Europe, and a desultory warfare began to be waged amongst the various voyagers who flocked to this El Dorado, in consequence of which the Spaniards found themselves gradually but surely forced from many of their vantage grounds, and compelled very materially to reduce the area over which they had held unchecked sway.

The first care of the English settlers was to find out the real agricultural capabilities of the islands, and they diligently set about planting tobacco, cotton and indigo. A French West India Company was incorporated in 1625, and a settlement established on the island of St Christopher, where a small English colony was already engaged in clearing and cultivating the ground; these were driven out by the Spaniards in 1627, but only to return and again settle the West Indies. About this time the celebrated buccaneers, Dutch smugglers, and British and French pirates began to infest the neighbouring seas, doing much damage to legitimate traders, and causing commerce to be carried on only under force of arms, and with much difficulty and danger. Indeed, it was not till the beginning of the 18th century—some time after Spain had, in 1670, given up her claim to the exclusive possession of the archipelago—that these rovers were rendered comparatively harmless; and piracy yet lingered off the coasts down to the early years of the 19th century. In 1640 sugar-cane began to be systematically cultivated, and the prosperity of the West Indies began; it was not from the gold and precious stones, to which the Spaniards had looked for wealth and power, but from the cane that the fortunes of the West Indies were to spring. The successful propagation of this plant drew to the islands crowds of adventurers, many of them men of considerable wealth. The West Indies were for many years used by the English government as penal settlements, the prisoners working on the plantations as slaves. In 1653 a British force made an unsuccessful attack on Haiti, but a sudden descent on Jamaica was more fortunate in its result, and that rich and beautiful island has since been the object of great rivalry. The Portuguese were the first to import negroes as slaves, and their example was followed by other nations having West-Indian colonies, the traffic existing for about 300 years. In 1650 a division of the islands was arranged between England and France, the remaining aborigines being driven to specified localities, but this treaty did not produce the benefits expected from it, and as wars raged in Europe the islands (see separate articles) frequently changed hands.

his bust of Sir William Chambers. In 1809 he was elected an associate, and in 1811 a full member of the Royal Academy, his diploma work being a "Ganymede" in high relief; in 1827 he was appointed to succeed Flaxman as Royal Academy professor of sculpture, and in 1837 he was knighted. A very large number of important public monuments were executed by him, including many portrait statues; but little can be said in praise of such works as the statue on the duke of York's column (1833), the portrait of Fox in Bloomsbury Square, or that of the duke of Bedford in Russell Square. Much admiration was expressed at the time for Westmacott's monuments to Collingwood and Sir Ralph Abercromby in St Paul's Cathedral, and of that of Mrs Warren in Westminster Abbey; but subjects like these were far less congenial to him than sculpture of a more classical type, such as the pedimental figures representing the progress of civilization over the portico of the British Museum, completed in 1847, and his colossal nude statue of Achilles in bronze, copied from the original on Monte Cavallo in Rome, and reared in 1822 by the ladies of England in Hyde Park as a compliment to the duke of Wellington. He died on the 1st of September 1856.

WESTMEATH, EARL OF, a title held in the Irish family of Nugent since 1622. In 1649 it was bestowed on Sir William Nugent (d. 1652) on the accession of James II. His grandson, Richard, 4th earl (d. 1686), married Catherine, daughter of John Fitzjoh. The barony, however, is considered to date from the time of Sir William Nugent and not from that of Sir Gilbert, 1389 being generally regarded as the date of its creation.

Sir William Nugent, who is generally called the 1st, but sometimes the 4th, baronet, was succeeded by his son, Sir Richard (d. c. 1465) as 2nd baronet. In 1444 and 1449 Sir Richard was lord deputy of Ireland. His grandson, Richard, the 4th baronet (d. c. 1538), was summoned to the Irish parliament in 1486. During his whole life he was loyal to the English king, and both before and after the years 1527 and 1528 when he was lord deputy, he took a vigorous part in the warfare against the Irish rebels. Among his descendants was Robert Nugent, Earl Nugent (g.v.). Richard's grandson, Christopher, the 6th baronet (c. 1544–1602), also served England well, but when he died in 1602 he left the barony of Queen Elizabeth, and he was several times imprisoned, being in the intervals employed in Ireland. He was a prisoner in Dublin Castle when he died. Delvin wrote A Primer of the Irish Language, compiled at the request and for the use of Queen Elizabeth.

His son, Richard, the 7th baronet (1583–1642), took part in 1606 in a plot against the English government and was imprisoned, but he soon escaped from captivity and secured a pardon from James I. In 1621 he was created earl of Westmeath. Having refused in 1641 to join the Irish rebellion, he was attacked by a party of rebels and was so seriously injured that he died shortly afterwards. His grandson, Richard, the 2nd earl (d. 1684), served Charles II. against Cromwell in Ireland and afterwards raised some troops for service in Spain. His grandson Thomas, the 4th earl (1650–1725), served James II. in Ireland. Thomas's brother, John, the 5th earl (1672–1754), left Ireland after the final defeat of James II. and took service in France. He fought against England at the battles of Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet and remained on active service until 1748. He died in Brabant on the 3rd of July 1754. His son George Frederick, the 7th earl (1776–1814), a member of the Irish House of Commons before 1792, was succeeded by his son George Thomas John (1785–1871), who was created marquess of Westmeath in 1832 and who was an Irish representative peer from 1831 to 1871. He died without legitimate sons on the 5th of May 1871, when the marquessate became extinct.

The earldom of Westmeath now passed to a distant cousin, Anthony Francis Nugent (1805–1879), a descendant of Thomas Nugent (d. 1715) of Pullen, Great Knocklayde, a son of the 2nd earl. Thomas was the chief justice of Ireland from 1651 to 1653 and was outlawed by the government of William III. In 1669 he was created James II. baron of Riverston, but the validity of this title has never been admitted. In 1838 his descendant, Anthony Francis (b. 1870), became the 11th earl.

Cadets of the Nugent family were Nicholas Nugent (d. 1782), chief justice of the common bench in Ireland, who was hanged for treason on the 6th of April 1782; William Nugent (d. 1785), an Irish rebel during the reign of Elizabeth; Sir George Nugent, 2nd baronet (d. 1757–1840), who, after serving with the army in America and in the Netherlands, returned in 1711 to 1813 and became a field-marshall in 1849; and Sir Charles Edmund Nugent (c. 1759–1844), an admiral of the fleet. More famous perhaps was Laval, Count Nugent (1777–1862), who rose to the rank of field-marshall in the Austrian army and was made a prince of the empire. His long and honourable military career began in 1793 and sixty-six years later he was present at the battle of Solferino. His most distinguished services to Austria were during the war with France in 1813 and 1814, and he served in the campaign in Russia in 1812.

See D'Alton, Pedigree of the Nugent Family; and Historical Sketch of the Nugent Family, printed by J. C. Lyons (1835).

WESTMEATH, a county of Ireland in the province of Leinster, bounded N.W. by Longford, N. by Cavan, N.E. and E. by Meath, S. by King's county, and W. by Roscommon. The area is 454,104 acres, or about 709 sq. m. The Shannon forms the western boundary. The average height of the surface of the county is over 250 ft. above sea-level. The highest summits are Knocklayde (795 ft.), Hill of Ben (710 ft.) and Knockavon (707 ft.). A large surface is occupied by bog. A special feature of Westmeath is the number of large loughs, which have a combined area of nearly 17,000 acres. In the north, on the borders of Cavan, is Lough Sheelin, with a length of 5 m., and an average breadth of between 2 and 3 m., and adjoining it is the smaller Lough Kinale. In the centre of the county there is a group of large loughs, of which Lough Dervenagh is 6 m. long by 3 broad at its widest part. To the north of it are Loughs Lene, Glore, Bawn and others, and to the south Loughs Iron and Owal. Further south is Lough Ennell or Belvidere, and in the south-west Lough Rea, a great expanse of water. The river Shannon, forming part of the boundary with Roscommon. The river Inny, which rises in Co. Cavan, enters Westmeath from Lough Sheelin, and, forming for parts of its course the boundary with Longford, falls into Lough Ree. The Inny has as one of its tributaries the Glore, flowing from Lough Lene through Lough Glore, a considerable part of its course being underground. From Lough Lene the Dale also flows southwards to the Boyne and so to the Irish Sea, and thus this lake sends its waters to the opposite shores of the island. The Brosna flows from Lough Ennell southwards by King's county's boundary to the Shannon. The Westmeath loughs have a peculiar fame among anglers for the excellence of their trout-fishing.

Westmeath is essentially a county of the great Carboniferous Limestone plain, with numerous lakes occupying the hollows. Two or three little inlets of Old Red Sandstone, as at Killucan and Moate, form distinct hills, about 600 ft. in height. The hill near Killucan, a core of Silurian strata appears within the sandstone dome. A considerable system of eskers, notably north of Tullamore, divides the surface of the county.

The soil is generally a rich loam of great depth resting on limestone, and is well adapted both for tillage and pasturage. The occupations are almost wholly agricultural, dairy farming and market gardening being the principal. Only the textile manufactures are those of friezes, flannels, and coarse linens for home use. The only mineral of any value is limestone.

The main line of the Midland Great Western railway enters the county from E. and passes W. by Mullingar and Athlone. From Mullingar a branch runs N.W. to Inny Junction, where lines diverge N. to Cavan (county Cavan), and W.N.W. to Longford (county Longford). A branch to Athlone and the Midland Great Western railway runs from Portarlington (Queen's county) to Athlone, and this and the Midland Great Western main line are connected by a short line between Clare and Streamstown, worked
by the latter company. Water communication with Dublin is furnished by the Royal Canal, traversing the centre of the county. A branch of the Grand Canal reaches Kilbeggan in the south.

The population (49,611 in 1891; 61,620 in 1901) decreases in excess of the average shown by the Irish counties, and emigration is considerable. About 92% of the total are Roman Catholics, and about 8% constitute the rural population. The principal towns are Athlone (pop. 6617), of which the part formerly in Roscommon was added to Westmeath by the Local Government (Ireland) Act of 1898, and Mullingar (4550), the county town. Castlepollard and Moate are lesser market towns. By the Redistribution Act of 1885 Westmeath was formed of the three parliamentary divisions, North and South, each returning one member, Athlone being included in the county representation. The county is divided into twelve baronies. Assizes are held at Mullingar and quarter sessions at Mullingar and Moate. The county is in the Protestant dioceses of Dublin, Killaloe and Ossory, and in the Roman Catholic dioceses of Kildare and Leighlin, Killaloe and Ossory.

Westmeath was severed from Meath (q.v.) in 1543. The plan for the insurrection of 1641 was concerted in the abbey of Mullingar, and both in the wars of this period and those of the great insurrection of 1641 and 1642 it was found that the majority of the estates were confiscated. There are a considerable number of raths or encampments; one at Rathconrath is of great extent; another at Ballymote was fortified during the wars of the Cromwellian period and those of 1688, and was afterwards the headquarters of General Ginkel, when preparing to besiege Athlone; and there is a third of considerable size near Lough Lene. The ruins of the Franciscan abbey of Mullifarnham, founded in 1236 by William Delaware, picturesquely situated near Lough Dereravagh, include a tower 93 ft. in height.

Westmeath, Marquesses of and Dukes of.

The title of marquess of Westmeath was bestowed in 1831 upon Robert Grosvenor, 2nd Earl Grosvenor (1767-1845), whose grandson, Hugh Lupus Grosvenor (1825-1890), was created duke of Westmeath in 1874. The family of Grosvenor is of great antiquity in Cheshire, the existence of a knightly house of this name (Le Grosvenor) in the palatine county being proved by deeds as early as the 12th century (see *The Ancestor*, vi. 19). The legend of its descent from a nephew of Hugh Lupus, earl of Chester, perpetuated in the name of the first duke, and the still more extravagant story, repeated by the old genealogists, and modern "peereages," of its ancestors, the "grand huntsmen" (gros veneurs) of the dukes of Normandy, have been exploded by the researches of Mr W. H. B. Bird (see "The Grosvenor Myth" in *The Ancestor*, vol. i. April 1902). The ancestors of the dukes of Westmeath, the Grosvenors of Eaton, near Chester, were cadets of the knightly house mentioned above, and rose to wealth and eminence through a series of fortunate marriages. Their baronetcy dates from 1622.

Sir Thomas Grosvenor, the 3rd baronet (1656-1700), in 1676 married Mary (d. 1730), heiress of Alexander Davies (d. 1665), a scion of an ancient Cheshire family. This union brought to the Grosvenor family certain lands, then on the outskirts of London, but now covered by some of the most fashionable quarters of the West End. Sir Thomas's sons, Richard (1689-1723), Thomas (1603-1733) and Robert (d. 1755), succeeded in turn to the baronetcy, Robert being the father of Sir Richard Grosvenor (1731-1802), created Baron Grosvenor in 1761 and Viscount Belgrave and Earl Grosvenor in 1784. The 1st earl, a great breeder of racehorses, was succeeded by his only surviving son Robert (1787-1843), who rebuilt Eaton Hall and developed his London property, which was rapidly increasing in value. In the House of Commons, where he sat from 1788 to 1802, he was a follower of Pitt, who made him a lord of the admiralty and later a commissioner of the board of control, but after 1806 he left the Tories and joined the Whigs. He was created a marquess at the coronation of William IV. in 1831. His son, Richard, the 2nd marquess, (1795-1860), was a member of parliament from 1818 to 1835 and lord steward of the royal household from 1830 to 1837. The latter's son, Hugh Lupus (1825-1890), created a duke in 1874, was from 1847 to 1890 member of parliament for Chester and from 1880 to 1885 master of the horse under Gladstone, but he left the Liberal party when the split came over Home Rule for Ireland. His great wealth made him specially conspicuous; but he was a patron of many progressive movements. His eldest son, Victor Alexander, Earl Grosvenor (1853-1884), predeceased him, and he was succeeded as 2nd duke by his grandson, Hugh Richard Arthur Grosvenor (b. 1875), who in 1901 married Miss Cornwallis-West. Earl Grosvenor's widow, Countess Grosvenor, a daughter of the 9th earl of Scarborough, became a baroness of Westmeath.

Two other peerages are held by the Grosvenor family. In 1857 Lord Robert Grosvenor (1801-1883), a younger son of the 1st marquess, after having sat in the House of Commons since 1822, was created Baron Ebury. He was an energetic opponent of ritualism in the Church of England; and he was associated in philanthropic work with the earl of Shaftesbury. On his death his son, Robert Wellesley Grosvenor (b. 1834), became the 2nd baron. In 1886, Lord Richard Grosvenor (1836-1913), a son of Lord Ebury, was created a viscount, one of the 1st of 1902). The council consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen and 60 councillors. The city comprises the parliamentary boroughs of the Strand, Westminster and St George's, Hanover Square, each returning one member. Area, 2502-7 acres. The City of Westminster, as thus depicted, extends from the western end of Fleet Street to Kensington Gardens, and from Oxford Street to the Thames, which it borders over a distance of 3 m., between Victoria (Chelsea) Bridge and a point below Waterloo Bridge. It thus includes a large number of the finest buildings in London, from the Law Courts in the east to the Imperial Institute in the west, Buckingham Palace and St James's palace, the National Gallery, and most of the greatest residences of the wealthy classes. But the name of Westminster is more generally associated with a more confined area, namely, the quarter which includes the Abbey, the Houses of Parliament, the government and other buildings in Whitehall, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, and the parts immediately adjacent to these.

Westminster Abbey.—The Abbey of St Peter is the most widely celebrated church in the British empire. The Thames, bordered in early times by a great expanse of fen on either hand from Chelsea and Battersea downward, connects the point where the Abbey stands, on the north shore of a low island perhaps three-quarters of a mile in circumference, known as Thorney or Bramble islet. Tributary streams from the north formed channels through the marsh, flanking the island north and south, and were once connected by a dyke on the west. These channels belonged to the Tyburn, which flowed from the high ground of Hampstead. Relics of the Roman occupation have been excavated in the former island, and it is supposed that traffic on the Watling Street, from Dover to Chester, crossed the Thames and the marshes by way of Thorpe burn before the construction of London Bridge; the road continuing north-west in the line of the modern Park Lane (partly) and Edgware Road. Tradition places on the island a temple of Apollo, which was destroyed by an earthquake in the reign of the emperor Antoninus Pius. On the site King Lucius is said to have founded a church (c. A.D. 170). The irrigation of the Saxons left Thorney desolate. Traditional still, but supported by greater probability, a story states that Sebert,
king of the East Saxons, having taken part in the foundation of St Paul's Cathedral, restored or refounded the church at Thorney "to the honour of God and St Peter, on the west side of the City of London." A splendid legend relates the coronation of St Peter in person to hallow his new church. The sons of Sebert relapsed into idolatry and left the church to the mercy of the Danes. A charter of Offa, king of Mercia (785), deals with the conveyance of certain land to the monastery of St Peter; and King Edgar restored the church, clearly defining by a charter dated 951 (not certainly genuine) the boundary of Westminster, which may be indicated in modern terms as extending from the Marble Arch south to the Thames and east to the City boundary, the former river Fleet. Westminster was a Benedictine founda-

tion. In 1060 Edward the Confessor took up the erection of a magnificent new church, cruciform, with a central and two western towers. Its building continued after his death, but it was consecrated on Childermas Day, 28th December 1065; and on the following "twelfth mass eve" the king died, being buried next day in the church. In 1245 Henry III. set about the rebuilding of the church east of the nave, and at this point it becomes necessary to describe the building as it now appears.

Westminster Abbey is a cruciform structure consisting of nave with aisles, transepts with aisles (but in the south transept the central aisle has entirely disappeared), a western choir, eastern cloister walk, and choir of polygonal apsidal form, with six chapels (four polygonal) opening north and south of it, and an eastern Lady Chapel, known as Henry VII's chapel. There are two western towers, but in the centre a low square tower hardly rises above the pitch of the roof. The main entrance in common use is that in the north transept. The chapter-house, cloisters and other conventional buildings and remains lie to the south. The total length of the church (exterior) is 531 ft. and of the transepts 205 ft. in all. The breadth of the nave is 132 ft., that of the aisles 11 ft. 2 in. and its height 102 ft. These dimensions are very slightly lessened in the choir. Without, viewed from the open Parliament Square to the north, the beautiful proportions of the building are readily realized, but it is somewhat dwarfed by the absence of a central tower and by the vast adjacent pile of the Houses of Parliament. From this point (considered as a building merely) it appears only as a secondary unit in a magnificent group. Seen from the west, however, it is the dominant unit, but here it is impossible to overlook the imperfect conception of the "architect" (who he was or what or how it manifested by Wren) from whose design the western towers took shape in 1740. The north front, called Solomon's Porch from a former porch over the main entrance, is from the designs of Sir G. G. Scott, considerably altered by J. L. Pearson.

Within, the Abbey is a superb example of the pointed style. The body of the church has a remarkable appearance of uniformity, because, although the building of the new nave was continued with interruptions from the 14th century until Tudor times, the broad design of the Early English work in the eastern part of the church was carried on throughout. The choir, with its unusual form and radiating chapels, plainly follows French models, but the name of the architect is lost. Exquisite ornament is seen in the triforium arcade, and between some of the arches in the transept are figures, especially finely carved, though much mutilated, known as the censing angels. Henry VII's Chapel replaces an earlier Lady Chapel, and is the most remarkable building of its period. It comprises a nave with aisles, and an apsidal eastward end formed of five small radiating chapels. Both within and without it is ornamented with an extraordinary wealth and minuteness of detail.

A splendid series of carved oak stalls lines each side of the nave, and above them hang the banners of the Knights of the Bath, of whom this was the place of installation when the Order was re-

constituted in 1815. The main screen and side screens of the transepts, the pendants, is the most exquisite architectural feature of the chapel. The choir stalls in the body of the church are modern, as is the organ, a fine instrument with an "echo" attachment, electrically controlled, in the triforium of the south transept. The restoration is by Sir G. G. Scott; with mosaic by Salvati. In Abbot Islip's chapel there is a series of effigies in wax, representing monarchs and others. The effigies of the bones and the less preserved figures of series II. survive. Some of the effigies were carried in funeral processions according to custom, but this was done not later than 1735. There are, however, figures of Lord Chatham and Nelson, set up by the officials who received the fees formerly paid by visitors to the exhibition.

But the peculiar fame of the Abbey lies not in its architecture, nor in its connexion with the metropolis alone, but in the fact that it has long been the place of coronation, the coronation crowns of Edward II. and the burial-places of many of them and of their greatest subjects. The original reason for this was the reverence attaching to the memory of the Confessor, whose shrine is in the central aisle of the church. The remains of Norman kings were ready to do honour to his name. From William the Conqueror onward every sovereign has been crowned here excepting Edward V. The coronation chairs stand in the Confessor's chapel, and are by the same artist as the thrones of Edward I., and contain beneath its seat the stone of Scone, or stone of destiny, on which the Celtic kings were crowned. It is of Scottish origin, but may have been copied from one of the Irish thrones of the 10th century. The stool of the king and queen is set up to the right of the altar. At the sides are kept the sword and shield of Edward III., still used in the coronation ceremony. The second chair was made for Mary, consort of William III. Subsequent to the Conquest many kings from France were buried here. Of all the graves, perhaps the most famous is that of Henry VII. and his queen, Elizabeth of York, the central object in his choir. The splendid remembrance effigies in bronze, of Italian workmanship, rest upon a tomb of black marble, and the whole is enclosed in a magnificent shrine of wrought brass. Monuments, tombs, busts and memorials crowd the choir, its chapels and transepts, not wholly without limit. It is true that the minority of the Gothic period (among which the canopied tombs of Edmund Crouchback and Aymer de Valence, in the sanctuary, are notable) appear incongruous in a Gothic setting. Many of the effigies are effaced, and not without reason. The effigies of the kings and queens, however, are the subjects they commemorate always worthy to lie here, for the high honour of burial in the Abbey was not always so conscientiously observed. Now, however, a wonderful range of sculptural art is found. A part of the south transept is famed under the name of the Poet's Corner. The north transept contains many monuments to statesmen.

The abbey was dissolved in 1539, and Westminster was then erected into a bishopric, but only one prelate, Thomas Turley, held the office of bishop. In 1555 Mary again appointed an abbot, but Elizabeth reinstated the dean, with twelve prebends. Of the conventional buildings the cloisters are of the 13th and 14th centuries. On the south side of the southern walk remains of a wall of the refectory are seen from without. From the eastern walk a arch gives entry to the cloisters and the chapel of the Pyx. The first is of the time of Henry III., a fine octagonal building, its vaulted roof supported by a slender clustered column of marble. It was largely restored by Sir George Gilbert Scott in 1865.

The second is of the time of Henry VIII., a vaulted building, with the Pyx kept in it, and is the oldest building of its kind in the country. It is built of brick with stone dressings, and is supposed to be the ancient Bishop's House.

The third, dating from 1601, has a small cloister attached, and is supposed to have been the Provost's House. It was given to the Duke of Devonshire in 1776, and is now the counting-house of the Bank of England.

The cloisters are the Deanery, Jerusalem chamber and College Hall, the building surrounding a small court and dating in fabric mainly from the 14th century. This was the Abbot's house, its most famous portion is the Jerusalem chamber, believed to be named from the former tapisseries on its walls, representing the holy city. Here died Henry IV. in 1435, as set forth in Shakespeare's Henry IV. (Part 2, Act iv. Sc. 4). It is a beautiful room, with open timber roof, windows partly of stained glass, and walls tapestried and paneled. The College Hall, adjoining it, is of similar construction, but plainly fitted in the common manner of a refectory, with a High table and high chairs, with a gallery on the south side. It is now the dining-hall of Westminster School.

Westminster School.—St Peter's College, commonly called Westminster School, is one of the most ancient and eminent public schools in England, and the only school of such standing still occupying its original site in London. A school was maintained by the monks from very early times. Henry VIII. took steps to raise it in importance, but the school owes its greatest growth to Queen Elizabeth, who endowed it with the endowment of a Latin commemoration service held periodically in the Abbey, where, moreover, the daily school service is held. The school buildings lie east of the conventional buildings, surrounding Little Dean's Yard, which, like the cloisters, communicates with Dean's Yard, in which are the picturesque houses of the headmaster, canons of the Abbey, and others. The buildings are modern or large modernized. The Great Schoolroom
is a fine panelled hall, bearing on its walls the arms and names of many eminent alumni; it is entered by a gateway attributed to Inigo Jones, also covered with names. Ashburnham House, now containing one of the school houses, the library and class-rooms, is named from the family for whom it was built, traditionally but not certainly, by Inigo Jones. The finest part remaining is the grand staircase. The number of scholars, called King's Scholars, on the foundation is 60, of which 40, who are boarders, represent the original number. The present proprietors of the boys are house boarders (Town Boys). In the College dormitory a Latin play is annually presented, in accordance with ancient custom. It is preceded by a prologue, and followed by a humorous epilogue, in Latin adapted to subjects of the moment. Other customs for which the school is noted are the acclamation of the sovereign at coronation in the Abbey, in accordance with a privilege jealously held by the boys; and the "Pancake Grease," a struggle in the Great Schoolroom on Shrove Tuesday to obtain possession of a pancake carrying with it a reward from the Dean. The number of boys is about 250. Valuable close scholarships and exhibitions at Christ Church, Oxford, and Trinity College, Cambridge, are awarded annually.

St Margaret's.—On the north side of the Abbey, close beside it, is the parish church of St Margaret. It was founded in or soon after the time of the Confessor, but the present building is Perpendicular, of greater beauty within than without. St Margaret's is officially the church of the House of Commons. It is frequently the scene of fashionable weddings, which are rarely held in the Abbey. On the south side of Dean's Yard is the Church House, a memorial of Queen Victoria's Jubilee (1887), consisting of a proportionate hall of brick and stone, with offices for numerous Church societies.

Westminster Palace: Houses of Parliament.—A royal palace existed at Westminster at least as early as the reign of Canute, but the building spoken of by Fitzstephen as an "incomparable structure furnished with a breastwork and a bastion" is supposed to have been founded by Edward the Confessor and enlarged by William the Conqueror. The Hall, called Westminster Hall, was built by William Rufus and altered by Richard II. In 1352 the palace suffered greatly from fire, and thereafter ceased to be used as a royal residence. Stephen's chapel, originally built by King Stephen, was used from 1557 for the meetings of the House of Commons, which had been held previously in the chapter house of the Abbey. The Lords used another apartment of the palace, but on the 16th of October 1834 the whole of the buildings, except the hall, was burnt down. In 1840 the building of the New Palace, or Houses of Parliament, began, and it was completed in 1867, at a cost of about three millions sterling. (For plan, &c., see ARCHITECTURE: Modern.) It covers an area of about 8 acres, and has a frontage of about 300 yds. to the Thames. The architect was Sir Charles Barry, and the style is late Perpendicular.

Towards the river it presents a rich façade with a terrace rising directly from the water. At the south-west corner rises the vast Victoria tower, above the royal entrance, 340 ft. high, and 75 ft. square. At the north is the clock tower, 320 ft. high, bearing the great mural clock, with four smaller ones on the corners, and striking hours on a bell weighing over 13 tons, named Big Ben after Sir Benjamin Hall, First Commissioner of Works at the time when the clock was erected. It incorporates Westminster Hall, which contains 200 ft. in length, 68 in width, and 60 in height. It has a magnificent open roof of carved oak, and is used as the vestibule of the Houses of Parliament. Of the modern rooms, the House of Peers is a magnificent oval chamber, 97 ft. in length, that of the Commons is 70 ft. long, and less lavishly adorned. The sitting of parliament is signified by a flag on Victoria Tower in daytime and by a light at the summit of the clock tower at night.

Whitehall.—Northward from Parliament Square a broad, slightly curving thoroughfare leads to Trafalgar Square. This is Whitehall, which replaced the narrow King Street. Here, between the Thames and St. James's Park, formerly stood York House, a residence of the archbishops of York from 1248. Worsley beautified the mansion and kept high state there, but on his disgrace Henry VIII. acquired and reconstructed it, employed Holbein in its decoration, and made it his principal residence. Inigo Jones designed a magnificent new palace for James I., but only the banqueting hall was completed (1622), and this survived several fires, by one of which (1697) nearly the whole of the rest of the palace was destroyed. The hall, converted into a royal chapel by George I., and now housing the museum of the Royal United Service Institution, the buildings of which adjoin it, is a fine specimen of Palladian architecture, and its ceiling is adorned with allegorical paintings by Rubens, restored and rehung in 1864. The museum contains military and nautical relics, models and other exhibits. Through this hall Charles I. passed on his way to execution beneath its windows; and the palace was the scene of the death of Henry VIII., Cromwell and Charles II.

The principal government offices are situated in Whitehall. On the left, following the northerly direction, are buildings completed in 1608, from the designs of J. M. Wren, for the Board of Education, Trade, Local Government, &c. The Home, Foreign, Colonial and India Offices occupy the next block, a heavy building, adorned with allegorical figures, by Sir G. G. Scott (1873). Downing Street, the seat of the Prime Minister, was built in 1735. On the right is the building surrounding a court-yard, built in 1753 on the site of a guard-house for the security of Whitehall palace, dating from 1631. On the south, the ground is levelled and surrounded by a fence of trooping of the colour is held at the celebration of the sovereign's birthday. The portion of the Admiralty facing Whitehall dates from 1726 and is plain and sombre; but there are handsome new buildings. The site on the north side. On the right of Whitehall, besides the banqueting hall, are the fine War Office, completed in 1906, from the designs of W. Young, and Montagu House, the residence of the duke of Buccleuch. In front of the War Office an equestrian statue of the duke of Cambridge (by H. Timothy) was unveiled in 1907.

Trafalgar Square is an open space sloping sharply to the north. On the south side, facing the entry of Whitehall, is the Nelson monument, by W. Railton, 145 ft. in height, a copy in granite from the temple of Mars Ultor in Rome, crowned with a statue of Nelson by E. H. Baily, and having at its base four colossal lions in bronze modelled by Sir Edwin Landseer. The centre of the square is lined with paves of white marble, and striking the eye. There are statues of George IV., Napier, Havelock and Gordon. Behind the terrace on the north rises the National Gallery (1838), a Grecian building by William Wilkins, subsequently much enlarged, with its splendid collection of paintings. The National Portrait Gallery is contained in a building (1895) on the north-east side of the National Gallery.

Westminster Cathedral.—A short distance from Victoria Street, towards its western end, stands Westminster Cathedral (Roman Catholic). Its foundation was laid in 1866, and its consecration was at the close of 1895. It is somewhat sombre, and is smaller in size, than its bulk rendering it less than a general appreciation of its complex outline; but its stately domed campanile, 283 ft. in height, forms a landmark from far over London. The style was described by the archbishop, J. F. Bentley, as early Christian Byzantine, and the material is mainly red brick. The extreme length is 360 ft., the breadth 130 ft., the breadth of the nave 60 ft., and its height (domes within) 112 ft.

WESTMINSTER, STATUTES OF, two English statutes passed during the reign of Edward I. Parliament having met at Westminster on the 22nd of April 1275, and after due consideration of the statute of Westminster I. This was drawn up, not in Latin, but in Norman French, and was passed "par le assentement des erceveskes, eveskes, abbayes, prius, contes, barons, et la communauté de la tete ilekomes somons." Its provisions can be best summarized in the words of Stubbs (Const. Hist. cap. iv.):—

"This act is almost a code by itself; it contains fifty-one clauses, and covers the whole ground of legislation. Its language now to a large extent of Canute, but Alfred, now and contains two fourths; on the one hand common right is to be done to all, as well poor as rich, without respect of persons; on the other, elections are to be free, and no man is by force, malice or menace, to disturb them. The spirit of this statute is the most remarkable in the various enactments, abuses of wardship, irregular demands for feudal aids, are forbidden in the same words or by abridging enactments. The inquest system of Henry II., the law of wreck, and
the institution of coroners, measures of Richard and his ministers, come under review as well as the Provisions of Oxford and the Statute of Marlborough."

The second statute of Westminster was passed in the parliament of 1285. Like the first statute it is a code in itself, and contains the famous clause De donis conditionibus (g.), "one of the fundamental institutes of the medieval, Oxford, England." Stubbs says of it: "The law of dover, of ad- vowson, of appeal for felonies, is largely amended; the in- stitution of justices of assize is remodelled, and the abuses of manorial jurisdiction repressed; the statute De religiosis, the statutes of Merton and Gloucester, are amended and re-enacted. Every clause has a bearing on the growth of the later law."

From Synods against Emperors of 1950 is sometimes called the statute of Westminster III.

WESTMINSTER, SYNODS OF. Under this heading are included certain of the more important ecclesiastical councils held within the present bounds of London. Though the precise locality is occasionally uncertain, the majority of the medieval synods assembled in the chapter-house of old St Paul's, or the former chapel of St Catherine within the precincts of West- minster Abbey or at Lambeth. The councils were of various types, each with a constitutional history of its own. Before the reign of Edward I, when convocation assumed substantially its present form (see Convocation), there were convened in London various diocesan, provincial, national and legatine synods; during the past six centuries, however, the chief ecclesiastical assemblies held there have been convocations of the province of Canterbury.

The first really notable council at St Paul's was that of 1075 under the presidency of Lanfranc; it renewed ancient regulations, forbade simony and permitted three bishops to remove from country places to Salisbury, Chichester and Chester respectively. In 1102 a national synod at Westminster under Alexander II adopted clauses against simony, simoniacal and slavery. The councils of 1126, 1127 and 1138 were legatine, that of 1175 provincial; their canons, chiefly re-enactments, throw light on the condition of the clergy at that time. The canons of 1200 are based in large measure on recommendations of the Lateran Council of 1179. At St Paul's the legatine constitutions of Otto were published in a synod of 1237, those of Ottobon in 1268: these were the most important national councils held after the independence of York had been established. A synod at Lambeth in 1281 put forth canons none too well received to Edward I; they included a detailed scheme for the religious instruction of the faithful. During the next two centuries the councils devoted much attention to heresy; eight propositions concerning the body of Christ after his death were rejected at St Mary-le-Bow in 1286; the expulsion of the Jews from England was sanctioned by a legatine synod of Westminster in 1291; ten theses of Wiclif's were condemned at the Dominican friary in 1382, and eighteen articles drawn from his Triologus met the same fate at St Paul's in 1396; and the doom of Sir John Oldcastle was sealed at the latter place in 1413. The 14th-century synods at St Paul's concerned them- selves largely with the financial and moral status of the clergy, and made many quaint regulations regarding their dress and behaviour (1328, 1342, 1343; cf. 1465). From the time of Edward VI on, many of the most vital changes in ecclesiastical discipline were adopted in convocations at St Paul's and in the Abbey. To enumerate them would be to give a running com- mentary on the development of the Church of England; among the most important were those of 1547, 1552, 1554, 1562, 1577, 1602, 1632 and 1662. In 1852 there was held the first of a series of synods in the new Diocese of London. For the "Pan-Anglican Synods" see LAMBERT CONFERENCES.


W. W. R.*

WESTMORLAND, EARLS OF. Ralph Neville, 4th Baron Neville of Raby, and 1st earl of Westmorland (1364-1425), eldest son of John, 3rd Baron Neville, and his wife Maud Percy (see Neville, Family), was knighted by Thomas of Woodstock, afterwards duke of Gloucester, during the French expedi- tion of 1380, and succeeded to his father's barony in 1388. He had been joint warden of the west march in 1386, and was reappointed for a new term in 1390. In 1391 he was put on the committee which was to enforce the duties of constable in place of the duke of Gloucester, and he was repeatedly engaged in negotiations with the Scots. His support of the cause of the earl against the lords appellant was rewarded in 1397 by the earldom of Westmorland. He married as his second wife Joan Beaufort, half-sister of Henry of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV, whom he joined on his landing in Yorkshire in 1399. He already held the castles of Brancepeth, Raby, Middleton and Sherif Hutton when he received from Henry IV. the honour and lordship of Richmond for life. The only rivals of the Nevilles in the north were the Percies, whose power had been broken at Shrewsbury in 1403. Both marches had been in their hands, but the warden- ship of the west marches was now assigned to Westmorland, whose influence was also paramount in the east, which was under the nominal wardenship of the young Prince John, afterwards duke of Bedford. Westmorland had prevented North- umberland from marching to reinforce Hotspur in 1403, and before embarking on a new revolt he sought to secure his enemy, surrounding, but too late, one of Sir Ralph Eure's castles where the earl had been staying. In May the Percies were in revolt, and Thomas Mowbray, 1st earl, and Archbishop Scrope. Westmorland met them on the 26th of May 1405, and suggested a parley between the leaders. By pretending accord with the archbishop, the earl induced him to allow his followers to disperse. Scrope and Mowbray were then seized and handed over to Henry at Pontefract on the 3rd of January. The improbabilities of this narrative have led some writers to think, in face of contemporary authorities, that Scrope and Mowbray must have surrendered voluntarily. If Westmorland betrayed them he at least had no share in their execution. The Percy's power was busily engaged in negotiating with the Scots and keeping the pace on the borders. He did not play the part assigned to him by Shakespeare in Henry V, for during Henry's absence he remained in charge of the north, and was a member of Bedford's council. He consolidated the strength of his family by marriage alliances. His daughter Catherine married in 1412 John Mowbray, second duke of Norfolk, brother and heir of the earl marshal, who had been executed after Shipton Moor; Anne married Humphrey, first duke of Buckingham; Eleanor married, after the death of her first husband Richard le Despenser, Henry Percy, 2nd earl of Northumberland; Cicely married Richard, duke of York, and was the mother of Edward IV. and Richard III. The sons by his second marriage were Richard Neville, earl of Salisbury, William, Baron Fauconberg, George, Baron Latimer, Robert, bishop of Salisbury and then of Durham, and Edward, Baron Abergavenny. The earl died on the 21st of October 1425, and a fine alabaster tomb was erected to his memory in Staindrop church close by Raby Castle.


Ralph, 2nd earl of Westmorland (c. 1404-1484), the son of John, Lord Neville (d. 1423), succeeded his grandfather in 1425, and married as his first wife Elizabeth Clifford, daughter of Sir Henry Percy (Hotspur), thus forming further bonds with the Percies. The 3rd earl, Ralph Neville (1456-1490), was his nephew, and the son of John Neville, Lord Neville, who was slain at Towton. His grandson Ralph, 4th earl of Westmorland (1490-1550), was an energetic border warrior, who remained faithful to the royal cause when the other great northern lords
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joined the Pilgrimage of Grace. He was succeeded by his son
Henry, 5th earl (c. 1525-1563).

Charles, 6th earl (1545-1601), eldest son of the 5th earl by his
first wife Jane, daughter of Thomas Manners, 1st earl of
Rutland, was brought up a Roman Catholic, and was further
attached to the Catholic party by his marriage with Jane,
daughter of Henry Howard, earl of Surrey. He was a member
of the council of the north in 1569 when he joined Thomas Percy,
7th earl of Northumberland, and his uncle Christopher Neville,
in the Catholic rising of the north, which had as its object the
liberation of Mary, queen of Scots. On the collapse of the ill-
organized insurrection Westmorland fled with his brother earl
over the borders, and eventually to the Spanish Netherlands,
where he lived in receipt of a pension from Philip II. of Spain,
until his death on the 16th of November 1601. He left no sons,
and his honours were forfeited by his formal attainer in 1572.
Raby Castle remained in the hands of the crown until 1645.

The title was revived in 1624 in favour of Sir Francis Fane
(c. 1574-1629), whose mother, Mary Neville, was a descendant
of a younger son of the first earl. He was created baron of
Burghersh and earl of Westmorland in 1624, and became Lord
le Despenser on his mother's death in 1626. His son Mildmay
Fane, 2nd or 5th earl of Westmorland (c. 1662-1660), at first
sided with the king's party, but was afterwards reconciled with
the parliament. John Fane, 7th or 13th earl of Westmorland
(1662-1760), served under Marlborough, and was made in
1708 lieutenant-general of the British armies.

His son, the 14th earl, only son of John,
9th earl, was known as Lord Burghersh until he succeeded to
the earldom in 1841. He entered the army in 1803, and in 1805
took part in the Hanoverian campaign as aide-de-camp to
General Sir George Don. He was assistant adjutant-general
in Sicily and Egypt (1806-1809), served in the Peninsular War
from 1808 to 1813, was British military commissioner to the
allied armies under Schwarzenberg, and marched with the
allies to Paris in 1814. He was subsequently promoted major-
general (1825), lieutenant-general (1838) and general (1854),
although the latter half of his life was given to diplomatic
service. He was British resident at Florence from 1814 to
1839, and British ambassador at Berlin from 1841 to 1851,
when he was transferred to Vienna. In Berlin he had mediated
in the Schleswig-Holstein question, and in Vienna he was one of
the British plenipotentiaries at the congress of 1855. He retired
in 1855, and died at Apthorpe House, Northamptonshire, on
the 16th of October 1859. Himself a musician of considerable
reputation and the composer of several operas, he took a keen
interest in the cause of music in England, and in 1832 made
proposals which led to the foundation in the next year of the
Royal Academy of Music. His wife Priscilla Anne (1793-1879),
daughter of William Wellesley-Pole, 3rd earl of Mornington,
was a distinguished artist.

His published works include Memoirs of the Early Campaigns of
the Duke of Wellington in Portugal and Spain (1820), and Memoir
of the Operations of the Allied Armies under Prince Schwarzenberg
and Marshal Blucher (1822).

Francis William Henry, 12th or 18th earl (1825-1891), fourth
son of the preceding, was also a distinguished soldier. He
entered the army in 1843 and served through the Punjub cam-
pan. In 1848 he became aide-de-camp to the governor-general
in 1848, and distinguished himself at Gjerkut on the 21st of
February 1849. He went to the Crimea as aide-de-camp to Lord
Raglan, and was promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1855. On
his return to England he became aide-de-camp to the duke
of Cambridge, and received the Crimean medal. The death
of his elder brother in 1851 gave him the style of Lord Burghersh,
and after his accession to the earldom in 1859 he retired from
the service with the rank of colonel. He died in August 1891
and was succeeded by his son, Anthony Mildmay Julian Fane,
b. 1870 (1870) at 16th earl.

WESTMORLAND, a north-western county of England, bounded
N.W. by Cumberland, N.E. for a short distance by
Durham, E. by Yorkshire, S. and S.W. by Lancashire. It
reaches the sea in the Kent estuary in Morecambe Bay. The
area is 786.2 sq. m. Physically the county may be roughly
divided into four areas. (1) The great upland tract in the north-
eastern part, bordering on the western margin of Yorkshire
and part of Durham, consists mainly of a wild moorland area,
rising to elevations of 720 ft. in Millburn Forest, 2403 in Dutton
Forest, and 2816 ft. in the Bowfell group of the Western Fells.
(2) The second area comprises a third of the Lake District (g.r.),
westward from Shap Fells. This area includes High Street (2663 ft.),
Helvellyn (3181) and Fairfield (2863), Langdale Pikes (2401)
and on the boundary Bow Fell (2060), Crinkle Crags (2816) and
Pike o' Blisco (3046). It must also be taken to cover the elevated
area on the Yorkshire border which includes the Ravenstonedale
and Langdale Fells to the N. and the Middleton and Barbon
Fells to the S., of an intrusive angle of Yorkshire. This area,
however, which reaches in some points over 2260 ft. of altitude,
is marked off from the Lake District mountains by the Lune
valley. All but the lower parts of the valleys within these two
areas lie at or above 1000 ft. above Ordnance datum; and more
than half the remainder lies between that elevation and 1750 ft.,
the main mass of high land lying in the area first mentioned.
(3) The third area includes the comparatively low country
between the northern slopes of that just described and the edge
of the uplands to the north-east thereof. This covers the Vale
of Eden. About three-fifths of this area lies between the 500
and the 1000 ft. contour. (4) The Kendall area consists mainly
in the western lowland of the county, and the Silurian rocks
are divided into three-fifths above 2600 ft. More than half this
area lies below the 500 ft. contour. Westmorland may thus be said to be
divided in the middle by uplands ranging in a general south-easterly
direction, and to be bordered all along its eastern side by
the elevated moorlands of the Pennine chain. The principal
rivers are—in the northern area the higher part of the Tees, the Eden
with its main tributaries, the Lowther and the Eamont, and in
the southern area the Lune and the Kent, with their numerous
tributary becks and gills. The lakes include Windermere,
partin of Ullswater, Grasmere. Hawes Water and numerous
smaller lakes and tarns, which are chiefly confined to the north-
western parts of the county. Amongst the other physical
features of more or less interest are numerous crags and
sers, chiefly in the neighbourhood of the lakes; others are Mallerstang
Edge, Helbeck, above Brough; Haikable or High Cup Gill,
neak Appleby; Orton Sears; and the limestone crags west of
Kirkby Lonsdale. Among the waterfalls are Caldron Snout,
on the northern confines of the county, flowing over the Whin
Sill, and Stock Gill Force, Ryal Falls, Skelwith Force, and
Doune Gill Force, all situated amongst the volcanic rocks in
the western fellland. Hillhead Crags, near Kirkby Stephen,
are conspicuous examples of natural
arches eroded by the streams flowing through them.

Geology.—The diversity of scenery and physical features in
this county are directly traceable to the influence of geological
structure. In the mountainous north-western portion, which includes
the heights of Helvellyn, Langdale Pikes, and Bow Fell, and the lakes
Ullswater, Hawes Water, Grasmere and Esthwaite, we find
the great mass of igneous rocks known as the Borrowdale volcanic
series—andesites, basalts and tuffs—of Ordovician age. On the
south-western and north-western sides of these volcanic masses
the Silurian rocks occur in the northern part of the county; their southern
boundary runs north-easterly from the upper end of Windermere by Kentmere
and past the granitic mass of Shap Fell; whence the boundary
turns north-westward through Rylsm to the east end of Ullswater.
Narrow strips of Ordovician Skiddaw slate occur on the south banks
of Ullswater and fringe the Borrowdale rocks for some distance east of
them. A large area of Caledonian rocks occupies most of the
south-western part of the county from Windermere to Ravenstonedale
and southward to Sedbergh, Kendal and Kirkby Lonsdale.
The Ordovician and Silurian rocks are bordered on the east and
north-eastern parts of the county by the Carboniferous limestone
of the Garstang and Clitheroe areas. The classic example of
this limestone is found again on the east side of the Eden valley in Millburn
Forest, Dutton Fell, Steeinsmore and Winsford Fell. Here and there
in the south-east corner Millstone Grit and Shales cap the limestone
and some little distance east of Brough under Stainmore a small patch of Coal Measures remains. At the base of the Carboniferous red sandstones is a red clay deposit, of which may be regarded as Old Red Sandstone age; it may be traced from Ullswater through Butterwick, Rasgill and Teyab, and it rises again at Sedbergh, Barrow and around Kendal. The limestones on the east side of the Eden the Great Whin Sill, a diabase dyke, may be followed for a considerable distance. In the Eden valley two sets of red sandstones occur, that on the western side being red and the eastern Maryport and Whitehaven red and limestone. There are 115 civil parishes. Westmorland is in the diocese of Carlisle, and contains 86 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. There are two parliamentary divisions, Northern or Appleby and Southern or Kendal, each returning one member.

History.—The earliest English settlements in the district which is now Westmorland were effected by the Anglian tribes who entered Yorkshire by the Humber in the 6th century and laid the foundations of the kingdom of Deira, which included within its bounds that portion of Westmorland afterwards known as the barony of Kendal. The northern district, corresponding to the later barony of Appleby, meanwhile remained unconquered, and it was not until the close of the 7th century that Egfrith drove out the native Britons and established the Northumbrian supremacy over the whole district. With the Danish invasions of the 9th century the Kendal district was included in the Danelaw, while the barony of Appleby formed a portion of the land of Carlisle. The first mention of Westmorland in the Saxon Chronicle occurs under 969, when it was conquered by King Guthred. The annexation of the northern portion of Westmorland to the crown of England was accomplished by William Rufus, who in 1102 drove out Dolan from the land of Carlisle, and fortified Brough-under-Stainmore, Brougham, Appleby and Pendragon. In the reign of Henry I. the barony of Appleby was included in the grant to Ranulf Meschin of the earldom of Carlisle, but on the accession of Ranulph to the earldom of Chester in 1120 it was surrendered to the crown, and its inclusion in the pipe roll of 1131 shows that Westmorland was now definitely established as the dynamic basis of an English county.

The barony of Kendal was held in the 12th century by the Mowbrays, and from them passed to the family of Lancaster, who held it as of the honour of Westmorland. In the 13th century it was separated into two moieties; the Lindsay moiety which passed from the Lindsays to the Copelands and Couys and in the reign of Henry VI. to the Beaumonts and Richmonds, whence was derived its later name of Richmond Fee; the Brus moiety, which became subdivided into the Marquis Fee held by the Parr family, ancestors of Katherine Parr, and the Lumley Fee which passed from the Thwengs to the Lumleys and Hothams. The barony of Appleby, with the hereditary shrievalty, was bestowed by King John on the family of Vetepont, from whom it passed by female descent to the Clifords in the 13th century, and in the 16th century to the Tuftons, afterwards earls of Thanet, who retained the dignity until their descendant, Mr Barham of Trecwn, yielded his rights to the crown.

The division of Westmorland into wards originated with the system of defence against the inroads of the Scots, each barony being divided into two wards, and each ward into a half ward, a turn of which is held at certain fairs and other appointed places. The barony of Kendal was divided into Kendal and Lonsdale wards, and the barony of Appleby, called the Bottom, into east and west wards, there being anciently a middle ward between these last two. The shire court and assizes for the county were held at Appleby.

The barony of Appleby was included in the diocese of York from the 7th century, and in 1201 formed the deaneries of
Lonsdale and Kendal within the archdeaconry of Richmond. The barony of Appleby, which had been bestowed by Henry I. in the see of Carlisle, formed in 1291 the deanery of Westmorland within the archdeaconry and diocese of Carlisle. The barony of Kendal was placed by Henry VIII. in his new diocese of Chester, of which it remained a part until in 1876 it was constituted the archdeaconry of Westmorland within the diocese of Carlisle. In 1859 the Westmorland portion of the archdeaconry of Carlisle was subdivided into the deaneries of Appleby, Kirkby Stephen and Lowther; and the additional deanery of Ambleside was formed within the archdeaconry of Westmorland. The only religious foundation of any importance in Westmorland was the Premonstratensian house at Shap founded by Thomas, son of Gospatrik, in the 12th century.

The early political history of Westmorland after the Conquest is a record of continuous raids and devastations from the Scots. In the Scottish invasion of the northern counties which followed the battle of Bannockburn Brough and Appleby were burnt, and the county was twice harried by Robert Bruce in the ensuing years. In 1385 a battle was fought at Hoff near Appleby against the Scots under Earl Douglas, and in 1388, after Otterburn, the Scots sacked Appleby with such effect that nineteen-tenths of it lay in ruins and was never rebuilt. In the Wars of the Roses, Westmorland, under the Clifford influence, inclined to favour the Lancastrian cause, but was not actively concerned in the struggle. In the Civil War of the 17th century the county was in a state of unrest, and in 1641 Anne, countess of Pembroke, hereditary high sheriff of the county, garrisoned Appleby Castle for the king, placing it in charge of Sir Philip Musgrave, the colonel of the train-bands of Westmorland and Cumberland. In 1642 a memorable war was caused by nearly 5000 of the inhabitants of Westmorland and Cumberland protesting their loyalty and readiness to sacrifice their lives and fortunes in his service. Appleby Castle surrendered in 1648, but the strength of the royalist feeling was shown in the joy which greeted the news of the Restoration, the mayor of Appleby publicly destroying the charter which the town had received from Cromwell. The Jacobite rising of 1745 found many adherents in Westmorland, and a skirmish took place on Clink Moor between the forces of Lord George Murray and the duke of Cumberland.

The economic development of Westmorland, both on account of natural disadvantages and of the ravages of border strife, has been slow and unimportant; the rugged and barren nature of the ground being unfavourable to agricultural prosperity, while the lack of fuel hindered the growth of manufactures. Sheep-farming was the chief occupation of the county, and the Premonstratensian house at Shap supplied wool to the Florentine and Flemish markets in the 13th and 14th centuries. The clothing industry, which spread from Kendal to the surrounding districts, is said to have been introduced by one John Kempe of Flanders, who settled there in the reign of Edward III., and a statute of 1465 alludes to cloths of a distinct make being manufactured at Kendal. In 1589 the county suffered severely from the ravages of the plague, 2500 deaths being recorded in the deanery of Kendal alone. Speed, writing in the 17th century, says "it is crossed either for plenty of corn or cattle, being neither stored with arable grounds to bring forth the one, nor pasturage to lead up the other; the principal profit that the people of this province raise unto themselves is by clothing." The comb manufacture was established at Kendal in 1700, and about the same time the development of the boot and shoe trade to some extent supplemented the loss consequent on the decline of the clothing industry. There were two paper-mills at Milnthorpe in 1777, one of which existed eighty years before.

Westmorland returned two knights for the county to the parliament of 1290, and in 1295 two burgesses for the borough of Appleby. Under the Reform Act of 1832 Appleby was disfranchised and Kendal returned one member.

Antiquities.—Notable ecclesiastical buildings are almost entirely wanting in Westmorland, though mention may be made of the ruins of Shap Abbey, which lies near the small market town of that name in the bleak upper valley of the Lowther. The Perpendicular western tower and other fragments remain. Late Norman work is preserved in some of the churches, as at Kirkby Lonsdale, and in a few castles. Among the castles, the remains of Appleby, Brough, Brougham and Kendal are conspicuous, but examples are numerous. Among old houses, Levens Hall dates from the 16th century, and Sizergh Hall embodies part of an ancient castle; both are in the Kendal district. The formal gardens at Levens Hall are remarkable. Lowther Castle, near Penrith, the seat of the earl of Lonsdale, is a fine modern mansion, in a Gothic style more satisfactory in broad effect than in detail.

See Joseph Nicholson and Richard Burn, The History and Antiquities of the Counties of Westmorland and Cumberland (2 vols., London, 1777); William Whellan, The History and Topography of the Counties of Cumberland and Westmorland (Ponterfact, 1860); Transactions of the Cumberland and Westmorland Antiquarian and Archaeological Society (Kendal, 1876, &c.); R. S. Ferguson, History of Westmorland (Popular County Histories, 1894); Sir D. Fleming, Description of Westmorland (1671); T. Gibson, Legends and Notes on Places of North Westmorland (London, 1857); M. W. Taylor, Memorial Halls of Westmorland (Kendal, 1892); T. Ellwood, The History of the Lancashire and Yorkshire counties as it illustrates the Dialect and Antiquities of Westmorland (Kendal, 1894); Victoria County History, Westmorland.

WESTON, THOMAS (1737-1776), English actor, was the son of a cook. His first London appearance was about 1759, and from 1763 until his death he was admitted to be the most amusing comedian on the English stage. Foote wrote for him the part of Falstaff in the "Prince of Parthia," which opened at Drury Lane in 1759. The part was taken by John Kempe, and that of the pilot by an actor called the Alchemist was one of his famous performances; and Garrick, who also played this part, praised him highly for it.

WESTON-SUPER-MARE, a seaside resort in the Wells parliamentary division of Somersetshire, England, on the Bristol Channel, 137 m. W. by S. of London by the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 19,048. It is built partly on level ground near the shore, and partly on the slopes of Worlebury Hill, which aids in giving shelter from the north and east. Among the first-clad slopes of the neighbourhood, which command a fine view of the Welsh hills across the Channel, there are many beautiful walks and drives. An esplanade extends for about 5 m., and public gardens have been laid out on Worlebury Hill, from the far end of which a long pier projects, linking the rocky islet of Birnbeck to the town. Grove Park, once the manor-house, is owned by the council, and is used as a free library, its grounds being open. Other institutions include a museum opened in honour of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, and the West of England Sanatorium, to which two large conservatories are attached, as a winter-garden for invalids. Weston has long been famous for its potteries, and there are mineral water-works and fisheries. Large quantities of oysters are caught. Intermittent springs exist in Weston, which are affected by the ebb and flow of the tide.

WEST ORANGE, a town of Essex county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the N.E. part of the state, about 13 m. W. of New York City. Pop. (1800) 43,58, (1900) 6889 (1772 foreign-born); (1905, state census) 8722; (1910) 10,080. It is served by the Orange branch of the Erie railroad, and is connected with neighbouring towns and cities by electric lines. The town has an area of about 12 m., of which about 7 m. is suburban, and the chief towns are the First (also called the Orange or Watchung) Mountain and the Second Mountain. It is traversed by the Passaic River, which runs through the town from west to east, and by the Morris Canal, which runs through the town from south to north. The town is noted for its large number of schools, and for its many large residences, including the home of the late Mayor Hull, who was born and reared in the town. The town is also noted for its fine parks and playgrounds, and for the many fine homes which are built on its hillsides.

West Orange has a number of fine parks and playgrounds, and is noted for its many fine homes, which are built on its hillsides. The town is also noted for its fine schools, and for the many fine homes which are built on its hillsides.

See H. Whittemore, The founders and builders of the Oranges (Newark, 1896).
WESTPHAL, RUDOLF (1826-1862), German classical scholar, was born at Oberkirchen in Schaumburg on the 3rd of July 1826. He studied at Marburg and Tübingen, and was professor at Breslau (1858-1862) and Moscow (1875-1879). He subsequently lived at Bückeburg, and died at Stadthagen in Schaumburg-Lippe on the 10th of July 1872. Westphal was a man of varied attainments, but his chief claim to remembrance rests upon his contributions on Greek music and metre. His chief works are: Metrik (3rd ed., 1855-1856); System der antiken Rhythmik (1862); Handbuch der Griechischen Metrik (1866); Aristoxenus of Tarentum (translation and commentary, 1883-1885, vol. ii. being edited after his death by F. Saran); Die Musik des griechischen Altertums (1885); Allgemeine Metrik der indogermanischen and semitischen Volker (1892). He made translations of Catullus (1870) and of Aristophanes' Acharnians (1889), in which he successfully reproduced the Dorisms in Plattdeutsch.

WESTPHALIA (Ger. Westfalen), a province of the kingdom of Prussia. The ancient duchy and the Napoleonic kingdom of the same name, neither of which was conterminous with the modern province, are dealt with in the historical part of this article. The area of the province is 7801 sq. m., its length both from N. to S. and from E. to W. is about 130 m., and it is bounded N. by Hanover, E. by Schaumburg-Lippe, Hanover, Lippe-Detmold, Brunswick, Hesse-Nassau and Waldeck, S. and S.W. by Hesse-Nassau and the Rhine Province, and N.W. by the kingdom of the Netherlands.

The territory of Westphalia is an extension of the northern German plain, which here stretches S.E. into an acute angle enclosed on the N.E. by the long low range of the Teutoburger Wald and its southern prolongation the Eggegebirge, and on the S. by the line of hills called the Haarstrang and Harschtrang, which divides the Lippe and Ruhr. There are no high points. The land is a sandy waste called the Senne. The plain is drained into the Rhine by the Lippe, which rise close together in the Teutoburger Wald. Between their basins are the Vechte and other small rivers flowing into the Zuider Zee. The triangular southern portion of Westphalia, most of which is included in Sauerland ("south land"), is a rugged region of slate hills and wooded valleys, drained chiefly by the Ruhr with its afluent the Lenne, Münne, &c., and in the S. by the Sieg and Eder. The hills rise in the S.E. to the Rottläger or Rothargebirge, culminating in the Westfälische Wanne (2713 ft.), the highest summit in the province. The Rothargebirge and the Teutoburger Wald form with some intermediate ranges the watershed between the basin of the Weser and those of the Rhine and Elbe. The western part of the Rhine, the Wiehengebirge from the Wesergebirge by the narrow pass called Porta Westfalica.

The climate is temperate except in the south, which is cold in winter and has much heavy rainfall. Of the total area 43% is covered by cultivated land, of which 21% are meadows, and 26% by forests. The best agricultural land is in the Helling and the Weser basin. The number of peasant proprietors is proportionately greater than in any other part of Prussia, and as a class they are well-to-do. The crops include grain of all kinds (not sufficient, however, for the needs of the province), peas and beans, sugar-beet, potatoes, and pumpkins. The cultivation of corn is very extensive, especially in the E.N.W. Swine, which are reared in great numbers in the plains, yield the famous Westphalian hams; and the growth of lace is of great importance. The breeding of horses is fostered by the government.

The mineral wealth is very great, especially in coal and iron. The production of coal is greater than that of any other province of Prussia, and amounted in 1906 to 53,000,000 tons. The Ruhr coal-field extends from the Rhineland into the province as far as Unna, the centre being Dortmund, and there is a smaller coal-field near N., at Ibbenbüren. The production of iron ore, chiefly S. of the Ruhr, with the districts of Wanne-Eickel, is exceedingly large, and is worked entirely by the Rhine province. After coal and iron the most valuable minerals are zinc, lead, pyrites and copper. Antimony, quicksilver, salt, silver and stone slate are also worked, and there are brine springs in the Helling and mineral springs at Lippespringe, Oyhausen, &c.

The manufacturing industry of the province, which chiefly depends on the mineral wealth, is of considerable importance. Iron and steel goods are produced in the so-called "Enneper Strasse," the valley of the Ennepe, a small tributary of the Ruhr with the town of Hagen, and in the neighbouring towns of Bochum, Dortmund, Iserlohn and Altena, and also in the Siegen district. The brass and bronze industries are carried on at Iserlohn and Altena, those of tin and Britannia metal at Lüdenscheid; needles are made at Iserlohn and wire at Altena. The very important linen industry of Bielefeld, which was founded by the counts of Minden and is still flourishing, the hosiery industry of Minden and Soest, the needle industry of Soest, and the manufacture of linen goods in the W. Paper is extensively made on the lower Lenne, and leather around Siegen. Other manufactures are glass, chemicals, textiles, chemicals, and tobacco. The mining and manufacturing districts of Westphalia are connected by several trunk lines of railway which cross the province (total miles in 1906, 1889 m., exclusive of light railways) and by the navigation of the river Lippe (of which Minden has a port), Ens, Ruhr and Lippe. Beverungen is the chief port for corn and Paderborn for wool.

The population in 1905 was 3,618,090, or 464 sq. m. It is very unevenly distributed, and in the industrial districts is increasing very rapidly. In recent years there has been a great influx of Poles into these parts, attracted by the higher wages. In 1900 they already numbered more than 100,000. Between 1893 and 1900 the mean annual increase of the population was 3.3%, the highest recorded in the German empire, but between 1895 and 1905 it fell to 2.5%. The percentage of illegitimate births (2.6) is the lowest in Germany. 51-9% of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, 47.9% Protestants. The distribution of the two communities still closely follows the lines of the settlement at the peace of Westphalia. Thus the former duchy of Westphalia and the bishoprics of Münster and Paderborn which remained in ecclesiastical hands are almost entirely Roman Catholic, while the secularized bishopric of Minden and the former counties of Ravensberg and Mark, which fell or had fallen to Brandenburg, and the Siegen district, which belonged to Nassau, are mainly Protestant.

The province is divided into the three government departments (Regierungsbezirke) of Minden, Münster and Arnsberg. Münster is the seat of government and of the provincial university. Westphalia has sent 43 members to the Prussian Lower House and seventeen to the Reichstag.

The inhabitants are mainly of the Saxon stock and speak Low German dialects, except in the Upper Frankish district around Siegen. Here and there the Teutonic dialect is spoken.

Westphalia, "the western plain" (in early records Westfalen), was originally the name of the western province of the early duchy of Saxony, including the western portion of the modern province and extending north to the borders of Friesland. When Duke Henry the Lion of Saxony fell under the ban of the empire in 1180, and his duchy was divided, the bishop of Münster and Paderborn became princes of the empire, and the archbishop of Cologne, Philip of Burgundy, professed as pope the emperor Frederick I. the Sauerland and some other districts were added to the duchy of Westphalia. Within the duchy were some independent secular territories, notably the county of Mark, while other districts were held as fiefs from the archbishops, afterwards electors. From 1368 the electors themselves held the county of Arnsberg as an imperial fief. The duchy received a constitution of its own, and was governed for the elector by a marshal (Landseschall, after 1480 Landdrost) who was also stadholder, and presided over the Westphalian chancellery. This system lasted till 1505. By Maximilian's administrative organization of the empire in 1500 the duchy of Westphalia was included in the appanage of Cologne in the scattered circle of the Lower Rhine. The Westphalian circle which was formed at the same time comprised nearly all the rest of the modern province (including Mark) and the lands north of it between the Weser and the frontier of the Netherlands, also Verden, Schaumburg, Nassau, Wied, Lippe, Berg, Cleves, Jülich, Liège, Bouillon and Cambrai.

Brandenburg laid the foundations of her dominion in Westphalia by obtaining the counties of Mark and Ravensberg in 1314 (confirmed 1666), to which the bishopric of Minden was added by the peace of Westphalia in 1648 and Tecklenburg in 1707. By the settlement of 1803 the church lands were secularized, and Prussia received the bishopric of Paderborn and the eastern part of Münster, while the electoral duchy of Westphalia was given to Hesse-Darmstadt.

After the peace of Tilsit the kingdom of Westphalia was created by Napoleon I. on the 18th of August 1807, and given to his brother Jerome (see Bonaparte). It included the present governmental department of Minden, but by far the larger part of the kingdom lay outside and chiefly to the east of the modern
WESTPHALIA, TREATY OF

province, and comprised the Hanoverian department of Hildesheim and in part that of Arensburg, Brunswick, the northern part of the province of Saxony as far as the Elbe, Halle, and most of Hesse-Cassel. The area was 14,627 sq. m., and the population nearly two millions. Cassel was the capital. A constitution on the French imperial pattern granted by the king remained practically inoperable, an arbitrary bureaucratic régime was instituted, the finances were from the beginning in a hopeless condition, and the country was drained of men and money for Napoleon's wars. In January 1810 most of Hanover was added, but at the end of the same year half the latter, together with the cleared district, was handed over to the French Empire. There had already been serious revolts and raids, and after the battle of Leipzig the Russians drove the king from Cassel (October 1813), the kingdom of Westphalia was dissolved and the old order was for a time re-established. At the congress of Vienna (1815) Hesse-Darmstadt surrendered her share of Westphalia to Prussia, and the present province was constituted.

See Weddigen, Westfalen, Land und Leute (Paderborn, 1896); G. Schulze, Historiographie der Provinz Westfalen (Minden, 1900); Leonhard, Handbuch der Hütten- und Metallindustrie Rheinlands und Westfalens (4th ed., Dortmund, 1905); J. S. Seibert, Landes- und Rechtsgeschichte des Herzogtums Westfalen (4 vols., Arnsberg, 1859-1869); W. von Holzapfel, Die Ereignisse des Jahres 1813 in Westfalen (Minden, 1858); G. V. B. Duverger, L'Alliance française (Paris, 1849); and Holzgang, Die Einnahme der Provinz Westfalen im 15. und 16. Jahrhundert (Minden, 1900).

WESTPHALIA, TREATY OF, a collective name given to the two treaties concluded on the 24th of October 1648 by the empire with France at Münster and with Sweden and the Protestant estates of the empire at Osnabrück, by which the Thirty Years' War (q.v.) was brought to an end.

As early as 1636 negotiations had been opened at Cologne at the instance of Pope Urban VIII., supported by the seigniory of Venice, but failed owing to the disinclination of Richelieu to stop the progress of the French arms, and to the refusal of Sweden to treat with the papal legate. In 1637 the agents of the emperor began to negotiate at Hamburg with Sweden, though the mediation of Christian IV., king of Denmark, was rejected by Sweden, and the discussions dragged on for years without result. In the meantime the new emperor Ferdinand III. proposed at the diet of Regensburg in 1640 to exchange the peace of Prague for the whole empire, on the basis of an amnesty; from which, however, those Protestant estates who were still leagued with foreign powers were to be excluded. His aim was by settling the internal affairs of the empire to exclude the German princes from participation in negotiations with foreign powers; but these efforts had no result.

A more practical suggestion was made by the Comte d'Avaux, the French envoy at Hamburg, who proposed in 1641 that the negotiations at Cologne and Hamburg should be transferred to Münster and Osnabrück, two cities in the Westphalian circle not more than 30 m. apart. A preliminary preliminary treaty had proposed was concluded between the representatives of the emperor, France and Sweden at Hamburg on the 25th of December 1641. A dispute as to precedence between France and Sweden, and the refusal of the latter power to meet the papal nuncio, made the choice of a single meeting-place impossible. It was arranged, however, that the two assemblies should be regarded as a single congress, and that neither should conclude peace without the other.

The date fixed for the meeting of the two conventions was the 29th of July 1643, but not more than six weeks before all the representatives arrived, and the settlement of many questions of precedence and etiquette caused further delays. England, Poland, Muscovy and Turkey were the only European powers unrepresented. The war continued during the deliberations, which were influenced by its fortunes.

The chief representative of the emperor was Count Maximilian von Trautmannslof, to whose sagacity the conclusion of peace was largely due. The French envoys were nominally under Henry of Orleans, duke of Longueville, but the marquis de Sablé and the comte d'Avaux were the real agents of France. Sweden was represented by John Oxenstierna, son of the chancellor, and by John Adler Salvius, who had previously acted for Sweden at Hamburg. The papal nuncio was Fabio Chigi, afterwards Pope Alexander VII. Brandenburg, represented by Count Johann von Sayn-Wittgenstein, played the foremost part among the Protestant states of the empire. On the 1st of June 1645 France and Sweden brought forward propositions of peace, which were discussed by the estates of the empire from October 1645 to April 1646. The settlement of religious matters was left to the decision of the German estates. The peace treaty was signed at Münster by the members of both conventions on the 24th of October 1648, and ratifications were exchanged on the 8th of February 1649. The papal protest of January 3, 1651, was disregarded.

The results were determined in the first place by the support given to each other by France and Sweden in their demands for indemnification, the concession of which necessitated compensation to the German states affected, and secondly by the determination of France to weaken the power of the emperor while strengthening the Roman Catholic states, especially Bavaria. 1646 was the starting-point of the defensive policy of eastern Pomerania with Kiégen and the mouths of the Oder, Wismar and Poel, in Mecklenburg, and the lands of the archbishopric of Bremen and the bishopric of Verden, together with an indemnity of 5,000,000 thalers. The privileges of the Free Towns were preserved. Sweden thus obtained control of the Baltic and a footing on the North Sea, and became an estate of the empire with three deliberative voices in the diet.

The elector of Brandenburg received the greater part of eastern Pomerania, and, as he had a claim on the whole duchy of Saxony, after the death of the last duke in 1635, he was indemnified by the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden and Kammin, and the reversion of the archbishopric of Magdeburg, which came to him on the death of the administrator, Prince Augustus of Saxony, in 1680. The elector of Saxony was allowed to retain Lusatia. As compensation for Wismar, Mecklenburg-Schwerin obtained the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg and some lands of the Knights of St John. Brunswick-Lüneburg restored Hildesheim to the elector of Cologne, and gave Minden to Brandenburg, but obtained the alternate succession to the bishopric of Osnabrück and the church lands of Walkenried and Großinger. Hesse-Cassel received the prince-abbacy of Hersfeld, the county of Schmückenburg, &c. The elector of Bavaria was confirmed in his possession of the Upper Palatinate, and in his position as an elector which he had obtained in 1623. Charles Louis, the son and heir of Frederick V., the count palatine of the Rhine, who had been placed under the ban of the empire, received back the Lower Palatinate, and a new electorate, the eighth, was created for him.

France obtained the recognition of the sovereignty (which she had enjoyed de facto since 1552) over the bishoprics and cities of Metz, Toul and Verdun, Pinerolo in Piedmont, the town of Breisach, the landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alsace, the Sundgau, the advocacy (Landvogtei) of the ten imperial cities in Alsace, and the right to garrison Philippsburg. During the Thirty Years' War France had professed to be fighting against the house of Austria, and not against the empire. It was stipulated that the immediate possessions of the empire in Alsace should remain in enjoyment of their liberties (in ea libertate et possessione immediatæ erga imperium Romanum, qua haecius gavisse soleat), but it was added as a condition that the sovereignty of France in the territories ceded to her should not be impaired (sic tamen, ut praesentibus declaratrum nihil detractum intelliagatur de eo omni supræmini dominii ture, quod supra concessum est). The intention of France was to acquire the full rights of Austria in Alsace, but as Austria had never owned the landgraviate of Lower Alsace, and the Landvogtei of the ten free cities did not in itself imply possession, the door was left open for disputes. Louis XIV. afterwards avoided himself of this ambiguous clause in support of his aggressive policy on the Rhine. The independence of Switzerland was at last formally
recognized, as was that of the United Netherlands in a separate treaty signed by Spain at Münster.

Apart from these territorial changes, a universal and unconditional amnesty to all those who had been deprived of their possessions was declared, and it was decreed that all secular lands should be restored to those who had held them in 1618. Some exceptions were made in the case of the hereditary dominions of the House of Habsburg.

Even more important than the territorial redistribution was the ecclesiastical settlement. By the confirmation of the treaty of Passau of 1552 and the religious peace of Augsburg of 1555, and the extension of their provisions to the Reformed (Calvinist) Church, toleration was secured for the three great religious communities of the empire. Within these limits the governments were bound to allow at least private worship, liberty of conscience and the right of emigration, but these measures of toleration were not extended to the hereditary lands of the house of Habsburg. The Protestant minority in the imperial diet was not to be coerced by the majority, but religious questions were to be decided by amicable agreement. Protestant administrators of church lands obtained seats in the diet. Religious parity was established in the imperial chamber (Reichskammergericht), and in the imperial deputations and commissions.

The difficult question of the ownership of spiritual lands was decided by a compromise. The edict of restitution of 1629 was annulled. In Württemberg, Baden and the Palatinate these lands were restored to the persons who had held them in 1618 or their successors, but for the rest of the possession was determined by the fact of occupation on the 1st of January 1624 (bonus decretorius or normal year). By the provision that a prince should forfeit his lands if he changed his religion an obstacle was placed in the way of further spread of the Reformation. The declaration that all protests or vetoes by whosoever pronounced should be null and void dealt a blow at the intervention of the Roman curia in German affairs.

The constitutional changes made by the treaty had far-reaching effects. The territorial sovereignty of the states of the empire was recognized. They were empowered to contract treaties with one another and with foreign powers, provided that the emperor and the empire suffered no prejudice. By this and other changes the princes of the empire became absolute sovereigns in their own dominions. The emperor and the diet were left with a mere shadow of their former power. The emperor could not pronounce the ban of the empire without the consent of the diet. The diet, in which the 61 imperial cities gained the right of voting on all imperial business, and thus were put on an equality with the princes, retained its legislative and fiscal powers in name, but practically lost them by the requirement of unanimity among the三级. Its influence, which had been considerable, was diminished, and its decisions by majority of its members, but by agreement between them.

Not only was the central authority replaced almost entirely by the sovereignty of about 300 princes, but the power of the empire was materially weakened in other ways. It lost about 40,000 sq. m. of territory, and obtained a frontier against France which was incapable of defence. Sweden and France as guarantors of the peace acquired the right of interference in the affairs of the empire, and the former gained a voice in its councils. For many years the Holy Roman Empire thus became the principal theatre of European diplomacy and war. But if the treaty of Westphalia pronounced the dissolution of the old order in the empire, it facilitated the growth of new powers in its component parts, especially Austria, Bavaria and Brandenburg.

The treaty was recognized as a fundamental law of the German constitution, and formed the basis of all subsequent treaties until the dissolution of the empire.


For the history, see von Nienhuis, Geschichte der Deutschen Monarchie (2 vols., Berlin, 1850-1851), and History of the German Confederation (1885, 1888). A collection of treatises, partial and official, on the treaty is reproduced in R. J. H. H. (1899).
regiments.” Three buildings had been erected here to house a library, an engineers’ school and a laboratory, and practical experiments in gunnery had been begun here in February 1790. In 1793, at Newburgh, Washington laid before his officers the matter of a military academy such as Knox had suggested. A school for artillers, engineers and cadets of the corps was established here on the president’s recommendation in 1794, and continued until the buildings were destroyed by fire in 1796. In July 1801, Henry Dearborn, Jefferson’s secretary of war, directed that all cadets of the corps of artillers, a subordinate rank which had been established in 1794, should report at West Point for inspection, and in September of that year a school was opened with fifteen cadets. And during the last week of March 1802, President Jefferson approved an act establishing a military academy at West Point, and on the 4th of July it was formally opened with ten cadets present. Acts of 1802 and 1808 authorized 40 cadets from the artillery, 100 from the infantry, 16 from the dragoons and 20 from the riflemen. But few of these were actually appointed, and for several years instruction was disorganized and desultory. In 1811-1812 instruction was practically abandoned, and in March 1812 the “academy” was without a single instructor. Up to this time the state had been able to find only incompetent and unqualified men for the posts of instruction, and at any age between 12 and 34 was accepted. Congress of the 29th of April 1812 reorganized the academy, and laid down the general principles and plan on which it has since been conducted. A maximum of 250 cadets was then authorized. Under the able superintendency of Major Sylvanus Thayer this plan was perfected and put into successful operation. Up to 1843 no territorial requirement was necessary for appointment, but in that year a custom that had grown up of providing for one cadet from each Congressional district, each Territory and the District of Columbia, was embodied in the law.

By acts of 1900, 1902, 1903 and 1908 the Corps of Cadets as now constituted consists of 1200 cadets (appointed on recommendation by members of Congress), one from each Territory, one from the District of Columbia, one from Porto Rico, two from each state at large (on recommendation of the senators), and 40 from the United States at large, all to be appointed by the president. Four Filipinos may also receive instruction and become eligible for graduation on commissions in the Philippine Scouts. The maximum number of cadets under the appointment of the twelfth census was 533. Candidates for admission must be between 17 and 22 years, unmarried, and at least 5 ft. 4 in. high. For entrance there are physical examinations, and examinations in algebra, trigonometry, descriptive geometry, nature, geography and general history. In 1902 the entrance requirements were raised and the actual amount of work done in the academic course increased. The military courses are: tactics for all classes; civil and military engineering (first class); military engineering (fourth, third, second and first classes); mechanics and astronomy (third and second classes); mathematics (new cadets, fourth and third classes); chemistry, mineralogy, geology (third and second classes); drawing (third and second classes); modern languages, i.e. French and Spanish (fourth, third, second and first classes); law (first class); ordnance and gunnery (first class); military hygiene (second class); and English history (new cadets and fourth class). The course is four years, and academic instruction continues from the 1st of September to the 5th of July. The summer months are devoted to field work and encampments. Each cadet while in attendance receives pay at the rate of $800 a year and one ration per day, or commutation thereof at thirty cents per day, amounts to $709.50. The number of graduates from the academy is shown by the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Graduates</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1802</td>
<td>601</td>
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<tr>
<td>1803</td>
<td>533</td>
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<td>1805</td>
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<td>1806</td>
<td>454</td>
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<td>1807</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
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<td>1808</td>
<td>403</td>
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The above figures show that the number of graduates from the academy has been comparatively small, and that the number of cadets assigned to the academy has been in proportion.

The annual report shows that the academy is in a sound financial condition, and that the appropriation of $70,000 is ample for the support of the military education of 1200 cadets.

See G. W. Callum, Biographical Register of the Officers and Graduates of the United States Military Academy (1847-1893); E. C. Boynton, History of West Point (1866); J. P. Farley, West Point in the Early Sixties (Troy, 1902); Morris Schaff, Old West Point (Boston, 1907); and the annual reports of the superintendent.

WESTPORT, a market-town, sea-port and seashore resort of County Mayo, Ireland, near the mouth of a small river in Clew Bay, Pop. (1901) 1892. The town is 160 m. W. from Dublin by the Midland Great Western railway, Westport Quay at the river mouth being served by a branch line. There is a small export trade in grain. The beautiful demesne of the marquess of Sligo enriches the neighbourhood. Clew Bay, thickly studded with islands and superb panoramas, is one of the most magnificent of the great inlets on the West. The W. shore of the B. is Clogh Patrick (2510 ft.), an isolated conical hill of singularly perfect form, in wide repute as a place of pilgrimage.

WEST PRUSSIA (Ger. Westpreussen), a province of Prussia, bounded on the N. by the Baltic, on the E. by East Prussia, on the S. by Russian Poland and the province of Posen, and on the W. by Brandenburg and Pomerania. The area is 8062 sq. m. The greater part is occupied by the low Baltic plateau, intersected by a network of streams and lakes, and rising to the forested plateau of Prussian Poland (1806 ft.) at the foot of Konitz is an extensive moorland, 70 m. long, called the Tuchow. The eastern half of the province is traversed by the Oder and its tributaries, and is mountainous. But very numerous, are not large. The Vistula, here of greatest width, and subject to destructive floods, which drain the province near Thorn, and flowing north in a valley which divides the plateau, enters Danzig Bay by a large delta, the Werder. The other rivers are chiefly tributaries of the Vistula, as the Drewenz on its right bank and the Brahe on its left.

In general physical characteristics the province resembles East Prussia, but the climate is less harsh and the fertility of the soil is greater. Arable land and gardens occupy 55.6% of the area, meadows and pastures 12.9%, forests 21.7%, and the rest is covered by heather. In agriculture the province is very large. In the province are small but extensive districts in the north-east, and numerous rice-producing districts in the south. The province is rich in coal and iron, and is a great producer of sugar. The sugar factories and distilleries. Much of the trade passes through the ports of Danzig and Elbing.

The population in 1895 was 1,641,746, showing a mean density of 166 to the sq. m. Of these 567,318 or 34.5% were Poles, a larger proportion than in any other Prussian province except Posen. They are increasing somewhat faster than the Germans, and the Germans are mainly colonizing the northern part of the province, while the immigration of German farmers. The Kashubs (k’s), nearly all of whom (less than 200,000) live in W. Prussia, chiefly in the west, from Pomerania to Konitz, are here reckoned with the Poles. The Poles proper chiefly inhabit the centre of the province, and the borders of Polish Poland. Among the Germans, who are most numerous in the north-east, Low German dialects are spoken, except in a Swabian colony round Kollne. Roman Catholics number 51.4% and Protestants 46.6% of the population, and there are 16,000 Jews. The Poles are almost all Roman Catholics.

The province is divided into the governmental departments of Danzig and Marienwerder, the latter having two-twenty-two members to the Prussian Lower House and thirteen to the Reichstag. Danzig is the capital, and the only large town.

West Prussia, with the exception of southern Pomerania (around Marienwerder) which belonged to Prussia, was a possession of Poland from 1466 till the first partition of Poland in 1772, when it was given to Prussia with the exception of Danzig and Thorn, which Poland retained till 1793. The present province was formed in 1808, but from 1824 to 1878 was united with East Prussia. For its history see also Prussia and Poland.

See C. Lohmyer, Geschichte von Ost- und Westpreussen (part i., 3rd ed., Gotha, 1898); Valfren, Westpreussen seit den ersten Jahrhunderten (Tilsit, 1893); Ambrass, Westpreussen, ein Handbuch der Heimatkunde (Danzig, 1897).

WEST SPRINGFIELD, a township of Hampden county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on the Connecticut river, opposite Springfield. Pop. (1800) 5077; (1900) 7102 (1910 foreignborn); (1910) 9224. Area, about 18 sq. m. The township is served by the Boston & Albany railway, and by interurban
electric railways to Holyoke and Hartford. The principal villages are Merrick and West Springfield on the Connecticut river and Monticollage on the Westfield river. West Springfield was originally a part of Springfield. The first settlement was not made, however, until about 1655, and there were few settlers until after King Philip's War (1675). In 1666 West Springfield was organized as a separate parish, and in 1774 was made a separate township. Holyoke was set off from it in 1860, and Agawam in 1855.

Climate.—Inasmuch as the state has a range of over 4000 ft. in altitude, the climate varies greatly in different districts. The mean annual temperatures for typical sections are as follows: Ohio Valley, north of the thirty-ninth parallel, 53° F.; south-western part of state, 56°; central plateau district, 53°; mountainous belt along south-eastern boundary of state, 48° to 50°. Wellsburg, in the eastern Panhandle, has a mean of 37°. Martinsburg, in the eastern Panhandle, has nearly the same means, 32° and 74°. Terra incognita, in the north-eastern mountains, has a winter mean of 26°, a summer mean of only 65°. The first killing frosts generally occur about the middle of October in the Ohio Valley region, and about the second of August in the eastern Panhandle. The coldest month in the state is January, and the warmest month is July. The average dates for the last killing frosts in the southern part of the state are the middle and last of April respectively. In the Ohio Valley and eastern Panhandle the summer mean temperature is 74°, the winter mean 46°. The upper plateau, and the margin of the range, is 107°, the lowest-35°. Temperatures above 100° and below-15° are rare. Precipitation is greatest in the mountains, over 50 in.; and least over the Ohio Valley, the eastern Panhandle and the Alleghany Mountain region, 20 in. The snowfall is greatest in the winter, and sometimes deep in the higher plateau and mountain districts. The prevailing winds are from south to west.

Agriculture.—The state is primarily agricultural. The general richer western part is devoted to crops, and the eastern part to raising livestock. The crop of Indian corn in 1909 was 27,632,000 bushels, and the acreage 880,000. The wheat crop was 4,810,000 bushels, and the acreage 5,590,000. The principal districts are the Fairmount (or Upper Monongahela) and the Elk Kark (or Upper Potomac) in the northern, and the Pocahontas (or Flat Top) and the New and Morningstar in the southern counties. The total output of the state was 44,648 tons in 1853, when the first shipments outside the state were made; and 41,887,843 tons (valued at $40,000,054) in 1906, when the output of West Virginia was third in quantity and in value among the states of the Union, being exceeded only by that of Pennsylvania and of Illinois. The forests are principally above water levels and in many cases have been laid bare by erosion; and the supply is varied—besides a fat, cooking, and medicinal kind, there are also cypress, alder, and white pine, and various kinds of oak, hickory, birch, maple, and ash. The bituminous coal, which is by far the most important part of the mineral wealth, is found in the southern part of the state, and is only known in the counties of Kanawha, Marshall, Preston, and Taylor. The total output in 1865-1868 was 3,000,000 bbls. of bituminous coal, valued at $20,000,000, taken out of these districts. A successful well in Marion county, near Charleston, far from the region of the earlier wells, was drilled in 1868, and the output increased to 3,000,000 bbls. in 1888 to 544,115 in 1889, and to 2,406,218 in 1891; in 1893 it was first more than 8,000,000 bbls.; and in 1900 it was 16,165,765. After 1890 it gradually decreased—although new wells in Pocahontas and Marshall counties were found in 1902—and in 1908 it was 9,523,176 bbls. (valued at $16,911,865).

Petroleum ranks second to coal among the state's mineral resources. In 1877 Thomas Jefferson described a 'burning spring' in the Kanawha Valley, and when wells were drilled for salt brine near Charleston petroleum and natural gas were found here before there was any drilling for oil in Pennsylvania. Immediately after the American Civil War, petroleum was discovered in shallow wells near Parkersburg, and there was a great rush of prospectors and speculators to the Little Kanawha Valley. But the Civil War interrupted development. After the war, wells were drilled at Burning Springs, Clarksburg, and several smaller places, and in 1865-1868 there were shipped to the East 2,406,218 bbls. of bituminous coal, valued at $20,000,000, taken out of these districts. A successful well in Marion county, near Charleston, far from the region of the earlier wells, was drilled in 1868, and the output increased to 3,000,000 bbls. in 1888 to 544,115 in 1889, and to 2,406,218 in 1891; in 1893 it was first more than 8,000,000 bbls.; and in 1900 it was 16,165,765. After 1890 it gradually decreased—although new wells in Pocahontas and Marshall counties were found in 1902—and in 1908 it was 9,523,176 bbls. (valued at $16,911,865).

Natural gas, like petroleum, was found before it is so far in West Virginia in central part of the Kanawha, and along the sites of the gas springs on the Big Sandy and the Little Kanawha. In 1841 natural gas was found with salt brine in a well on the Kanawha, and the first well which produced both oil and gas was sunk at Union, West Virginia, and the principal field is in Wetzel county, but there are important supplies in Lewis, Harrison, Marion, Monongahela,
Lincoln and Wayne counties. Much of the natural gas is piped out of the state, to Pennsylvania and Maryland; within the state gas has been utilized as a fuel in carbon black and glass factories.

Brine wells have been mentioned above; the salt industry is small, but there is a production of 1,145,187 bushels produced with a value of $10,184; and there is a small output of bromine. Iron ore is found in the state in the coal hills (especially Laurel Hills and Beaver Lick Mountain), but the deposits have not been commercially worked. Fortunately for the state, the iron would be very difficult to manufacture because of the low price of fuel; in 1909 the value of pig iron manufactured in the state was $6,454,000. There are deposits of excellent iron ore (1,221,119 tons valued at $2,083,821) the state ranked after Ohio and New Jersey in the value of the ore. The total value of all clay products in West Virginia was $3,561,736 in 1908. An excellent glass sand is produced in the middle of the state in Monroe county. Grindstones have been quarried in Wood and Jackson counties. There are black slate deposits near Martinsburg.

There are mineral springs, mostly medicinal waters, in Greenbrier, Summers, Webster, Ohio and Preston counties. Among the more noted medicinal springs are: classed as calcareous and earthy, Sweet Springs, 72°F, in Monroe county, diuretic and diaphoretic; and Berkeley Springs, 74°F, in Morgan county, reputed restorative for nervous and neurotic cases, and as containing sulphur; Salt Sulphur Springs, in Monroe county, of value in scrofula and skin diseases.

Manufactures.—Manufacturing is largely localized in the northwestern districts along the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. The factory product in 1905 was $99,040,676. The principal manufactures are iron and steel; in 1905 the product of steel works and rolling mills was $3,452,735. The Allegheny and the Ohio Rivers, where the first rolling mill west of the Allegheny Mountains was probably one near Morgantown.

In next importance among the state's manufactures are lumber and timber, and flour and grist mills. There are also foundry and machine works, and leather and leather-goods factories. The state is largely dependent on the plentiful supply of oak and hemlock bark for tanning, is centralized in the northern and eastern parts of the state, near the forests. The glass industry began in Wheeling in 1821, and there was a process discovered by which in 1845, for potash, a silicate of lime and soda was distilled and sold for making glass.

Transportation and Commerce.—Railway development in West Virginia has been due largely to the exploitation of the coal and lumber resources of the state. The Baltimore & Ohio railway leads in trackage: it enters the state with several lines at its northern end; its main line crosses this portion of the state from east to west, striking the Ohio at Parkersburg, and one of its lines (the Ohio River railway) extends nearly the length of the state from Wheeling in the north through Parkersburg to Kenova in the south. This road serves as the main distributary artery of the state. The Chesapeake & Ohio traverses the southern part of the state, from White Sulphur Springs in the east, through Charleston to the Ohio, serving the New and Kanawha rivers coal district as a freight carrier; the Kanawha Valley line and the Kanawha and Ohio rivers extension of the Ohio River railways runs north along the valley of the Big Sandy, carrying coal both east and west from the Pocohontas coal-field; and the new Virginian railway entering at the south-east taps the coal-producing region (the Kanawha and Pocohontas districts) at Deepwater, serving in addition to the Norfolk & Western as a carrier of coal to Norfolk on the Virginia coast. The railway mileage of the state grew with great rapidity in the decade 1880-90; it was 651 mi. in 1880, 1,453 in 1890, 2,473 in 1900 and 3,215 in 1910. Natural facilities for transportation, afforded by the Ohio river and its branches, the Monongahela, at the northern end of the state, and the Little Kanawha and the Great Kanawha, are of special value for the shipment of lumber and coal. The Monongahela has been improved by locks and dams to Fairmont. It is the carrier of a heavy tonnage of coal to Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. The Little Kanawha and Kanawha rivers serve also for the transportation of logs which are floated down to the Ohio.

Population.—The population of West Virginia at the various censuses since its organization as a state has been as follows: 1870, 443,014; 1880, 618,457; 1890, 762,794; 1900, 958,800; 1910, 1,221,119. In 1890-1900 and 1900-1910 the increase in population was more than one fourth. Of the total population in 1900, 07:1% was native-born, 892,854 were native whites, 43,490 were negroes, 56 were Chinese and 12 were Indians. Of the inhabitants born in the United States 61,588 were natives of Virginia, 40,301 of Ohio, 28,057 of Pennsylvania and 25,598 of West Virginia; 5,727 were born in Germany, 6,119 in Ireland, 6,573 Germans, 3,342 Irish, 2,612 Italians and 2,622 English. Of the total population 71,358 were of foreign parentage—i.e. either one or both parents were foreign-born, and 18,323 were of German and 10,534 of Irish parentage, on both the father's and the mother's side.

In 1906 there were in the state 301,656 members of religious denominations, of whom 86:2% were Protestants. The Methodist bodies with 115,932 communicants (38-4% of the total number of church members) are the strongest. There were 67,044 Baptists (2226 United Baptist Churches) and 1,513 Free Baptists; 40,011 Roman Catholics; 19,993 United Brethren, all of the "New Constitution"; 19,668 Tresybrians; 1,332 Disciples of Christ; 6266 Lutherans; and 5320 Protestant Episcopalians. The principal cities of the state are Wheeling, Huntington, Parkersburg, Charleston (the capital), Martinsburg, Fairmont and Grafton.

Administration.—The first constitution of 1863 was superseded by the present instrument which was adopted August 28, 1872 and was amended in 1880, 1895 and 1902. The constitution may be amended by either of two methods: either by a constitutional convention elected for the purpose, or by a majority of the members elected to each house by a majority of the people at a general election to a referendum. Under the present system the latter method is used. The referendum provides that at least two-thirds of each house of the legislature may submit an amendment or amendments to popular vote at the next general election, when the approval of a majority of the voters of the state is necessary. All male citizens above twenty-one years of age have the right of voting. Each elector is entitled to a residence of one year in the state and sixty days in the county in which they offer to vote. Paupers, insane, and those convicted of treason, felony or bribery in an election are barred, "while the disability continues," and no person in the military, naval or marine service of the United States is deemed a resident of the state by reason of being stationed therein. An official blanket ballot containing the names of the candidates arranged in columns according to party is provided at public expense.

Executive.—The executive department consists of the governor, secretary of state, superintendent of public schools, auditor, treasurer, and attorney-general, all elected by the people at the time of the presidential election and serving for four years from the fourth of March following. The governor must have been a citizen for five years preceding this election, must have attained the age of thirty and is ineligible for re-election during the four years succeeding the expiration of his term. In case of the death or resignation of the governor, the lieutenant governor becomes governor. In case of death, resignation or removal for term or disability the governor, the president of the Senate acts as governor, and in case of his incapacity the Speaker of the House of Delegates; and these two failing, the legislature on joint ballot elects an acting governor. A majority of the members of both houses is required for the election, unless the unexpired term is less than one year. The governor appoints, subject to the consent of a majority of the members of the Senate, all citizens who are otherwise appointed, if not otherwise provided for. In case of a vacancy in the court of appeals or in the circuit court the governor appoints until the next general election, or if the unexpired term is less than two years, until the end of the term. The governor sends a message to the legislature at the beginning of each session of the legislature, and may convene the houses in extraordinary session when he deems it necessary. He may veto, or, in case of an appropriation bill, the separate items, but this veto may be overridden by a simple majority of the total membership of each house. Any bill not returned with objections within five days after presentation becomes a law. An appropriation bill cannot be altered by the legislature.

Legislature.—The legislature, consisting of the Senate and the House of Delegates, meets at the capital on the first Wednesday in January of the odd years. The Senate is composed (1910) of thirty members, chosen from districts as nearly equal to each other as the state is divisible, one half the membership retiring biennially. A senator must be twenty-five years of age, and must have been a citizen of the state (total communicants, or members) district for at least six years preceding his election. The Senate elects a president, confirms or rejects the nominations of the governor, and acts as a court of impeachment for the trial of public officers, besides sharing in legislative functions. The House of Delegates is composed (1910) of one hundred and twenty members, of whom each county chooses at least one. A delegate must be a citizen and have resided one year in the county from which he is chosen. No person holding a licentiate office under the state, or United States, nor holding a position of a railroad company, and no officer of any court of record is eligible for membership in either house. Besides its legislative functions the House prepares and impeachment cases, and impeaches and tries the officers of the state. The length of the legislative session is thirty-five days.
WEST VIRGINIA

but it may be extended by a vote of two-thirds of the members elected to each house. No act takes effect until ninety days after its passage unless two-thirds of the members of each house specifically order it to take effect sooner. (See page 563.)

Judiciary.—The judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court of Appeals, the Circuit Courts, such inferior courts as may be established, county courts, the police courts, tax and other courts for the collection of taxes, however, chiefly police and fiscal, and, in justices of the peace. The Supreme Court of Appeals, consisting of five judges, elected for terms of twelve years, holds three terms annually, one at Wheeling, one at Charleston, and one at Charles Town. It has appellate jurisdiction in cases of habeas corpus, mandamus and prohibition, and appellate jurisdiction in cases involving a greater amount than one hundred dollars; and, in all cases in which the title of lands is involved, with the appointment or qualification of personal representatives, guardians, curators, committees, &c., possessing or exercising any of the rights of courts. In order to relieve the circuit courts the legislature has established by special acts inferior courts, generally with criminal jurisdiction only, in nine counties. The judges of these courts, with the appointment of executors, administrators and other personal representatives, and the settlement of their accounts, matters relating to apprentices and to criminal elections for county and district officers. See below under Local Government. One or two justices of the peace (depending on population) are elected from each magisterial district; there must be not less than three, nor more than ten, districts in each county.

Local Government.—As in Virginia, the county is the unit of government, though an unsuccessful attempt to introduce the township system failed. Each county is constituted as a corporation by three commissioners elected for six years but with terms so arranged that one retires every two years, is the police and fiscal authority. Other officers are the clerk of the county court, elected for six years, the sheriff, who also acts as tax-collector and treasurer, the prosecuting attorney, one or two assessors, the surveyor of lands and the superintendent of free schools, all elected for the term of four years; the sheriff may not serve two consecutive full terms. In addition there are county auditors appointed or elected by various authorities and charged with specific duties. They include the local board of health and the board of jury commissioners. Each of the magisterial districts of which a county is comprised (there must be at least three unless the population of each is less than ten in each county) elects one or two magistrates and constables, and a board of education of three members. The constitution provides that the legislature, on the request of any county, may establish a special system of county government, and several of the larger and more populous counties have special acts.

Miscellaneous Laws.—A woman's right to hold, manage and acquire property by marriage even if that union is separated from each other by marriage is protected in the life use of one-third of the real estate and to one-third of the personal state absolutely. If there is no issue she takes the whole of the personal estate, while the real estate goes to her husband. A husband who dies intestate leaves a widow and issue, the widow is entitled to the life use of one-third of the real estate and to one-third of the personal estate absolutely. If there is no issue she takes the whole of the personal estate, while the real estate goes to her husband. If the wife dies intestate the husband has a right to the use of her real estate for life, and to one-third of the personal estate if there is issue. All personal effects of a deceased woman will descend to the right of dower or courtesy in the real estate and of the right to one-third of the personal estate. Children may be disinherited with or without cause. Any parent or infant children of deceased parents may set apart personal estate not exceeding $1,000 for the use and benefit of persons living in the family, but subject to execution. A homestead not exceeding $1,000 in value may be set apart, provided that it is recorded before the deed in which it is conveyed. In the case of a wife the homestead is claimed by contract, or by descent from whites and negroes, or where either party had a wife or husband living, or within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity, or where either was insane or physically incapable of marriage, or where the property was acquired before marriage. There is no provision for female widows or deserted females whose homestead may be annulled. No female or male under twelve years may be employed in mines, and no child under twelve may be employed in a factory, and no woman or girl in any factory nor under six years.

Charities, &c.—The state charitable and penal institutions consist of the West Virginia Hospital for the Insane at Weston, the Second Hospital for the Insane at Spencer, three miners' hospitals—one at Welch, one at McMechen and one at Fairmont; the West Virginia Asylum for Incurables at Huntington, Schools for the Dofl and Blind at Romney, the West Virginia Penitentiary at Moundsville, Hospital for the Incurable at Wheeling, the West Virginia Industrial Home for Girls near Salem. There is also the supervision of a state board of control of three members, appointed by the governor, which was created in 1909, and also has been provided for in the several acts (1878, 1899, 1904) establishing the hospitals above mentioned, a humane society which was organized in 1899 for the protection of children and of the helpless aged, and for the prevention of cruelty to animals. The West Virginia Colored Orphans' Home near Moundsville has been established. It has been chartered and organized under act of the legislature. In 1898 a law was enacted for establishing the West Virginia Children's Home to be under the control of the Home Society.

Education.—Each magisterial district constitutes a school district and there are also a few independent school districts. For each school district there is a board of education consisting of a president and two or more members, usually elected at the time elections are held for county and district officers. The board of education elects a school commissioner every two years. This board is authorized to establish and alter sub-districts. A law enacted in 1908 requires that children between the ages of four and fifteen years of age shall attend school twenty-four weeks each year, provided the public school in their district is in session that length of time. The county supervision of public schools is vested in a county superintendent, who is elected for a term of four years. The state supervision is vested in a state superintendent, who is elected for a term of four years. A state board of education, consisting of the state superintendent and five other persons appointed by him, constitutes a state board of examiners (for special primary, high schools) for the purpose of inspecting educational work in the state. There are also a state school book commission, consisting of the state superintendent and eight other members appointed by the governor. The commissioner is elected by the respective boards of regents of the several institutions (at Huntington, Fairmont, West Liberty, Glenville, Shepherdstown, Athens) and two for negroes (at Institute and at Bluefield). They are governed by a board of regents consisting of the state superintendent and the superintendents of the several institutions. The head of the educational system is the West Virginia University (1867) at Morgantown (q.v.). The principal institutions of higher learning not under state control are Bethany College (Christian, 1848), at Bethany; Morris Harvey College (Methodist Episcopal, Southern, 1888), at Barboursville; West Virginia Wesleyan College (Methodist Episcopal, 1890), at Buckhannon; and Davis and Elkins College (Episcopal, 1895), at Davis. (See Education, Schools and Colleges.)

Finance.—The state revenue is derived mainly from a general property tax, licence taxes levied on various businesses and occupations, a collateral inheritance tax and a capitation tax. For the year ending on the 30th of September 1908 the revenues were $3,122,113 and the disbursements $3,482,317-03. West Virginia's share of the Virginia debt which existed when West Virginia was set off from Virginia has not yet been determined (see below).

History.—That part of Virginia beyond the Allegheny mountains was a favourite haunt of the Indians before the first coming of the whites, and there are many Indian mounds, indicative of an early and high cultural development, within the present limits of the state, and especially in the neighbourhood of Moundsville (q.v.). The western part of Virginia was not explored until long after considerable settlements had been made in the east. In 1671 General Abram Wood, at the direction of Governor William Berkeley (c. 1610–1677), sent a party which discovered Kanawha Falls, and in 1716, Governor Alexander Spotswood with about thirty horsemen made an excursion into what is now Pendleton county. John Van Metre, an Indian trader, penetrated into the northern portion in 1725, and Morgan ap Morgan, a Welshman, built a cabin in the present Berkeley county in the same year. In 1736, John Gano founded New Mecklenburg, the present Shepherdstown, on the Potomac, and others soon followed. Charles II of England, in 1661, granted to a company of gentlemen the land between the Potomac and Rappahannock rivers, commonly known as the "Northern Neck." The grant finally came into the possession of Thomas, Lord Fairfax, and in 1746 a stone was erected at the source of the north branch of the Potomac to mark the western limit of the grant. A considerable part of this land was surveyed by George Washington between 1748 and 1751. The diary kept by the young surveyor indicates that there were already squatters, largely of German origin, along the South Branch of
the Potomac. Christopher Gist, a surveyor, in the employ of the first Ohio Company (see OHIO COMPANY), which was composed chiefly of Virginians, in 1748-1750 explored the country along the Ohio river north of the mouth of the Kanawha, and the company sought to have a fourteenth colony established with the name "Vandalia." Many settlers crossed the mountains after 1750, though they were somewhat hindered by Indian depredations. Probably no Indians lived within the present limits of the state, but the region was a common hunting ground, crossed also by many war trails, and during the French and Indian war (1754-63) the scattered settlements were almost destroyed. In 1774 the governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, himself led a force over the mountains, and a body of militia under General Andrew Lewis dealt the Shawnee Indians under Cornstalk a crushing blow at Point Pleasant (g.v.) at the junction of the Kanawha and the Ohio rivers, but Indian attacks continued until after the War of Independence. During the war the settlers in Western Virginia were generally active Whigs and many served in the Continental army.

Social conditions in western Virginia were entirely unlike those existing in the eastern portion of the state. The population was not homogeneous, as a considerable portion of the immigration came by way of Pennsylvania and included Germans, the Protestant sect of the Alleghans. During the War of Independence the movement to create another state beyond the Alleghanies was revived, and a petition (1776) for the establishment of "Westsylvania" was presented to Congress, on the ground that the mountains made an almost impassable barrier on the east. The rugged nature of the country made slavery unprofitable, and time only increased the social, political and economic differences between the two sections of the state. The convention which met in 1839 to form a new constitution for Virginia, against the protest of the counties beyond the mountains, required a property qualification for suffrage, and the slave-holding counties the benefit of three-fifths of their slave population in apportioning the state's representation in the lower Federal house. As a result every county beyond the Alleghanies except one voted to reject the constitution, which was nevertheless carried by eastern votes. Though the Virginia constitution of 1850 provided for white manhood suffrage, yet the distribution of representation among the counties was such as to give control to the section east of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Another grievance of the West was the large expenditure for internal improvements at state expense in the East compared with the scanty proportion allotted to the West. For an account of the Virginia convention of 1861, which adopted the Ordinance of Secession, see VIRGINIA. Here it is sufficient to say that only nine of the forty-six delegates from the present state of West Virginia voted to secede. Almost immediately after the adoption of the ordinance a mass meeting at Clarksburg recommended that each county in northwestern Virginia send delegates to a convention to meet in Wheeling on the 15th of May 1861. When this "First Wheeling Convention" met, four hundred and twenty-five delegates from twenty-five counties were present, but soon there was a division of sentiment. Some delegates advocated the immediate formation of a new state, but the more far-sighted members argued that as the ordinance had not yet been voted upon by the people, and Virginia was still in the Union, such action would be revolutionary, since the United States Constitution provides that no state may be divided without its consent. Therefore it was voted that in case the ordinance should be adopted (of which there was little doubt) another convention including the members-elect of the legislature should meet at Wheeling on the 11th of June. At the election (23rd May 1861) the Whigs, southerners, and people from the counties traversed by the Ohio had a large majority in the state as a whole, but in the western counties 40,000 votes out of 44,000 were cast against it. The "Second Wheeling Convention" met according to agreement (11th June), and declared that, since the Secession Convention had been called without the consent of the people, all its acts were void, and that all who adhered to it had vacated their offices. An act for the "reorganization" of the government was passed on the 19th of June. The next day

Francis H. Pierpont was chosen governor of Virginia, other officers were elected and the convention adjourned. The legislature, composed of the members from the western counties who had been elected on the 23rd of May and some of the holdover senators who had been elected in 1859, met at Wheeling on the 1st of July, filled the remainder of the state offices, organized a state government and elected two United States senators who were recognized at Washington. There were, therefore, two state governments in Virginia, one owning allegiance to the United States and one to the Confederacy. The Convention, which had taken a recess until the 6th of August, then reassembled and (August 20) adopted an ordinance providing for a convention to frame a constitution if the vote should be favourable. At the election (October 24, 1861) 18,489 votes were cast for the new state and only 781 against. The convention met on the 26th of November 1861, and finished its work on the 18th of February 1862, and the instrument was ratified by the people (18,162 for and 571 against) on the 11th of April 1862. Next the legislature of the "Reorganized" government on the 13th of May gave its consent to the formation of the new state. Application for admission to the Union was now made to Congress, and on the 31st of December 1862 an enabling act was approved by President Lincoln admitting the state on the condition that the gradual abolition of slavery be inserted in the Constitution. The Convention was reconvened on the 12th of February 1863, and the demand of Congress was met. The revised instrument was adopted by the people on the 26th of March 1863, and on the 20th of April 1863 President Lincoln issued a proclamation admitting the state at the end of sixty days (June 20, 1863). Meanwhile officers for the new state were chosen, and Governor Pierpont removed his capital to Alexandria where he asserted jurisdiction over the counties of Virginia within the Federal lines. The ordinance of secession of the new state was brought before the Supreme Court of the United States in the following manner. Berkeley and Jefferson counties lying on the Potomac east of the mountains, in 1863, with the consent of the "Reorganized" government of Virginia voted in favour of annexation to West Virginia. Many voters absent in the Confederate army when the vote was taken refused to acknowledge the transfer on their return. The Virginia legislature repealed the act of cession and in 1866 brought suit against West Virginia asking the court to declare the counties a part of Virginia. Meanwhile Congress on the 10th of March 1866 passed a joint resolution recognizing the transfer. The Supreme Court in 1871 decided in favour of West Virginia, and there has been no further question. During the Civil War West Virginia suffered comparatively little. McClellan's forces gained possession of the greater part of the territory in the summer of 1861, and Union control was never seriously threatened, in spite of Lee's attempt in the same year. In 1863 General John D. Imboden, with 5000 Confederates, overran a considerable portion of the state. Bands of guerrillas burned and plundered in some sections, and were not entirely suppressed until after the war was over. The state furnished about 80,000 soldiers to the Federal armies and sustained a loss of less than 10,000 to the Confederate forces. The absence in the army of the Confederate sympathizers helps to explain the small vote against the formation of the new state. During the war and for years afterwards partisan feeling ran high. The property of Confederates might be confiscated, and in 1866 a constitutional amendment disfranchising all who had given aid and comfort to the Confederacy was adopted. The addition of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution created a reaction, the Democratic party secured control in 1870, and in 1871 the constitutional amendment of 1866 was abrogated. The first steps toward this change had been taken, however, by the Republicans in 1870. In 1872 an entirely new constitution was adopted (August 22).

Though the first constitution provided for the assumption of a part of the Virginia debt, negotiations opened by Virginia in 1870 were fruitless, and in 1871 that state funded two-thirds of the debt and arbitrarily assigned the remainder to West Virginia.
The legislature of the latter state in 1873 adopted a report declaring that between 1822 and 1861, during which period the debt had been incurred, the western counties had paid an excess of taxes, more than equal to the amount which had been expended in the west for the purposes for which the debt had been incurred, and concluded with the statement: "West Virginia owes the bonds for sale and asks no help." In 1866 Virginia entered suit in the U.S. Supreme Court to compel West Virginia to assume a portion of the debt. West Virginia demurred, but was overruled, and on the 4th of May 1908 a master was appointed to take testimony. The state rejected decisively the overtures made by Virginia in 1866, looking towards a reunion of the commonwealths.

Governors of West Virginia.

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<th>Year</th>
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<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>W. T. Farmworth (acting)</td>
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<td>Wm. E. Stevenson</td>
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WESTWARD HO, a small seaside village in the Barnstable parliamentary division of Devоshire, England, on the east of Barnstaple Bay, 2 3/4 m. N.W. of Bideford, on the Bideford and Appledore railway, which takes its name from a famous novel by Charles Kingsley. Many visitors are attracted in summer by its pure and bracing air, its quiet, and, above all, by its golf club, with links laid out on the sandhills known as Braunton Burrows. Westward Ho forms part of the urban district of Northam, which had a population in 1901 of 5155.

WETHERSFIELD, a township of Hartford county, Connecticut, U.S.A., on the Connecticut river, adjoining on the N. the city of Hartford, of which it is a residential suburb. Pop. (1900) 2271; (1900) 2200, (1900) 4220 and (1900) 3148; Area, about 12 sq. m. It is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway and by electric lines to Hartford. Among its old buildings are the house in which in 1781 George Washington and Count Rochambeau met to plan the Yorktown campaign; the First Church of Christ (Congregational), erected in 1761 and remodelled in 1838 and 1882; and the old academy building, which was built in 1802, is now used as a town hall, and houses a public library. There is a great elm here, 26 1/2 ft. in girth. The Connecticut state prison is in Wethersfield. In the township tobacco, vegetables, and dairy produce are raised, and dairying interests are of considerable importance; the principal manufactures are small tools and mattresses. Wethersfield is the oldest permanently inhabited township in the state; it was first settled in the winter of 1634-1635 by colonists from Watertown, Massachusetts, and received its present name in 1637. With Hartford and Windsor in 1639 it formed the Fundamental Orders of the Colony of Connecticut. Before 1660 its inhabitants aided in the founding of Stamford and Milford, Connecticut, and of Hadley, Massachusetts.

See H. R. Stiles, History of Ancient Wethersfield (New York, 1900).

WETSTEIN (also WETSTEIN), JOHANN JAKOB (1693-1754), New Testament critic, was born at Basel on the 6th of March 1693. Among his tutors in theology was Samuel Werenfels (1657-1740), an influential anti-racism of modern scientific exegesis. While still a student he began to direct his attention to the special pursuit of his life—the text of the Greek New Testament. A relative, Johann Wetstein, who was the university librarian, gave him permission to examine and collate the principal MSS of the New Testament in the library, and he copied the various readings which they contained into his copy of Gerard of Maestricht's edition of the Greek text. In 1733 in his public examination he defended a dissertation entitled De variis Novi Testamenti lectionibus, and sought to show that variety of readings did not detract from the authority of the Bible. Wetstein paid great attention also to Aramaic and Talmudic Hebrew. In the spring of 1714 he undertook a learned tour, which led him to Paris and England, the great variety of his inquiry everywhere being manuscripts of the New Testament. In 1717 he returned to Basel, and there submitted his dissertation on R. Bentley at Cambridge, who took great interest in his work. The great scholar induced him to return to Paris to collate carefully the Codex Ephraemi, Bentley having then in view a critical edition of the New Testament. In July 1717 Wetstein returned to take the office of a curate at large (diasconus communis) at Basel, a post which he held for three years, at the expiration of which he exchanged it to become his father's colleague and successor in the parish of St Leonard's. At the same time he kept his favourite study, and gave private lectures on New Testament exegesis. It was then that he decided to prepare a critical edition of the Greek New Testament. He had in the meantime broken with Bentley, whose famous Proposals appeared in 1720. His earlier teachers, however, J. C. Iselin and J. L. Frey, who were engaged upon work similar to his own, became so unfriendly towards him that after a time he was forbidden any further use of the manuscripts in the library. Then a rumour got abroad that his projected text would take the Socinian side in the case of such passages as 2 Timothy iii. 16; and in other ways (e.g. by regarding Jesus's temptation as a subjective object), which, as he himself expressed it, he had given occasion for the suspicion of heresy. At length in 1729 the charge of projecting an edition of the Greek Testament favourable to Arian and Socinian views was formally laid against him. The end of the long and unedifying trial was his dismissal, on the 13th of May 1730, from his office of curate of St Leonard's. He then removed from Basel to Amsterdam, where a relative, Johann Heinrich Wetstein, had an important printing and publishing business, from whose office excellent editions of the classics were issued. He undertook the printing of Gerard of Maestricht's edition of the Greek Testament. Wetstein had begun to prepare this, when he was called upon to prepare an edition of the Greek Testament, which was suddenly stopped for some unknown reason. As soon as he reached Amsterdam he published anonymously the Prolegomena ad Novi Testamenti Graeci editionem, which he had proposed should accompany his Greek Testament, and which was republished by him, with additions, as part of his great work, 1751. The next year (1752) the Remonstrants offered him the chair of philosophy in their college at Amsterdam, vacated by the illness of Jean le Clerc, on condition that he should clear himself of the suspicion of heresy. He thereupon returned to Basel, and received a reversal (March 22, 1752) of the previous decision, and admission to all his clerical offices. But, on his becoming a candidate for the Hebrew chair at Basel, his orthodox opponents procured his defeat and his retirement to Amsterdam. At
The family of Wettin, which he recommended to place a textus receptus and the full list of various readings. Beneath the latter passages are many critical and methodical accounts of the MSS. and the readings of the fathers, as well as the work, the difficulties with which the text has to contend in the prosecution of the work of his life. He was the first to designate uncial manuscripts by Roman capitals, and cursive manuscripts by Arabic figures. He did not live long enough to complete this work. He died at Amsterdam on the 23rd of March 1754.

Wettin's New Testament has never been republished entirely. The edition of 1756, by William Baker, published in parts, is in which he introduced the readings recommended by Wettin; J. G. Semler republished the Prolegomena and appendix (1762); A. Loizeau commenced a new edition of the work, but the Prolegomena were not issued. The editor of the works of Wettin is generally allowed that Wettin rendered invaluable service to textual criticism by his selection of various readings and his methodical account of the MSS. and other sources, and that his work was rendered less valuable through his prejudice against the Latin version and the principle of grouping MSS. in families which had been recommended by Richard Bentley and J. A. Bengel.


WETTIN—WEXFORD

Wetin, the name of a family from which several of the royal houses of Europe have sprung, derived from a castle which stood near the small town of that name on the Saale. Attempts to trace the descent to the Saxon chief Widukind or Wittkeke, who wielded influence in the latter part of the 10th century. Dietrich, who was count of Hesse or Housay, a district on the left bank of the Saale. Dietrich was killed in 982 fighting the Hungarians, and his sons Dedo I. (d. 1000) and Frederick (d. 1017) received lands taken from the Wends, including the county of Gosau of Wettin on the right bank of the Saale. Dedo's son Dietrich II. inherited these lands, distinguished himself in warfare against the Poles, and married Matilda, daughter of Eckard I., margrave of Meissen. Their son Dedo II. obtained the Saxon east mark and lower Lusatia on the death of his uncle Eckard II. margrave of Meissen, in 1016, but in 1060 he quarrelled with the emperor Henry IV. and was compelled to surrender his possessions. He died in 1075, and his lands were granted to his son Henry I., who in 1089 was invested with the mark of Meissen. In 1103 Henry was succeeded by his cousin Thimo (d. 1104), who built a castle at Wettin, and was called by this name. Henry II., son of Henry I., followed, but died childless in 1123; his cousin, Conrad I., son of Thimo, claimed Meissen, of which he secured possession in 1130, and in 1135 the emperor Lothair II. added lower Lusatia to his possessions. Abolishment in the 12th century, William's lands were divided between his five sons, when the county of Wettin fell to his fourth son Henry, whose family died out in 1217. Wettin then passed to the descendants of Conrad's youngest son Frederick, and in 1288 the county, town and castle of Wettin were sold to the archbishop of Magdeburg. They were retained by the archbishop until the peace of Westphalia in 1648, when they passed to the eleventh of Brandenburg, and afterwards became incorporated in the kingdom of Prussia.

Conrad I. and his successors had added largely to their possessions, until under Henry I., the Illustrious, margrave of Meissen, the lands of the Wettins stretched from the Oder to the Werra, and from the Erzgebirge to the Harz mountains. The subsequent history of the family is merged in that of Meissen, Saxony and the four Saxon dukedoms. In June 1880 the 800th anniversary of the rule of the Wettins in Meissen and Saxony was celebrated with great splendour at Dresden.

See G. E. Hofmeister, Das Haus Wettin (Leipzig, 1885); C. W. Ritter, Geschichte des Kursaustotes und Königreichs Sächsen (Gotha, 1867—1873); O. Posse, Die Markgrafen von Meissen und das Haus Wettin (Leipzig, 1881); K. Wenck, Die Wettiner im 14ten Jahrhundert (Leipzig, 1877); Kämmel, Festschrift zur 800 jährigen Jubiläum der Häuser Wettin (Leipzig, 1889); and H. T. Meyer, Hof- und Zentralverwaltung der Wettiner (Leipzig, 1902).

WETZLAR, a town of Germany, in the Prussian Rhine province, pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Dill and Lahn, 64 m. N.E. of Coblenz by the railway to Giessen. Pop. (1905) 12,776. The most conspicuous building is the cathedral, dating in part from the 11th, in part from the 14th-16th centuries. The municipal archives contain interesting documents of the whilom imperial chamber (see infra). The town preserves associations of Goethe in 1772. After living here in 1772 as a legal official, and of Charlotte Buff, the Lotte of Werther. Overlooking the town are the ruins of the medieval castle of Kalsmunt. There are iron mines and foundries and optical instrument factories. Wetzlar was originally a royal demesne, and in the 12th century became a free imperial town. It had grown in importance when, in 1603, the imperial chamber (Reichskammergericht) was removed hither from Spires. The town lost its independence in 1803, and passed to the prince-primate Dalberg. Three years later (1806), on the dissolution of the empire, the imperial chamber ceased to exist. The French occupied here the palaces of Wettins and Saxons under the archduke Charles, 15th June 1796.

WEXFORD, a county of Ireland in the province of Leinster, bounded N. by Wicklow, E. and S. by St George's Channel, and W. by Waterford, Kilkenny and Carlow. The area is 576,737 acres or about 902 sq. m. The coast-line does not present any striking features, and owing to the number of sandbanks navigation is dangerous near the shore. The only inlet of importance on the east coast and the only safe harbour is Wexford Harbour, which, owing to a bar, is not accessible to large vessels at ebb-tide. The artificial harbour of Rosslare, after living here in 1772 as a legal official, and of Charlotte Buff, the Lotte of Werther. Overlooking the town are the ruins of the medieval castle of Kalsmunt. There are iron mines and foundries and optical instrument factories. Wetzlar was originally a royal demesne, and in the 12th century became a free imperial town. It had grown in importance when, in 1603, the imperial chamber (Reichskammergericht) was removed hither from Spires. The town lost its independence in 1803, and passed to the prince-primate Dalberg. Three years later (1806), on the dissolution of the empire, the imperial chamber ceased to exist. The French occupied here the palaces of Wettins and Saxons under the archduke Charles, 15th June 1796.

The surface of the county is chiefly a series of verdtant low hills, except towards the northern and western boundaries. An elevation, rising on the north-western boundary forms the termination of the granitic range in Wicklow, and in Croghan Kinshela, on the borders of Wicklow, rises to a height of 1085 ft. On the western border, another range, situated chiefly in Carlow, extends from the valley of the Slaney at Newtownbarry to the confluence of the Barrow with the Nore at New Ross, and reaches 2400 ft. in Blackstairs Mountain, and 2610 ft. in Mount Leinster on the border of Co. Carlow. In the southern district, a hilly region, reaching in Forth Mountain a height of 725 ft., forms with Wexford Harbour the northern boundaries of the baronies of Fonth and Bangy, a peninsula of flat and fertile land. The river Slaney enters the county at its north-western extremity, and flows south-east to Wexford Harbour. Its chief tributary is the Bann, which flows south-westwards from the borders of Wicklow. The Barrow forms the western boundary of the county from the Blackstairs range of mountains till its confluence with the Suir at Waterford Harbour.
Geology.—The Leinster Chain, with its granite core and margin of mica-schist, bounds the county on the west. From this, Silurian greywacke sea, like that forming with the Palaeozoic surface, numerous intrusive and contemporaneous felsic lavas, and some diorites occurring along the strike in continuation of the Waterford series. A granite outlier rises south of Enniscorthy; and granite, in part gneissic, forms Carrsore Pt. From near Courtown to Bannow Bay, greenish slates like the Oldhamian series of Wicklow form a broad band, with Old Red Sandstone and Carboniferous limestones on either side. The plant bed is well held, as at Cornelscourt, SIlurian near New Ross, and again towards Carnsore. The surface of the county is much modified by glacial drift, and by the presence of sands and gravels of pre-Glacial and possibly late Pleistocene age. These interesting beds, are used for liming the fields, under the name of “manure gravels,” on account of the fossil shells that they contain.

Industries.—The soil for the most part is a cold stiff clay resting on a layer of peat. Hay-plots and grass fields are much more numerous here than to the south of the county, and there are a few fishing villages on the inlets of the south coast.

The Dublin & South-Eastern railway enters the county from N.E., and runs to Wexford by way of Enniscorthy, with a branch W. to New Ross, from Macmine Junction. Connecting with this line at Palace East, a branch of the Great Southern & Western joins the Kilkenny & Cashel line at Kilkenny town, county Carlow. This company also owns the lines from Rosslare harbour to Wexford and across the southern part of the county to Waterford. There is water communication for barges by the Slaney to Enniscorthy; by the Barrow for larger vessels to New Ross, and by this river and the Grand Canal for barges to Dublin.

Population and Administration.—The population decreases (112,063 in 1891; 104,104 in 1901), but this decrease and the emigration returns are less serious than the average of Irish counties. Of the total about 91 1/2% are Roman Catholics, and about 8 1/2% form the rural population. The principal towns are Wexford (pop. 13,768), New Ross (3,847), Enniscorthy (3,458) and Gorey (2,718). Newtownbarrny, finitely situated on the Slaney below the outliers of Mount Leinster, is a lesser market town. To the Irish parliament, until the Union of 1800, the county returned two members, and the boroughs of Bannow, Clonmines, Enniscorthy, Fethard, Gorey, New Ross, Taghmon and Wexford two each. By the Redistribution Act of 1885 Wexford, which had returned two members since 1800, was divided into two parliamentary divisions, North and South, each returning one member, the borough of Wexford, which formerly returned two, being retained, and the portion of the county of Wexford retained within the county, being merged in the South Division. The county is divided into ten baronies. It is in the Protestant diocese of Dublin, and the Roman Catholic dioceses of Dublin, Ferns, and Kildare and Leighlin. Assizes are held at Wexford, and quarter sessions at Enniscorthy, Gorey, New Ross and Wexford.

History and Antiquities.—The northern portion of Wexford was included in Hy Kinseleagh, the peculiar territory of the Macmorrowes, overlords of Leinster, who had their chief residence at Ferns. Dermot Macmorrow, having been deposed from the high-kingship of Leinster, fled to England, and was named king of England, who authorized him to raise forces in England for the assertion of his claim. He secured the aid of Strongbow by promising him the hand of Eva, and in addition obtained assistance from Robert Fitzstephen and Maurice Fitzgerald of Wales. On the 1st of May 1169 Fitzstephen landed at Bagenon on the south side of Fethard, and after four days' siege captured the town of Wexford from its Danish inhabitants. After this Dermot granted the territory of Wexford to Fitzstephen and Fitzgerald and their heirs for ever. Macmorrow having died in 1171, his son, the he-ir of Wexford, retained Wexford in his own possession, but in 1174 he committed it to Strongbow. The barony of Foy is almost entirely peopled by the descendants of those who accompanied these English expeditions. Wexford was one of the twelve counties into which the conquered territory in Ireland is generally stated to have been divided by King John, and formed part of the possessions of William Marshal, earl of Pembroke, who had married Strongbow's daughter. Through the female line it ultimately passed to John Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, who in 1446 gave Wexford and radiiis of Dunbrody, Enniscorthy and New Ross. Among the monastic ruins special mention may be made of Dunbrody abbey, of great extent, founded about 1178 for Cistercian monks by Hervey de Montmorency, marshal of Henry II.; Tintern abbey, founded in 1200 by William Marshal, earl of Pembroke, and peopled by monks from Tintern abbey in Monmouthshire; the abbey of St Sepulchre, Wexford, founded shortly after the invasion by the Irish king John, and by the monks of the abbey of Macmorrow (with other remains including the modernized cathedral of a former see, and ruins of a church); and the abbey of New Ross, founded by St Alban in the 6th century. There are a considerable number of old castles, including Ferns, dindsay by the line at Ballinacourty, county Carlow.

WEXFORD, a seaport, market town and municipal borough, and the county town of Co. Wexford, Ireland, finely situated on the south side of the Slaney, where it discharges into Wexford Harbour, on the Dublin & South-Eastern railway, 924 m. S. of Dublin. Pop. (1901) 11,166. Wexford Harbour, formed by the estuary of the Slaney, is about 5 m. from N. to S. and about 4 from E. to W. There are quays extending nearly 900 yds., and the harbour affords good accommodation for shipping, but its advantages are in great part lost by a bar at its mouth preventing the entrance of vessels drawing more than 12 ft. An artificial harbour was therefore opened at Rosslare in 1906, outside the southern part of the promontory closing in the harbour, and this is connected with Wexford by a railway (8 m.) owned by the Great Southern & Western Company, and is served by the passenger steamers of the Great Western railway of England from Fishguard. The town of Wexford consists, for the most part, of extremely narrow streets, of picturesque appearance, but inconvenient to traffic. Some remains exist of the old walls and flanking towers. The Protestant cathedral, on the site of the ancient abbey of St Sepulchre or Selsker, is said to occupy the spot where the treaty was signed between the Irish and the English invaders in 1169. The principal modern buildings are the town-hall, court-house, barracks, occupying the site of the ancient castle, St Peter's College for the education of Catholic clergy, with a striking chapel by A. W. Pugin, and a number of convents. At Carrick: 2 m. W., the Anglo-Normans erected their first castle, and opposite this, across the river, is a modern round tower commemorating the men of Wexford who died in the Crimean War. At Carrick are three monuments erected in the 15th century, by the abbey of St Sepulchre or Selsker. The town has a large distillery for the manufacture of artificial manure, flour, agricultural implements, and rope and twine. Wexford is the headquarters of salmon and sea fishery districts. Under the Local Government (Ireland) Act 1898 it retains its mayor and corporation.

Wexford was one of the earliest colonies of the English, having been taken by Fitzstephen. It was the second town that Cromwell besieged in 1649. It was garrisoned for William III. in 1690, and occupied by the French in 1798 and 1803. It was used as a military base by the French, but, however, surrendered it on the 21st of June. In 1378 the town received a charter from Aymer de Valence, which was extended by Henry IV. in 1411, and confirmed by Elizabeth in 1558.
By James I. it was in 1608 made a free borough corporate, by the title of the town and free borough corporate of Weyford. It returned two members to parliament from 1374 till the Union, when they were reduced to one. In 1885 it was included in the south division of the county.

WEYBRIDGE, an urban district in the Chertsey parliamentary division of Surrey, England; 19 m. W.S.W. from London by the London & South-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 5320. It lies in the flat valley of the river Wey, 1 m. above its junction with the Thames. The river is locked up to Godalming, and navigation is assisted by cuts. Weybridge has grown in modern times out of a village into a residential town. The church of St. James is modern but contains numerous ancient memorials, and one by Sir F. Chantrey for the duchess of York (d. 1829), daughter of Frederick William II. of Prussia, to whose memory there is also a column on Weybridge Green. The summit of this column is that which formerly stood at Seven Dials, London. The Roman Catholic chapel of St. Charles Borromeo was the burial-place of Louis Philippe, ex-king of the French (d. 1850), who resided at Claremont in the neighbouring parish of Esher, his queen and other members of his family; but their bodies were subsequently removed to Dreux in Normandy. To the east of Weybridge lies Henry VIII.'s park of Oatlands (see Walton-on-Thames). In 1907 the Brooklands racing track for motor-cars was opened near Weybridge. It has a circuit of 2½ m. round the inner edge, and including the straight finishing track is 100 m. long and 7 m. wide. The total length is about 3000 ft., and at the curves it is banked up to a maximum height of 28 ft. 8 in.

WEYDEN, ROGIER VAN DER [originally ROGER DE LA PASTURE] (c. 1400-1464), Flemish painter, was born in Tournai, and there apprenticed in 1427 to Robert Campin. He became a gold master in 1432 and in 1435 removed to Brussels, where he was shortly after appointed town painter. His four historical works in the Hôtel de Ville have perished, but three tapestries in the Bern museum are traditionally based on their designs. In 1449 Rogier went to Italy, visiting Rome, Ferrara (where he painted two pictures for Lionello d'Este), Milan and probably Florence. On returning (1450) he executed for Pierre Bladelin the "Magi" triptych, now in the Berlin Gallery, and (1453) an altarpiece for the abbey of Cambrai, which has been identified with a triptych in the Prado Gallery representing the "Crucifixion," the "Expulsion from Paradise" and the "Last Judgment." Van der Weyden's style, which was in no way modified by his Italian journey, is somewhat dry and severe as compared with the painting of the Van Eycks, whose pupil Vasari erroneously supposed him to be; his colour is less rich than theirs, his brush-work more laborious, his sense of form more exact. On the other hand, he cared more for dramatic expression, particularly of a tragic kind, and his pictures have a deeply religious intention. Comparatively few works are attributed with certainty to this painter; chief among such are two altarpieces at Berlin, besides that mentioned above, "The Joys and Sorrows of Mary," and "Life of St John the Baptist," a "Deposition" and "Crucifixion" in the Escorial, the Prado triptych, another ("Annunciation," "Adoration" and "Presentation") at Munich; a "Madonna" and a "St John the Baptist" at Frankfort. The "Seven Sacraments" altarpiece at Antwerp is almost certainly his, likewise the "Doom" in the Capella della triptych of the Beaune hospital, and the "Seven Sorrows" at Brussels. Two pictures of St Luke painting the Virgin, at Brussels and St Petersburg respectively, are attributed to him. None of these is signed or dated. Van der Weyden attracted many foreigners, notably Martin Schongauer, to his studio, and he became one of the main influences in the northern art of the 15th century. He died at Brussels in 1464. His descendant, ROGIER VAN DER WEYDEN the younger, is known to have entered the Antwerp guild in 1528, but no work of his has yet been satisfactorily authenticated.

See Hasse, Roger von der Weyden and Roger von Brugge (Strassburg, 1905).

WEYLER Y NICOLAU, VALERIANO, Marques of Tenerife (1837— ), Spanish soldier, was born at Palma de Majorca. His family were originally Prussians, and served in the Spanish army for several generations. He entered at sixteen the military college of Cadiz, and, when he obtained the rank of lieutenant, passed into the staff college, from which he came out as the head of his class. Two years afterwards he became captain, and was sent to Cuba at his own request. He distinguished himself in the expedition to Santo Domingo in many fights, and especially in a daring reconnaissance with few men into the heart of the enemy's lines, for which he got the cross with laurels of San Fernando. From 1868 to 1872 he served also brilliantly against the Cuban rebels, and commanded a corps of volunteers specially raised for him in Havana. He returned to Spain in 1873 as brigadier-general, and took an active part against the Carlists in the eastern provinces of the Peninsula in 1873 and 1876, for which he was raised to the rank of general of division. Then he was elected senator and given the title of marques of Tenerife. He held the post of captain-general in the Canary Islands from 1875 to 1883, and in the Balearic Islands afterwards. In 1888 he was sent out as captain-general to the Philippines, where he dealt very sternly with the native rebels of the Carolines, of Mindanao and other provinces. On his return to Spain in 1892 he was appointed to the command first of the 6th Army Corps in the Basque Provinces and Navarre, where he put down quelling several agitations, and then as captain-general at Barcelona, where he remained until June, 1897. In Catalonia, with a state of siege, he made himself the terror of the anarchists and socialists. After Marshal Campos had failed to pacify Cuba, the Conservative government of Canovas del Castillo sent out Weyler, and this selection met the approval of most Spaniards, who thought him the proper man to crush the rebellion. Weyler attempted to do this by a policy of inexorable repression, which raised a storm of indignation, and led to a demand from America for his recall. This recall was granted by the Liberal government of Sagasta, but Weyler afterwards asserted that, had he been left alone, he would have stamped out the rebellion in six months. After his return to Spain his reputation as a strong and ambitious soldier made him one of those who in case of any constitutional disturbance might be expected to play an important rôle, and his political position was nationally affected by this consideration; his appointment in 1900 as captain-general of Madrid resulted indeed in more than one ministerial crisis. He was minister of war for a short time at the end of 1901, and again in 1905. At the end of October 1909 he was appointed captain-general at Barcelona, but he died after a few weeks in the house of his friend, the Marquess of Francisco Ferrer were quelled by him without bloodshed.

WEYMAN, STANLEY JOHN (1852— ). English novelist, was born at Ludlow, Shropshire, on the 7th of August 1855, the son of a solicitor. He was educated at Shrewsbury School, and at Christ Church, Oxford. He took his degree in modern history in 1877, and was called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1881, joining the Oxford circuit. He had been practising as a barrister for eight years when he made his reputation as a novelist by a series of romances dealing with French history: The House of the Wolf (1886); A Gentleman of France (1893); Under the Red Robe (1894); Memoirs of a Minister of France (1895), &c. Among his later novels were: Shrewsbury (1897), The Castle Inn (1898), Sophia (1900), Count Honnibal (1901), In King's Byways (1902), The Long Night (1903), The Abbess of Vlaye (1904), Starcross Farm (1905), Chipping (1906).

WEYMOUTH, a township of Norfolk county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., on Weymouth harbour, a part of Boston Bay, 9 m. S.E. of Boston, between Quincy and Braintree (to the W.) and Hingham to the E. Pop. (1850) 10,866; (1900) 11,342 (1845 foreign-born); (1905, state census) 11,585; (1910) 11,695. Area, 10 sq. m. Weymouth is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway, and is connected with Boston, Quincy, Braintree, Hingham, Nantasket and Rockland by electric lines. In the township there are several villages, including Weymouth, North Weymouth, East Weymouth and South
WEYMOUTH—WHALE

Weymouth, and the smaller villages of Weymouth Centre, Weymouth Heights, Lovell's Corner, Nash's Corner and Old Spain, and there are also four islands, Round, Grape, Slate and Sheep. The mainland itself is largely a peninsula lying between the Weymouth Fore river and the Weymouth Back river, to the west and east respectively. The surface of the country is rough: Great Hill (at one of the narrowest parts of the peninsula) is about 200 yds. above the river, in the township of South Weymouth (1586, in South Weymouth) founded by a bequest of John S. Fogg; and the Tufts Library (1819, in Weymouth village), endowed by Quincy Tufts and his sister Susan Tufts. In 1905 the township's factory products were valued at $4,021,055, of which $2,388,213, or 52.6% of the total, was the value of boots and shoes. The township owns and operates its water works; the water supply is obtained from Weymouth Great Pond in the village of South Weymouth. Weymouth was first settled in 1623 by Robert Gorges. It was known first as the Plataation of Wessagus or Wessagusset; was incorporated as a township in 1635, and its boundaries have been practically unchanged since 1637, when Round and Grape islands were granted to Weymouth.

See C. F. Adams, Jr., "Wessagusset and Weymouth" in No. 3 (1905) of the Publications of the Weymouth Historical Society (organized in 1879 and incorporated in 1886), and D. H. Hurst, History of Norfolk County (Boston, 1884).

WEYMOUTH and MELCOMBE REGIS, a seaport, watermg-
place, market town and municipal borough in the Southern parlia-
mentary division of Dorsetshire,ß. 142. m. S.W. by W. from London, on the English Channel and Great Western railways. Pop. (1891) 16,100; (1901) 19,843. It is formed of Weymouth, a fishing town and seaport on the south-
west of the Wey, and Melcombe Regis on the north-east of the river, the two towns being contiguous. The situation on Wey-
mouth Bay, which is enclosed to the south by the Isle of Portland, and north by the eastward trend of the coast, is picturesque. An esplanade about 1 m. in length fronts the sea. To the south of the esplanade is a pier of stone on wooden piles, and the Alexandra and other public gardens are attractive. The harbour lies between the pier on the north and the spur of land called the Nothe on the south, and is protected by a concrete wall extending 500 ft. northward from the Nothe. The principal buildings are the old town hall, the market house, the guildhall, the Royal Dorset Yacht Clubhouse, the theatre, the Royal Victoria Jubilee Hall, the Weymouth and Dorset eye infirmary, the Weymouth royal hospital and dispensary and the barracks. Of the numerous churches none dates from before the 19th century. Opposite the Royal Terrace is an equestrian statue of George III. erected in 1809 in commemoration of his jubilee. A number of modern buildings are to be seen in all parts of the town. The harbour, the maritime trade, and the landing of goods were controlled by Henry VIII. for the protection of the shipping. The principal exports are Portland stone, bricks and tiles and provisions, and the imports are coal, timber, garden and dairy produce and wine. Ship and boat building, rope and sail making, and brewing are carried on. The Great Western railway company maintains a regular service of passenger steamers to Guernsey and Jersey. The municipal borough is under a mayor, 8 aldermen and 24 councillors. Area, 1299 acres.

Although its convenient harbour was probably used before Saxon times, and bronze weapons and Roman inscriptions have been found, there is no evidence that Weymouth (Wrinmu, Wainmu) was a place of early settlement. The first mention of "that place called Weymouth" occurs in a charter of King Ethelred (866-871), while it is again spoken of in a charter of King Æthelstan (895-940). Edward the Confessor gave the manor to the church of Winchester in 1042, and it remained with the prior and convent of St. Swithin until the 14th century, when it passed by exchange to Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, though the vassals of the prior and convent remained exempt from dues and tonnage in the port. Coming by marriage into the hands of the earls of March and Plantagenets, the manor was finally vested in the crown. The first charter was that granted by the prior and convent in 1252, by which Weymouth was made a free borough and port for all merchants, the burgesses holding their burgages by the same customs as those of Portsmouth and Southampton. The demand of six ships from the town by the king in 1324 shows its importance in the 14th century, but there is no mention of a mayor until 1467. It is probable that the town suffered considerably at the hands of the French at the beginning of the 15th century, though in 1404 the townsmen of Weymouth were victorious over a party of Flemings in the Isle of Portland. Early in the 16th century the commercial rivalry between Weymouth and the neighbouring borough of Melcombe came to a height. Melcombe had received a charter from Edward I. in 1280 granting to its burgesses half the port and privileges similar to those enjoyed by the citizens of London; Edward II. in 1307-1308 granted that its men might elect for themselves two bailiffs. The date of the grant of the town at an annual fee-farm of 8 marks is uncertain, but in the reign of Henry VI. a commission was appointed to inspect the destruction wrought by the king's enemies on the town, with the result that the fee-farm was reduced to 26s. The continual disputes between the two boroughs led to the passing of an act of union in 1571, the new borough being incorporated under the title of the "MayoI, Bailiffs and Burgesses" by James I. in 1616; further charters were granted by Charles II. and George II. Melcombe Regis first returned two members to parliament in 1507, and Weymouth in 1319, four members being returned by the united boroughs until 1832, when the representation was reduced to two and ceased in 1885. The medieval fairs are no longer held. As early as 1322 a trade war between Weymouth and Melcombe was ended by a treaty of peace, and a history of customs on wool and wool-felt is mentioned at Weymouth, while wine was imported from Aquitaine. In 1586 sugar is mentioned as an import, and in 1646 deal boards were brought here from Hamburg. The town suffered severely during the Civil War, being garrisoned by the parliamentary troops in 1642, taken by the earl of Carnarvon in 1643, and surrendered in the following year. The town is described as "but little" in 1733, but a few years afterwards it gained a reputation as a watering-place, and the duke of Gloucester built a house here; George III. and the royal family in 1780 paid Weymouth the first of a series of visits which further ensured its popularity.


WHALE, the English name applied to all the larger and some of the smaller representatives of the order CETACEA (q.v.). Although by their mode of life far removed from close observation, whales are in many respects the most interesting and wonderful of all the animals. In the structure and habits of these animals affords is that, in the endeavour to discover what a creature really is, from what others it is descended, and to which it is related, the outward appearance affords little clue, and we must go deep below the surface to find the essential characteristics of its nature. There was once, and may be still, an idea that a whale is a fish. To realize the folly of this notion we have only to consider what a fish really is, what under all the diversities of form, size and colour there is common to all fishes, and we see that in everything which characterizes a true fish and separates if from other classes, as reptiles, birds and mammals, the whale resembles the last and differs from the fish. It is as essentially a mammal as a cow or a horse, and simply resembles a fish externally because it is adapted to inhabit the same element; but it is no more on that account a fish than is a bat (because adapted to pass a great part of its existence on the wing) nearly related to a bird. In every part of the structure of a whale we see the result of two principles acting and reacting upon each other—one on the one hand adherence to type, or rather to fundamental inherited structural conditions, and on the other, adaptation to the peculiar circumstances under which it lives, and to which it has become gradually fitted. The external fish-like form is perfectly suited for
swimming through the water; the tail, however, is not placed vertically as in fishes, but horizontally, a position which accords better with the constant necessity for rising to the surface for the purpose of breathing. The hairy covering characteristic of all mammals, which if present might interfere with rapidity of movement through the water, is reduced to the merest rudiments—a few short bristles about the chin or upper lip—which are often only present in young animals. The function of keeping the body warm is performed by a thick layer of non-conducting

material, the "blubber," a dense kind of fat placed immediately beneath the skin. The fore-limbs, though functionally reduced to mere paddles, with no power of motion except at the shoulder-joint, have beneath their smooth and continuous external covering all the bones, joints and even most of the muscles, nerves and arteries of the human arm and hand; and rudiments even of hind-legs are found buried deep in the interior of the animal, serving no useful purpose, but pointing a lesson to those able to read it.

In the present article attention is directed only to what may be regarded as the typical whales. Of these the Greenland or Arctic right whale (Balaena mysticetus) attains, when fully grown, a length of from 45 to 50 ft. In this species (fig. 1) all the peculiarities which distinguish the head and mouth of the whales from those of other mammals have attained their greatest development. The head is of enormous size, exceeding one-third the whole length of the creature. The cavity of the mouth is actually larger than that of the body, thorax and abdomen together. The upper jaw is very narrow, but greatly arched from before backwards, to increase the height of the cavity and allow for the great length of the whalebone-blades; the enormous lateral halves of the lower jaw are widely separated posteriorly, and have a further outward sweep before they meet at the symphysis in front, giving the floor of the mouth the shape of an immense spoon. The whalebone-blades attained the number of 380 or more on each side, and those in the middle of the series have a length of 10 or sometimes 12 ft. They are black in colour, fine and highly elastic in texture, and fray out at the inner edge and ends into long, delicate, soft, almost silky, but tough hairs. The remarkable development of the mouth and of the structures in connexion with it, which distinguishes the right whale from all its allies, is entirely in relation to the nature of its food. By this apparatus the creature is enabled to avail itself of the minute but highly nutritious crustaceans and pteropods which swarm in immense shoals in the seas it frequents. The large mouth enables it to take in at one time a sufficient quantity of water filled with these small organisms and the length and delicate structure of the whalebone provide an efficient strainer or hair-sieve by which the water can be drained off. If the whalebone were rigid, and only as long as is the aperture between the upper and lower jaws when the mouth is shut, a space would be left beneath it when the jaws were separated, through which the water and the minute particles of food would escape. But instead of this the long, slender, brush-like, elastic ends of the whalebone blades fold back when the mouth is closed, the front ones passing below the hinder ones in a channel lying between the tongue and the lower jaw. When the mouth is opened, their elasticity causes them to straighten out like a bow unbent, so that at whatever distance the jaws are separated the strainer

remains in perfect action, filling the whole of the interval. The mechanical perfection of the arrangement is completed by the great development of the lower lip, which rises stiffly above the jaw-bone and prevents the long, slender, flexible ends of the whalebone from being carried outwards by the rush of water from the mouth, when its cavity is being diminished by the closure of the jaws and raising of the tongue.

If, as appears highly probable, the "bowhead" of the Okhotsk Sea and Bering Strait belongs to this species, its range is circum-polar. Though found in the seas on both sides of Greenland, and passing freely from one to the other, it is never seen so far south as Cape Farewell; but on the Labrador coast, where a cold stream sets down from the north, its range is somewhat farther. In, the Bering Sea, according to Scammon, "it is seen in thousands by the fiery fields parallel, which is about the farthest southern extent of the winter ice, while in the Sea of Okhotsk its southern limit is about the latitude of 54°." Everything tends to prove, Scammon says, "that Balaena mysticetus is truly an "ice whale," for among the scattered floes, or about the borders of the ice-fields or barriers, is its home and feeding-ground. It is true that these animals are pursued in the open water during the summer months, but in no instance have we learned of their being captured south of where winter ice-fields are occasionally met with." The occurrence of this species, therefore, on the British or any European coast is unlikely, as when alive and in health the southern limit of its range in the North Sea is from the east coast of Greenland at 64° N. lat. along the north of Iceland towards Spitzbergen, and a glance at a physical chart will show that there are no currents setting southwards which could bear a disabled animal or a floating carcasse to the British shores. To this improbability may be added the fact that no authentic instance has been recorded of the capture or stranding of this species upon any European coast. Scammon, however, states that amongst the Azores, And, and Faroe Islands, as well as on the coast of Labrador, and on the coast of Greenland, have in a few instances found their way to British shores, it would be rash to deny the possibility of the Greenland right whale doing the same.

The black whale or southern right whale (B. australis) resembles the preceding in the absence of a dorsal fin and of longitudinal furrows in the skin of the throat and chest, but differs in that it possesses a smaller head in proportion to its body, shorter whalebone, a different-shaped contour of the upper margin of the lower lip, and a greater number of vertebrae. This type inhabits the temperate seas of both southern and northern hemispheres and is divided into several species according to their geographical distribution: B. bicoayensis of the North Atlantic, B. japonica of the North Pacific, B. australis of the South Atlantic, and B. antarctic and B. macroceroides of the South Pacific. But the differential characters by which they are separated are slight, and the number of specimens available for comparison is not sufficient to afford the necessary data to determine whether these characters can be regarded as specific or not.

The Biscay right whale was formerly abundant in the North Atlantic, but is now verging on extinction. This was the whale the pursuit of which gave occupation to a numerous population on the

FIG. 1.—The Greenland or Arctic Right Whale (Balaena mysticetus),

shores of the Basque provinces of France and Spain in the middle ages. From the 10th to the 16th centuries Bayonne, Biarritz, St. Jean de Luz and San Sebastian were the centres of an active whale "fishery," which supplied Europe with oil and whalebone. In later times the whales were pursued as far as the coast of Newfoundland. They were, however, already getting scarce when the voyages under

taken towards the close of the 16th century for the discovery of the north-eastern route to China and India opened the seas round Spitzbergen: then for the first time the existence of the Greenland whale became known, and henceforth the energies of the European whale-fishers became concentrated upon that animal. Among instances of the occurrence of this whale in Europe in modern times
may be mentioned three, namely, in the harbour of San Sebastian in January 1854, in the Gulf of Taranto, in the Mediterranean, in February 1877, and on the Spanish coast between Galicia and Zarauz in February 1878. The skeletons of these whales are preserved in the museums of Copenhagen, Naples and San Sebastian respectively. On the coast of the United States several thousand dollars worth of a cargo of whalebone belonging to this species was received at New Bedford in 1896. During the latter half of the 19th century the Eskimos traded for whalebone. That the Basques seem to have well-nigh exterminated in their own waters; and it was not till a later epoch that the pursuit of the large baleened cousins, the (Balaena mysticetus), was initiated. Hunting the sperm-whale, or cachalot, in the South Sea was a still later development, while roqual-hunting is quite a modern industry.

Of whaling vessels of the old type, a brief notice will suffice. Those engaged in the British South Sea fishery, which was in its prime about the year 1790, were from 400 to 400 tons burden, and equipped for at least a three-years' voyage. They carried from 28 to 33 officers and men, and six whale-boats. Built sharp at both ends, these boats were about 27 ft. long, and were hung in laths and framework, and a strip of the blubber cut in a spiral direction. By raising this strip with the aid of proper apparatus, the whale could be turned round and round on its axis, and nearly the whole of the blubber removed in a continuous piece, to be cut, as required, into convenient lengths. Meanwhile the liquid sperm-oil, or "head-matter," was ladled out in buckets from the great cavity in the skull and put in casks, where it solidified, to be carried to port and there refined. The blubber was, however, reduced to oil by "try-marks" with which the vessel was provided, and stored in barrels. A large whale sperm-whale will yield as much as 350 tons of oil; while the yield of a small female does not exceed 1 or 2 tons. In the old days the cargo of a successful vessel might include the products of a hundred whales, yielding from 150 to 200 tons of boiled sperm-oil in addition to the spermaceti.

In the old days of the Greenland whale-fishery vessels of about 350 tons burden were deemed the most eligible, these being constructed in such a manner as to resist so far as possible the pressure of the ice. The crew was about fifty in number, and the vessel carried six or seven whale-boats of the same length as those used in the South Sea fishery. The vessels left Peterhead and Dundee (the ports for the Greenland fishery, as was London for the South Sea fishery) about the beginning of April, and, after touching at the Shetlands, reached the whaling-grounds before the end of that month. In approaching a whale, which was effectual from behind, silence was essential, and the harpoon had to be delivered within a distance of a few yards. The moment the wounded whale disappeared a flag was hoisted in the boat to give notice that assistance was required. At the signal to the line the whaleboat, of the utmost importance, as if it became entangled the boat would be drawn under water by the whale. Sometimes its motion
was retarded by one or more turns round the "bollard," a post fixed for this purpose in the boat; when this was done the friction was so great as to produce quantities of smoke, fire being prevented by sluicing the bollard with water. Even with the assistance offered by the bollard, the whale-line might be run out within ten minutes, when the lines of a second or even third whale were made fast. When a harnessed whale was towed at a rate of 700 fathoms of line would be taken out; the whale commonly remaining under water when first wounded for about 40 minutes, although a period of an hour is said to be not uncommon. On rising after its second descent the whale was attacked with lances thrust deep into the body and aimed at the vital parts. The old-fashioned lance was a 6-ft. rod and ¾-in. iron, flattened at one end into the form of a lance-head with cutting edges, and at the other expanding into a socket for the reception of a short wooden handle. Torrents of blood spouted from the blow-hole of the whale denoted the approach of the struggle. So soon as the whale was dead, no time was lost in piercing the tail or "flukes," and thus making the carcass fast to the boats by means of a cable, and then towing it in the direction of the ship. From fifteen minutes to as much as fifty hours might be occupied in a whale-hunt.

The following account of the operation of "flensing," or securing the blubber and whalebone of the Greenland whale, is taken from Sir William Jardine's Naturalists' Library:—

"The huge carcass is somewhat extended by strong tackles placed at the snout and tail. A band of blubber, two or three feet in width, encircling the whale's body at which the neck in other animals, is called the kent, because by means of it the whale is turned over or kent. To this band is fixed the lower extremity of a combination of powerful blocks, called the kent-purchase, by means of which the whole circumference of the animal is, section by section, brought to the surface. The harpooners, having spikes on their feet to prevent their falling from the carcass, then begin with a kind of spade, and with huy knives, to make long parallel cuts from end to end, which are divided by cross-cuts into pieces of about a half a ton. These are conveyed on deck, and, after being reduced to smaller portions, are stowed in the hold. Finally, being by other operations still further divided, the blubber is put into casks, which is called "making-off," and packed down completely by a suitable instrument.

"While this flensing is proceeding, and when it reaches the lips, which contain much oil, the baleen (whalebone) is exposed. This is detached by means of bone-handspikes, bone knives and bone spades. The whole whalebone is hoisted on deck in one mass, when it is split by bone wedges into joints, containing five or ten blades each. The blubber and whalebone are thus secured, the two jaw-bones, from the quantity of oil which they contain, are usually hoisted on deck, and then only the krenge remains—the huge carcass of flesh and bone, which is abandoned either to the birds or the bears, which duly attend on such occasions for their share of the prey."

The largest cargo ever secured by a Scotch whaler was that of the "Revolution" of Peterhead in 1814, which comprised the products of no less than forty-four whales. The oil, which amounted to 290 tons, realized £568, while the price obtained for the whalebone, added to the government bounty then given to Greenland whalers, brought up the total sum to £1,100. Allowing a ton to each whale, the whalebone alone at present prices would have yielded about £10,000.

At a later period, say about 1880, the Greenland whaler had grown to a vessel of from 400 to 500 tons gross register, rigged either as a bark, schooner, or proa with auxiliary engines of about 75 horse-power. She would be manned by from fifteen to sixty hands, and would carry eight boats of the type mentioned above. Below the hold-beams were fitted about fifty iron tanks capable of containing from 200 to 250 tons of oil. Such a vessel would cost about £15,000 to build, and her working expenses, exclusive of interest and insurance, would be about £200 a month. At the period mentioned each whale-boat was armed with a harpoon-gun measuring 4 ft. 6 in, in length and weighing 75 lb; the barrel being 3 ft. long, with 1¾-in. bore, and mounted in a wooden stock, tapering behind into a pistol-handle. The gun-harpoon is used solely for first getting on to the whales; hand-harpoons being employed for getting a hold with other lines.

Without referring to further improvements in the weapons and vessels employed, it will suffice to state that in the Greenland whale-fishery the whales are still killed from whale-boats. In the roqual-fishery, as at Newfoundland, on the other hand, the actual attack is made from a steam- vessel of considerable size, as is described in the following quotation from a paper by Mr G. M. Allen in the American Naturalist for 1904, referring to the fishery at Rose-au-Rue, Placentia Bay, Newfoundland:

"The fishery itself," observes the author, "is carried on by means of small and staunchly built iron steamers of something over one hundred tons. A cannon-like gun is mounted on a pivot at the bow, and discharges a 5½-ft. harpoon of over 180 lb weight, which at short range is nearly buried in the body of the whale. A hollow iron cap filled with blasting powder is screwed to the tip of the harpoon, forming its point. A timed fuse discharges the bomb inside the body of the whale. The harpooner carries a stout cable which is handled by a powerful 5-sheet winch on the steamer's deck."

Explosive harpoons of the type referred to were invented by Svend Fyn, a Norwegian, and used by him about the year 1865 or 1866 in the manner described above, as they still are in various Norwegian roqual-fisheries.

In fisheries of this type the carcasses of the whales are towed into harbour for flensing; and in place of the "krenge" being wasted, the flesh is worked up to form an excellent manure, while the bones are ground up and also used as fertilisers.

A somewhat similar mode of proceeding characterizes the sperm whale fishery now carried on in the Azores, so far at least as the towing of the carcasses to shore for the purpose of flensing is concerned. According to an account given by Professor E. L. Bouvier in the Bulletin de l'Institut Oceanographique for 1907, American whalers have observation stations on most of the islands of the Azores group; Horta, in Fayal, being the favourite station. The carcasses of the cachalots are towed for flensing into a small creek adjacent to the port, where, after the removal of the spermaceti and blubber, they are left to rot. Even the teeth have a commercial value, being either sold as curiosities in Horta, or utilized for ivory. Whenever practicable, the whales caught by the vessels belonging to the great sperm-whaling station at New Bedford are towed into the harbour for flensing.

Passing on to a review of some of the more important whale fisheries of the world, the Atlantic fishery by the Basques in the 10th and six succeeding centuries claims first mention. Readers desirous of obtaining further insight into the little that is known about it are referred to an interesting paper by Sir Clements Markham published in the Proceedings of the Zoological Society of London for 1881. Although, as already noted, the black whale (Balaena mysticetus) was well-nigh exterminated in the north Atlantic by the 18th and 19th centuries, many years afterwards was excessively rare, yet quite recently several examples have been taken by Scottish whalers off the Hebrides, while the whalebone of others has been received at New Bedford.

The discovery in 1596 by the Dutch navigator Barents of Spitzbergen, followed by the voyage of Hudson in the "Hopewell" in 1607, may be said to have inaugurated the second phase in the whaling industry; these adventurous voyages bringing to light for the first time the existence of the Greenland whale (B. mysticetus); a species of much greater value than any that had been previously hunted.

Here it may be well to refer to two common misconceptions regarding this whale. In the first place, it does not appear to be, as commonly supposed, a circumpolar species. There is, for instance, no evidence of its occurrence eastward of Spitzbergen along the Siberian coast between 16° and 170° E.; and it is not till the latter parallel is reached, at Cape Schelagskoi, that the domain of the so-called bowhead of the American whales is entered.

"On the other side of the Bering Strait," writes Mr T. Southwell in the volume of Scotch Natural History for April 1847, "these whales do not appear to penetrate much farther east than Cape Bathurst, and it seems highly improbable that there is any intercommunication between those at that point and the whales in Baffin Bay. On the other hand, the whales on the east side of
Davis Strait do not descend so far south as Cape Farewell, nor are those in the Greenland Sea known to pass westward round that cape. It seems therefore that, although their range as a species is very extensive longitudinally, the localities they inhabit are greatly restricted, each being inhabited by a local race differing from the other in some slight degree.

The second misconception is that the Greenland whale has gradually been driven northward by the whalers. A sufficient proof of the falsity of this idea is afforded by the fact that the minute organisms constituting the food of the species are restricted to the icy seas of the far north. The Greenland whale is, in fact, essentially an ice-whale.

To revert to the history of the fishery, no sooner was the accessibility of the Spitzbergen seas made known than vessels were fitted out for whaling there, at first by the British, and soon after by the Dutch. The seas absolutely swarmed with whales, which showed little fear of vessels and could thus be captured with ease. The first whaling expedition was despatched by the Muscovy Company, under the command of Jonas Poole; and the success of four voyages (1600-1612) soon attracted the attention of other nations. Some indication of the abundance of the whales may be gathered from the fact that in the year 1607 no less than 1509 of these monsters were killed off Spitzbergen by 188 vessels.

The fishery in Davis Strait was begun in 1719 by the Dutch, who at first killed large numbers of whales and were subsequently followed by the British. Although many whales have been seen in recent years, few are taken; and it is the opinion of many that in Greenland waters, at any rate, steam has been fatal to the industry. But the following is a summary of the rise and fall of the British Greenland whale-fishery, given by Mr Southwell in the article already cited:—

"For the first quarter of the 19th century scarcely a seaport of any importance on the east coast of England was unrepresented in the Arctic fishery; Trent, Hull, Berwick, Aberdeen, Montrose, Kirkwall, Greenock and for a time Banff and B'ness, all took part in the whale-fishery. Gradually, one by one, they fell off, till only Peterhead, which sent out its first whaler in 1786, and Dundee (which departed in 1790) were left. In 1833 Peterhead, which in 1857 sent out 34 vessels, ceased to be represented in the industry, leaving Dundee in possession of the field. Dundee sent out its largest fleet in 1885-186 vessels; in 1890, she was represented by 5 vessels only, one of which was wrecked."

According to Mr Southwell's account of the Arctic fishery (Zoologist, 1866), a Dundee vessel, the "Scotia," visited the east Greenland seas in the summer of 1806, where she took four small right-whales; this visit being the first made to those seas by a British vessel since 1890.

As already mentioned, the British whalers were accustomed to sail for the Arctic Ocean early in April; and if their destination was the east Greenland sea, off the west coast of Spitzbergen, they generally arrived on the grounds about a month later. The whales make their appearance amongst the ice near the sea edge about the 15th of May, but only remain until the opening of the barrier-ice permits them to resume their northward journey; for about the middle of June they suddenly disappear from these grounds, and are last seen going north-west, when the north Greenland whale-fishing is over for the season. If unsuccessful in obtaining a cargo at the northern grounds, the whale-ships were accustomed to proceed southwards as far as lat. 75°; where, if the sea were sufficiently open, they penetrated westwards until the coast of Greenland became visible. There they cruised until August, when the darkness of the nights put an end to the season's fishing. If the south-west fishery, in Davis Strait, were the first object of the voyage, the vessels arrived at the edge of the ice near Resolution Island in April. If unsuccessful here they proceeded direct to Disco island, where they usually arrived early in May. The whales appear about the middle of May at South East Bay, where a great fishing was once carried on. The dangerous passage of Melville Bay was next performed; the whales entering the north water in June, and pushing on towards the south. If there were a "land-floe across," i.e., if the land-ice of the west side were continuous across the entrance of Ponda Bay and Lancaster Sound, whale-ships would be seen in considerable numbers and good cargoes might be obtained; but immediately the land-floe broke up they departed to the westward. When there was no land-floe across, the whales proceeded at once to the secluded waters of Eclipse Sound and Prince Regent Inlet for the summer months. At this season most of the vessels cruised in the sounds, but a few searched the middle ice, until the darkness of the August nights compelled them to seek anchorage in some of the harbours on the west side, to await the return of the whales south. This migration takes place on the formation of young ice in the sounds, usually in the latter part of September. Only the larger whales, most of which are males, come, however, close down along the land of the west side. These the ships sent their boats to intercept; this forming the inshore-fishing, or "rock-nosing," which continued till the formation of young ice drove the vessels out of harbour, usually early in October.

A few vessels, American as well as British, occasionally entered Hudson Bay and prosecuted the fishing in the neighbourhood of Southampton Island, even entering Fox Channel. There were whaling-stations in Cumberland Inlet, and although likewise remained throughout the winter, ready to take advantage of the opening of the ice in the following spring. Here both young and old whales make their appearance in May; and the fishing continued till the whales migrated northwards in June.

Of the other nationalities which took part in the Spitzbergen-Greenland fisheries, it may be mentioned that the Dutch had fisheries both at Jan Mayen till 1640 and at Spitzbergen. In the Spitzbergen fishery 10,019 whales were taken by them in the ten years from 1679 to 1688. About 1680, when the fishing was most prosperous, they had 280 vessels and 14,000 seamen employed. The fishery continued to flourish on an extensive scale till 1770, when it began to decline, and it finally came to a close before the end of the century. At the same time the Germans prosecuted the fishing to a very considerable extent; 79 vessels from Hamburg and Bremen being employed in 1721, while during the fifty years from 1670 to 1721 an average of 45 vessels sailed yearly from Hamburg alone. German vessels continued to engage in the fishery until 1873. The Spaniards, although they at first supplied the harpooners to the crews of the English and Dutch vessels, never seem to have engaged largely in the northern fishery. The Danes, although early appearing on the Spitzbergen fishing-grounds, never pursued the industry on a large scale until after the commencement of the Davis Strait fishing in 1721, in which year they had no vessels engaged; but by 1894 the number had fallen to 35.

The continually increasing rarity of the Greenland whale has caused an enormous appreciation in the value of whalebone of recent years, as compared with the price of whalebone of the last century. For about twenty years preceding the year 1840 the average price of this commodity was about £163 per ton; while in the year 1875 whalebone of the Greenland whale sold at £250 per ton, and that of the south Atlantic black whale (Balaena australis) at £145 per ton. At the present date the price is about £2500 per ton, but a few years ago it touched £2800, although soon after it fell for a short time to £1100. The reason of the fall from £2800 to £2500 (at which about the price the market has stood for some time) is believed to be owing to the use of strips of horn for many purposes where whalebone formerly entered; the price of the whalebone of the Greenland whale is, as indicated above, far more valuable than that yielded by the northern and southern Atlantic black whales, of which comparatively little generally comes into the market. The best quality of whalebone is known in the trade as "size-bone," and consists of plates not less than 6 ft. in length.

In the twenty years preceding 1840 the average price of whalebone, in the northern fishery, was £50 per ton; the actual price in 1855 being £80 per ton. At the present time the price is £112 per ton. It may be added that in 1835 South Sea oil sold at £43 and sperm-oil at £75 per ton. A few words will suffice for the American fishery of the so-called bowhead, the western race of the Greenland whale, in Bering Strait. Here the whales are mostly sought for and killed in open water, and the vessels are consequently less adapted for ice-work. For the most part the vessels sail from San Francisco in March, and arrive at the ice-edge off Cape Navarin, where the fishing is begun, in May. The whales
disappear during summer, but return in the autumn, when the “fall-fishing” is carried on in the neighbourhood of Point Barrow; and between the seasons it was customary for the vessels to go south for sperm-whaling. The Bering Strait fishery was begun in 1848, and in the months following, 250 to 300 whales were abandoned in the ice off Cape Belcher, the crews making good their escape to other vessels; while again in 1876 a dozen vessels experienced a similar fate.

The sperm-whale fishery, of which the products are spermaceti, sperm-oil, ambergris (most often found floating in masses in the sea) and teeth, appears to have been initiated by the Americans in 1609, who for a considerable period found sufficient occupation in the neighbourhood of their own coasts. The British are, however, stated to have opened up the great whaling-grounds of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, although they did not embark on sperm-whaling till 1775. Within less than twenty years from that date their trade had, however, attained its maximum; no less than 75 British vessels, all from the port of London, being engaged in this industry in the year 1791. After this there was a steady decline till 1830, when only 37 vessels were thus employed; and since 1853 sperm-whaling has ceased to be a British industry.

As regards the American fishery, the island of Nantucket embarked in this trade about the year 1712, and by 1774 there were 360 American ships engaged in whaling, while in 1848 when the fishery was at its zenith, the number was 735, mostly from New Bedford. Between 1875 and 1886 the average number of vessels had sunk to 150. New Bedford, on the Atlantic, and San Francisco, on the Pacific side, are the two great whaling centres; and during the period last mentioned the average imports of whaling products into the United States totalled 5304 tons of sperm-oil, together with 2803 tons of whale-oil and 145 tons of whalebone.

During the first half of the last century the colony of New South Wales was biannually engaged in this trade, and in 1835 exported 2093 tons of sperm-oil.

Since the year 1882, when no less than 203 head were taken by the Peterhead whaler “Eclipse,” the Norwegians have carried on a fishery for the bottle-nosed whale (Hyperoodon rostratus), a species which although generally inferior in point of size, yields an oil closely akin to sperm-oil, but possessed of even greater lubricating power. An average male bottle-nose will yield about 22 cwt. of oil, containing 5% of pure spermaceti. Bottle-nose fishing is chiefly carried on in the neighbourhood of Jan Mayen and Iceland during the months of May and June, and is now occurring quite suddenly about the middle of the last-mentioned month. In 1903 about 1900 tons of this oil came on the market, which would imply the destruction of nearly 2000 whales.

The invention by Svend Foyn of the explosive harpoon, already referred to, inaugurated about the year 1866 the Norwegian fin-whale fishery, an industry which has since been taken up by other nationalities. Therorquals or fin-whales (Balaenoptera), which include the largest of all cetaceans, are built for speed, and are much fiercer animals than either the Greenland or the Indian right whales; their rush when wounded being of enormous velocity, while their vitality is such that attacking them in the old-fashioned way with the hand-harpoon is practically useless, and at the same time fraught with great danger to the pursuers. To a considerable extent the same may be affirmed of the humpbacked whale (Megaptera). Under these circumstances, previous to the invention of the bomb-harpoon, these whales were left entirely alone by the whalers.

By the year 1885 the Norwegians had a fleet of over 30 vessels engaged in this fishery off the coast of Finnmark, the amount of whose catch comprised 1300 whales in 1885, and 545 in the following year. Gradually the Norwegians have developed and extended the roqual-fin-whale, and they now possess stations in Iceland, the Faroes and Shetlands, and also at Buneveeneder in Harris in the Hebrides. In the Shetlands there are two stations at the head of Ronas Voe on the north-west side of the mainland where operations are carried on from May and June till September, when the whales leave the shore. During the first season (1903) the Nornna Whaling Company’s vessels killed 64 whales, while 62 were accounted for by the Shetland Whaling Company.

In 1898 a successful roqual-fin-whale fishery was established by the Newfoundland Steam Whaling Company at Rose-au-Rue, Placentia Bay, Newfoundland. Four species of roquals as well as humpbacks are hunted; and during a portion of the season in 1903 the catch included 174 of the former and 14 of the latter.

In addition to the above-mentioned fisheries for the larger whales, there are considerable local captures of the smaller kinds, commonly known as grampus or killers, porpoises, and dolphins. Of these, however, very brief mention must suffice. The most important captures are generally made in northern seas, the block pilot-whale, or grampus (Glomar euphalaus melas), is, for instance, not infrequently taken in large shoals by the Faro islanders; these whales being driven by boats into the shallows, where they are sometimes slaughtered by hundreds. Much the same may be stated with regard to the grampus or killer (Orca gladiator), of which no less than 47 head were killed at once in January 1904 at Bildstraumen, Norway. Of even more importance is the white-whale or beluga (Delphinapterus leucas), which is hunted for its blubber, hide and flesh; the average yield per head being about 100 gallons of oil. In 1871 the Tromsøe Whalers captured no less than 2167 tons of whale-oil, or 300 out of a school of some 900 were captured on a single occasion at Point Barrow, Alaska. These whales, which are worth about £3 a head, yield the leather known commercially as “porpoise-hide.” The narwhal (Monodon monoceros), yielding both blubber and the valuable ivory tusks, is usually captured singly by the Greenlanders in their “kayaks.” Local porpoise and dolphin fisheries are carried on by the fishermen in many parts of the world, the natives of the Traveancoast being noted for their success in this respect; while even the fresh-water susa or Ganges dolphins (Lipotes vulpinus) and the Rio de la Plata dolphin (Pontoporia blainvillei) are also caught in considerable numbers for the sake of their blubber.


WHALE-OIL, the oil obtained from the blubber of various species of the genus Balaena, as B. mysticetus, Greenland or the right whale (northern whale-oil), B. borealis (northern whale-oil), Balaenoptera longirostris, Balaenoptera borealis, and the Minke whale, all of the Indian right whale; as well as the “beluga” or “killer” whale, and the “black whale” or whale-oil, also yield whale-oils. “Train-oil” proper is the northern whale-oil, but this term has been applied to all blubber oils, and in Germany, to all marine animal oils—fish-oils, liver oils, and blubber oils. The most important whale-oil is sperm or spermaceti oil, yielded by the sperm-whales.

Whale-oil varies in colour from a bright honey yellow to a dark brown, according to the condition of the blubber from which it has been extracted. At best it has a rank fishy odour, and the darker the colour the more disagreeable the smell. With lowering of the temperature therein, accompanied with a small proportion of spermaceti, separates from the oil, and a little under the latter point nearly the whole of these constituents may be crystallized out. When separated and pressed, this deposit is known as whale tallow, and the oil from which it is removed is distinguished as pressed whale-oil; this, owing to its limpidity, is sometimes passed as sperm-oil. Whale-oil is principally used in oily woods for combing,
in batching flax and other vegetable fibres, in currying and chamois leather-making, and as a lubricant for machinery. Sperm-oil is obtained from the cavity in the head of the sperm-whale, and several smaller receptacles throughout the body of the animal. During the life of the whale the contents of these cavities are in a fluid condition, but no sooner is the "head matter" removed than the oil precipitates and solidifies to a yellow congealed mass when the oil is a clear yellow fluid having a fishy odour. Refined sperm-oil is a most valuable lubricant for small and delicate machinery (see OILS).

WHALLEY, EDWARD (c. 1615-c. 1675). English regicide, the exact dates of whose birth and death are unknown, was the second son of Richard Whalley, who had been sheriff of Nottinghamshire in 1595, by his second wife Frances Cromwell, aunt of Oliver. His great-grandfather was Richard the Whalley (1440-1583), a prominent adherent of the protector Somerset and member of parliament. He is said to have started in the trade of a woollen-draaper, but on the outbreak of the great rebellion he took up arms for the parliament, became major of Cromwell's regiment of horse, and greatly distinguished himself in the field. His conduct at Gainsborough fight in 1643 was especially praised by Cromwell; he fought at Marston Moor, commanded one of Cromwell's two regiments of cavalry at Naseby and at the capture of Bristol, was then sent into Oxfordshire, and in 1646 was made one of the Worcestershire regiments. He was superseded, according to Richard Baxter, the chaplain of his regiment, on account of his religious orthodoxy. He, however, supported his regiment in their grievances against the parliament in 1647. When the king was seized by the army, he was entrusted to the keeping of Whalley and his regiment at Hampton Court. Whalley refused to remove Charles's chaplains at the bidding of the parliamentary commissioners, and treated his captive with due courtesy, receiving from Charles after his flight a friendly letter of thanks. In the second Civil War, Whalley again distinguished himself as a soldier, and when the king was brought to trial he was chosen to be one of the tribunal and signed his death-warrant. He took part in Cromwell's Scottish expedition, was wounded at Dunbar, and in the autumn of 1650 was active in dealing with the situation in north Britain. Next year he took part in Cromwell's pursuit of Charles II. and was in the fight at Worcester. He followed and supported his great kinsman in his political career, presented the army petition to parliament (August 1662), approved of the protectorate, and represented Nottinghamshire in the parliaments of 1654 and 1656. As an active part in the prosecution of the last Whalley, James Naylor. He was one of the administrative major-generals, and was responsible for Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Warwick and Leicester. He supported the "Petition and Advice," except as regards the proposed assumption of the royal title by Cromwell, and became a member of the newly constituted House of Lords in December 1657. On the protector's death, at which he was present, he in vain gave his support to Richard; his regiment refused to obey his orders, and the Long Parliament dismissed him from his command as a representative of the army. In November 1659 he undertook an unsuccessful mission to Scotland to arrange terms with Monk. At the Restoration, Whalley, with his son-in-law, General William Goffe, escaped to America, and landed at Boston on the 27th of July 1660, living successively at New Haven and at Hadley, Massachusetts, every attempt on the part of the government at home to procure his arrest meeting with failure. He was alive, but failing in health, in 1674, and probably did not long survive. Whalley was twice married; first to Judith Duffell, by whom, besides other children, he had a son John and a daughter Frances (who married Major-General William Goffe, the regicide); and secondly to Mary Middleton, sister of Sir George Middleton, by whom he had two sons, Henry and Edward.

AUTHORITIES.—An account of Whalley's life is in Noble's Lives of the Regicides, and of his family in Noble's Memoirs of the Pro
tectoral House of Cromwell, vol. ii.; see also Gardiner's and Chren
dale's Early Times of the English People, iii. 439 (1843); Whalley's account of the king's flight; Ezra Stiles's History of the Con
tinent of the Judges of Charles I. (1794, &c.). The article by C. H. Firth in the Dict. Nat. Bio, is an admirable summary. Whalley's sojourn in America is dealt with in numerous papers published by the Massachusetts Historical Society, and in the Hutchinson Papers published (1865) by the Prince Society; see also Atlantic Monthly, vi. 89-93; Pennsylvania Mag., l. 55-66, 230, 359; F. B. Dexter's Notes and Queries, iii. 272-273; The New Haven Col. Hist. Papers, ii. (1877); Poem commemorating of Goffe, Whalley and Dixwell, with abstract of their history, by Philogathos (Boston, 1793); Palliser's Hist. of New England, ii. (1866); New England Historical and Genealogical Register, xxxiv. 359 (bibliography of American works on the regicides).

WHARF, a place for loading or unloading ships or vessels, particularly a platform of timber, stone or other material along the shore of a harbour or along the bank of a navigable river against which vessels may lie and discharge their cargo or be loaded. The O. Eng. word wharf meant literally a turning or turning-place (waverf, to turn, cf. Goth. wainbar, Gr. karpos, wrist), and was thus used particularly of a bank of earth, a dam that turns the flow of a stream; the cognate word in Dutch, weef, meant a a wharf. According to a wharf is styled a "wharfinger," properly "wharfager," with an intrusive n, as in "message" and "passenger."

WHARNCLIFFE, JAMES ARCHIBALD STUART-WORTLEY-MACKENZIE, 1st BARON (1776-1845). English statesman, was the son of Colonel Stuart, son of the 3rd earl of Bute and of Mabel Mary Whall (whom his wife Mary Wortley-Montagu Baronness Mountnorris (in her own right), as whose heir Colonel Stuart added the name of Wortley, taking later also that of Mackenzie (which his son in later life discarded) as heir to his uncle J. S. Mackenzie of Rosehaugh. He entered the army, becoming colonel in 1797, but retired in 1801 and devoted himself to politics, sitting in parliament as a Tory for Bossiney in Cornwall till 1818, when he was returned for Yorkshire. His attitude on various questions became gradually more Liberal, and his support of Catholic emancipation lost him his seat in 1826. He was then raised to the peerage as Baron Wharncliffe of Wortley, a recognition both of his previous parliamentary activity and of his high position among the country gentlemen. At first opposing the Reform Bill, he gradually came to see the undesirability of a popular conflict, and he separated himself from the Tories and took an important part in modifying the attitude of the peers and helping to pass the bill, though his attempts at amendment only resulted in its pleasing neither party. He became lord privy seal in Peel's short ministry at the end of 1834, and again joined him in 1841 as lord president of the council. In 1837 he brought out an edition of the writings of his wife Mary Wortley-Montagu, ed. by J. P. Wharton (1842). On his death in 1845 he was succeeded as 2nd baron by his eldest son, John Stuart-Wortley (1801-1855), whose son Edward, 3rd baron (1827-1899), best known as chairman of the Manchester, Lincoln & Sheffield railway, converted under him into the Great Central, was created 1st earl of Wharncliffe and Viscount Carlton in 1876; his name was prominently identified with railway enterprise, and became attached to certain features of its nomenclature. He was succeeded as 2nd earl by his nephew Francis (b. 1856).

Among other members of the family, several of whom distinguished themselves in law, politics, art and the army, may be mentioned the 1st baron's third son, James Archibald Stuart-Wortley (1805-1881), recorder of London and solicitor-general; his son, C. B. Stuart-Wortley, K.C. (b. 1851), became well known in parliament as under-secretary for the home office (1885, and 1886-1892) and deputy-chairman of committees.

WHARTON (FAMILY). The Whartons of Wharton were an old north of England family, and in 1543 Thomas Wharton (1495-
1543) was created a baron for his services in border warfare. From his descendants, whose heads of the latter, Philip Wharton (1612-1697), was the father of Thomas Wharton (1648-1715), who in 1706 was created baron and in
WHARTON, F.—WHATELY

1714 marquess of Wharton. The 1st marquess was one of the chief Whig politicians after the Revolution. He is famous in literary history as the author of the famous political ballad, *Lilliburlero*, which "sang James II. out of three kingdoms." Wharton was lord-lieutenant of Ireland in Anne's reign, and incurred the wrath of Swift, who attacked him as Verres in the *Examiner* (No. 14), and drew a separate "character" of him, which is one of Swift's masterpieces. He was a man of great wit and versatile cleverness, and cynically ostentatious in his immorality, having the reputation of being the greatest rake and the truest Whig of his time. Addison dedicated to him the fifth volume of the *Spectator*, giving him a very different "character" from Wharton's, but his memoirs of him are not so well known as his literary works. Dr. Wharton (1662-1731), duke of Wharton, succeeded to his father's marquessate and fortune, and in 1718 was created a duke.

But he quickly earned for himself, by his wild and profligate frolics and reckless playing at politics, Pope's satire of him as "the scorn and wonder of our days" (*Moral Essays*, i. 179).

He spent his large estates in a few years, then went abroad and gave eccentric support to the Old Pretender. There is a lively picture of him at a dance at Madrid in 1726 in which he was caught in a British cyclone, quoted in Stanhope's *History of England* (ii. 140). He was outlawed in 1729, and at his death the titles became extinct. In 1843 a claim was made before the House of Lords for a revival of the barony in favour of Mr Kemsley-Tynhe, a descendant of the 1st baron in the female line.

For the history of the family see E. R. Wharton's *Whartons of Wharton Hall* (1869).

WHARTON, FRANCIS (1852-1886), American legal writer and educationalist, was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 7th of March 1852. He graduated at Yale in 1870, was admitted to the bar in 1873, became prominent in Pennsylvania politics as a Democrat, and in Philadelphia edited the *North American and United States Gazette*. He was professor of English literature and history at Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, in 1856-1861. He took orders in the Episcopal Church in 1862 and in 1863-1869 was rector of St Paul's Church, Brookline, Massachusetts. In 1871-1876 he taught ecclesiastical polity and canon law in the Protestant Episcopal Theological School at Cambridge, Massachusetts, and at this time he lectured on the conflict of laws at Boston University. For two years he travelled in Europe, and after his return to Madison in 1876 he went to Washington, D.C., where he was lecturer on criminal law (1885-1886) and then professor of criminal law (1886-1888) at Columbian (now George Washington) University; in 1885-1888 he was solicitor (or examiner of claims) of the Department of State, and from 1888 to his death on the 21st of February 1889 was employed on an edition (authorized by Congress) of the *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States* (6 vols., 1889, ed. by J. B. Moore), which superseded Sparks's compilation. Wharton was a "broad churchman" and was deeply interested in the history of his church. He received the degree of LL.D. from the university of Edinburgh in 1883, and was the foremost American authority on international law.


See the *Memoir* (Philadelphia, 1891) by his daughter, Mrs Viele, and *Memoir of D. R. B. Moore's "Brief Sketch of the Life of Francis Wharton," prefixed to the first volume of the *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence*.

WHARTON, HENRY (1664-1695), English writer, was descended from Thomas, 2nd Baron Wharton (1520-1577), being a son of the Rev. Edmund Wharton, vicar of Worstead, Norfolk. Born at Worstead on the 6th of November 1664, Wharton was educated by his father, and then at Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Both his industry and his talents were exceptional, and his university career was brilliant. In 1686 he entered the service of the ecclesiastical historian, the Rev. William Cave (1637-1713), whom he helped in his literary work; but considering that his assistance was not sufficiently appreciated he soon forsook this employment. In 1687 he was ordained deacon, and in 1688 he made the acquaintance of the archbishop of Canterbury, William Sancroft, under whose influence he became an ardent supporter of his literary work with more zeal. The archbishop, who had a very high opinion of Wharton's character and talents, made him one of his chaplains, and presented him to the Kentish living of Sundridge, and afterwards to that of Chatham in the same county. In 1689 he took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, but he wrote a severe criticism of Bishop Burnet's *History of the Reformation*, and it was partly owing to the bishop's hostility that he did not obtain further preferment in the English church. He died on the 5th of March 1695, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Wharton's most valuable work is his *Anglia sacra*, a collection of the lives of English archbishops and bishops, which he published in two volumes in 1691. Some of these were written by Wharton himself; others were borrowed from early writers. His other writings include, in addition to his criticism of the *History of the Reformation*, a *Moral Dissertation. A Treatise of the Caliby of the clergy* (1686); *The enthusiasm of the Church of Rome demonstrated in some observations upon the life of Ignatius Loyola* (1688); and *A defence of pluralities* (1692, new ed. 1703). In the Lambeth Library there are sixteen volumes of Wharton's manuscripts. Describing him as "this wonderful man," Stubbs says that Wharton did for the elucidation of English Church history "more than any one before or since." A life of Wharton is included in George D'Ouy's *Life of W. Sancroft* (1821).

WHATELY, RICHARD (1787-1865), English logician and theological writer, archbishop of Dublin, was born in London on the 1st of February 1787. He was educated at a private school near Bristol, and at Oriel College, Oxford. He obtained double second-class honours and the prize for the English essay; in 1811 he was elected fellow of Oriel, and in 1814 took orders. During his residence at Oxford he wrote his celebrated tract, *Historic Doubts relative to Napoleon Bonaparte*, a very clever *jou d'esprit* directed against excessive scepticism as applied to the Gospel history. After his marriage in 1821 he settled in his diocese; and in 1822-1825 he delivered a series of lectures, *On the Use and Abuse of Party Spirit in Matters of Religion*, were published in the same year. In August 1823 he removed to Halesworth in Suffolk, but in 1825, having been appointed principal of St Alban Hall, he returned to Oxford. At St Alban Hall Whately found much to reform, and he left it a different place. In 1828 he published a series of *Essays on Some of the Peculiarities of the Christian Religion*, followed in 1828 by a second series *On some of the Difficulties in the Writings of St Paul*, and in 1830 by a third *On the Errors of Romanism traced to their Origin in Human Nature*. While he was at St Alban Hall (1826) the work appeared which is perhaps most closely associated with his name—his treatise on *Logic*, originally contributed to the *Encyclopaedia Metropolitana*, in which he raised the study of the subject to a new level. It gave a great impetus to the study of logic throughout Great Britain. A similar treatise on *Rhetoric*, also contributed to the *Encyclopaedia*, appeared in 1828. In 1829 Whately was elected to the professorship of political economy at Oxford in succession to Nassau William Senior. This was a subject admirably suited to his lucid, practical intellect; but his tenure of office was cut short by his appointment to the archbishopric of Dublin in 1831. He published only one course of *Introductory Lectures* (1831), but one of his first acts on going to Dublin was to endow a chair of political economy in Trinity College out of his private purse.

Whately's appointment by Lord Grey to the see of Dublin came as a great surprise to everybody, for though a decided Liberal Whately had from the beginning stood aloof from all political parties, and ecclesiastically his position was that of
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an Ishmaelite fighting for his own hand. The Evangelicals regarded him as a dangerous latitudinarian on the ground of his views on Catholic emancipation, the Sabbath question, the doctrine of election, and certain quasi-Sabellian opinions he was supposed to hold about the character and attributes of Christ, with his view of the church was diametrically opposed to that of the High Church party, and from the beginning he was the determined opponent of what was afterwards called the Tractarian movement. The appointment was challenged in the House of Lords, but without success. In Ireland it was immensely unpopular among the Protestants, both for the reasons just mentioned and as being the appointment of an Englishman and a Whig. Whately's blunt outspokenness and his "want of conciliating manners," which even his friends admit, prevented him from ever completely eradicating these prejudices, while at the same time he met with determined opposition from his own clergy. He ran counter to their most cherished prejudices from the first by connecting himself prominently with the attempt to establish a national and unsectarian system of education. He enforced strict discipline in his diocese, where it had been long unknown; and he published an unanswerable statement of his views on the Sabbath (Thoughts on the Sabbath, 1832). He took a small country place at Redesdale, 4 m. out of Dublin, where he could enjoy his favourite relaxation of gardening. Here his life was one of indefatigable industry. Questions supporting the scheme of education occupied much of his time. But he found leisure for the discussion of other public questions, for example, the subject of transportation and the general question of secondary punishments. In 1837 he wrote his well-known handbook of Christian Evidences, which was translated during his lifetime into more than a dozen languages. At a later period he also wrote, in a similar form, Easy Lessons on Reasoning, on Morals, on Mind and on the British Constitution. Among his other works, the most important of which is, Tracts on Some of the Dangers to Christian Faith (1839), The Kingdom of Christ (1841). He also edited Bacon's Essays, Paley's Evidence and Paley's Moral Philosophy. His cherished scheme of unsectarian religious instruction for Protestants and Catholics alike was carried out for a number of years with a measure of success, but in 1852 the scheme broke down owing to the opposition of the new Catholic archbishop of Dublin, and Whately felt himself constrained to withdraw from the Education Board. From the beginning Whately was a keen-sighted observer of the condition of Ireland, and gave much offence by tearing the state of the Catholic clergy as a measure of justice. During the terrible years of 1846 and 1847 the archbishop and his family were unwarmed in their efforts to alleviate the miseries of the people. From 1856 onwards symptoms of decline began to manifest themselves in a paralytic affection of the left side. Still he continued the active discharge of his public duties till the summer of 1863, when he was prostrated by an ulcer in the leg, and after several months of acute suffering he died on the 8th of October 1863.

Whately was a great talker, much addicted in early life to argument, and he used to hammer out his own views, and as he advanced in life much given to didactic monologue. He had a keen wit, whose sharp edge often inflicted wounds never deliberately intended by the speaker, and a wholly uncontrollable love of joking. Whately often offended people by the extreme unconventionality of his manners. When at Oxford his white hat, rough white coat, and huge white dog earned for him the sobriquet of the White Bear, and he outraged the conventions of the place by exhibiting the exploits of his climbing dog in Christchurch Meadow. With a remarkably fair and broad mind, his sympathies were with the poor, and by his blunt outspokenness on points of difference he alienated many. With no mystical fibre in his own constitution, the Tractarian movement was incomprehensible to him, and was the object of his bitter dislike and contempt. The doctrines of the Low Church party seemed to him to be almost equally tinge with superstition. He took a practical, almost business-like view of Christianity, which seemed to High Churchmen and Evangelicals alike little better than Rationalism. In this they did Whately less than justice, for his religion was very real and genuine. But he may be said to have continued the typical Christianity of the 18th century—that of the theologians who went out to fight the Rationalists with their own weapons. It was to Whately essentially a belief in certain matters of fact, to be accepted or rejected after an examination of "evidences." Hence his endeavour always is to convince the logical faculty, and his Christianity inevitably appears as a thing of the intellect rather than of the heart. Whately's qualities are exhibited at their best in his Logic, which is, as it were, the quintessence of the views which he afterwards applied to different subjects. He wrote nothing better than the luminous Appendix to this work on Ambiguous Terms.

In 1864 his daughter published Miscellaneous Remains from his commonplace book and in 1866 his Life and Correspondence in two volumes. The Anecdotal Memoirs of Archbishop Whately, by W. J. Fitzpatrick (1864), enlivens the picture.

WHAT-NOT, a piece of furniture, derived from the French dièbre, which was exceedingly popular in England in the first three-quarters of the 19th century. It usually consists of slender uprights or pillars, supporting a series of shelves for holding china, ornaments, or trifles of any kind—hence the name. In its English form, although a convenient drawing-room receptacle, it was rarely beautiful. The early mahogany examples are, however, sometimes graceful in their simplicity.

WHEAT (Triticum), the most important and the most generally diffused of cereal grasses. It is an annual plant, with hollow, erect, knotted stems, and produces, in addition to the direct developments from the seedling plant, secondary roots and secondary shoots (tillers) from the base. Its leaves have each a long sheath encircling the stem, and at the junction of the blade or "flag" with the sheath a small whitish outgrowth or "ligula." The inflorescence or ear consists of a central stalk bent zigzag, forming a series of notches (see fig. 1), and bearing a number of flattened spikelets, each of which grows out of each notch and has its inner or upper face presscd up against it. At the base of each spikelet are two empty boat-shaped glumes or "chaff-scales," one to the right, the other to the left, and then a series of flowers, 2 to 8 in number, closely crowded together, the uppermost being abortive or sterile,—indeed, in some varieties only one or two of the flowers are fertile. Each flower consists of an outer or lower glume, called the flowering glume, of the same shape as the empty glume and terminating in a long, or it may be in a short, awn or "beard." On the other side of the flower and at a slightly higher level is the "palea," of thinner texture than the other glumes, with infolded margins and with two ribs or veins. These several glumes are closely applied one to the other so as to conceal and protect the ovary,
and they only separate for a short time when flowering takes place; after fertilization they close again. Within the pale are two minute, ovate, pointed, white membranous scales called "lodicules." These contain three stamens with thread-like filaments and oblong, two-lobed anthers. The stamens are placed round the base of the ovary, which is round or oblong, much smaller than the glumes, covered with down, and surrounded by two short styles, extending from the middle of the vaulted ovary to the stigmas. The ripe fruit or grain, sometimes called the "berry," is the matured state of the ovary and its contents, is oblong or ovoid, with a longitudinal furrow on one side. The ovary adheres firmly to the seed in the interior, so that on examining a longitudinal section of the grain by the microscope the outer layer is seen to consist of epidermal cells, of which the uppermost are prolonged into short hairs to cover the apex of the grain.

Two or three layers of cells inside the epidermis constitute the tissue of the ovary, and these somewhat similar layers which form the coats of the seed. Within these is the albumen or endosperm, constituting the flabby part of the seed. The outermost layer of the endosperm consists of square cells larger and more regular in form than those on each side; these contain aleurön grains—small particles of gluten or nitrogenous matter. The remaining central mass of the seed is composed of numerous cells of irregular form and size containing many starch grains as well as gluten granules. The several layers of cells above referred to become more or less dry and inextricable from one another, forming the substance known as "bran." At the lower end of the albumen, and placed obliquely, is the minute embryo-plant, which derives its nourishment in the first instance from the albumen; this is destined to form the future plant.

The wheat plant is nowhere found in a wild condition. Some of the species of the genus Aegilops (now generally referred to Triticum by Bentham and Hooker and by Haeckel) may possibly have been the sources of our cultivated forms, as they cross freely with wheat. Haeckel considers that there are three species. (1) Triticum monococcum, which undoubtedly grew wild in Greece and Mesopotamia, is cultivated in Spain and elsewhere, and was also cultivated by the aboriginal Swiss lake-dwellers, as well as at Hissarlik, as is shown by the grain found in those localities. (2) T. sativum is the ordinary cultivated wheat, of which Haeckel recognizes three principal races, spelta, dicoccum and tezuc. Spelt wheats (see fig. 2) were cultivated by the aboriginal Swiss, by the ancient Egyptians, and throughout the Roman empire. The variety dicoccum was also cultivated in prehistoric times, and is still grown in Southern Europe as a summer wheat and one suitable for starch-making. The variety tenax includes four sub-races, vulgare (common wheat), compactum, turgidum and durum (see below). (3) The third species, T. polonicum, or Polish wheat, is a very distinct-looking form, with long leafy glumes; its origin is not known. As these varieties intercross with each other, the presumption is that they, like the species of Aegilops, which also intercross with wheat, may have all originated from one common stock.

Basing his conclusions upon philological data, such as the names of wheat in the oldest known languages, the writings of the most ancient historians, and the observations of botanical travellers, De Candolle infers that the wheats planted in Mesopotamia, and that from there its cultivation extended to the early times to the Canaries on the west and to China on the east. In the western hemisphere wheat was not known till the 16th century. Humboldt mentions that it was accidentally introduced into Mexico with rice brought from Spain by a negro slave belonging to Cortes, and the same writer saw at Quito the earthen vase in which a Flemish monk had introduced from Ghent the first wheat grown in South America.

As might be anticipated from the cultivation of the plant from time immemorial and from its wide diffusion throughout the eastern hemisphere, the varieties of wheat—that is, T. sativum—Principia variations—are very numerous and of every grade of intensity. Those cases in which the variation is most extreme some botanists would be disposed to consider as forming distinct species, but others, as De Vilmorin, having regard to the general facts of the case and to the numerous intermediate gradations, look upon all the known derivatives of spelt in illustration of this latter point it may be mentioned that not only do the several varieties come into the other, but their chemical composition varies likewise according to climate and season. According to Professor Church, even in the period of a single year there may be found cases of albuminoid matters in some grains than in others; but on the average the proportion of gluten to starch is as 91 to 100. From the point of view of agriculture it is generally of no great moment which rank be assigned to the various forms. It is only important to take cognizance of them for purposes of cultivation under varying circumstances. Hence we only allude to some of the principal variations and to those characteristics which are desirable, a great range of variation might be induced in the foliage and straw. As it is, some varieties are harder and taller than others, and the straw more solid, varying in colour and having less liability to be "laid"; but in the matter of "tiltering" or the production of side-shoots from the base of the stem, there is much difference. Spring wheats procured from northern latitudes mature more rapidly than those from temperate or hot climates, whilst the reverse is the case with autumn wheats from the same source. The difference is accounted for by the greater amount of light which the plants obtain in northern regions, and, especially, by its comparatively long continuance. The spring wheat, which has the greater working hours for the plants in the day than in more southern climates. Autumn wheats, on the other hand, are subjected to an enforced rest for a period of several months, and even when grown in hot countries remain a considerable time in the earth before being pulled up into growth later in spring—much later than varieties of southern origin. These latter, accustomed to the mild winters of those latitudes, begin to grow earlier and are in consequence liable to injury from spring frosts. Wheats of dry countries and of those exposed to severe winds have, says De Vilmorin, narrow leaves, plant straw, bearded ears, and velvety chaff—characteristics which enable them to resist wind and drought. Wheats of moist climates, on the other hand, have broader leaves, to admit of more rapid transpiration. No doubt careful microscopic scrutiny of the minute differences in the length of plants grown under various conditions would reveal further and more structural modifications of climate. At any rate, it is certain that, as a general rule, the hard wheats are almost exclusively cultivated in hot, dry countries, the soft wheats in colder regions and where soil, turf, or poor soil, turgid (durum forms) and common wheats in plains or in valleys—the best races of wheat being found on rich alluvial plains and in fertile valleys. The wheat used in the neighbourhood of Florence for straw-plating, a short stubby variety with small hard light stalks, is cut close at the beginning of winter and pulled, not cut, about the end of May, before the ear is ripe. In the United Kingdom ordinary wheat is a very old red variety, not suited to rich land, but a short straw, hardy and plump, used by the farmers for straw-plating, the straw being cut some time before the berry ripens. The propensity to "tiller" is of the greatest importance, as it supplies the resources of the farmer. An instance of this is the young early wheat, published by the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh (1812), which is said to have been sown in one of the gardens of the United Kingdom and propagated in a certain number of years from a single seedling plant in the Cambridge botanic garden divided into eighteen parts, each of which was replanted and subsequently again divided, till it produced sixty-seven plants in one season. In March and April of the following year these were again divided.

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Home and distribution.

Fig. 2.—I. Beardless wheat. II. Polish wheat, with seed. III. Spelt wheat. All much reduced.

1 See drawings made to scale by Mr Worthington Smith in the Gardener's Chronicle (25th December 1886).
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With regard to the chemical composition of the ripe grain, the Russian chemists have lately been engaged in very varied conditions of manuring, and even where much diversity was apparent in the constitution of the straw. A high or low percentage of nitrogen in the grain was also shown to depend more largely on being allocated a different relative character of the season, than on difference in manure; but it depends more upon the variety than upon soil or nutrition.

The interest of these diversities, as indications of the faculty of variation in place and possibly as clues to the genealogy and origin of the cultivated plant, their practical importance is very great. Some varieties are known to have been developed to a great extent on one description of soil, others on another. Hence the paramount importance of ascertaining by experiment, not only what are the best varieties, but which are the best adapted to the soil and climate. De Vilmorin, and Dehervain have shown the "infinite superiority" in yield over the ordinary wheats of a particular square-headed variety grown on rich soil in the north of France. A good selection of wheats, according to the nature of the soil, demands, says De Vilmorin, intelligence and accurate knowledge on the part of the farmer. If a good variety be grown in poor soil, the result will be unprofitable, while, if bad wheat be grown on good soil, the result may be nil. In botanical collections there exist, it is stated, herbarium specimens or other evidences of plants grown in Norway as far north as lat. 65° (Schueller), in Switzerland an elevation of 1200 ft. above the valley of the Rhone, and in the mighty Archipelago, as well as in Tenerife, the Cape of Good Hope, Abyssinia, Rodriguez, the Philippine Islands and the Malay Archipelago. These widely separated cases of which the advantage be possible, and illustrate the powers of adaptation of the plant. The requirements of the consumer have also to be considered: for some purposes the soft floury wheats, with their large relative proportion of starch, are required; for others the harder wheats, with which the quantity of gluten. With the modern processes of milling, the harder wheats are preferred, for they make the best flour for bakers' use; the bearded varieties also are a rule, harder than the winter wheats. The bearded varieties are less hardy; at any rate they defly the ravages of predatory birds more completely than the unarmcd wheats, and they are preferable in countries liable to storms of wind, as less likely to have their seeds detached. The durum wheats are especially cultivated in Italy for the fabrication of macaroni. Polish wheat is used for similar purposes. Spelt wheats are grown in the colder mountainous districts of Europe; the flour furnished by these is suitable for pastry-making; but, owing to the construction of the grain, it requires special machinery for grinding (see Flour). Wheat begins to grow at a temperature of 5° C. (41° F.) and, if the aggregate temperature, as represented by the sun's daily, has mounted up to 185° F., the germ begins to escape from the husk, if the seed be not deeply buried; but if it is deeply (1896 F.) in the earth, it, and the struggle be not broken. If the seed lies at a depth lower than a foot from the surface, it rarely germinates. The seedling plant ceases to grow if the mean temperature of the atmosphere is below 55°F., or a little above, the flowers are produced. A still higher daily mean is required for the full development and ripening of the grain. The figures here cited are given by Rütter and are calculated for the climate of Paris; but, of course, the same principles apply in the case of other countries. The amount of light and of moisture has also to be taken into account. The fact that the wheat plant grows in less water than other cereals, and therefore does not suffer so much from drought, is one of great importance to the cultivator and furnishes one reason for the greater proportionate culture of wheat in the eastern than in the western counties of England.

The production of wheats may be estimated by simply inspecting the size, consistency, and age of the ears, and the depth of the grain in the ear, or in the case of a large field there may be observed on close inspection plants differing in character from the majority. If seeds of these "sporting" plants be taken and grown in another field, they probably result in a great deal of variation. If they do, and the same process of selection be continued, the variation becomes in time: fixed, though it is always more or less slow in its progress. The object of plant breeders is systematically selecting the best grains from the best ears, Major Hallett succeeded in introducing "pedigree wheats" of fine quality. But even greater results may be expected from cross-breeding, or


Adaptability to soil and locality.

In the classification of cultivated wheat has occupied the attention of many botanists and agriculturists.

The classification adopted by Henry de Vilmorin in his "Les Blés meillers" (Paris, 1881) is based, in the first instance, on the nature of the ear: when mature or stem remains unbroken, as in the true wheats, or it breaks into a number of joints, as in the spelt wheats.

In the first class the ripe grain readily detaches itself from the ear-scales, while in the spelt the type is firm, or at least, firm or firmly, or not readily separable from them.

The true wheats are further subdivided into divisions, according to whether or not the grains are glabrous, T. Turgidum, hard wheats (T. durum) and Polish wheats (T. polonicum).

In the hard wheats the seed is much more, and the seed is turgid and floury, as the common wheats. In the hard wheats the outer glumes are keeled, shortly pointed, awned, and the seed is elongated and of hard glassy texture, somewhat translucent, and easily broken, owing to its toughness. These seeds are richer in nitrogen than the common and turgid wheats, so that an approximate notion of the richness in albuminoids may be obtained by simply inspecting the size, consistency, and age of the grains, and the depth of the grain in the ear, or in the case of a large field there may be observed on close inspection plants differing in character from the majority. If seeds of these "sporting" plants be taken and grown in another field, the ear may result in a great deal of variation. If they do, and the same process of selection be continued, the variation becomes in time: fixed, though it is always more or less slow in its progress. The object of plant breeders is systematically selecting the best grains from the best ears, Major Hallett succeeded in introducing "pedigree wheats" of fine quality. But even greater results may be expected from cross-breeding, or

In the United Kingdom, has very large lanceolate glumes, longer than the spikelet, and elongated glaessy seeds. Further subdivisions are made, according to the presence or absence of awns (bearded and beardless wheats), the colour of the ears (white, brown, or red), the texture of the ears (glabrous—i.e. smooth— or downy) and the colour of the seed or "berry." In the jointed or spelt wheats the distinctions lie in the presence of awns, the direction of the awns, the nature of the awns (bearded, cut, awnless, or inward), the form of the ear as revealed on a cross-section, and the entire or cleft palea. As illustrating the fact of the occasional instability of these varieties, Professor Church mentions that a single grain will be sometimes horns and partly opaque and floury, in which case its composition will correspond with its aspect. The division into spring wheats and winter wheats is an agricultural one solely. Any variety may be changing or being changed at the time at which it is sown. In the summer wheats it may often be observed that the median florets do not fill out so fully as in the autumn wheats; there is a frequent tendency in the spike to branch or become wound about, which is manifested to a less degree in other forms. The Egyptian, or so-called "mummy" wheat is of this character, the lower part of the spike branching out into several subdivisions. The lower portion of the seed-bearing branches may at first sight be considered advantageous; but in practice the quality of the grain is found to be inferior, as if the force that should have been devoted to the maturing of the grain were, in a measure, diverted and expended in the production of additional branches to the spike.
The fertilization of the flowers of one description of wheat by the pollen of another. This has been attempted by Shireef, Le Couturier, MacFarlane, and others, notably by H. de Vilmorin and Messrs Carter. Under natural circumstances wheat is self-fertilized; that is to say, the pollen of any given flower impregnates the stigma and ovule of the same flower; the glumes and coverings of the flowers prevent contact with pollen of other stamens, and this in such a way as to prevent the access of insects and to ensure the deposit of the pollen upon the stigmas of the same flower. This process of self-fertilization is the sole mode of pollen transmission in the wild state; but the occasional presence of varieties in a wheat-field shows that cross-fertilization is sometimes secured. The stamens of the wheat plant may frequently be seen protruding beyond the edges of the glumes, and on the application of a little moisture to this they open and lay bare the pollen. It is true that cross-fertilization was the rule; but on closer examination it will be found that the anthers are empty or nearly so, and that they are not protruded till after they have deposited the pollen upon the stigmas. It follows, therefore, that cross-fertilization occurs at the time of flowering, and which permits the egress of the useless stamens after that operation, occurs only under certain conditions of temperature, when the heat, in fact, is sufficient to cause the blossoms of the flower to become turgid and thus to press apart the glumes. A temperature of about 75 °F. is found by Messrs Carter to be the most favourable. From what has been said it will be evident that the artificial fertilization of wheat is a very delicate operation. The glumes have to be separated and the anthers cut away before the pollen is fully formed, care being taken at the same time not to injure the stigma, and specially not to introduce, on the cutters or other part of the cutting process, the pollen from another variety. Different experiments have shown that all the varieties will intercross, and that even such a distinct form as the Polish is no exception. From this it is evident that cross-fertilization can be achieved from hybrids, and are to be comprised within one species. In the progeny of these crossed wheats, especially in the second generation, much variation and difference of character is observable—a phenomenon commonly noticed in the descendants from crosses and hybrids, and styled by Naudin "irregular variation." Sometimes characteristics appear in the crossed wheats which are not found in the parent varieties, although they occur in other wheats. Thus, De Vilmorin records the presence of turgid wheats among seedlings raised from a common wheat fertilized with the pollen of a hard variety, and felt wheats among the descendants of a common crossed with a turgid wheat. The cultivation of the wheat with bread, has increased enormously since the extension of railways has made possible the transportation of grain for great distances (see Grain Trade). Of late years the increase of production has been most notable in southern Russia, Argentina, Australia, India, and in North America.

American Wheat-Farming.—That wonderful agricultural region, extending from the international line on the north to the 37th parallel, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the 100th meridian, and comprising 26 states, produces 76% of the American wheat crop. This region, which contains only 30% of the land surface of the country, but embraces 60% of its total farm area and 70% of its improved farm acreage, is the greatest cereal-producing region of the world. Besides wheat, it produces 82% of the total corn crop, 91% of the total oat crop and 83% of the total hay crop of the United States. The methods pursued in the eastern portion of this region are similar to those used in other parts of the world; but in the north-western portion wheat-growing is carried on on a gigantic scale, and by methods almost unknown anywhere else. The best illustration of the great or "bonanza" wheat farms, as they are called, are found along the Red River (of the North), where it flows between the states of North Dakota and Minnesota.

The wheat grown in the United States is of two distinct kinds. One is the large-kernel winter wheat of the Eastern states; the other is the hard spring wheat. The hard winter wheat of the "bonanza" farms is a native variety grown in Minnesota and the two Dakotas. For flour-making this wheat is considered the best in the world. During the season of 1890 the product of hard spring wheat amounted to nearly 250,000,000 bushels, or two-fifths of the entire wheat product of the United States. Of this, Minnesota and the two Dakotas alone produced 200,000,000 bushels. Minnesota is the greatest wheat-producing state in the Union. Her fields in 1890 covered 5,000,000 acres, and she produced nearly 86,000,000 bushels, which is twice the entire production of all Australia, and more than that of Great Britain. Minnesota, however, is situated on the southern border of the Dakotas the farms are devoted almost exclusively to wheat-growing. Many of them contain from 3000 to 10,000 acres.

The country is a very level one, making it possible to use all kinds of machinery with great success. As there are no mountains or swamps, there is here very little waste land, and every square foot of the vast wheat fields can be made productive.

The first characteristic of the "bonanza" wheat farm is the machinery. The smallest agricultural implement used upon them is a plough, and the largest is the elevator. A ten-mule plough can follow each other around, till two there are machines of all sizes adapted to the needs of the particular work. Let us assume the conditions prevailing upon a bonanza farm of 5000 acres, and briefly describe the process of wheat production from the ploughing of the land to the delivery of the grain in the final market.

These great wheat farms were established upon new lands sold directly to capitalists by the railroads. The lands became the property of the railroads largely through government grants, and they attracted capitalists, who bought them in large bodies and at low prices. The improvements made upon them consist of the cheap wooden dwellings for the managers, dormitories and dining-halls for the men, stables for the horses, and sheds and workshops for repairing machinery. Very little of the land is under fence. Since the desirable lands of the country have been occupied, the prices of these lands have advanced slowly, with the result that the big farms are being divided up into small holdings. After a generation or two, if land continues to rise in the market as it has recently, the bonanza farms will become a thing of the past. At present the best of these lands in the valley of the Red river (of the North) are worth from $30 to $40 an acre, and the average price is about $25 an acre more. A farm is not considered a big one unless it contains from 2000 to 10,000 acres at least. There are, of course, many small farmers owning from two to five sections (640 acres in each section), but their methods are more like those of the small farmers in the eastern United States or on the continent of Europe. It is necessary to own a large body of land in order to be able to use the machinery and methods here described. It is hard to convey a just notion of the size of these farms. They stretch away as far as the eye can reach in every direction, making it difficult even for the visitor to conceive their size. The distances across wheat fields are so great that even horseback communication is too slow. The farms are separated into divisions, and lodging-houses and dining-halls and barns are scattered over them, so as to keep the workmen and teams near the scene of their labour. The men living at one end of the farm may not see those at the other for months at a time. Even then it is necessary to take the meals to the men in the fields rather than allow them to walk or ride to the dining-halls. It is not an unusual thing for a working crew to find themselves at the dinner hour 2 m. from their hall.

First, after burning the old straw of the previous year—which is real labour in itself, so enormous is its bulk—comes the ploughing. This begins in October. The plough used has a 16-in. share, turns two furrows, and is drawn by five horses. Each plough covers about 250 acres in a season, travelling an average of 20 m. a day. The ploughing begins in October, and continues a month or six weeks, according to the season. The ploughs are driven in "gangs" under the eye of a superintendee, who rides with them. Ten of these gangs follow each other, and plough a whole section. If one stands a few rods ahead of them they seem to be following one another in a line; but, if one stands to the right of the "gang," one sees that the line is broken, and that the second plough follows the first a little further in the line. This gives a regular number. Experience shows that it costs about 70 cents an acre to plough the land in this way. About forty men are employed upon a farm of 2000 acres during the ploughing season. The men are paid by the month, and receive about $25, including their board. They breakfast at five o'clock, take an hour for their dinner at noon—usually in the field—and have their supper at seven. At the end of this ploughing season the farm is kept clear of weeds, and is ready for the next season. Only eight or ten are kept on a farm of this size throughout the year. The other men go back to their homes or to the factories in the cities, where they wait the harvesting and threshing season. The eight or ten men are selected to remain, one for the ploughing, one as overhauling machinery, or helping the carpenter and blacksmith, or looking after the horses. The wheat region is a country of heavy snows, and of severe, dry cold; but when the snows begin to melt away, and by April the ploughed land is dry enough for
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The harvest. The harrowing is done with 25-ft. harrows, drawn by four horses, and operated by a single man. One man can harrow 60 to 70 acres a day.

The seedling follows immediately with four-horse press drills that cover 12 ft. The drills and ploughs were. Each drill will go from 20 to 25 m. a day. 

Seeding. When the weather is good the seeding upon a 5000-acre farm will be done in twenty or twenty-five days. It is usual to seed a half-acre of wheat to the acre of land, to avoid the risk of the wheat being planted too near the edge of the field. The purpose is carefully selected after the harvest of the previous year, and is thoroughly cleaned of foreign seeds. Through years of cultivation, the wheat has been sorted and only the hardiest varieties of wheat have been used. This has resulted in a yield of 15 bushels per acre, which is well adapted to the soil and climate of this region. It has been found more profitable to use the native "blue stem" or "Scotch-Fife" wheat than the seed from any other country, or even from the neighboring states. Counting the cost of seed, the wheat will be worth at least $1 an acre to harrow the ground and plant the wheat.

When the planting is done the extra laborers are discharged again, and the regular ones are put to work on the corn, oats and millet, in order to feed the horses. The men who do the most important work are all temporary laborers. They come from the cities of the east or the farms of the south. They begin with the early harvest in Oklahoma, and work northwards up the Missouri and the Red river until the season closes in Manitoba. They are not tramps, but steady, industrious men, with few bad habits and few ambitions. On well-managed farms drinking and gambling are forbidden. Their accommodations are not like those of the old-time laborers; there is no lechery on the farm, and no use of tobacco. They are not ashamed of the good things of life, but they do not use them to excess. They have a handsome appearance, and are in good health. Their dormitories are usually comfortably furnished, their dining-halls clean and well kept, and their workboys are not likely to have a chance to go to sleep while they are at work. Many a strike has occurred in the midst of the harvest because the quality or quantity of the food served was not what it ought to have been. The largest part of this food is brought from the cities. Some portions of it are sent by rail directly to the farms upon the farms; but the canned beef, bacon and groceries come from the cities. It is estimated that it costs 35 cents a day to feed each laborer. Farmers say that a good name in these respects enables them to get the choice of workmen, and that no money brings such sure returns as that expended in the bedrooms and upon the food.

The harvest labourers begin to arrive from the south about the middle of July, and by the end of this month the harvest is at its height. A farm of 5000 acres will use 75 or 100 extra men. With the men comes the new machinery in train leads. The new machinery in this region is now so well worked over that a first-class culture is annually sold in this region. The wheat farmers say that it does not pay to take undue care of old machinery, that more money is lost in repairing and tinkering an old machine than would be paid for a new one. The result is that new machinery is bought in very large quantities, used until it is worn out or cannot be repaired without considerable work, and then left in the fields to rust. The cost of cast-iron can be seen already upon many of the largest of these new machines. Of course a great many extra parts are bought to take the place of those which break most frequently, and some men are always kept at work repairing machinery in the field. One of the big 10,000-acre farms in this region has a constant load of two or three single-horse ploughs, a line of eight combines and ten elevators. The harvesters vary in size according to the character of the land. Upon the rough ground there are the ordinary thresher and thrasher, and the ordinary thresher and thrasher and harrow. The ordinary thresher and thrasher and harrow is a large one, with a line of six or eight ploughs and a line of eight combines and ten elevators. The harvest labourer earns $10 a week everywhere in America. The bonanza farmer expects one machine to cut at least 250 acres, and three men are required for each of them. The harvest lasts from ten days to three weeks, according to the weather. Including the labour and the wear and tear, it costs about 60 cents an acre to harvest wheat.

The wheat is not stacked as in the Eastern states and in England, but stands upright in shocks in the field. The grain cures very rapidly in the dry climate, so that by the time the wheat is ready for the thrasher at the other. The shocks of wheat are hauled directly to the thrasher and fed into the self-feeder. It usually takes a day and a quarter to thrash the wheat which it took a day to cut. The thrasher can usually cut a half-acre a day with one set of horses, and can cut a half-acre a day at 35 cents an acre. The wheat ordinarily grown upon 2500 acres, so that a 5000-acre farmer would have at least two machines running at the same time. Time is money, and it is a capital investment to have a rainfall of enough grain in one night to buy seven machines. The threshing season is thus a time of great pressure and of extensively active work. The wheat straw is worse than a waste product—it is a great nuisance upon the farm, and is objectionable for fuel and for bedding the stock: but the bulk of it is dragged away from the threshing machine by machinery, and left lying in great heaps until an opportunity is afforded for burning it. This is usually done immediately before the ploughing in the autumn. The grain falls from the spout of the thrasher into the box-wagon, which carries it to the elevator. The elevator is placed at the railway station, and is usually owned by the bonanza farmer.

From the time the sheaves of wheat are tumbled into the wagon until the flour reaches the hands of the cook, no hand touches the wheat. The wheat is carried from the elevator to the grist-mill. When the box-wagons reach the elevator the loosing of a bolt dumps the grain into the bin, where it remains until the pulling of a lever lets it into the cars. Every pound of it is carefully weighed, and makes his plans for the next year, so as to show the exact product of each division of the farm. After the rush of the threshing is over the farmer studies these books carefully to see how his land is doing, and makes his plans for the next year, so as to rest or strengthen those divisions which are failing. It costs about $1.50 an acre to thresh the grain and put it into the elevator. This sum, added to the estimated cost of the other processes mentioned above, makes the total cost of growing an acre of grain about $3.80. This includes the cost of labour, seed and wear and tear of machinery, but does not include the interest on land or plant. The taxes on land will average 25 cents an acre. The farmers estimate that the other improvements, the waterworks, elevators, insurance, horse feed, &c., will make this up to $6 an acre. The best of these farms will yield 20 bushels to the acre. This makes the wheat cost 30 cents a bushel. During the last five years the average farm-selling price of wheat in the North-West has been 58 cents. An acre thus produces $11.60, making a gross profit of $5.60. Still to be provided for is the interest on the operating expenses for the year. The farmer is allowed 8% on his operating expenses and the capital invested in land, improvements and machinery, at $30 per acre, which makes $1.80 more, or a total interest charge of $2.48. This is the normal 8% on the capital invested in the land, plant and operating expenses. But we have described the conditions on one farm that are accounted for, and entered upon the books. This action is not over 18 bushels, and the average expenses would be higher than those given.

Every bonanza farmer’s office is connected by wire with the markets at Minneapolis, Chicago and Buffalo. Quotations arrive hourly in the selling season, and the superintendent who keeps in close touch with his agents in the wheat-pits of these and other cities. When the instrument tells him of a good price, his agent is instructed to sell immediately. The farmer is never little, for the wheat is kept fully informed as to the drought in India, the hot winds in the Argentine and the floods of the Danube. Any occurrences in these distant parts of the world are known to him in a surprisingly short time. The world’s great wheat fields almost lie within his sight, so well does he know the conditions that prevail in them.

Ten days are allowed for delivery, so that he can usually ship the wheat after it is sold. In the early days of wheat-farming the bonanza farmer often speculated, but experience has taught him that he had better leave this to the men in the cities, and content himself with the profits which the production of his own wheat will bring him. The great elevator centres are in Duluth, St Paul, Minneapolis, Chicago and Buffalo. These elevators have a storage capacity of from 100,000 to 2,500,000 bushels. The new ones are built of steel, operated by steam or electricity, protected from fire by pneumatic water-pipes, and have complete machinery for drying and sorting the wheat whenever it is necessary. The elevators are provided with long spouts containing movable buckets, which can be lowered into the hold of a grain-laden vessel. The wheat is shovelled into the pathway of the huge steam shovels, which draw the wheat up to the elevators, where the buckets seize it, and carry it upwards into the elevator, and distribute it among the various bins according to grade. A cargo of 200,000 bushels can thus be unloaded in two hours, while spouts on the other side of the elevator reload it into cars, five to ten at a time, filling a car in from five to ten minutes, or the largest canal boat in an hour. The entire work of unloading, storing and reloading adds only one cent to the price of a bushel of wheat.

The great wheat-growing states like Minnesota have established systems of inspecting and grading wheat under state supervision. In Minnesota the system is carried out by the Railroad and Warehouse Commission (88), which fixes and defines the different grades of wheat and directs the work. At present there are 18 grades recognized in this state. The first is described as "No. 1, hard spring wheat, sound, bright and well cleaned, composed mainly of hard "Scotch-Fife," weighing not less than 58 lb to the measured
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bushel." The second grade is known as "No. 1, northern spring wheat, sound, and well cleaned, composed of the hard and soft varieties of spring wheat." So the varieties run—"No. 2, northern"; "No. 3, northern," &c.—down to the 18th, which is "no grade." The official inspectors examine, grade, and sample the wheat in the cars in which it is received at the great markets or elevators. The cars are sealed at the point of original shipment. The first thing, therefore, is to examine the seal to see that they are unbroken. The inspector then samples and examines the wheat, and enters the grade upon a blank opposite the number and letters of the car. His tag and sample go to the wheat exchange or chamber of commerce, where they are exposed in small tin pans, and form the basis of the trading. A few years ago the wheat received from the north-west was very clean indeed, but since the new land has all been cultivated the fields are growing more weedy, with the result that the wheat brought in is becoming mixed with oats and seeds of weeds, requiring more careful separation and inspection. The inspector has finished his work when the cars are rescaled with the state seal, and await orders of the purchaser. The delay will not ordinarily be more than one day. The commission keeps complete records and samples of each car until the wheat has passed entirely out of the market. When disputes occur as to the grade they can thus be instantly settled. If the grade is changed after a second examination the state pays the expense of the inspection; if not, it is paid by the agent who raises the objection. Only about 5% of the samples are ever reinspected, and in less than 2% of these is the grade changed. The commission, collecting the small fee of 20 cents a car for its services, as inspector, and later weighs all the wheat as it is distributed into the elevators. This small charge pays all the expenses.

The transportation of the wheat from the fields of the north-west to the seaport is a business of tremendous magnitude.

Transportation.

Most of this wheat goes by way of the lakes through Sault Sainte Marie canal to Buffalo, where it is shipped by rail or inland canal to New York, Philadelphia or Baltimore. Duluth, on Lake Superior, is, surprising to say, the second port in the United States in point of tonnage. The Sault Sainte Marie canal passes two and a half times as much tonnage during the eight months it is open as the Suez canal passes in the entire year. The cheapest transportation in the world is found upon these lakes, the rate being only three-fourths of a mill per ton of wheat per mile. The greater lake vessels, called "Whalebacks," carry cargoes up to 250,000 bushels, a bulk difficult to conceive. 700 bushels is a car-load. At that rate the cargo of 250,000 bushels will fill 360 American cars, or 9 trains of 40 cars each. At 20 bushels to the acre, this single cargo would represent the yield of two and a half farms of 5000 acre acreage and the yield. The fact that these States contain, in addition to the railways of the north-west have a monopoly of the business of hauling wheat, with the result that it costs 20 cents to ship a bushel of wheat from the Dakota field to Duluth, which is as much as it costs to forward it from Duluth to Liverpool. The bushel of wheat, or an equivalent amount of flour, can be shipped from Minneapolis or Duluth to almost any point in western Europe for from 20 to 25 cents.

What are the prospects of wheat production in the United States? In his presidential address before the British Association for the Advancement of Science (1900), Sir William Ramsay painted a rather dark picture of the future of the world's wheat production. Among other things he said, "It is almost certain that within a generation the ever-increasing population of the United States will consume all the wheat grown within its borders, and will be driven to import like ourselves. Americans think that this statement is altogether too pessimistic; yet the United States will, for example, have to import wheat to supply the needs of New York City alone. Our cities are growing and the population is increasing so rapidly that it is probable that the United States will by 1933 have a population of 133,000,000. If we assume that all the people in the United States will eat 700 pounds of wheat per person, which is the average consumption of the people of the United States, we find that in 1933 the United States will have to import 140,000,000 bushels of wheat. This is an increase of 13,600,000 bushels over the present average of the United States of America. However, we do not have to go as far as 1933 to see that the United States will be driven to import wheat. The United States is growing so rapidly that it is probable that by 1910 the United States will have to import 50,000,000 bushels of wheat. This is an increase of 12,000,000 bushels over the present average of the United States of America.

Prospect of wheat production.

We have no similar calculation of loss for Great Britain, where wheat is not so much grown, but it is well known that there is a continual, serious obstruction of the crop by rust. The rust fungus, Puccinia graminis, is a Uredine belonging to the heterocorous group, that is, one that passes from one host to another at different stages of its life. In its green, vegetative stage it is relatively small and green and immature, the rust makes its appearance as orange-red spots or streaks on the stalks and leaves. These coloured spots are due to the presence of a sorus or layer of countless spores, whose spores, when mature, are easily detached, and are carried by insects or by the wind to other wheat-plants. If infection takes place, other sori are formed in ten days or a fortnight under favourable conditions of moisture and warmth.
Towards the end of the summer the uredospores are replaced by the winter resting-spores, called teleutospores, which are larger, thicker-walled and darker in colour. These teleutospores remain inactive on the straw until spring, when they germinate in manure heaps or on moist ground and produce minute sporidia, which are conveyed by air currents to the alternate host, in this case a barley. In due time the fungus, known as *Aecidium Berberidis*, appears on the barley leaves in the form of small cluster-cups on *aecidia*, each of which is filled with chains of orange-coloured *aecidiospores*. Infection of the leaves of the young wheat plants follows on the scattering of the aecidiospores: a sorus of the rusty uredospores is produced, and the life-cycle is complete.

Though this is the normal and complete development of *Puccinia graminis*, it is not invariably followed. In Australia, for instance, the barley is an imported plant and of rare occurrence, yet rust is very abundant. Teleutospores of heterocous rusts never reach the host on which they are produced, so that in many cases the other flowering wheat plants. It is impossible to detect the first infection or to cleanse the seed; the only remedy is to procure seed from a smut-free source, and to further guard against it by growing all smutted cases, or by gathering all smutted plants during the disease by keeping all smutted plants until the seeds have matured or dispersed.

*Ustilago* (cf. smutted fungus) is one of the more common rusts to be found in Europe. It is pale brown, is generally but not always produced, and Teleutospores, but stinking smut of wheat, is so-called because the bunted grain has a disagreeable odour of stale breading. The spores from bunted flour is dark in colour, and both unpalatable and unwholesome. The spores of the fungus remain in the soil or in manure-heaps until spring, when they germinate and attack the first green leaves of the host plant. The after development is similar to that of smut, and the seed grain becomes a mere mass of fungus spores. Much can be done in this case to clean the seed before sowing by immersing it in hot water or in some solution that will kill the spores without injuring the grain.

Other parasitic fungi of less economic importance occasionally do considerable damage. *Erystale graminis*, a mill of grass, has caused great loss in various countries; *Diophila graminis* sometimes causes deformities of the leaves and inflorescence; another somewhat similar fungus, *Ophiobolus graminis*, attacks the leaves and stalks near the ground, completely destroying the plants.

*Helminthosporium gramineum*, a disease of barley, has been recorded as growing on wheat; it forms long, narrow dark-brown streaks on the leaves, which wither and die. The lower leaves are usually the only ones attacked, and the yield of grain has not been seriously affected.

**WHEATEAR**, *a bird's name, perhaps of doubtful meaning,* though J. Taylor, the "water poet" (d. 1634), in whose writings it seems first to occur, and F. Willughby, explain it (in the words of J. Ray, the latter's translator) as given "because in the time of wheat harvest they wax very fat". The wheatear, *Saxicola graveni*, is one of the earliest migrants of its kind to return to its home, often reaching England at the end of February and almost always by the middle of March. The cock bird, with his bluish grey back and light buff breast, set off by black caroverts, wings, and part of the tail, is rendered still more conspicuous by his white rump as he takes short flights in front of those who disturb him, while his sprightly actions and gay song harmonize so well with his delicately-tinted plumage as to render him a welcome object to all who delight in free and open country life. When alarmed, the wheatear has a sharp little note that sounds like *chat*; and this has not only entered into some of the local names of this species and of its allies, but has caused all to be frequently spoken of as "chats". The nest is constantly placed under ground; the bird takes advantage of the hole of some other animal, or the shelter of a clod in a fallow-field or a recess beneath a rock. A large amount of soft material is therein collected, and on them from 3 to 8 pale blue eggs are laid.

The wheatear has a very wide range throughout the Old World, extending in summer far within the Arctic Circle, from Norway to the Lapland and Yana valleys, where in winter Alaska and Siberia are beyond the Equator in and India. But it also breeds regularly in Greenland and some parts of North America. Its reaching the former and the eastern coast of the latter, as well as the Bermudas, may possibly be explained by the drifting of individuals from Iceland; but far more interesting is the fact that its continued seasonal appearance in Alaska without ever showing itself in British Columbia or California, and

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1 The vulgar supposition of its being an euphemism of an Anglo-Saxon name (cf. Bennett's ed. of White's *Nat. Hist. Selborne*, p. 99, note) must be rejected until evidence that such a name ever existed be adduced. It is true that *whitate* (cf. Dutch *Witsaat* and *Freda*; *Gildane*) is given by Olaus *Gildes* in 1611; but the older names, according to Turner, in 1514, of "clotburd" (=clod-bird) and smatch (=chat) do not favour the usual derivation. "Fallow-chat" is another old name still locally in use, as is "coney-chuck."
without ever having been observed in Kamechatka, Japan or China, though it is a summer resident in the Tchuktschi peninsula. Hence it would seem as though its annual flights across Bering’s Strait might connect it with migratory movement that passes to the north and west of the Stanovoi range of mountains.

Many species more or less allied to the wheatear have been described. Some eight are included in the European fauna and the majority are inhabitants of Africa. Several of them are birds of the desert; and here it may be remarked that, while most of these exhibit the sand-coloured tints so commonly found in animals of like habitats, few assume a black plumage, which, as explained by H. B. Tristram, is equally protective, since it assimilates them to the deep shadows cast by projecting stones and other inequalities of the ground.

Amongst genera closely allied to Saxicola are Pratincola, which comprises among others two well-known British birds, the stonechat and whinchat, P. rubicola and P. rubetra, the latter a summer migrant, practised at the nesting-season, a small chestnut, ruddy breast, and white collar and wing-spot of the cock render him a conspicuous object on almost every furge-grown common or heath in the British Islands, as he sits on a projecting twig or flits from bush to bush. This bird has a wide range in Europe and several other species, more or less resembling it, inhabit South Africa, Madagascar, Réunion and Asia, from some of the islands of the Indian Archipelago to Japan. The wheatear, on the other hand, much more affects enclosed lands, and with a wide range has no very near ally. The wheatear and its allies belong to the sub-family Turdinae of the thrushes (q.v.).

WHEATLEY, FRANCIS (1747-1801), English portrait and landscape painter, was born in 1747 at Wild Court, Covent Garden, London. He studied at Shipley’s drawing-school and the Royal Academy, and won several prizes from the Society of Arts. He assisted in the decoration of Vauxhall, and aided Mortimer in painting a ceiling for Lord Melbourne at Brocket Hall (Hertfordshire). In youth his life was irregular and dissipated. He eloped to Ireland with the wife of Grease, a brother artist, and established himself in Dublin as a portrait-painter, executing, among other works, an interior of the Irish House of Commons. His scene from the London Riots of 1780 was admirably engraved by Heath. He painted several subjects for Boydell’s Shakespeare Gallery, designed illustrations to Bell’s edition of the poets, and practised to some small extent as an etcher and mezzotint-engraver. It is, however, as a painter, in both oil and water-colour, of landscapes and rustic subjects that Wheatley is best remembered. He was elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1790, and an academican in the following year. He died on the 28th of June 1801. His wife, afterwards Mrs Pope, was known as a painter of flowers and portraits.

WHEATON, HENRY (1785-1848), American lawyer and diplomatist, was born at Providence, Rhode Island, on the 27th of November 1785. He graduated at Brown University in 1802, was admitted to the bar in 1805; and, after two years’ study abroad, practised at Providence (1807) and New York City (1812-1827). He was a justice of the Marine Court of the city of New York from 1815 to 1819, and reporter of the United States Supreme Court from 1816 to 1827, aiding in 1825 in the revision of the laws of New York. His diplomatic career began in 1827, with an appointment to Denmark as chargé d’affaires, followed by that of minister to Prussia, 1837 to 1840. During this period he had published a Digest of the Law of Maritime Captures (1815); twelve volumes of Supreme Court Reports, and a Digest; a great number of historical articles, and some collected works; Elements of International Law (1836), his most important work, of which a 6th edition, with important additions, was published in 1868 by W. B. Lawrence and an eighth by R. H. Dana (q.v.); Histoire du Progrès du Droit des Gens en Europe, written in 1838 for a prize offered by the French Academy of Moral and Political Science, and translated in 1845 by William B. Lawrence as A History of the Law of Nations in Europe and America; and the Right of Visit and Search (1842). The History took rank at once as one of the leading works on the subject of which it treats. Wheaton’s general theory is that international law consists of a series of rules of conduct which reason dictates, as consonant to justice, from the nature of the society existing among independent nations, with such definitions and modifications as may be established by general consent.”

In 1846 Wheaton was requested to resign by the new president, Polk, who needed his place for another appointment. The request provoked general condemnation; but Wheaton resigned and returned to the United States. He was called at once to the Harvard Law School as lecturer on international law; but he died at Dorchester, Massachusetts, on the 11th of March 1848.

WHEATSTONE, SIR CHARLES (1802-1875), English physicist and the practical founder of modern telegraphy, was born at Walthamstow, near Leyton, in February 1802, and was removed at the age of twelve to that city. In 1806 the family removed to London. Wheatstone’s education was carried on in several private schools, at which he appears to have displayed no remarkable attainments, being mainly characterized by a morbid shyness and sensitiveness that prevented him from making friends. About 1816 he was sent to his uncle, a musical instrument maker in the Strand, to learn the trade; but with his father’s countenance he spent more time in reading books of all kinds than at work. For some years he continued making experiments in acoustics, following out his own ideas and devising many beautiful and ingenious arrangements. Of these the “acoucrystrophone” was one of the most elegant—a light box, shaped like an ancient lyre and suspended by a metallic wire from a piano in the room above. When the instrument was played, the vibrations were transmitted silently, and became audible in the lyre, which thus appeared to play of itself. On the death of his uncle in 1823 Wheatstone and his brother succeeded to the business; but he never seems to have taken a very active part in it, and he virtually retired after six years, devoting himself to experimental research, at first chiefly with regard to sound. Although he occasionally read a paper to the Royal Society with remarkable success, he never became a lecturer on account of his shyness. Hence many of his investigations were first described by Faraday in his Friday evening discourses at the Royal Institution. By 1834 his originality and resource in experiment were fully recognized, and he was appointed professor of experimental philosophy at King’s College, London, in that year. This appointment was inaugurated by two events—a course of eight lectures on sound, which proved no success and was not repeated, and the determination by means of a revolving mirror of the speed of electric discharge in conductors, a piece of work leading to enormous consequent results. The work, which had suggested the possibility of utilizing it for sending messages; and, after many experiments and the practical advice and business-like co-operation of William Fothergill Cooke (1806-1879), a patent for an electric telegraph was taken out in their joint names in 1837. Wheatstone’s early training in making musical instruments now bore rich fruit in the continuous designing of new instruments and pieces of mechanism. His life was uneventful except in so far as the variety of his work lent it colour. He became a fellow of the Royal Society in 1837; in 1847 he married; and in 1868, after the completion of his master-piece, the automatic telegraph, he was knighted. While in Paris perfecting a receiving instrument for submarine cables, Sir Charles Wheatstone caught cold, and died on the 19th of October 1875.

Wheatstone’s physical investigations are described in more than thirty-six papers in various scientific journals, the more important of which are in the Philosophical Transactions, the Proceedings of the Royal Society, the Comptes rendus and the British Association Reports. They naturally divide themselves into researches on sound, light and electricity, but extend into other branches of physics as well. But his best work by far was in the invention of complicated and delicate mechanism for various purposes, in the construction of which he employed a staff of workmen trained to the highest degree of skill. For his work on the telegraph he was not only knighted, but was unequalled, except perhaps by Charles Babbage. A cryptographic machine, which changed the cipher automatically and printed a message, entirely unintelligible until translated by a duplicate machine and a key, was one of the earliest devices of this kind. Wheatstone’s physical investigations on sound had given him a great fascination for Wheatstone; he studied it deeply at one time, and deciphered many of the M.S. in the British Museum which had been done by the later interpreters. In his principal work was a research on the transmission of sound through solids, the explanation of Chladni’s figures of vibrating solids, various investigations of the principles of acoustics and the mechanism of hearing, and the invention of new musical instruments, e.g. the concertina (q.v.).
WHEATSTONE'S BRIDGE

The kaleidophone, intended to present visibly the movements of a synchronous body, consisted of a flowing wire or rod carrying a silvered bead reflecting a point of light, the motions of which, by persistence of the successive images on the retina, were thus represented in curves of light. The light was reflected from a series of papers on the eye, on the phenomena of vision, on binocular vision, including the invention of one of the popular scientific instruments, the stereoscope (q.v.), and on colour. The polar clock, devised for use in place of a sun-dial, applies the fact that the polarization of sky light is always 90° from the position of the sun; hence by measuring the azimuthal angle of the plane, even when the sun is below the horizon, correct apparent solar time may be obtained. In 1833, in a paper on "The Prismatic Decomposition of Electrical Light," he proved that sparks from different metals give distinctive spectra, which afforded a ready means of discriminating between them. But it is by his electrical work that Wheatstone is best remembered. He not only guided the growth of scientific telegraphy on land wires, but made the earliest experiments with submarine cables, foreseeing the practicability of this means of communication as early as 1840. He devised the "A, B, C" telegraph instrument, the automatic transmitter, by which messages may be sent at the rate of 500 words a minute, printing telegraph receivers of various forms, electrical chronoscopes, and many forms of electrical recording apparatus,—amongst others two sets of registering meteorological instruments, of which the earlier, described in 1842, was afterwards developed by F. A. Secchi and F. van Rysselberge, but the later, put forward in 1867, included metallic thermometers and was a success.

Wheatstone's Scientific Papers were collected and published by the Physical Society of London in 1879. Biographical notices of him will be found in his Proc. Inst. C.E., xlvii. 283, and Proc. Roy. Soc., xxix. xvi. For his connection with the growth of telegraphy, see Nature, xi. 510, and xii. 30 sq.

WHEATSTONE'S BRIDGE, an electrical instrument which consists of six conductors, joining four points, of such a character that when an electromotive force is applied in one branch the absence of a current in another branch (called the conjugate branch) establishes a relation between the resistance of the four others by which we can determine the value of the resistance in one of these, that of the others being assumed to be known.

This arrangement was not invented by Sir Charles Wheatstone—although it bears his name and is commonly attributed to him, and was employed by him in some of his electrical researches—but by S. H. Christie, in 1833.

The arrangement of the six conductors is diagrammatically represented in fig. 1. In one of these branches is placed a battery B and in another a galvanometer G; the four other resistances are denoted by the letters P, Q, R, S. The circuits in which the battery and galvanometer are placed are called conjugate circuits, and the circuits P, Q, R, and S are called the arms of the bridge, the branches P and Q being called the ratio arms and S the measuring arm. The circuit in which the galvanometer is placed is the bridge circuit. The keys are inserted in the battery and galvanometer circuits to open or close them at pleasure. The resistance forming the fourth arm of the bridge can be so adjusted that if these resistances have values denoted by P, Q, R, and S, then when $P:Q::R:S$, the current in the galvanometer circuit will be zero when an electromotive force is applied in the battery circuit.

To prove this statement, let the conductors P, Q, R, S, be arranged in a lozenge shape, as in fig. 1. Let $E$ be the electromotive force in the battery circuit, and let $(x+y)$ be the current through the resistance $P$, $y$ the current through the resistance $Q$ and $z$ that through $B$. Then by G. R. Kirchhoff's laws (see ELECTRICKINETS) we have the current equations:

$$
(P+G+R)(x+y)-Gy-Rz=0
(Q+G+S)y-G(x+y)+Sz=0
(R+S+B)z-R(x+y)+Sy=E
$$

Rearranging the terms and solving for $x$ (the current through the galvanometer), we obtain

$$
x=(PS-RQ)/A.
$$

where $A$ is a complex expression, involving the resistances $P$, $Q$, $R$, $S$, and $B$, which does not concern us. Hence when $x=0$, $P:Q::R:S$ and the value of R can be determined in terms of $P$, $Q$, and $S$.

In the practical instrument the three arms of the bridge, $P$, $Q$, and $S$ are generally composed of coils of wire contained in a box, whilst $R$ is the resistance of the value of which is determined. This last resistance is connected to the other three with the addition

1 See Wheatstone's Scientific Papers, p. 129.

of a galvanometer and a battery connected up as shown in the diagram. The operation of determining the value of the resistance $R$ therefore consists in altering the ratio of the three resistances $P$, $Q$, and $S$, until the galvanometer indicates no current through it when the battery circuit is completed or closed by the key. In one form of Wheatstone's Bridge, known as the series pattern plug-resistance bridge, or Post Office pattern, the two ratio arms, $P$ and $Q$, each consist of a series of coils of wire, viz. two 1-ohm coils, two 10-ohm coils, two 100-ohm coils and two 1000-ohm coils, which are joined up in series in the order, 1000, 100, 10, 1, 10, 100, 1000, the junctions between each pair being connected to brass blocks, a series of which are mounted upon an ebonite slab that forms the lid of the box. The blocks are bored out with a hole partly in one block and partly in the other (see fig. 2) so that they can be connected by accurately fitting conical plugs. When the blocks are interconnected by the plugs all the coils are short-circuited; but if the plug or plugs are taken out, then a current flowing from one end of the series to the other is compelled to pass through the corresponding coils. In series with this set of coils is another set, $S$, which forms a measuring arm, the resistances of which are generally 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 20, 30, 40, 100, 200, 300, 400, 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000 ohms. The junction between each arm of coils is connected as above described to a block, the blocks being interconnected by plugs all of which are made interchangeable.

Another form of Wheatstone's Bridge, shown in fig. 2, is known as the dial pattern. Ten brass blocks are arranged parallel to or around another brass block, and by means of a plug which fits into holes bored partly out of the common block and partly out of the surrounding blocks, any one of the latter can be connected with the common one. A series of nine equal resistances, say 1-ohm coils, or nine 100-ohm coils, are joined in between these circumferential blocks (fig. 3). It will be seen that if a plug is placed so as to connect

FIG. 2.—Standard Wheatstone's Bridge.

any outside block with the central block, the current can only pass from the zero outside block to the central block by passing through a certain number of the resistance coils. Hence according to the magnitude of each coil the total resistance may be made anything from 1 to 9, 10 to 90, or 100 to 900 ohms, &c. Three or four of the "dials" thus bored side by side, the brass blocks being mounted on a slab of ebonite and the coils contained in the box underneath, and they are so joined up that the central block of one dial is connected to the outside block of the next marked Q. This arrangement forms the measuring arm of the bridge, the ratio arms being constructed on the series plug pattern just described. A bridge of this pattern has the advantage that the insertion or removal of a

FIG. 3.—Diagram showing Connections of a Dial and Plug pattern, Wheatstone's Bridge.
WHEEL—WHEEL, BREAKING ON THE

Figs. 4. 5.

measurements the chief difficulty, however, is not to determine the resistance of a coil, but to determine the temperature of the coil at the time when the resistance measurement is made. The difficulty is caused by the fact that the coil is heated by the current used to measure its resistance, which thus alters its value. In accurate measurements, therefore, it is necessary that the coils to be compared should be immersed in melting ice, and that sufficient time should be allowed to elapse between the measurements for the heat generated in the coils to be removed.

The standard resistance coil employed as a means of comparison by which to regulate and check other coils consists of a wire, generally of manganin or platinum silver, insulated with silk and wound on a bobbin, or more usually on a bobbin of brass or a core of copper, and the coil is enclosed in a water-tight brass cylinder so that it can be placed in water, or preferably in paraffin oil, and brought to any required temperature. In the form of standard coil recommended by the British Standards Institution for the measurement of low resistances, the coil is kept stirred by means of a small electric motor during the time of making the measurement. The temperature of the coil can best be ascertained by means of a platinum resistance thermometer.

For the measurement of low resistances a modification of the Wheatstone's bridge devised by Lord Kelvin is employed. The Kelvin bridge consists of nine conductors, and when strictly correct, is known as a Kelvin and Varley slide. Modifications of the ordinary Wheatstone's bridge for very accurate measurements have been devised by H. L. Callender and by Callender and E. H. Griffiths (see G. M. Clark, the Electrician, 38, p. 274). An improved method for measurement of low resistances has been given by R. T. Houseman (The Electrician, 40, p. 300, 1897). These and numerous other modifications of the Wheatstone's bridge will be found described in J. A. Fleming's Handbook for the Electrical Laboratory and Testing Room, vol. i. (1903).


WHEEL. Eng. avel, hæwel, &c., cognate with Icel. hjöl, Dan. høl, &c.; the Indo-European root is seen in Sanskrit chakrâ, Gr. ὕλ, circle, whence "cycle"), a circular frame or solid disk revolving on an axis, of which the function is to transmit or to modify motion. For the mechanical attributes and power of the wheel and for the modification of the lever, known as the "wheel and axis," and of the mechanical powers, see MECHANICS. The most familiar type of the wheel is of course that used in every type of vehicle, but it forms an essential part of nearly every kind of mechanism or machinery. Vehicular wheels in the earliest times were circular disks either cut out of solid pieces of wood, or formed of separate planks of wood fastened together and then cut out in a circular shape. Such may be still seen in use among primitive peoples to-day, especially when the tracks, if any exist, are of the roughest description, and travelling is heavy. The ordinary wheel consists of the nave (O. Eng. nafe, cf. Ger. Nabe, allied with "navel"), the central portion or hub, through which the axle passes, the spokes, the radial bars inserted in the nave and reaching to the peripheral rim, the felloe or felly (O. Eng. felce, Ger. Felge, properly that which fitted together, Teut. felhan, to fit together). From the monuments we see that the ancient Egyptian and Assyrian chariots had usually six spokes; the Greek and Roman wheels from four to eight. (See also GALLEY; and articles on Bicycle; Tricycle; and Motor Vehicles.)

WHEEL, BREAKING ON THE, a form of torture and execution formerly in use, especially in France and Germany. It is said to have been first used in the latter country, where the victim was placed on a cart-wheel and his limbs stretched out along the spokes. The wheel was made to slowly revolve, and the man's bones broken with blows of an iron bar. Sometimes it was mercifully ordered that the executioner should strike the criminal on chest and stomach, blows known as coups de grêle, which at once ended the torture. In France he was usually strangled after the second or third blow. A wheel was not always used...
In some countries it was upon a frame shaped like St Andrew's Cross that the sufferer was stretched. The punishment was abolished in France at the Revolution. It was employed in Germany as late as 1827. A murderer was broken on the row or wheel at Edinburgh in 1604, and two of the assassins of the regent: Lennox thus suffered death.

WHEELER, JOSEPH (1836–1906), American soldier, was born at Augusta, Georgia, in 1836, and entered the United States cavalry from West Point in 1859. Within two years the Civil War broke out, and Wheeler, as a Southerner, resigned to enter the Confederate service. In a short time he became colonel of the 13th Alabama Infantry, to which he was attached part of the victorious operations of 1861 in Kentucky and Tennessee. He commanded a brigade at the battle of Shiloh, but soon afterwards he returned to the cavalry arm in which he won a reputation second only to Stuart's. After the action of Perryville he was promoted brigadier-general, and in January 1863 major-general. Thenceforward throughout the campaigns of Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Atlanta he commanded the cavalry of the Confederate army in the West, and when Hood embarked upon the Tennessee expedition, he left Wheeler's cavalry to harass Sherman's army during the closing operations of the war, having now the rank of lieutenant-general. Wheeler commanded the cavalry of Joseph Johnston's weak army in North Carolina, and was included in its surrender. After this he became a lawyer and a cotton planter and in 1882–83 and 1885–1900 was a representative in Congress. At the outbreak of the Spanish–American War in 1898, President McKinley, in pursuance of the policy of waging the North and the South, commissioned two ex-Confederate generals—Wheeler and Fitzhugh Lee—as major-generals of United States volunteers, and in this capacity Wheeler was placed in command of the cavalry division of Shafer's army in Cuba. He commanded the divisions in Guisimas and San Juan, was afterwards sent to the Philippines in command of a brigade, and in 1900 was commissioned a brigadier-general in the regular army. Shortly afterwards he retired. General Wheeler died on the 25th of January 1906.

WHEELER, WILLIAM ALMON (1819–1887), vice-president of the United States from 1877 to 1881, was born at Malone, New York, on the 30th of June 1819. He studied at the university of Vermont for two years (1833–35), and in 1845 was admitted to the bar. First as a Whig, and then, after 1856, as a Republican, he was prominent for many years in state and national politics. He was a member of the state Assembly in 1849–50, a member and president pro tempore of the state Senate in 1858–59, and a member of the national House of Representatives in 1861–1863, and again from 1869 until 1877. He was the author of the so-called "Wheeler Compromise," by which the difficulties between contending political factions in Louisiana were adjusted in 1875. Nominated for vice-president by the Republicans in 1876 on the ticket with President Hayes, he was installed in office through the decision of the Electoral Commission, and at the end of his term he retired from public life. He died at Malone on the 4th of June 1887.

WHEELING, a city and the county-seat of Ohio county, West Virginia, U.S.A., on the east bank of the Ohio river, at the mouth of Wheeling Creek, 66 m. (by rail) S.W. of Pittsburgh. Pop. (1890) 34,527; (1900) 38,828, of whom 1066 were negroes, and 5461 were foreign-born, including 3106 Germans and 876 Irish; (1910, census) 41,641. Area, 3·2 sq. m. Wheeling is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Pennsylvania and the Wheeling & Lake Erie railways, by the belt line of the Wheeling Terminal Company and by interurban electric lines. Wheeling is the largest city in West Virginia, and commercially the most important place on the Ohio river between Pittsburgh and Cincinnati. It is built on a narrow strip of bottom land, between the river and steep hills, at an elevation of about 640 ft. above tidewater. Between the mainland and Wheeling (formerly Zane's) Island, which forms a part of the city, there are a suspension-bridge, which has a span of 1010 ft., and a steel bridge, and from the island across the back river channel there are two bridges to the Ohio shore, one from the middle of the island to Bridgeport on which the Old National Road crosses the river, and the other from the northern end of the island to Martin's Ferry, Ohio. A fifth bridge connects Wheeling with Bellaire, Ohio. Wheeling has a public library, containing 23,261 volumes in 1909. Near the city is the Mount de Chantal Academy (Roman Catholic) for girls, and in Wheeling is Linsly Institute, a secondary school for boys. The principal public buildings are the Custom-House and Post-Office, the City Hall, a High School, a Y.M.C.A. building and a Scottish Rite Cathedral. In the city are a City Hospital (private, 1890) and the Wheeling Hospital (under the Sisters of St Joseph, 1853). On the National Road there is a small post-office, a rock building north of the town square, which is known as Soldiers' Monument. By reason of its situation on the Ohio river Wheeling is an important shipping and distributing centre, and it has various important manufacturing interests. Its factory products were valued in 1905 at $23,297,475. The chief industry is the manufacture of iron and steel, which in 1905 gave employment to more than 34% of the city's wage-earners, and yielded more than 46% of the total value of its products. The manufacture of nails, begun here in 1849, was for many years of great importance. Other products in 1905 were slaughtering and meat products, $7,812,348; male liquors, $3,543,75; tobacco and cigars ($3,016,85); $963,04; foundry and machine-shop products, $799,375; lumber and planing mill products, $685,861; pickles, preserves and sauces, $376,437; glass, $508,245; and pottery. Glass was first manufactured here in 1821. Coal is found in abundance in the surrounding region, and also natural gas, which is much used as fuel in the manufacture of iron, steel and glass.

The first settlement here was made in 1770 by Colonel Ebenezer Zane (1747–1811), and his brothers, Jonathan (one of the founders of Zanesville, Ohio) and Silas, who, in the autumn of 1777, took with them the finds of $23,297,475. On 1st of September 1777 the town was defended against a large force of Indians by five of the whites were killed; during this attack, when the ammunition of the defenders had failed, Elizabeth Zane (c. 1759–1847), a sister of Ebenezer, brought under fire a keg of powder from a house sixty yards from the fort. In September 1782 the fort was unsuccessfully besieged for two days by a force of about 40 British regular soldiers and about 250 Indians. The town was laid out by Colonel Zane in 1793, was incorporated in 1806, and was chartered as a city in 1836. It was designated as the capital of the "restored government of Virginia" in 1861, after the secession of Virginia at the beginning of the Civil War, and was the capital of West Virginia from 1863 to 1869, and again from 1875 until May 1885. The name "Wheeling" is a corruption of an Indian word, of uncertain meaning, sometimes translated as "the place of the head."

WHETHAMSTEDE, JOHN (d. 1465), English abbott, was a son of Hugh Bostock, and was born at Wheathampstead in Hertfordshire, owing his name, the Latin form of which is FRAGMENTARIS, to this circumstance. In early life he entered St Albans Abbey and in 1410 he was chosen abbot of this house. He attended a council at Pavia, but in England his time was mainly occupied with lawsuits, several of which he carried on to defend the property and ensure the rights of the abbey. In 1440 he resigned his post, but in 1451, on the death of his successor, John Stoke, he became abbott for the second time. He died on the 20th of January 1465, and his tomb may still be seen in the abbey church. Whethamstede was an energetic and successful abbot. He greatly improved the buildings at St Albans, which suffered somewhat during his later years owing to the wars of the roses; he also did some building at Gloucester.
College, Oxford, with which he was connected. He was a friend of Duke Humphrey of Gloucester, whom he helped to gather together his famous collection of books, and was himself a writer, his works including Gramarion de viris illustribus; Palaestrum politarium; and Super Valeriam in Augustinum de Anchenia. Whetstone's Chronicle, or the years of the stay of Johannis Whetstone, is a register compiled soon after the abbot's death, which tells the events of his second abbacy. It has been edited by H. T. Riley, and is in vol. i. of the Regesta quinuaginta abbatum monasterii S. Albani (London, 1872). The two works that his first abbacy are narrated in the Annales monasterii S. Albani of John Amundesham, also edited by H. T. Riley (London, 1870-1871).

WHETSTONE, GEORGE (1544-1587), English dramatist and author, was the third son of Robert Whetstone (d. 1537). A member of a wealthy family that owned the manor of Waleot at Bernack, near Stamford, he appears to have inherited a small patrimony in which he speedily dissipated, and he complains bitterly of the failure of a lawsuit to recover an inheritance of which he had been unjustly deprived. In 1572 he joined an English regiment on active service in the Low Countries, where he met George Gascoigne and Thomas Churchyard. Gascoigne was his guest near Stamford when he died in 1577, and Whetstone commemorated his friend in a long elegy. His first volume, the Roche of Regarde (1576), consisted of tales in prose and verse adapted from the Italian, and in 1578 he published The right excellent and famous History of Promos and Cassandra, a play in two parts, drawn from the eighty-fifth novel of Giraldo Cinthio's Hecatommithia. He was soon addressed to William Fleetwood, recorder of London, with whom he claimed kinship, in which he criticizes the contemporary drama. In 1582 he published his Heptameron of Civill Discourses, a collection of tales which includes The Rare Historie of Promos and Cassandra. From this prose version apparently Shakespeare drew the plot of Measure for Measure, though he was doubtless familiar with the story in its earlier dramatic form. Whetstone accompanied Sir Humphrey Gilbert on his expedition in 1578-1579, and the next year found him in Italy. The Puritan spirit was now abroad in England, and Whetstone followed this current in his prose tract A Mirrour for Magistrates (1584), which in a second edition was called A Touchstone for the Time. Whetstone did not abuse the stage as some Puritan writers did, but he objected to the performance of plays on Sundays. In 1585 he returned to the army in Holland, and he was present at the battle of Zutphen. His other works are a collection of military anecdotes entitled The Honourable Reputation of a Souldier (1585); a political tract, the English Myrro (1586), numerous elegies on distinguished personages, and The Censure of a Loyall Subject (1587). No information about Whetstone is available after the publication of this last book, and it is conjectured that he died shortly afterwards.

WHEWELL, WILLIAM (1794-1866), British philosopher and historian of science, was born on the 24th of May 1794 at Lancaster. His father, a carpenter, wished him to follow his trade, but his success in mathematics at Lancaster and Heversham grammar-schools enabled him to proceed with an exhibition to Trinity, Cambridge (1812). He was second wrangler in 1816, became fellow and tutor of his college, and, in 1814, succeeded Dr Wordsworth as master. He was professor of mineralogy from 1816 to 1822, of physics (1822-1828), to which the publication of this last book, and it is conjectured that he died shortly afterwards. Whewell was prominent not only in scientific research and philosophy, but also in university and college administration. His first work, An Elementary Treatise on Mechanics (1810), co-operated with those of Peacock and Herschel in reforming the Cambridge method of mathematical teaching; to him in large measure was due the recognition of the moral and natural sciences as an integral part of the Cambridge curriculum (1830). In general, however, especially in later years, he opposed reform: he defended the tutorial system, and in a controversy with Thirlwall (1834) opposed the admission of Dissenters; he upheld the clerical fellowship system, the privileged class of "fellow-commoners," and the authority of the heads of colleges in university affairs. He opposed the appointment of the University Commission (1850), and wrote two pamphlets (Remarks) against the reform of the university (1853). He advocated as the true reform, against the scheme of entrusting elections to the members of the Senate, the use of the college funds and the subvention of scientific and professional work.

In 1826 and 1828, Whewell was engaged with Airy in conducting experiments in Dolcoath mine, Cornwall, in order to determine the density of the earth. Their united labours were unsuccessful, and Whewell did little more in the way of experimental science. He was the author, however, of an Essay on Mineralogical Classification, published in 1828, and contributed various memoirs on the tides to the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society between 1833 and 1836. But it is on his History and Philosophy of the Sciences that his claim to an enduring reputation mainly rests. The History of the Inductive Sciences, from the Earlist to the Present Time appeared originally in 1837. Whewell's wide, if superficial, acquaintance with various branches of science enabled him to write a comprehensive account of their development, which is still of the greatest value. In his own opinion, the History was to be regarded as an introduction to the Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences (1840). The latter treatise analyses the methods exemplified in the formation of ideas, in the new inductions of science, and in the applications and systematization of these inductions, all exhibited by the History of the Sciences.

In the Philosophy, Whewell endeavours to follow Bacon's plan for discovery of an effectual art of discovery. He examines ideas ("explication of conceptions") and by the "colligation of facts endeavours to unite these ideas to the facts and so construct science. For no art of discovering has been so much anticipated, followed for "invention, sagacity, genius" are needed at each step. He analyses induction into three steps: (1) the selection of the (fundamental) idea, such as space, number, cause or likeness; (2) the formation of a proposition or maxim; (3) the deduction from this of a circle, a uniform force, &c.; and (3) the determination of magnitudes. Upon these follow special methods of induction applicable to questions of fact, the method of means, the method of least squares and the method of residuals, and special methods depending on resemblance (to which the transition is made through the law of continuity), viz. the method of gradation and the method of natural classification.

Here, as in his ethical doctrine (see ETHICS), Whewell was moved by opposition to contemporary English empiricism. Following Kant, he asserted against J. S. Mill the a priori nature of necessary truth. He requires for the construction of conceptions be dispensed with the inductive methods of Mill.

Between 1835 and 1860 Whewell was the author of various works on the philosophy of science. Of these, Elements of the Philosophy of Morality, including Polity, was published in 1845. The character of this work—written, of course, from what is known as the intentional point of view—is its fivefold division of the springs of action and of their objects, of the primary and universal rights of man (personal security, property, contract, family rights and government), and of the cardinal virtues (benevolence, justice, truth, purity and order). Among Whewell's other works—too numerous to mention—reference must be made to writings popular in their day, such as the Bridgewater Treatise on Astronomy (1833), and the essay, Of the Plurality of Worlds (1854), in which he argued against the probability of planetary He, and also to the Platonic Dialogues for English Readers (1850-1861), to the Lectures on the History of Moral Philosophy in England (1852), to the essay, Of a Liberal Education in General, with particular reference to the Leading Studies of the University of Cambridge (1853), to which he added also the translation of Grotius, De jure belli et pacis (1853), and to the edition of the Mathematical Works of Isaac Barrow (1860).

Full bibliographical details are given by Isaac Todhunter, W. Whewell, and Account of his Life (2 vols. 1876). See also Life of W. Whewell, by Mrs Stair Douglas (1881).

WHICHCOTE (or WHITCHCOTE), BENJAMIN (1609-1683), English divine and philosopher, was born at Whitchcote Hall, Stoke, Shropshire, and educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, where he became fellow in 1633. He was ordained in 1636, and appointed shortly afterwards to be Sunday afternoon

1 Afterwards broken up into three parts published separately: (1) the History and Philosophy of the Sciences; (2) the History and Philosophy of the Sciences; (3) the History and Philosophy of the Sciences; (4) the History and Philosophy of the Sciences.
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lecturer at Trinity Church, Cambridge. In 1643 he received the rectory of North Cadbury, Somerset, and in the following year he was appointed provost of King's College, Cambridge, in place of Samuel Collins who was ejected. On resigning North Cadbury in 1646 he became rector of Milton, Cambridgeshire. In 1650 he was vice-chancellor of Cambridge University. Cromwell in 1655 consulted him upon the question of extending toleration to the Jews. His Puritan views lost him the provostship of King's College at the Restoration of 1660, but on complying with the Act of Uniformity he was appointed to the living of St Lawrence's, Blackfriars, London. In 1668 he became vicar of St Lawrence Jewry, London. He is regarded as the founder of the important school of Cambridge Platonists. His works, chiefly theological treatises and sermons, were all published posthumously. He died in May 1683.

See John Tulloch, Rational Theology, ii. 59–84 (1874); and Masters in English Theology, edited by A. Barry (1877).

WHICKHAM, an urban district in the Chester-le-Street parliamentary division of Durham, England, 4 m. S.W. of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, near the river Derwent. Pop. (1901) 12,852. There is a railway station. The town (Sealwell) is the southern branch of the North-eastern railway. The church of St Mary has Norman and Transitional portions, and in the neighbourhood is the mansion of Gibside, of the 17th century. The demesne borders the Derwent, and is of great beauty, part being laid out in formal gardens and straight avenues. It contains a lofty Doric column and a detached chapel and banquetting hall, and in the vicinity are picturesque fragments of the monastic chapel of Friarside, and of the manor house of Hollinside. Whickham is one of the centres of a coal-mining district, the mines employing the majority of the industrial population; but there are also iron, steel, and chemical works.

WHIG AND TORY, the names associated with two opposing political parties in England. The origin of "Whig" has been much controverted; it has been associated with the Scots for "whisky," as implying a taunt against the "sour-milk" faces of the western Lowlanders; another theory is that it represented the initials of the Scots Covenanters' motto, "We hope in God"; another derives it from the Scots word "whiggam," used by peasants in driving their horses. It was, however, a form of the Scots Gaelic term used to describe cattle and horse thieves, and transferred to the adherents of the Presbyterian cause in Scotland. "Tory" is derived from the Irish "Taf a Ri." "Come, oh king!" associated with the creed of the Irish native levies enlisted in the civil wars on behalf of the loyalist cause; the outlaws who fought for James in Ireland after the revolution were similarly nicknamed Rapparees or Tories.

Parliamentary parties, as such, came into existence in England as soon as parliament achieved or aimed at predominance in the state. In 1642, shortly after the meeting of the Long Parliament, they were divided on the question of church reform, passing, as soon as political questions were involved, into Cavaliers and Roundheads. After the expulsion of the Cavaliers in 1642 and 1643 the Houses were divided into a peace party and a war party, and these in 1643 took the shape of Presbyterians and Independents. After the Restoration there was a country party and a court party, and to these the names of Whig and Tory were applied in 1679, in the heat of the struggle which preceded the meeting of the first short parliament of Charles II. The words were nicknames given by the opponents of each party. To call a man a Whig was to compare him with the Presbyterian rebels of the west of Scotland. To call a man a Tory was to compare him with the Papist outlaws of Ireland. In fact, at this time the Whigs were maintainers of parliamentary power over the crown and of toleration for Dissenters, the Tories maintainers of the hereditary indefeasible rights of the wearer of the crown and of the refusal of toleration to Dissenters. The relation between the parties was further qualified by the fact that the heir to the crown was a Roman Catholic, whose claim to succeed was defended by the Tories and assailed by the Whigs.

The persistence of the names of the two parties is mainly owing to their essential unmeaningness. As new questions arose, the names of the old parties were retained, though the objects of contention were no longer the same. The Revolution of 1688–9 made it impossible for the Tories to retain their old attitude of attachment to the hereditary right of the occupant of the throne, with the exception of the extreme wing of the party, which remained Jacobite. They still, however, continued, though accepting the Toleration Act, to oppose the offering of further favours to Dissenters. In Anne's reign, after the war with France had gone on for some time, they supported a peace policy, whilst the Whigs advocated a continuance of the war. At the Revolution of the 17th and the first years of the 18th century the Whigs may be regarded as the party of the great landowners, and of the merchants and tradesmen, the Tories as the party of the smaller landowners and the country clergy. The Whigs established, through their hold upon the boroughs under the influence of the great landowners, a firm government, which could keep in check, and at last practically set aside, the power of the crown. The Tories, disturbing the authority of the ministerial government, and fearing a new despotism based on parliamentary corruption, became, especially after Pitt's time, a party of and for the people, almost democratic in their views and in their demands for the purification of the existing system.

With the accession of George III. Toryism took a new form. The struggle about the Dissenters was now a thing of the past, and the king was accepted as a leader in carrying on the attack against the power of the great Whig families. The attack was the easier because the Whig families had split into factions. For some time the dividing line between Whigs and Tories was this: the Tories asserted that the king had a right to choose his ministers and control their policy, subject to the necessity of securing a majority of the House of Commons, whilst the Whigs thought that the choice should lie with leading members of parliament, and that the king should have no controlling power. The Whig view appears to resemble that subsequently adopted; but in the middle of the 18th century the corruption which prevailed rendered the analogy worthless, and the real conflict was between the corrupt influence of the crown and the influence of a clique of great landowners resting on their possession of electoral power through the rotten boroughs. In 1770 the king had his way and established Lord North at the treasury as his nominee. The Whigs, deprived of power, improved their position by the loss of one great instrument of corruption; but they were weakened by the establishment of two distinct currents of opinion in their own ranks. The main body under Rockingham was influenced by Burke to demand practical reforms, but set its face against any popular changes in the constitution. The Whigs who followed Chatham wished to place parliament on a more popular basis by the reform of the House of Commons. When in 1783 Chatham's son Pitt became prime minister, the Tory party took a new start. It retained the Tory principle of reliance on the crown, and joined to it Chatham's principle of reliance on the people as opposed to the great Whig families. It also supported Pitt in practical reforms.

All this was changed by the French Revolution. In opposition to the new democracy, the Tories coalesced with a section of the Whig families, the representatives of which entered the ministry in 1794. From this time till 1822, in spite of men like Pitt, and the personal influence of Tory leaders who supported moderate reform, Toryism came to be popularly identified with a desire to retain the existing state of things, however full of abuses it might be. When Canning and Peel entered the ministry in 1822, a gradual change took place, and a tendency to practical reform manifested itself. The refusal of Wellington to listen to any proposal for altering the constitution of the House of Commons threw power once more into the hands of the Whigs in 1830. Shortly afterwards the name Tory gave place to that of Conservative (q.v.), though it was cherished by those Conservatives who wished to assert their power of originating a definite policy, and who disliked to be branded with a purely negative appellation, and it was also retained as a term of opprobrium by the Liberals for those whom they regarded as old-fashioned opponents of
reform. The name of Whig was replaced by that of Liberal, being frequently, however, assigned to the less progressive portion of the party, the "moderate Liberals," or even to half-and-half Conservatives, rather than to its extreme members. It ceased to be a name accepted by any definite English political section.

WHIG PARTY, in America, a political party prominent from about 1824 to 1854. The first national party system of the United States came to an end during the second war with Great Britain. The destruction of the Federalist party (q.v.) through a series of suicidal acts which began with the Allen and Sedition laws of 1798, and closed with the Hartford Convention of 1814—1815, left the Jeffersonian Republican (Democratic) party in undisputed control. When, after Waterloo, Napoleon ceased to disturb the relations of the new world with the old, the American people, freed for the first time from all trace of political dependence on Europe, were at liberty to shape their public policy in their own way. During the period of rapid internal development which followed after 1815, the all-inclusive Republican party began gradually to disintegrate and a new party system was evolved, each member of which was the representative of such groups of ideas and interests, class and local, as required the support of a separate party. This work of disintegration and rebuilding proceeded so slowly that for more than a decade after 1824, when its organization began, to maintain the term "Whig" as an appellation of party, was the almost constant contention of the extreme Whigs. The early stages of organization as the personal following of a particular leader or group of leaders, kept on calling itself Republican. Even during the sharply contested election of 1824 the rival partisans were known as Jackson, Crawford and Calhoun, or as Clay and Adams Republicans. (See DEMOCRATIC PARTY.) It was not until late in the administration of John Quincy Adams, 1825 to 1829, that the supporters of the president and Henry Clay, the secretary of state, were first recognized as a distinct party and began to be called by the accurately descriptive term National Republicans. But after the party had become solidly organized during the congressional campaigns of 1826, and later in opposing the measures of President Jackson, it adopted in 1834 the name Whig, which, through memorable associations both British and American, served as a protest against executive encroachments, and thus facilitated union with other parties and factions, such as the Anti-Masonic party (q.v.), that had been alienated by the high-handed measures of President Jackson. The new name announced not the birth but the maturity of the party, and the definite establishment of its principles and general lines of policy. The ends for which the Whigs laboured were: first, to maintain the Union; second, to make the Union a national power, disposed during the national; third, to maintain the republican character of the Union; fourth, while utilizing to the full the inheritance from and through Europe, to develop a distinctly American type of civilization; fifth, to propagate abroad by peaceful means American ideas and institutions. Among the policies or means which the Whigs used in order to realize their principles were the broad construction of those provisions of the Federal Constitution which confer powers on the national government; protective tariffs; comprehensive schemes of internal improvements under the direction and at the cost of the national government; support of the Bank of the United States; resistance to many acts of President Jackson as encroachments by the executive on the legislative branch of the government and therefore hostile to republicanism; coalition with other parties in order to promote national as opposed to partisan ends; resort to compromise in order to allay sectional irritation and compose sectional differences; and cordial and yet prudent expression of sympathy with the liberal movement in other lands.

The activity of the Whig party, resumed from the election of 1832, when the party which ten years before had disintegrated into the new party, disposed during the national; the rise of the new radical democracy under Andrew Jackson, and the growth of sectionalism over the slavery issue, this period was highly critical. In view of these events the most difficult task of the Whigs, clearly discerned and heartily accepted by them, under the patriotic and conservative leadership of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, was to moderate and enlighten, rather than antagonize, the new democracy; and—what proved to be beyond their powers—to overcome the disrupting influence of the slavery issue.

The inaugural address and the messages to Congress of President J. Q. Adams set forth clearly the nationalizing, broad-construction programme of the new party. But his supporters in Congress, imperfectly organized and facing a powerful opposition, accomplished very little in the way of legislation. The election of 1828 gave to Andrew Jackson the presidency, and to the people, in a higher degree than ever before, the control of the government. The president's attack upon the Bank, the introduction of the modern "spoils system" into the Federal civil service, the unprecedented use of the veto power, Jackson's assumption of powers which his opponents deemed unconstitutional, and his personal hostility towards Clay, who had succeeded Adams in the leadership of the party, brought about, under Whig leadership, a coalition of opposition parties which influenced deeply and permanently the character, policy and fortunes of the Whig party. It became the champion of the Bank of the right of Congress, and of the older and purer form of the civil service system. Moreover, on the eve of his presidency, the group of their new allies, the Whigs learned to practise a tolerance towards and even the principles of their associates which is exceptional in the history of American political parties. In strict accord with their own principles, however, the Whigs supported the president during the Nullification Controversy (see NULLIFICATION). The renown of Webster as the foremost expositor of the national theory of the Union rests largely on his speeches during this controversy, in particular on his celebrated reply to Senator R. Y. Hayne of South Carolina. Nevertheless, after vindicating the Union, the Whigs supported Clay in arranging the compromise tariff of 1833, which compelled the Nullifiers to retreat without acknowledging discomfiture. The majority of the Northern Whigs, with the entire Southern membership of the party, disapproved the propaganda of the Abolitionists on the ground of its tendency to endanger the Union, and many from a like motive voted for the "Gag Rules" of 1835—1844 (see ADAMS, J. Q.), which in spirit, if not in letter, violated the constitutional right of petition. In the election of 1832 Clay was the nominee of the party for the presidency, but in 1836 and 1840, purely on grounds of expediency, the Whig convention nominated for the presidency, first, W. H. Harrison, and then, in the administration of Martin Van Buren the Whigs tried with success to make party capital out of the panic of 1837, which they ascribed to Jackson, and out of the long depression that followed, for which they held Van Buren responsible. The election of General Harrison in the "log cabin and hard cider" campaign of 1840 proved a fruitless victory: the early death of the president and the anti-Whig politics of his successor, John Tyler (q.v.), whom the Whigs had imprudently chosen as vice-president, shattered their legislative programme.

In 1844 Clay was again the Whig candidate, and the annexation of Texas, involving the risk of a war with Mexico, was the leading issue. The Whigs opposed annexation; and the prospect of success seemed bright, until Clay, in the effort to remove Southern misapprehensions, wrote that he "would be glad" at some future time to see Texas annexed if it could be done "without dishonour, without war, with the common consent of the Union, and upon just and fair terms." It is widely held that this letter turned against Clay the anti-slavery element and lost him the presidency. The triumph of Polk in 1844 was followed by the annexation of Texas and by war with Mexico. The Whigs opposed the war, but on patriotic grounds voted supplies for its prosecution. The acquisition of Texas, and the assured prospect of a great territorial enlargement, at the cost of Mexico, brought to the front the question of slavery in the new domain. The agitation that followed continued through the presidential election of 1848 (in which the Whigs elected General Zachary Taylor), and did not subside until the passage of the
“Compromise Measures of 1850” (p.v.). To its authors this compromise seemed essential to the preservation of the Union; but it led directly to the destruction of the Whig party. In the North, where the inhumane Fugitive Slave Law grew daily more odious, the adherence to the Compromise on which Clay and Webster insisted weakened the party fatally. The alternative, namely, a convention of the party to the repeal of the odious law, would have driven the Southern Whigs into the camp of the Democrats, leaving the Northern Whigs a sectional party powerless to resist the disruption of the Union. The only weapons that the Whigs knew how to use in defence of the Fugitive Slave Law were appeals to patriotism and sectional bargaining, and these could be employed only so long as the party remained intact.

The National Whig Convention of 1852, the last that represented the party in its entirety, gave the Northern Whigs the naming of the candidate—General Winfield Scott—who was defeated in the ensuing election, and to the Southern the framing of the platform with its “finality” plank, which, as revised by Webster, read as follows: “That the series of acts of the Thirty-second Congress, the act known as the Fugitive Slave Law included, are received and acquiesced in by the Whig party of the United States as a settlement in principle and substance of the dangerous and exciting questions which they embrace . . . and we will maintain this system as essential to the nationality of the Whig party and the integrity of the Union.”

The advent of the Kansas-Nebraska Act by the Kansas-Nebraska Act demonstrated that “this system” could not be maintained, and that in committing the Whig party to the policy of its maintenance the Convention of 1852 had signed the death-warrant of the party.

Among the services of the Whigs the first in importance are these: During the thirty critical years in which under the leadership of Clay and Webster they maintained the national view of the nature of the Union, the Whigs contributed more than all their rivals to impress this view upon the hearts and minds of the people. During this same extended period the pamphlets-makers between the sections they kept North and South together until the North had become strong enough to uphold by force the integrity of the Union. And lastly they bequeathed to the Republican party the principles on which, and the leader, Abraham Lincoln, through whom the endangered Union was finally saved.

Bibliography.—See Alexander Johnston, American Political History, 1763–1870 (New York, 1905; edited by J. A. Woodburn); J. A. Brophy, Battles and Parties in the United States (ibid., 1903); J. P. Gordy, History of Political Parties in the United States (ibid., 1900); J. W. Burgess, The Middle Period (ibid., 1897); Edward Stanwood, History of the Presidency (Boston, 1898); J. A. Weisbord, Constitutional Law (New York, 1902); H. E. von Holst, Constitutional and Political History of the United States (Chicago, 1899), especially the second volume; Niles’ Register (Baltimore, 1811–1849); Henry Wilson, History of the Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America (Boston, 1872–1877); Horace Greeley, The American Conflict (Hartford, 1864–1866); F. D. Hammond, History of Political Parties in the State of New York (Albany, 1863); G. W. Julian, Political Recollections, 1850–1872 (Chicago, 1884); H. A. Wise, Seven Decades of the Union (Philadelphia, 1872); The Works of Daniel Webster (Boston, 1851); The Works of Henry Clay (New York, 1868); and among many important biographies: Life of Henry Clay (Philadelphia, 1840); Lodge’s Daniel Webster (ibid., 1853), G. T. Curtis’s Life of Daniel Webster (New York, 1870), H. E. von Holst’s John C. Calhoun (Boston, 1874), M. Coleman’s Life of Van Buren, J. W. Gorham’s Life of Daniel Webster (Philadelphia, 1871), G. Tyler’s Letters and Times of the Tyler’s (Williamsburg, Va., 1884–1896), The Autobiography of Thurloe Weed (Boston, 1885), and J. G. Nicolay and John Hay’s Abraham Lincoln: A History (New York, 1890).

WHIP, in general, an instrument for striking, usually consisting of a handle of a flexible nature with a lash attached (see WHIPPING, below). In English parliamentary usage, a “whip” is a member (or members) chosen by the leaders or masters of a political conference as the special duty of requiring the attendance of the other members of that party on all necessary occasions, the term being abbreviated from the whippers-in of a hunt. The name is also given to the summons urging members of the party to attend. Whips are, of course, always members of parliament, and for the party in power (i.e. the government) their services are very essential, seeing that the fate of an important measure, or even the existence of the government itself, may depend upon the result of a division in the House. Where the majority of the party in power is not large it is very necessary that there should always be at hand a sufficient number of its supporters to make up a majority, and without the attendance of the whips it would be impossible to secure this. The chief whip of the government holds the office of patronage secretary to the treasury, so called because when offices were freely distributed to secure the support of members, it was his chief duty to dispose of the patronage to the best advantage of his party. He is still the channel through which such patronage as is left to the prime minister is dispensed. He is assisted by three junior whips, who are officially appointed as junior lords of the treasury; their salaries are £1000 a year each, while the patronage secretary has a salary of £3000. The parties not in office have whips who are unpaid. Attendance of members is primarily secured by lithographed notices sent by the whips to their following, the urgency or importance of the notice being indicated by the number of lines underscoring the notice, a four-line whip usually signifying the extremest urgency. The whips also arrange for the “pairing” of such of the members of their party who desire to be absent with those members of the opposition party who also desire to be absent. The chief whips of either party arrange in consultation with each other the leading speakers in an expected debate, and also its length, and give the assistance of the whips to the speaker or chairman, who usually falls in with the arrangement. They take no part in debate themselves, but are constantly present in the House during its sittings, keeping a finger, as it were, upon the pulse of the House, and constantly informing their leader as to the state of the House. When any division is regarded as a strictly party one, the whips act as tellers in the division.

An interesting account of the office of whip is given in A. L. Lowell’s Government of England (1908), vol. i. c. xxv.

WHIPPING, or FLOGGING, a method of corporal punishment, which in one form or another has been used in all ages and all lands (see BASTINADO, KNOT, CAT-O’-NINE-TAILS). In ancient Rome a citizen could not be scourged, it being considered an infamous punishment. Slaves were beaten with rods. Similarly in early medieval England the whip could not be used on the freeman, but was reserved for the villain. The Anglo-Saxons whipped prisoners with a three-corded knotted lash. It was not uncommon for mistresses to whip or have their servants whipped to death. William of Malmsbury relates that as a child King Ethelred was flogged with candles by his mother, who had no handier weapon, until he was insensible with pain. During the Saxon period whipping was the ordinary punishment for offences, great or small. Payments for whipping figure largely in municipal and parish accounts from an early date. The aboli- tion of the monasteries, where the poor had been sure of free meals, led during the 16th century to an increase of vagrancy, at which the Statute of Labourers (1560) and its provisions as to whipping had been early aimed. In the reign of Henry VIII was passed (1530) the famous Whipping Act, directing vagrants to be whipped with certain numbers of lashes and to be "tied to the end of a cart naked and beaten with whips throughout such market town till the body shall be bloody." In the 39th year of Elizabeth a new act was passed by which the offender was to be stripped to the waist, not quite naked. It was under this statute that whipping-posts were substituted for the cart. Many of these posts were combined with stocks, as that at Waltham Abbey, which bears date "1558." It is of oak, 3 ft. 9 in. high, with iron clasps for the hands when used for whipping, and for the feet when used as stocks. Fourpence was the old charge for whipping male and female rogues. At quarter-sessions in Devonshire at Easter 1558 it was ordered that the mothers of bastard children should be whipped; the reputed fathers suffering a like punishment. In the west of England in 1681, "certain Scotch peddlars and petty chapmen being in the habit of selling their goods to the great damage and hindrance
of shoppe-keepers," the court ordered them to be stripped naked and whipped. The flogging of women was common. Judge Jeffreys, in so sentencing a female prisoner, is reported to have exclaimed, "Hang me, I charge you to pay particular attention to this lady. Scourge her soundly, man: scourge her till her blood runs down! It is Christmas: a cold time for madness to strip. See that you warm her shoulders." Lunatics, too, were whipped, for in the Constable's Accounts of Great Stoughton, Hunts, occurs the entry, "1690-1, Paid in charges taking up a distracted woman, watching her and whipping her stills, this day—8d." A still more remarkable entry is "1710-1, Pd. Thomas Hawkins for whipping two people yt had smallpox—8d." In 1764 the Public Ledger states that a woman who is described as "an old offender" was taken from the Clerkenwell Bridewell to Enfield and there publicly whipped at the cart's tail by the common hangman for cutting wood in Enfield Chase. A statute of 1701 abolished the whipping of females.

**WHISKER**, a word chiefly used in the plural in the sense of the hair worn by a man on the cheeks as opposed to the beard on the chin and the moustache on the upper lip. This term is also applied to the bristly feelers growing round the mouth of a cat or other animal. The word by derivation means that which "whisks" or "brushes." **WHISKY,** or Whiskey, a potable spirit distilled from cereal grains. The name is probably derived from the Celtic _uisge-beatha_ (water of life), which was subsequently contracted to _usquebaugh_, and still later to whisky (cf. Skeat, _Etym. Dict_. s.v.). The liquor known as "usquebaugh" in the 17th and 18th centuries was not, however, of the same character as the whisky of modern times, but was a compound of plain spirit with saffron, new-mown, sugar and other spices and flavouring matters. Whether the term whisky to denote a plain type of spirit was used concurrently with usquebaugh, or whether the latter name covered both varieties, is not clear. It is certain, however, that an alcoholic liquor, derived mainly from grain, has been prepared for very many centuries in both Ireland and Scotland (see Spirits). There are three main types of whisky, namely, Scotch, Irish and American.

Scotch whiskies may be broadly divided into two main groups, namely (a) pot-still or malt whiskies, and (b) patent-still or grain whiskies; the former are made practically without exception from malted barley only, the latter from a mixture of malted barley and other unmalted cereals, chiefly rye, oats and maize (see Spirits). (a) There are four main varieties of Scotch malt whiskies, namely, Highland Malts, Lowland Malts, Campbeltowns and Islays. The Highland Malts are produced (if we except a few distilleries on the islands in the west and north) in the district on the mainland lying north of an imaginary line drawn through Dundee on the east and Greenock on the west. The largest group of distilleries is in the famous Speyside or Glenlivet district.

The Lowland Malts are made south of the imaginary line alluded to. The Campbeltowns are distilled in or near the town of that name at the southern end of the Kintyre peninsula. The Islays are produced in the island of that name. These different varieties of whisky, although made in much the same way, yet possess distinctive characteristics of flavour. The type of barley employed, the quantity of peat employed in curing the malt, the quality of the water, the manner of carrying out the various distillery processes—particularly that of distillation—the shape and size of the stills, &c., all these are factors which affect the flavour of the final product. The Islays, which, as a rule, are considered to be among the most valuable of Scotch whiskies, possess a very full and peaty flavour together with a strong ethereal bouquet. For this reason they are much used for blending with whiskies of a lighter type. The Highland Malts proper (Speyside type) are less peaty than the Islays, yet possess a full flavour, although many of them are inclined to be "elegant" rather than "big." The Lowland Malts, again, are, as a class, less peated than the Highland Malts, and indeed, probably in view of the growing taste for a more neutral class of beverage, there are some Lowland Malt distilleries which dispense with the use of peat altogether. Many of the Lowland Malts possess considerable body and flavour, but, on the whole, they are lighter and not so fine as those of the Highland variety. Lowland distillers are now running their spirit at much the same strength as the Highland colleagues, whereas formerly it was the custom to work at a far higher strength. The result is that the difference between the two classes of spirit is not so marked as it was. The Campbeltowns, although in some respects similar to the Islays on the one hand, and the Highland Malts on the other, are somewhat rougher and less elegant than these. They usually possess a full peaty flavour. (b) Patent-still or grain whiskies are, as a class, lighter in flavour and "body" than the pot-still types. This is due to the fact that the rectification of these whiskies is carried a good deal further than is the case with the "malt." They are made from a mixture of malted and unmalted cereals, and, as no peat is employed in the curing of the malt, they lack the "smoky" flavour of the other varieties. Some controversy has arisen as to whether these patent-still spirits have a right to the name of "whisky" or "Scotch whisky," but although no doubt, this controversy is largely due to conflicting trade interests, it has also, in the author's opinion, been caused by a very general popular misconception as to the true character of these whiskies. The idea that they are true "silent" or "neutral" spirits—i.e. alcohol and water pure and simple—is quite incorrect. They possess a distinct flavour, which varies at different distilleries, and analysis discloses the fact that they contain very appreciable quantities of the "secondary" products which distinguish potable spirits from plain alcohol. Indeed, as a result of an extensive investigation of the question.

### Composition of Scotch Whiskies

*Note.*—The figures below are based on a large number of analyses of typical samples. Cf. Schidrowitz and Kaye, _Journal Soc. Chem. Ind._ (June 1905). Where two figures are given in the same column, they do not indicate extremes, but merely normal variation.

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<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>(Results expressed in grams per 100 litres of absolute alcohol)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alcohol</td>
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<td><strong>Highland Malts</strong></td>
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<td>New light type</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
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1 The Islays give similar figures to the Highland Malts except that the Higher Alcohols and Furfural are slightly higher.
by the author, it has been shown that the relative proportion of "secondary" products in Highland Malt, Lowland Malt and "grain" whiskies respectively, is roughly as 3 : 2 : 1. The figures in the foregoing table illustrate, as far as we are at present able to determine them, the general composition of the various types of Scotch whiskies referred to.

The character of Scotch whisky is much influenced by the manner in which it is matured. Chief among the factors in this connexion is the nature of the cask employed. The main varieties are plain wood, sherry and refill casks. Technically the term "plain" wood is applied to a cask made from seasoned oak which has contained no other liquor than whisky. Similarly the term "sherry" wood is as a rule only applied to a cask the wood of which has become impregnated with sherry by contact with that wine, and which has not been used in any other manner. A sherry cask which has been filled with whisky, then emptied and "refilled" with whisky, is known as a "refill." Brandy and Madeira "wood" are also occasionally employed.

The nature of the atmospheric conditions of the cask, is also of importance in determining character and quality (see SPIRITS).

Blending.—Scotch whiskies are, as a general rule, "blended" prior to marketing by the public. By "blending" is understood the art of putting together different types and varieties of whisky to form a harmonious combination. The general run of "self" whiskies—i.e. whiskies from a single distillery—do not appear to be a public taste, but by combining different kinds of whisky blenders have succeeded in producing an article the demand for which has increased enormously during the past quarter of a century, and which may now be regarded as a staple beverage in all English-speaking countries. The great expansion of the Scotch whisky trade of late years is undoubtedly due in the main to the introduction of blending on scientific lines.

There are different types of blenders. In some a Highland Malt, in others an Islay, in others again a "grain" flavour may predominate, but, generally speaking, the aim of the blender is to produce an article in which no single constituent comes through—"i.e. is markedly apparent. The whiskies produced by blending a number of "vatted" whiskies. A "vatt" is produced by blending a number of whiskies of the same style or type, for instance, ten or fifteen Highland Malts from different distilleries. The "vatt" is allowed to mature before being blended with other types to form the final blend. The better-class blends contain, as a general rule, 50 to 60% of Highland and Lowland Malts, 10 to 20% of Islay, and about 20 to 40% of "grain" whisky.

A typical high-class blend would, on analysis, show figures such as follows: Alcohol, 45 to 48% by vol.; total acid, 30 to 50; non-volatile acid, 20 to 30; esters, 30 to 60; higher alcohols, 120 to 170; aldehydes, 15 to 25; furfural, 2 to 5.

Irish Whisky.—Irish pot-still whisky is sharply differentiated from the Scotch variety in that (a) the raw materials employed are generally composed largely of unmalted grain, (b) the malt is not peat-cured, (c) the process of distillation is entirely different both as regards method and apparatus (see SPIRITS). The result is that whereas Scotch whisky possesses a characteristic dry, clean flavour, Irish whisky is round and sweet, with a full ethereal bouquet. The general run of Irish pot-still whiskies are made with 30 to 50% of malted barley, the balance being rye, oats, unmalted barley and wheat. A few distilleries employ malted barley only, but the product so liqueur than whisky. Of the different methods employed and the absence of peat curing—is quite different from Scotch malt whisky. The Irish "grain" or "patent still" whiskies are made in a manner practically identical with that employed for Scotch "grain," but as a class they are somewhat lighter as regards flavour and body than the latter. Irish whiskies are not classified territorially, although occasionally the distinction of "Dublin" or "Country makes" is recognized in the trade. Broadly speaking, however, the differences between Irish whiskies are not due to class, but to individual variation.

American Whisky.—There are two main varieties of American whisky, namely, Rye whisky, the predominant raw material in the manufacture of which is rye, and Bourbon or corn whisky, made mainly from Indian corn (maize). Both varieties possess a much higher flavour and greater body than the Scotch or Irish whiskies, due partly to the class of raw material employed, and partly to the method of distillation. Broadly speaking, the American self (so-called "straight") whiskies contain double the quantity of secondary or "by" products present in Scotch or Irish whiskies.

American whiskies are almost invariably stored in very heavily charred barrels, which, while it very appreciably affects the flavour, is necessary, inasmuch as it is doubtful whether it would be possible to mature these exceedingly heavy whiskies within a commercially reasonable time without the cleansing and purifying effect of the charred wood formed by the burning of the cask. Even with the aid of the charred cask, the average maturation time of the American pot-still whiskies is certainly two or three years longer than that of Scotch and Irish whiskies. (P. S.)

Composition of Irish Whiskies (Analyses by Schidrowitz and Kaye).

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<tr>
<td>Dublin Whiskies—</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Pot-still (new)</td>
<td>71.72</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Trace</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pot-still (new)</td>
<td>74.11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Pot-still (new)</td>
<td>60.47</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Patent-still (new)</td>
<td>70.75</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Trace</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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1 Irish whisky is generally distilled at about 90 O.P., and reduced with water to 25 O.P. prior to storage. 2 Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 represent different distilleries.
WHIST, a game at cards. The etymology of the name is disputed. Possibly it is of imitative origin, from whist (Hast! Hast! Silence!). "It is called Whist from the silence that must be observed in it." (Cotton's Pastime Gamester). In the inimitative a card game called triumphi or trump was commonly played in England. A game called triumphi is mentioned as early as 1526, and triumphi Hispanicus in 1541. La triumphi occurs in the list of games played by Gargantua (Rabelais, first half of 16th century). In Giovanni Florio's World of Words (1598) triumfo is defined as "the play called trump or ruff." It is probable that the game referred to by the writers quoted is la triumphi of the early editions of the Académie des jeux. It is important to note that this game, called by Charles Cotton "French ruff," is similar to écarté. "English ruff and honours," also described by Cotton, is similar to whist. If we admit that ruff and trump are convertible terms, of which there is scarcely a doubt, the game of trump was the precursor of whist. A purely English origin may, therefore, be claimed for trump (not la triumphi). No record is known to exist of the invention of this game, nor of the mode of its growth into ruff-and-honours, and finally into whist. The earliest reference to trump in English is believed to occur in a sermon by Latimer, "On the Card," preached at Cambridge, in Advent, about the year 1520. He says, "The game that we play at shall be the trump. It was played by four players, pair by pair, your trump is your heart, on this card." InGammer Garden's Needle (1575) Dame Chat says, "We be fast set at trump." Eliot (Fruits for the French, 1593) calls trump a "very common alehouse trick." Richard Price or Rice (Insective against Vices, 1579) observes that "renouncing the trompe and comming in againe" (i.e. revoking intentionally) is a common sharper's trick. Cotton in his Compleat Gamester says, "He that can by craft overlook his adversary's game hath a great advantage." Thomas Dekker (Belman of London, 1608) speaks of the decepts practised at "trump and such like games." Trump also occurs in Astley and Cleobadra (written about 1607), with other punning allusions to card-playing— "She, Eros, has Packed cards with Caesar, and false-played my glory Unto an enemy's triumph."—Act iv.

Ruff-and-honours, if not the same game as trump, was probably the same with the addition of a score for the four highest cards of the trump suit. A description of the game is first met with in The Compleat Gamester (1674) by Cotton. He states that ruff-and-honours (alias slam) and whist are games very commonly played between married couples and friends, and that they were "an admirable fit for recreation, and was a reasonable means to encourage the knowledge of the rules." Cotton explains that trump was "a game invented for the purpose of improving the skill of players; and that the score, or trump, was added to the score, or trump, that the player was bid to make, in order to increase the stakes in case of failure."

He says, "The ruff-and-honours... was the game then [1685] in chief vogue." Francis Grose (Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue, 1785) states that swabbers are "the ace of hearts, knave of clubs, ace and ducie of trumps at whist." The true function of the swabbers is not positively known; it is probable that the holders of these cards were entitled to receive a certain stake from the other players. Swabbers dropped out of general use during the 18th century. The points of the game rose from nine to ten ("nine all," Cotton, 1775; see for mention according to the present standard of play," the popular practice with an alteration, or closely following it, the entire pack of fifty-two cards was used, the deuces being no longer discarded. This improvement introduces the odd trick, an element of great importance in modern whist. Early in the 18th century whist was not a fashionable game. The Hon. Daines Barrington (Archaeologia, vol. viii.) says it was the game of the servants' hall. Contemporary writers refer to it in a disparaging way, as being only fit for hunting men and country squires, and not for fine ladies or people of quality. According to Barrington, whist was frequently played at card parties by the literati, who frequented the Crown Coffee House in Bedford Row, London, about 1728. They laid down the following rules: "Lead from the strong suit; study your partner's hand; and attend to the score." Shortly afterwards the celebrated Edmond Hoyle (q.v.) published his Short Treatise (1742). It has been surmised by some that Hoyle belonged to the Crown Coffee House party. This, however, is only a conjecture. There is abundant evidence to show that, in the middle of the 18th century, whist was regularly played at the coffee houses of London and in fashionable society. From the latter the name of the game was transferred to the country, until the introduction of bridge, which has to a large extent replaced it, but which has much in common with it.

"It will be of interest to mark the successive stages through which whist passed from the time of Cotton. The only suggestions as to the play in Cotton are that, "though you have but mean cards in your own hand, yet you may play them so suitable to those in your adversary's hand, that he may either trump them or play the best of that suit"; and that, "you ought to have a special eye to what cards are play'd out, that you may know by that means either what to play if you lead or how to trump securely and advantageously." It was at this period that the game was introduced, or heard of, as a means of making winning cards, and to watch the fall of the cards with these objects. In the rules laid down by the Crown Coffee House school a distinct advance is to be noticed. Their first rule, "Lead from the strong suit," shows a sound knowledge of the game. Their second rule, "Study your partner's hand," though sound, is rather vague. Their third rule, "Attend to the score," is more valuable. From the Crown Coffee House school to Hoyle is rather a wide jump; but there is no intervening record. Hoyle in his Short Treatise endorses and illustrates the "Crown" rules. He also brought the doctrine of probabilities to bear on the game, as he gave a number of cases which show a remarkable insight into the play.

About 1770 was published William Payne's Maxims for Playing the Game of Whist. The advance in this book is decided, as it presents the rules of leading invariably from five trumps and the return of the highest card from three held originally. Matthew's Advice to the Young Whist-Player (anon, 1804) repeats the "maxims of the old school," with "observations on those he thinks erroneous, and "with several new ones," but some of the maxims which he thinks erroneous are now generally allowed to be correct.

Soon after Matthews wrote the points of the game were cut down from ten (long whist) to five (short whist). Clay's account of this change is that, about the beginning of the 19th century, Lord Peterborough having lost a large sum of money, the players proposed to make the game five up, in order to give the loser a chance of recovering his loss. The new game, short whist, was found to be so lively that it soon became general, and eventually superseded the long game. "Coelebs" (Laws and Practice of Whist, 1811), who quotes Matthews formerly calling it "a game of chance," calls it by its first printed in his second edition (1836) an explanation of the call for trumps. Calling for trumps was first recognized as part of the game by the players at Graham's Club about 1810. Long whist may be said to have died about the same time, "the French" being in the change in the style of play, as recorded by James Clay in The Laws of Short Whist, and a Treatise on the Game (1864).

Whist then travelled, and about 1830 was known and the best French went about, with hats on their heads, modified and improved the old-fashioned system. They were but little influenced by the traditions of long whist, and were not content merely to imitate the English. The French players preferred the "old school," who vehemently condemned its rash trump leads; those who adopted the practice of the new school were found to be winning players.

The late William Pole (Philosophy of Whist, 1858) remarks that the long experience of adepts had led to the introduction of many improvements in detail since the time of Hoyle, but that nothing had been
done to reduce the various rules of the game to a systematic form until 1860, when A. J. Young made a thorough investigation of whist, and in 1862 Henry Jones, one of the members of this "little whist school," brought out a work, under the pseudonym of "Cavendish," which "gave for the first time the rules which have been adopted in all the modern forms of the game." The little school was first brought prominently to notice by an article on whist in the Quarterly Review of January 1862, which had been treated by Jones as the art of the game depended on the practice of a number of arbitrary conventions. But it was now shown that all rules of whist play depend upon and are referable to general principles. Hence, as soon as general principles and the reasons for their adoption were argued, players began to discuss and to propose innovations on the previously established rules of play.

A further development was the introduction of the system of discarded "high" cards protected and led off from the weakest, when the adversaries have the command in trumps. Soon after this (1872) followed the "echo" of the call for trumps, and contemporaneously with the echo the lead of the penultimate card from suits of five cards or more, not including the ace, a lead that was so vigorously opposed by some players that "the grand battle of the penultimate" ensued. The old players indeed regarded the new system with the same horror as they had formerly displayed with respect to the French school, stigmatizing it not only as an innovation, but as a private understanding, and even as cheating! Even Clay, the greatest player of his day, was at first an opponent of the penultimate lead. But the shot at the penultimate (General Day's "Practical Whist," 1879) was the first to propose an analogous system, namely, that six cards in a suit, not including the ace, could be shot by one player and the penultimate then treated as if it was a trump, though it was, did not at first find favour. Before this (1874-1875) leads from high cards, having regard to the number held in the suit, had not escaped attention, several innovations being introduced, but no one of them came into universal adoption at once, and training all leads, and to classify isolated rules so as to render it possible to lay down general principles. This was done in 1883-1884 by Nicholas Browse Treut of New Orleans, who introduced the system of "American leads." American leads propose a systematic course of play when opening and continuing the lead from the strongest suit. First, with regard to a low card led. When you open a strong suit with a low card, the suit is led on the fourth best. When opening a four-card suit with a low card, the lowest, which is the fourth best, is the card selected. When opening a five-card suit with a low card, the penultimate suit is selected. Instead of calling it the penultimate, call it the fourth best. So with a six-card suit; but, instead of antepenultimate, say fourth best. And so on with suits of more than six cards: disregard all the small cards and lead the fourth best. Secondly, with regard to a high card led, followed by a low card, lead your original fourth best. The former rule was to proceed with the lowest. Thus, from ace, knave, nine, eight, seven, two, the leader was expected to open with the ace and then the four. An American leader would lead ace, then eight. Thirdly, with regard to a high card led, followed by a high card. When you remain with two high indifferent cards, lead the higher if you opened a suit with the lower; if you opened a suit with the higher, lead the lower. A player who adopts this system notifies by it to his partner that, when he originally leads a low card, he holds exactly three cards higher than the one led, but if he originally leads a high card, and his partner holds only one, he still holds exactly two cards higher than the second card led; and when he originally leads a high card, and follows it with a high card, he indicates in many cases, to those who know the analysis of leads (as laid down in whist books), whether the strong suit consisted originally of four or of more than four cards. (See Whist Developments, by "Cavendish," 1885.)

These leads led to an overhauling of the play of the second and third hands, which became apparently so complicated as to deter players of moderate ability from plunging into its intricacies. This fact, combined with the introduction of the fascinating and simpler games of bridge, caused a distinct revival in the popularity of whist during the last decade of the 19th century.

Whist (i.e. modern "short" whist) is played with a full pack of 52 cards. The ace is the lowest, except when it is the highest. Thus, from ace, king, queen, &c., in order, down to the two. Four persons play, but with only three or two players the game can still be played with certain modifications (so called "hand whist"). The players draw a card each and the one who gets the lowest deal, and has choice of cards and seats. The player who draws the lowest next is his partner; if two or more players draw cards of equal value, they cut again, the lowest remaining with the original lowest. The cards are then cut and dealt one from one by one from left to right. The last card is turned up to show the trump suit. In America the trump suit is sometimes cut for, the card then being replaced in the pack before shuffling (blind trump). A misdeal passes the deal, and at the end of each hand it passes in any case to the player on the left. At the end of the first trick the dealer takes the turned trump card into his hand. If he fails to do so, the card may be called to any who may have overlooked it, and the next player on his left leads. It is compulsory for the others to follow suit if possible, under penalty for "revoking" (by which the adversaries may either add three to their score, deduct three from the defaulting side, or take three tricks of theirs and add them to their own). A player who cannot follow suit may play any card he chooses to the trick unless he has exposed a card and the adversaries call it. The highest card, or trump (if one is played), wins the trick, the winner leading to the next trick. When all the cards have been played the tricks gained by each side are counted, each trick over six counting one. Six tricks are called a "book," honours—ace, king, queen, knave—also count to the score, but a side which has a score of four at the beginning of a hand cannot score for honours. Tricks count before honours; thus if one side has a score of one and holds four honours, while the other has a score of four and makes the odd trick, the latter wins a double, the honours not counting, as the game has already been won by tricks. The scores for honours are as follows, but some players halve these scores, or, particularly in America, do not count honours at all. This is a matter of arrangement. If one side holds two to four "white," he scores one point if his partner holds none, two points if his partner holds one, three points if his partner holds two, four if his partner holds three, and five if his partner holds four. However, the only score which is deducted is that of an opposing side; hence, when the white side loses three tricks, the score to be deducted is that of the opposing side. If both sides hold two there is no score, honours being divided, or "easy." A rubber consists of the best of three games, unless one side wins the first two games. A game consists of five points. Thus if one side makes nine tricks and holds three honours it scores a game—three points by tricks (or "by cards") and two by honours—but if a revoke has been made, i.e. if a player, holding a card of the suit led, has played a card of another suit, the revoking side cannot score more than four, whatever its score in points may be. The side that wins the rubber scores two points in addition to its score in points, thus three to the victors, one to the defeated. A "treble," a game in which the adversaries have no score; two points for a "double," i.e. when the adversaries have made one or two; one point for a "single," i.e. when they have made three or four. Thus two trebles and the rubber (or "rub") count eight points; treble, single and the rub count six points.

If the losers have won a game, its value is deducted. Sometimes, by arrangement, the rubber points are raised to four. At the end of a rubber, or, by arrangement, of two rubbers, the players cut again for partners. If others wish to join the table the original players cut, the highest gets two points; it is not customary, for more than three to join. The play is continued until the last rubber, the non-vacate at the end of the next rubber, they now take the place of the other original pair, who leave without cutting. When only one player "cuts in," the other three retire by rotation, decided by cutting, and come back in their turn. If more than four players wish to form a table, they cut first to see who shall stand out, the highest retiring; they then cut afresh for partners. 

"Dummy Whist" is played by three players, two being partners and the other playing with dummy, whose cards, which must be dealt face downwards, are exposed on the table before the play begins. Dummy has the first deal in every rubber. His cards being exposed he is not considered able to revoke; if he does, there is no penalty, nor is his partner liable for any mistake of his own whereby he cannot profit, e.g. by exposing a card; but if he leads from the wrong hand, a suit can be called. At Double Dummy each player has a dummy partner, and there is no misdeal, as the deal is a disadvantage.

The leads and the play of the different hands have been so minutely systematized that some of the various tricks, which any one who wishes to become proficient, but some broad general rules may be useful to the beginner. The original leader should lead from his strongest, which is almost always his longest suit, but if his longest suit contains only four cards and is also the trump suit, opinions differ, though most players would observe the general rule. The same rule applies to subsequent first leads of a suit, unless they have to be modified owing to information derived from earlier leads. This is a "trump" suit, the third or fourth trick may have to sacrifice his lead of his strongest suit in response to a "call for trumps" by his partner. Such a lead is
called a "forced" lead, and from three cards the highest should immediately be claimed, but you may claim only the first of the second lead, but from four the lowest should be led. This lead of the highest from three applies to all forced leads, whether they are due to a "call," or to the fall of the cards already played. As a host rule, a partner should always lead if he can have the third heart, but if you have the king also, lead it first; from a five suit without the ace lead the worst but one. With ace and two or three small ones, lead a small one; with ace and one small one, the ace. The second lead, then, is to be judged by the same rules as the first. If the lead be a small one, and he holds the ace, he should play the ace; also holding queen and king, he should play the queen, or with knave, queen and king, the knave. A player who holds the "little trump," or as it is termed in Maxims, generally sound play to put the knave on the ten. With king and one other, or queen and one other, most players advocate the play of the small card; some would play the king under these conditions, but not if the king be led first. The state of the score may affect the play. If it is important to get the lead, so as to lead trumps, the honour should be played, but as a rule the second hand reserves his strength. The third hand should win the trick if he can, as he knows that his partner's card is the winning one; consequently he generally plays his highest card. The fourth hand should win the trick if he can, as a player is justified in passing a trick only if by so doing he is absolutely sure of winning it.

Returned Leads.—A partner's lead should be returned at once, unless one has a strong suit of one's own, in which event it is advisable to lead a card of it, to guide one's partner as to future leads. The general rule is that the first lead of a partner should be returned at once, but if the partner holds three cards originally in his partner's suit he should invariably return the higher of the two left in his hand after that lead. Thus holding ace, three, and king, he should win the ace, and then return the three; if the two falls afterwards, his partner will know that he holds no more. So, with ace, knave, ten only, win the ace and return the knave, though from a scoring point of view it is better to return the ten first; and in this way you will make your ten the highest, unless a card is led. You will return the lowest, but a winning card should always be led or played in the second round, unless there is any special reason for retaining it. If your partner has called for trumps and you get the lead, with four healthy suits, lead the best card you have. If your partner has called for trumps and you get the lead, and there be only three healthy suits, lead the best card if the ten, or else return the second highest. This is universal in trumps (and also applies to forced leads from three-card suits) even if ace, king and another trump be held by both players. If, however, one adversary has obviously played his last trump, a third round is not always advisable, as two trumps will fall from the leader and his partner, and only one from the adversaries. On the other hand it is generally good play to draw two opposing trumps for one, so that they may not make separately.

In the play of a hand never play an unnecessarily high card—unless you are "calling." Thus, holding ten and knave, play the ten; your partner will infer that if you do not hold the nine, king may hold the knave, and even the queen as well, though all the cards are of equal value for making tricks. Similar inferences should be drawn from playing color. A host would not lead the king, as the monarch is always an imitative trump; better play false cards unless you see your partner is so weak that it can do no harm to deceive him; in such a case, with knave and ten, the knave may be played. It is a maxim that information given by play is more valuable than any information obtained in the course of conversation. The only exceptions are Trumping or "Ruffing" and Discarding. The second player should not trump a doubtful card (i.e. a card that his partner might be able to beat), if he is strong in trumps; if weak, he should trump. A winning card from an adversary should be trumped in any case. With weak trumps, it is bad play to "force" one's partner, i.e. invite him to trump; but with strong trumps force him. If your partner refuses to return an adverse lead, you have the only opportunity. If you have a "cross-ruff" (i.e. if you and your partner can trump different suits), those suits should be led alternately, and not trumps. Force an adversary who is known to be strong in trumps. A weak suit in trumps (three only) should be led if the adversaries have a cross-ruff, or if the game is hopeless unless partner is strong, or if winning cards are held in all plain suits, which might be trumps.

General Maxims. Play to the score. If winning the odd trick saves or wins the game, do not try risky combinations for the sake of getting two or three tricks. Count your cards before playing. If your partner "doubles," that is, if he asks if he has a card of the suit led, to save the revoke, announce the score when you mark it. Watch the fall of every card. Study the rules, especially those about penalties and consultation with a partner. If the partner is a clever player, do not give away the game, and you hold the winning card, play it, unless it be the winning trump, which is good at any time. Retain the trump-card if you can play others of equal trick-making value; your partner will lead one of the trump suit, in which event you must play a lower card than your highest in the third hand) in partner's suit, unless he leads a high card in an obviously forced lead. Lead through a known strong suit on your left, and (especially) up to a trump if you are sure of the suit on your partner left. Do not fine score a trick unless two lead the highest. Leading from a "singleton" (your only card in one suit), in order to be able to trump—sometimes disparagingly called 'Whitechapping' is not generally good play, and results badly unless the side is strong in trumps, but in some circumstances it is useful. Do not lead from a "tenace" (i.e. best and third best of a suit) if you have another equally good suit. Remember that what is a game of combination, and that tricks made by your partner are just as valuable to you as tricks made by yourself. Sort your hand so as to keep the suits separate, red and black alternately, keeping the cards each in order of their value.

Progressive Whist.—This form of the game is social rather than scientific, but is a pleasant variety on the ordinary round game. The laws provide, as a rule—first, second, and "booby" values for kings, and also values for the honours, not for the players, but for the players, and for each player the honours are the two that make the fewest points. Any number of tables may be formed. Partners are selected by lot, two ladies and two gentlemen being the usual form of table. This can be done by means of sets of tickets of different colours, numbered identically. No. 1 pairing with No. 1 and so on. After the first round there is no drawing for partners, as will be seen. The holders of all tickets are given a copy of each table, and the first number that is drawn is led. Only one pack of cards is needed at each table, but every player should be provided with a scoring card and pencil. The players at all the tables cut for deal, but no dealing is begun before a signal has come from the master of the table. The highest marked trump is led. Honours are not counted. The score is marked by the number of tricks made, or the winner may mark all tricks above six. The game is divided into two rounds, and the tables from No. 1 to No. 2, from No. 2 to No. 3 and from the last table to No. 1. Partners are formed afresh, the gentleman who has just won playing with the lady who has just lost, and vice versa. Play may last for one or more complete tables, or up to a given number of tricks in a table, indicated by a signal, after which no fresh hand is begun. The scores are then added up and the prizes awarded. In playing the ordinary rules of whist are observed.

A printed existence was first given to the laws of whist by Hoyle in 1743. The fourteen laws then issued were subsequently increased to twenty-four. These laws were the authority until 1760, when the members of White's and Sanders's Chocolate Houses revived them. The revised laws (nearly all Hoyle) were accepted by whist players for over a century, notwithstanding that they were very incomplete. The laws of short whist, a more comprehensive code of the game, was first put forth by the Portland Whist Club in 1846, and became the accepted standard, small modifications only having been introduced since. The latest edition of the rules should be consulted for what is not indicated in the text.

See Principles of Whist, Slated and Explained, by "Cavendish" (London, 1902), the most authoritative work.

WHISTLE, the shrill warbling sound made by forcing the breath through the lips, contracted to form a small orifice, or produced by means of an instrument of the whistle type; also generally, any similar shrill, hissing or warbling sound, as of a bird's note, of wind through trees, ropes, &c. The O. Eng. huskian, whistle, and huskle, whistler, piper, are closely allied to huskrian or huskstrian, to whistle, to speak softly or under one's breath; and boards are imitate warbling notes, gor, shrill sound, cf. Ger. wisteln, to whisper. Dan. kistle, to whistle. The instrument known as a "whistle" takes many forms, from...
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the straight flute and flageolet type made of wood or metal and pierced with holes, to the metal signalling pipe used for signalling on board ship or by policemen. Similarly the term is used of the instruments sounded by the escape of steam on a locomotive or other engine and on steamships, &c., as a means of giving signals.

WHISTLER, JAMES ABBOTT MCNEILL (1834–1903), American artist, was born at Lowell, Massachusetts, on the 10th of July 1834. His father was Major C. W. Whistler, and his mother one of the Baltimore family of Winans. He was first born of in Europe in 1832, when he had already been an art student, in Paris, in the studio of Gleyre. His first etchings, those known as “The French Set,” were the means of bringing him under the notice of certain people interested in art, but the circulation of these first, like that of his later etchings, has always, of necessity, been more limited than their fame. The impressions from each plate are generally few. It was still in etching that Whistler continued his labours, and, coming to London in 1859, it appears, he almost at once addressed himself to the chronicle of the quaint riverside buildings and the craft of the great stream—the Thames “below Bridge.” The “French Set” had included De Hooch-like or Nicholas Maes-like genre pieces, such as “La Vieille aux loques,” the “Marchande de moutarde,” and “The Kitchen,” this last incomparably improved and perfected by the retouching that was accomplished a quarter of a century after the first performance. The Thames series of sixteen etchings, wrought chiefly in 1859, disclosed a new vision of the river, in which there was expressed, with perfect draughtsmanship, with a hitherto unparalleled command of vivacious line, the form of barge and clipper, of warehouse, wharf and waterside tavern. “The Pool,” “Thames Police” and “Black Lion Wharf” are perhaps the finest of this series. Before it was begun, Whistler, ere he left Paris, had proceeded far with a plate, existing only in the state of trial proof, and, in that, of extreme rarity. It is called “Paris, Ile de la Cité,” and has distinct and curious manifestations of a style to be more generally adopted at a later period. For several years after the completion of the “Sixteen Etchings,” Whistler etched comparatively little; but about 1875 we find him entering what has been described as his “Leyland period,” on account of his connexion with the wealthy shipowner and art patron, Mr Frederick R. Leyland, of Prince’s Gate, whose house became famous for Whistler’s Peacock Room, painted in 1877. In that period he worked greatly in dry-point. The “Model Resting,” one of the most graceful of his figure pieces, and “Fanny Leyland”—an exquisite instance of girl portraiture—are notable performances of this time. To it also belong the largely conceived dry-points, so economical of means and endowed with so singular a unity of effect, the “London Bridge” and “Price’s Candle-works.” A little later came the spirited and archly sensuous “the Wharf at Battersea and Putney, and the plate “The Adam and Eve,” which records the river-front of old Chelsea. This, however, is only seen in perfection in the most rare proofs taken before the publication by the firm of Hogarth. From these plates we pass almost imperceptibly to the period of the Venetian etchings, for in 1879, at the instance of the Fine Art Society, Whistler made a sojourn in Venice, and here he wrought, or, to speak accurately, commenced, not only the set of prints known as the “Venice Set,” but also the “Twenty-six Etchings,” likewise chiefly, though not wholly, of Venice—issued later by the firm of Dowlceswell. One or two of the minor English subjects of the “Twenty-six Etchings”—those done after the artist’s return from Venice—give indications of the phase reached more clearly in certain little prints executed a few years later, and, with perhaps one exception, never formally published. “Fruit Shop,” “Old Clothes Shop,” and “Fish Shop, busy Chelsea,” belong to this time. Later, and bent upon doing justice to quite different themes, which demand different methods, the ever flexible artist again changes his way, and—not to speak of his dainty little records of the places about the Lute, which in method have affinity with the pieces last named—have

1 Whistler quarrelled with Leyland, and eventually painted his life-size portrait as a devil with horns and hoofs.

“Steps, Amsterdam,” “Nocturne, Dance House,” with its magical suggestion of movement and light, and the admirable landscape “Zaandam.” With the mention of these things may fitly close a sketch of Whistler’s periods in etching; but before proceeding to other branches of his work, the main characteristics of the whole series of etchings (of which, in Wedmore’s Whistler’s Etchings, nearly 300 examples are described) should be briefly indicated. These main characteristics are precision and vivacity; freedom, flexibility, infinite technical resource, at the service of the most alert and comprehensive observation of an eye that no picturesqueness of light and shade, no interesting grouping of line, can ever escape—an eye, that is, that is emancipated from conventionality, and sees these things therefore with equal willingness in a cathedral and a mass of scaffolding, in a Chelsea shop and in a suave nude figure, in the façade of a Flemish palace and in a “great wheel” at West Kensington.

Mr. Whistler’s pictures have as a chief source of their attractiveness those mental qualities of alertness and emancipation. Charm of colour and of handling enhance the hold which they obtain upon such people of taste as may be ready to receive them. There are but very few of them, however, at least very few oil pictures, when one considers the number of years since the artist began to labour; and one notable fact must be at once understood—the admitted masterpieces in painting belong almost entirely to the earlier time. “Sarasate” is an exception, and “Lady Archibald Campbell,” and in its smaller, but still charming, way “The Little Rose of Lyme Regis”; but even these—save the “Little Rose” —are of 1859 or thereabouts. A few years earlier than they are the “Committee,” the “Miss Alexander,” and the “Rosa Corder,” and the Thames “Nocturnes”; but we go farther back to reach the “Portrait of the Painter’s Mother,” which is now in the Luxembourg; the “Portrait of Carlyle,” now at Glasgow; the “Cremorne Gardens,” the “Nocturne, Valparaiso Harbour,” the “Music Room,” with little Miss Annie Haden standing by the piano while her mother plays, and the “White Girl,” or “Little White Girl,” in which Whistler shows the influence, but never the domination, of the Japanese. Of the slight but always exquisitely harmonious studies in water colour, undertaken by Whistler in his middle period, none call for special notice. To the middle time, too, belong, not perhaps all of his slight but delicately modelled pastels of the figure, but at least his more universally accepted pastels of Venetian scenes, in which he caught the sleepy beauty of the Venetian by-way. In pastel, as in painting, in water colour and in etching, Whistler has never been unmindful of the particular qualities of the medium in which he has worked, nor of the applicability of a given medium to a given subject. The result, accordingly, is not now a victory and now a defeat, as in the early work, but a triumph where the artist has come to terms with the resource of triumphs great and small. One other medium taken up by Whistler must now be mentioned. His lithographs—his drawings on the stone in many instances, and in others his drawings on that “lithographic paper” which with some people is the easy substitute for the stone to-day—are perhaps half as numerous as his etchings. Mr T. R. Way has catalogued about a hundred.

Some of the lithographs are of figures slightly draped; two or three of the very finest are of Thames subjects—including a “nocturne” at Limehouse, of unimaginable and poetic mystery; others are bright and dainty indications of quaint prettiness in the old Faubourg St Germain, and of the sober lines of certain Georgian churches in Soho and Bloomsbury. An initiator in his own generation, and ever tastefully experimental, Whistler no doubt has found enjoyment in the variety of the mediums he has worked in, and in the variety of subjects he has brilliantly tackled. The absence of concentration in the Whistlerian temperament, the lack of great continuity of effort, may probably prove a drawback to his taking exactly the place as a painter of oil pictures, which, in other circumstances, his genius and his taste would most certainly have secured for him. In the future Whistler must be accounted, in oil painting, a master exquisite but rare. But the number and the range of his etched subjects and the extraordinary variety of perception and of skill which
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He has brought to bear upon the execution of his nearly three hundred coppers, ensure, and have indeed already compassed, the acceptance of him as a master among masters in that art of etching. Rembrandt’s, Van Dyck’s, Meryon’s, Claude’s, are, in fact, the only names which there is full warranty for pronouncing beside his own.

No account of Whistler’s career would be complete without a reference to his extremely controversial personality. In 1878 he brought a libel action against Ruskin for his criticisms in *Fors Clavigera* (1877). Ruskin had denounced one of his nocturnes at the Grosvenor Gallery as “a pot of paint flung in the public face.” After a long trial, Whistler was awarded a farthing damages. His examination caused much interest, especially in artistic circles, on account of his attitude in vindication of the purely artistic side of art; and it was in the course of it that he answered the question as to how long a certain “impression” had taken him to execute by saying, “All my life.” His eccentricity of pose and dress, combined with his artistic arrogance, sharp tongue, and bitter humour, made him an object of derision and talked-about men in London, and his mots were quoted everywhere. He followed up his quarrel with Ruskin by publishing a satirical pamphlet, *Whistler v. Ruskin: Art v. Art Critics*. In 1885 he gave his Ten o’Clock Lecture in London, afterwards embodied in *The Gentle Art of Making Enemies* (1890). The substance of this flippantly written and amusing outburst was an insistence on the liberty of the artist to do what was right in his artistic eyes, and the inability of the public or the critics to have any ideas about art worth considering at all. In 1895 appeared a pamphlet entitled, *Whistler et de son cas: l’affaire de portrait*. Whistler had painted, but refused to hand over, came into the courts in Paris; and Whistler, though allowed to keep his picture, was condemned in damages. In later years he lived mainly in Paris, but he returned to live in London in 1902; and he died on the 17th of July 1903 at 74 Cheyne Walk, Chelsea. In 1888 he married Mrs Goodwin, widow of E. W. Goodwin, the architect, and daughter of J. B. Philip, the sculptor; she died in 1896, leaving no children. In 1886 he became president of the Royal Society of British Artists (a title at which afterwards he scoffed); and he took a leading part later in founding the International Art Society, of which he was the first president. His “Nocturne in blue and silver” was presented to the National Gallery after his death by the National Art Collection Fund.


WHISTON, WILLIAM (1667–1752), English divine and mathematician, was born on the 9th of December 1667 at Norton in Leicestershire, of which village his father was rector. He was educated privately, partly on account of the delicacy of his health, and partly that he might act as amanuensis to his father, who had lost his sight. He afterwards entered at Clare College, Cambridge, where he applied himself to mathematical study, and obtained a fellowship in 1693. He became chaplain to John Moore (1656–1714), the learned bishop of Norwich, from whom he received the living of Lowestoft in 1668. He had already given several proofs of his noble but overscrupulous character, and at the expense of his pen to the expense of paradox. His *New Theory of the Earth* (1669), although destitute of sound scientific foundation, obtained the praise of both Newton and Locke, the latter of whom justly clasped the author among those who, if not adding much to our knowledge, “at least bring some new things to our thoughts.” In 1701 he resigned his living to become deputy at Cambridge to Sir Isaac Newton, whom two years later he succeeded as Lucasian professor of mathematics. In 1707 he was Boyle lecturer. For several years Whiston continued to write and preach both on mathematical and theological subjects with considerable success; but his study of the *Apostolical Constitutions* had convinced him that Arianism was the creed of the primitive church; and with him to form an opinion and to publish it were things almost simultaneously. His heterodoxy soon became notorious, and in 1710 he was deprived of his professorship and expelled from the university. The rest of his life was spent in incessant controversy—thological, mathematical, chronological and miscellaneous. He vindicated his estimate of Galileo’s *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems* (1632), and defended it against the charges derived from them in *His Primitive Christianity Revised* (3 vols., 1711–1712). In 1713 he produced a reformed liturgy, and soon afterwards founded a society for promoting primitive Christianity, lecturing in support of his theories at London, Bath and Tunbridge Wells. One of the most valuable of his books, the *Life of Samuel Clarke*, appeared in 1730. While heretical on so many points, he was a firm believer in supernatural Christianity, and frequently took the field in defence of prophecy and miracle, including anointing the sick and touching for the king’s evil. His dislike of nation was in proportion to his desire to discover the longitude. Of all his singular opinions the best known is his advocacy of clerical monogamy, immortalized in the *Vicer of Wakefield*. Of all his labours the most useful is his translation of *Josephus* (1737), with valuable notes and dissertations, often reprinted. His last “famous discovery, or rather revival of Dr Giles Fletcher’s,” which he mentions in his autobiography with infinite complacency, was the identification of the Tatars with the lost tribes of Israel. In 1745 he published his *Primitive New Testament*. About the same time (1747) he finally left the Anglican communion for the Baptist, leaving the church literally as numerically as figuratively by quitting it as the clergyman began to read the Athenian creed. He died in London, at the house of his son-in-law, on the 22nd of August 1752, leaving a memoir (3 vols., 1749–1750) which deserves more attention than it has received, both for its characteristic individuality and as a storehouse of curious anecdotes and illustrations of the religious and moral tendencies of the age. It does not, however, contain any account of the proceedings taken against him at Cambridge, these having been published separately at the time.

Whiston is a striking example of the association of an entirely paradoxical bent of mind with proficiency in the exact sciences. He also illustrates the possibility of arriving at rationalistic conclusions in theology without the slightest tincture of the rationalistic temper. He was not only paradoxical to the verge of craziness, but intolerant to the verge of bigotry. “I had a mind,” he says, “to hear Dr (John) Gill preach. But, being informed that he had written a folio book on the Canticles, I declined to go to hear him.” Whiston was not engaged in controversy he was not devoid of good sense. He often saw men and things very clearly, and some of his bon mots are admirable.

WHITAKER, JOSEPH (1820–1893), English publisher, was born in London on the 4th of May 1820, and apprenticed to a bookseller at the age of fourteen. After leaving school he worked in book-keeping firms, he began business on his own account as a theological publisher. In January 1858 he started the *Bookseller*, and for 1860 published the first issue of *Whitaker’s Almanack*, the annual work of reference, which also met with immediate success. In 1874 he published the first edition of the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*, of which several editions have since appeared. Whitaker died at Enfield on the 15th of May 1893. He had been the father of fifteen children.

WHITBREAD, SAMUEL (1759–1815), English politician, came of a Berkshire Nonconformist family; his father had made a considerable fortune as owner of the well-known brewery associated with his name. Educated at Eton and St John’s College,
Cambridge (after originally going to Christ Church, Oxford), he began by entering the brewing business; but after his marriage with the daughter of the 1st Earl Grey in 1789 he took to politics, and in 1790 was elected for Bedfordshire as a Whig, attaching himself to Fox. He became known as a social and financial reformer and a constant assailant in parliament of all sorts of abuses. It was on his motion in 1803 that Lord Melville was impeached for financial maladministration of the navy, and he conducted the case for the prosecution. His Poor Law bill in 1807, an elaborate Radical scheme, came to nothing. Whitbread continued to be a constant speaker in parliament, and the principal representative of Liberal criticism, a monument of opposition tactics. He opposed the regency, championed the princess of Wales, and led the peace party; and the caricaturists were busy with his personality. In 1809 he became chairman of the committee for rebuilding Drury Lane theatre, and for some time he was immersed in controversies connected with it, which eventually seem to have unstrung his mind, for he committed suicide on the 6th of July 1815. The Whitbread influence in Life of politics continued to be very striking in Whitchurch in later generations, his son William Henry (from 1818 to 1837) and grandson Samuel (from 1852 to 1895) representing Bedford for many years.

**Whitby**, a seaport, watering-place and market town in the Whitby parliamentary division of the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, 245 m. N. from London, on the North-Eastern railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 17,755. There are a terminal station in the town and a station at West Cliff on the Saltburn branch. Whitby is beautifully situated at the mouth and on both sides of the Esk; the old town is built on the heights of picturesque houses standing on the steep slopes above the river, while the modern residential quarter is mainly on the summit of West Cliff. A long flight of steps leads up the eastern height to the abbey, the ruins of which gain a wonderful dignity from their commanding position. This was a foundation of Osy, king of Northumbria, in 658, in fulfillment of a vow for a victory over Penda, king of Mercia. It embraced an establishment for monks and (until the Conquest) for nuns of the Benedictine order, and under Hilda, a grand-niece of Edwin, a former king of Northumbria, acquired high celebrity. The existing ruins comprise parts of the Early English choir, the north transept, also Early English but of later date, and the rich Decorated nave. The west side of the nave fell in 1765 and the tower in 1830. On the south side are foundations of cloisters and domestic buildings. Adjoining the abbey is Whitby Hall, built by Sir Francis Cholmley about 1580 from the materials of the monastic buildings, and enlarged and fortified by Sir Hugh Cholmley about 1635. A little below the abbey is the parish church of St Mary, originally Norman, and retaining traces of the first building; owing to a variety of alterations at different periods, and the erection of high wooden pews and galleries, its appearance is more remarkable than beautiful. A modern cross in the churchyard commemorates St Caedmon, the Northumbrian poet (c. 670), who was a monk at the abbey and there died. Other features of the town are the pleasant promenades and gardens on West Cliff, the anti- quarian and geological museum, and an excellent golf course. The coast is cliff-bound and very beautiful both to the north and to the south, while inland the Esk traverses a lovely wooded vale, surrounded by open, high-lying moors. Whitby is a quiet resort, possessing none of the brilliance of Scarborough on the same coast. A large fishing industry is carried on from the harbour, which is formed by the mouth of the river and protected by two piers. The manufacture of ornaments from the jet found in the vicinity forms a considerable industry. The jet is a species of petrified wood found towards the bottom of the Upper Lias, and its use for the purpose of ornament dates from very early times. A former activity in shipbuilding is of interest through the recollection that here were constructed the ships for Captain Cook's voyages. Wooden ships and boats are still built, and rope-making and sail-making are carried on.

Whitby (Stromnesshoek c. 657-587; Presteke c. 857-1087); Whitby, & c. 857 onwards) is first mentioned by Bede, who states that a religious house was established here about A.D. 657. In the 9th century it was destroyed by the Danes, but being refounded became the centre of a Danish colony, and until late waste by the Conqueror was the most prosperous town in the district. Henry I. made a grant to the abbey and convent of Whitby of a burgage in the villa of Whitby, and Richard de Waterville, abbot 1175-1190, granted the town in free burgage to the burgesses. In 1200 King John, bribed by the burgesses, confirmed this charter, but in 1201, bribed by the successor of Richard de Waterville, quashed it as injurious to the dignity of the church of Whitby. A bitter struggle went on, however, till the 14th century, when a trial resulted in a judgment against the burgesses. In 1659 Whitby petitioned for incorporation on the ground that the town was in decay through want of good government and received letters patent giving them self-government. However, in 1674-1675 the crown, probably in gratitude for the part played by the Cholmeleys in the Civil War, restored to the lords of the manor all the liberties ever enjoyed by the abbots of Whitby in Whitby and Whitby Strand. Whitby became a parliamentary borough under the Reform Act of 1832, returning one member until it was disfranchised under the Redistribution of Seats Act 1885. At the beginning of the 14th century Sir Alexander Percy claimed the hereditary right of buying and selling in Whitby without payment of toll. The market was held time out of mind on Sunday until the reign of Henry VI., who changed the day to Saturday, still the market day. A fortnightly cattle market was granted by Charles I. Henry I. granted to the abbot of Whitby a fair at the feast of St Hilda and the king's firm peace to all coming to the fair. A second fair was granted by Henry VI. The fair is a great attraction, and the number of dealers is any longer held. There was a port at Whitby in the 13th century and probably before, and though never important there have always since been traces of Whitby shipping and merchandise. In medieval times the salting and sale of herrings and the sale of cod, fish and other products of the North Sea fishery were the only industries. Whale-fishing began in 1753.

See J. C. Atkinson, Memorials of Old Whitby (London, 1894); Lionel Charlton, History of Whitby (York, 1779); George Young, History of Whitby (Whitby, 1817); Victoria County History, Yorkshire, North Riding.

**Whitchurch**, a market town in the Newport parliamentary division of Shropshire, England, 171 m. N.W. from London on a joint line of the London & North-Western and Great Western railways, and the terminus of the Cambrian railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 5227. Malting and cheese-making are the principal industries. The church of St Alkmund, rebuilt in the 18th century, retains the fine tomb of John Talbot, first earl of Shrewsbury, who fell at the battle of Bordeaux (1453). The town hall and other public buildings are modern. The grammar school was founded in 1590, and here (c. 1591) Reginald Heber, Bishop of Calcutta, was educated. The parish of Whitchurch extends into Cheshire.

Whitchurch was at first known as Westun and belonged before the Conquest to King Harold, but was afterwards granted to Earl Roger, of whom William de Warenne was holding it at the time of the Domesday Survey. The name is said to have been altered to Whitchurch or Album Monasterium on account of a stone church built there soon after 1086. The manor appears to have been held by a younger branch of the Warenne family, from whom it passed by marriage to the families of Lestrange and Talbot. It was sold by the Talbots to Thomas Egerton, from whom it passed to the earls of Bridgewater and eventually to the present owner, Earl Brownlow. Whitchurch is mentioned as a borough in the 14th century, and was governed by a bailiff, but its privileges, which sprang up with the castle, appear to have disappeared after its decay. The town has never been represented in parliament nor noted for any trade except agriculture. In 1228 John Fitz-Alan received the right of changing the day of the market he held at Whitchurch from Thursday to Monday, and in 1562 a fair lasting three days from the feast of SS. Simon and Jude was granted to John Lestrange. Lord Brownlow granted the market rights to the local authority.
WHITE, ANDREW DICKSON (1832- ), American educationalist, was born in Homer, New York, on the 7th of November 1832. He graduated at Yale (A.B.) in 1853, studied at the Sorbonne in 1854, and at the University of Berlin in 1855-1856, meanwhile serving as attaché at the United States Legation at St Petersburg in 1854-1855. He was professor of history and English literature in 1857-1863, and lecturer on history in 1863-1867 at the University of Michigan. In 1864-1867 he was a member of the New York state Senate, and as chairman of the Committee on Education took an active part in formulating the educational features of the bill under which Cornell University (q.v.) was incorporated (1865). At Mr Cornell's suggestion Mr White drew up a plan of organization for the institution, and in 1867 became its first president, which post he held continuously until 1885, when therefrom he was a member of the board of trustees and of its executive committee. During his administration he greatly strengthened the curriculum of the university, to which he gave his architectural library, and, upon his retirement, his historical and general library of about 20,000 volumes (including bound collections of pamphlets) and about 3000 unbound pamphlets, which was installed in a special room in the main library building of the university.

In recognition of this gift the departments of history and political science of the university have been named the President White School of History and Political Science. In 1870 President Grant appointed Benjamín F. Durley (2 vols., New York, 1905) as most of the personal correspondence, and visited Santo Domingo and reported on the advisability of the president's project for annexing it to the United States, and in 1885 he was appointed by President Cleveland a member of the commission established to determine the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana. Dr White was United States minister to Germany in 1879-1881, and to Russia in 1882-1894, and was United States ambassador to Germany in 1897-1903. In 1889 he was president of the American delegation at the Hague Peace Conference. He received the degree of D.L. from the University of Michigan (1867), from Cornell (1880), from St Andrews, Scotland (1902), from Johns Hopkins (1902), and from Dartmouth (1896); L.H.D. from Columbia (1879) and D.C.L. from Oxford (1902). He was also made an officer of the Legion of Honour, was awarded the royal gold medal of Prussia for arts and sciences in 1902, was president of the American Historical Association, of which he was a founder, in 1884, and was actively identified with various other learned bodies.

His publications include The Greater States of Continental Europe (1874); A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology (2 vols, 1875); his Autobiography (2 vols., New York, 1905) and Seven Great Statesmen (1910).

WHITE, SIR GEORGE STUART (1835- ), British field marshal, the son of an Irish country gentleman, was born in County Antrim on the 6th of July 1835. He was educated at Sandhurst, and in 1853 joined the Inniskillings, with which regiment he served in India during the Mutiny in 1857. In the second Afghan War (1878-80) he was second in command of the Gordon Highlanders, whom he led in their charge at the battle of Charsaddah. For conspicuous gallantry in this action, and again in the Eastern campaign at Kandahar, he received the Victoria Cross. In 1881 he assumed command of the Gordon Highlanders, and took part in the Nile Expedition of 1884-85. As brigadier in the Burmese War (1885-87) he rendered distinguished service, for which he was promoted major-general; and when Sir Frederick (afterwards Lord) Roberts returned to India from Burma in 1887, White was left in command of the force charged with the duty of suppressing the dacoits and pacifying the country. This he accomplished with a thoroughness which earned the thanks of the government of India. He was in command of the 3rd Brigade in the Boer War, and in 1893 he succeeded Lord Roberts as commander-in-chief in India; and during his tenure of this office directed the conduct of the Chitral expedition in 1895 and the Tirah campaign in 1897. In the latter year he was made G.C.B. and in 1898 G.C.S.I. Returning to England in 1898 he became quartermaster-general to the forces; and on the outbreak of the Boer War in 1899 he was given command of the forces in Natal. He defeated the Boers at Elandslaagte on the 21st of October 1899 and at Krantzfontein on the 24th; but the superior numbers of the Boers enabled them to invest Ladysmith, which Sir George White defended in a siege lasting 119 days, from the 2nd of November 1899 to the 1st of March 1900, in the course of which he refused to entertain Sir Redvers Buller's suggestion that he should arrange terms of capitulation with the enemy (see Ladysmith, Siege and Relief of). After the relief of Ladysmith, White, whose health had been impaired by the siege, returned to England, and was appointed governor of Gibraltar (1900-1904). King Edward VII, who visited the fortress in 1903, personally gave him the baton of a field marshal. In 1905 Sir George White was appointed governor of Chelsea Hospital, and in the same year was decorated with the Order of Merit.

See T. F. C. Coates, Sir George White (1900).

WHITE, GILBERT (1720-1793), English writer on natural history, was born on the 18th of July 1720 in the little Hampshire village of Selborne, which his writings have rendered so familiar to all lovers of either books or nature. He was educated at Basingstoke under Thomas Warton, father of the poet, and subsequently at Oriel College, Oxford, where in 1744 he was elected to a fellowship. Ordained in 1747, he became curate at Swarraton the same year and at Selborne in 1751. In 1752 he was nominated Junior Fellow of his college. In 1753 he accepted the curacy of Durley, and in 1757 he was a candidate for the provostship of Oriel, but failed to secure election. Soon afterwards he received the college living of Moreton Pinkney, though he did not reside there, and in 1761 he became curate at Farlingdon, near Selborne, a position which he held until in 1784 he again became curate in his native parish. He died in his home, The Wakes, Selborne, on the 26th of June 1793.

Gilbert White's daily life was practically unbroken by any great happenings or incidents; for nearly half a century his pastoral duties, his watchful country walks, the assiduous care of his garden, and the scrupulous posting of his calendar of observations made up the essentials of a full and delightful life, but hardly of a biography. At most we can only fill up the portrait by reference to the tinge of simple old-fashioned scholarship, which on its historic side made him an eager searcher for antiquities and among old records, and on its poetic occasionally stirred him to an excursion as far as that gentlest slope of Tarnassus inhabited by the descriptive muse. Hence we are thrown back upon that correspondence with brother naturalists which has rankled in the few and its correspondence with other antiquities, and not only with his eldest brother, but with Linnaeus. The youngest, Henry, was vicar of Fyfeld, near Andover. The sister's son, Samuel Barker, also became in time one of White's most valued correspondents. With other naturalists, too, he had intimate relations: with Thomas Pennant and Daines Barrington he was in constant correspondence, often too with the botanist John Lightfoot, and sometimes with Sir Joseph Banks and others, while Richard Chandler and other antiquaries kept alive his historic zeal. At first he was content to furnish information from which the works of Pennant and Barrington largely profited; but gradually the ambition of separate authorship developed from a suggestion thrown out by the latter of these writers in 1770. The next year White sketched to Pennant the project of 'a natural history of my native parish, an annus historico-naturalis, comprising a journal for a whole
year, and illustrated with large notes and observations. Such a beginning might induce more able naturalists to write the history of various districts and might in time occasion the production of a work so much to be wished for—a full and complete natural history of these kingdoms.” Yet the famous Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne did not appear until 1789. It was well received from the beginning, and has been reprinted time after time.

To be a typical parish natural history so far as completeness or order is concerned, it has of course no pretensions; butches of letters, an essay on antiquities, a naturalist’s calendar and miscellaneous jottings of all kinds are but the un systematized material of which the book was composed. Yet there is in this very piecemeal character that its popularity has been due. The style has the simple, yet fresh and graphic, directness of all good letter-writing, and there is no lack of passages of keen observation, and even shrewd interpretation. White not only notes and ways, the times and seasons, of plants and animals—comparing, for instance, the different ways in which the squired, the fieldmouse and the nut-hatch eat their hazel-nuts—or watches the migrations of birds, which were then only beginning to be properly recorded or understood, but he knows more than any other observer until Charles Darwin about the habits and the usefulness of the various insects. The notes that pass along the hedge and the dew are to be learned. The book is also interesting as having appeared on the borderland between the medieval and the modern school of natural history. Scientifically it was old-fashioned; the old classification without entering on the technical and analytic character of the opening age of separate monographs. Moreover, as the first book which raised natural history into the region of literature, much as the Encyclopaedics, which that must generally consider as the more finished products of later writers like Thoreau or Richard Jefferies. Yet, while these are essential merits of the book, its enduring charm lies deeper, in the sweet and kindly personality of the author, who, on his rambles gathers no spoil, but watches the birds and field-mice without disturbing them from their nests, and quietly plants an acorn where he thinks an oak is wanted, or sows beechnuts in what is now a stately row. He overflows with anecdote, seldom indeed gets beyond the anecdotal stage, yet from this all study of nature must begin; and he sees everywhere intelligence and beauty, love and sociality, where a later view of nature insists primarily on monotony of habit, interests or powers. Also he is essentially an encyclopaedic interest in nature, although in White’s day culminating in the monumental synthesis of Buffon, was also disappearing before the analytic specialization inaugurated by Linnaeus; yet the cathartic interests of the simple naturalist of Selborne are fully regained a century later in the greater naturalist of Down, Charles Darwin.

The Life and Letters of Gilbert White of Selborne, by his great-grandnephew, Rashleigh Hold-White, appeared in 1901.

WHITE, HENRY KIRKE (1785-1856), English poet, was born at Nottingham, the son of a butcher, on the 21st of March 1785. He was educated for his father’s trade, but, after a short apprenticeship to a stocking-weaver, was eventually articled to a lawyer. Meanwhile he studied hard, and his master offered to release him from his contract if he had sufficient means to go to college. He received encouragement from Capel Lofft, the friend of Robert Bloomfield, and published in 1803 Clifton Grove, A Sketch in Verse, with other Poems, dedicated to Georgian, duchess of Devonshire. The book was violently attacked in the Monthly Review (February 1804), but White was in some degree compensated by a kind letter from Robert Southey. Through the efforts of his friends, he was entered as a sizar at St John’s College, Cambridge, spending a year beforehand with a private tutor. Close application to study induced a serious illness, and fears were entertained for his sanity, but he went into residence at Cambridge, with a view to taking holy orders, in the autumn of 1805. The strain of continuous study proved fatal, and he died on the 19th of October 1806. He was buried in the church of All Saints, Cambridge. The genuine piety of his religious verses secured a place in popular hymnology for some of his hymns. Most of them, due to his study inspired by his early death, but it is noteworthy that Byron is said to have agreed to work with Southey in forming a high estimate of the young man’s promise.

His Remains, with his letters and an account of his life, were edited (3 vols., 1809-1827) by Robert Southey. Sir Harris Nicolas to his Poetical Works (new cd., 1860) in the “Aldine Edition” of the British poets; by H. K. Swann in the volume of selected works (Centerbury) by which the book is included in the饮 Water of the edition in the “Muses’s Library.” See also J. T. Godfrey and J. Ward, The Homes and Haunts of Henry Kirke White (1908).

WHITE, HUGH LAWSON (1772–1840), American statesman, was born in Iredell county, North Carolina, on the 30th of October 1773. In 1812 he crossed the mountains into East Tennessee (then a part of North Carolina) with his father James White (1737–1819), who was subsequently prominent in the early history of Tennessee. Hugh became in 1796 secretary to Governor William Blount, and in 1792–1793 served under John Sevier, governor against the Creek and Cherokee Indians, and in the battle of Etowah (December 1793), according to the accepted tradition, killed with his own hand the Cherokee chief Kingfisher. He studied in Philadelphia and in 1796 he was admitted to the bar at Knoxville. He was a judge of the Superior Court of Tennessee in 1801–1807, a state senator in 1807–1809, and in 1809–1815 was judge of the newly organized Supreme Court of Errors and Appeals of the state. From 1812 to 1827 he was president of the State Bank of Tennessee at Knoxville, and managed it so well that for several years during this period it was the only western bank that in the trying period during and after the War of 1812 did not suspend specie payments. In 1821–1824 he was a member of the Spanish Claims Commission, and in 1825 succeeded Andrew Jackson in the United States Senate, serving until 1826 and being president pro temp. in 1832–1834. In the Senate he opposed internal improvements by the Federal government and the recharter of the United States Bank, favoured a protective tariff and Jackson’s coercive policy in regard to nullification, and in general supported the measures of President Jackson, though his opposition to the latter’s indisposition to appoint a successor, and the increase of localism and Jackson, which was increased by White’s refusal to vote to expunge the resolutions of a former Senate censuring the president. In 1830, as chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs, he secured the passage of a bill looking to the removal of the Indians to lands west of the Mississippi. He was opposed to Van Buren’s candidate for the presidency in 1836, was himself nominated in several states as an independent candidate, and received the twenty-six electoral votes of Tennessee and Georgia, though President Jackson made strong efforts to defeat him in the former state. About 1838 he became a Whig in politics, and when the Democratic legislature of Tennessee instructed him to vote for Van Buren’s sub-treasury scheme he objected and resigned (Jan. 1840). His strict principles and his conservatism won for him the sobriquet of “The Cato of the United States Senate.” He died at Knoxville on the 10th of April 1840.

See Nancy N. Scott (ed.), A Memoir of Hugh Lawson White (Chattanooga, 1844).

WHITE, JOSEPH BLANCO (1775–1841), British theologian and poet, was born at Selvice on the 11th of July 1775. He was educated for the Roman Catholic priesthood; but after his ordination (1800) religious doubts led him to escape from Spain to England (1810), where he ultimately entered the Anglican Church, having studied theology at Oxford and made the friendship of Arnold, Newman and Whately. He became tutor in the family of the last-named when he was made archbishop of Dublin (1831). While in this position he embraced Unitarian views; and he found an asylum amongst the Unitarians of Liverpool, where he died on the 26th of May 1841.

White edited El Espláid, a monthly Spanish magazine in London, from 1810 to 1814, and afterwards received a civil list pension of £550. His principal writings are Dobrado’s Letters from Spain (1822); Evidence against Catholicism (1823); Second Travels of an Irish Gentleman in Search of a Religion (2 vols., 1834); Observations on Heresy and Orthodoxy (1835). They all show literary ability, and were extensively read in their day. He also translated parts of the Book of Common Prayer into Spanish. He is best remembered, however, by his sonnet “Night and Death” (“Mysteries Night! when our first parent knew”), which was dedicated to S. T. Coleridge on its appearance in the Bijou for 1828 and has since found its way into several anthologies. Three versions are given in the Academy of the 12th of September 1801.

WHITE, R. G.—WHITE, T.

WHITE, RICHARD GRANT (1822-1885), American Shakespearian scholar, philologist and essayist, was born in New York city, on the 23rd of May 1822. He graduated at the university of the City of New York in 1839, studied medicine and then law, and was admitted to the bar in 1845, but made no serious attempt to practice. He contributed anonymously to the New York Courier and Enquirer, of which he was co-editor in 1851-1858, and became a member of the staff of the New York World, when that paper was established in 1860. In 1861-1878 he was chief of the United States Revenue Marine Bureau, for the district of New York. When he was 21 years old he wrote his sonnet, "Washington: Pater Patriae," which, published anonymously, was frequently ascribed to Wordsworth, and by William Cullen Bryant was ascribed to Landor; White did not admit his authorship until 1852. In 1853 he contributed anonymously to Putnam's Magazine (October and November), an acute and destructive criticism of Collier's folio manuscript emendations of Shakespeare; and in the following year this criticism was republished (with other matter) in his Shakespeare's Scholar: being Historical and Critical Studies of his Text, Characters, and Commentaries; with an Examination of Mr Collier's Folio of 1623. During the Civil War he contributed to the Spectator, under the pseudonym, "A Yankee," a series of articles which greatly influenced English public opinion in favour of the North, while his clever and pungent satire, The American Shakespeare (1866)—also published anonymously—was an effective attack upon "copper-headism" and the advocates of "peace at any price." He died in New York on the 8th of April 1885.

In addition to those mentioned above, his Shakespearean publications include, Essay on the Authorship of the Three Parts of King Henry VI. (1853), Memoirs of the Life of William Shakespeare; with an Essay towards the Expression of his Genius, and an account of the Rise and Progress of the English Drama to the Time of Shakespeare (1865); an annotated edition of Shakespeare's works in 3 vols. (1883), and Studies in Shakespeare (1885), pleading for a rational treatment of the plays, without over-annotation, textual or aesthetic. On linguistic subjects he wrote Words and their Uses, Past and Present (1870), and a sequel, Every Day English (1880), which without linguistic thoroughness, stimulated interest in the general subject of good use in language. His other publications include National Hymns: How they are Written and How they are not Written (1861), containing some of the best and worst of 1000 hymns submitted to a committee of professional writers for a prize; a poem written for a national hymn; Poetry, Lyrical, Narrative and Satirical, of the Civil War (1866); The Fall of Man; or, The Loves of the Gorillas, By a Learned Gorilla (1871); Chronicles of Gotham. By U. Doornen Olferts, a Dutchman (1880), Eight Quakers, England Without and Within (1881), and The Fate of Mansfield Humphreys (1884), a novel. For estimates of White's critical writing see the review of Shakespeare's Scholar in the Eclectic Magazine, vol. xxxiv. (1855); and the articles in the Atlantic Monthly, vol. xx. (1882) by E. P. Whipple, and vol. livi. (1886).

His son, STANFORD WHITE (1833-1906), the famous architect, studied under Henry H. Richardson, whom he assisted in the designing of Trinity Church, Boston, and became a member of the New York firm of McKim, Mead & White in 1881. He designed the Madison Square Garden, the Century and Metropolitan Clubs in New York City, the buildings of the New York University and the University of Virginia, and the pedastals for the statue of St Paul at St S. Gaudens. He was murdered by Harry Haw in 1896.

WHITE, ROBERT (1645-1704), English engraver and draughtsman, was born in London in 1645. He studied engraving under David Loggan, for whom he executed many architectural subjects; his early works also include landscapes and engraved title-pages for books. He acquired great skill in portraiture, his works of this class being commonly drawn with black-lead pencil upon vellum, and afterwards excellently engraved in line. Portraits executed in this manner he marked at every turn and ridge, artfully concealed for their artistic merit and their authenticity. Vincent has ascribed to him 275 portraits by White, including the likenesses of many of the most celebrated personages of his day; and nine portraits engraved in mezzotint are assigned to him by J. Chaloner Smith. White died at Bloomsbury, London, in 1704. His son, George White, who was born about 1671 and died about 1734, is also known as a draughtsman and portraitist, and Engravings by him are in the Bibliothèque nationale at Paris. White engraved a large number of the portraits in his father's works.

WHITE, SIR THOMAS (1492-1567), founder of St John's College, Oxford, was a son of William White, a colthier, and was born at Reading. At an early age he became a merchant in London and was soon a member, and then master of the Merchant Taylors Company; growing wealthier he became an alderman and sheriff of the city of London. One of the promoters of the Muscovy Company, he was knighted in 1553, and in October of the same year he was chosen lord mayor. His term of office fell in a strenuous time. He had to defend the city against Sir Thomas Wyatt and his followers, and he took part in the trial of the rebels, as just previously he had done in the case of Lady Jane Grey. In 1555 White received a licence to found a college at Oxford, which he endowed with lands in the neighbourhood of the city and which, dedicated to the Virgin Mary and St John Baptist, was opened in 1560. Soon after this event Sir Thomas began to lose money, and he was comparatively poor when he died at Oxford on the 12th of February 1567. His later years were mainly spent in Oxford, and he was buried in the chapel of St John's College. White had some share in founding the Merchant Taylors' School in London. He was twice married, but left no children. A portrait of him hanging in the hall of St John's College and one on glass, painted in the 16th century, is in the old library. Several early lives of him are among the college manuscripts. Sir Thomas must be distinguished from another Sir Thomas White of South Warnborough, Hampshire, some of whose property, by a curious coincidence, passed also into the possession of St John's College.

WHITE, THOMAS (c. 1530-1624), English divine, was born at Bristol about 1530, the son of a clothier. He graduated from Magdalen Hall (now Hertford College), Oxford; in 1579; took holy orders, and, coming to London, became rector of St Gregory by St Paul's and shortly after vicar of St Dunstan's in the West. Several of his sermons, attacking play-going and the vices of the metropolis, were printed. He was a prebendary of St Paul's, treasurer of Salisbury, canon of Christ Church, Oxford, and canon of Windsor. In 1613 he built and endowed an almshouse, called the Temple Hospital, in Bristol. In 1621 he founded what is now known as White's chair of moral philosophy at Oxford, with a salary of £200 per annum for the reader, and several small exhibitions for scholars of Magdalen Hall. He was the first of Magdalen to give £1000 (in 1662) to support as a house of study the university scheme of "all the ministers, parson, vicar, lecturer and curate in London and its suburbs" (afterwards Sion College (q.v.)), and an almshouse, now abolished, and leaving bequests for lectureships at St Paul's, St Dunstan's and at Newgate.

WHITE, THOMAS (1628-1669), bishop of Peterborough, was born at Aldington in Kent, and educated at St John's College, Cambridge. Having taken holy orders, he became vicar of Newark-on-Trent in 1660, vicar of Allhallows the Great, London, in 1666, and vicar of Betteshorne, Leicestershire, in 1679. In 1684 he was appointed chaplain to the princess Anne, and in 1685 he was chosen bishop of Peterborough. In 1688 he joined the archbishop of Canterbury, William Sancroft, and five of his suffragan bishops in petitioning against the declaration of indulgence issued by James II., sharing the trial and the triumphant acquisit of his colleagues. In 1689 he refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary and was deprived of his see, but he did not become very active among the nonjurors. White died on the 30th of May 1698.

The bishop must be distinguished not only from the founder of Sion College, but also from Thomas White (1593-1676), philosopher and controversialist. Educated at St Omer, Valladolid and Douai, the latter was ordained priest in 1617, and taught for some years in the college at Douai. Later he was president of the English college at Lisbon. He died in London on the 6th
of July 1876. White was a voluminous writer; not only did he
engage in controversy with Protestants, but he attacked the
personal infallibility of the pope.

**WHITE, SIR WILLIAM ARTHUR** (1824-1891), British
diplomatist, was born at Pulawy, in Poland, on the 13th of
February 1824. He was descended on his father's side from an
Irish Roman Catholic family. His mother's family, though not
of that race, were of considerable influence in Poland, where
White, though educated at King William's College, Isle of Man,
and Trinity College, Cambridge, spent a great part of his early
days, and thus gained an intimate knowledge of the Slavonic
tongues. From 1843 to 1857 he lived in Poland as a country
gentleman, but in the latter year he accepted a post in the British
consul at Warsaw, and had almost at once to perform the
duties of acting consul-general. The insurrection of 1863 gave
him an opportunity of showing his immense knowledge of Eastern
politics and his combination of diplomatic tact with resolute
determination. He was promoted in 1864 to the post of consul
dat Danzig. The Eastern Question was, however, the great
passion of his life, and in 1875 he succeeded in getting transferred
to Belgrade as consul-general for Servia. In 1879 he was made
British Agent at Bucharest. In 1884 he was offered by Lord
Granville the choice of the legation at Rio or Buenos Aires, and
in 1885 Lord Salisbury, who was then at the Foreign Office,
urged him to go to Peking, pointing out the increasing import-
ance of that post. White's devoted friend, Sir Robert Morier,
wrote in the same sense. But White, who was already acting
as Counsel, was unwilling to leave his friends at Constantinople,
and during this year he rendered one of his most conspicuous
services. It was largely owing to his efforts that the war between
Servia and Bulgaria was prevented from spreading into a
universal conflagration, and that the union of Bulgaria and
eastern Rumelia was accepted by the powers. In the following
year he was rewarded with the embassy at Constantinople.
He was the first Roman Catholic appointed to a British embassy
since the Reformation. He pursued consistently the policy of
counteracting Russian influence in the Balkans by erecting a
barrier of independent states animated with a healthy spirit of
national life, and by supporting Austrian interests in the East.
To the furtherance of this policy he brought an unrivalled
knowledge of all the under-currents of Oriental intrigue, which
his mastery of languages enabled him to derive not only from the
newspapers, of which he was an assiduous reader, but from the
obscurest sources. His bluff and straightforward manner, and
the knowledge that with him the deed was ready to follow the
word, enabled him at once to inspire confidence and to overawe
less masterful rivals. The official honours bestowed on him
culminated in 1888 with the G.C.B. and a seat on the Privy
Council. He was also made a fellow of Trinity College, and as
principal assistant professor at Constantinople when he
was attacked by influenza during a visit to Berlin, where he died
on the 28th of December 1891.

**WHITE, SIR WILLIAM HENRY** (1845- ), English naval
architect, was born at Devonport on the 2nd of February 1845,
and at the age of fourteen became an apprentice in the dockyard
there. In 1864 he took the first place in the scholarship com-
petition at the Royal School of Naval Architecture, which had
then just been established by the Admiralty at South Kensington,
and in 1867 he gained his diploma as fellow of the school with
first-class honours. At once joining the constructive staff of the
Admiralty, he acted as confidential assistant to the chief con-
structor, Sir Edward Reed, until the latter's retirement in 1870.
The loss of the "Captain" in that year was followed by an
inquiry into designs for ships of war, and in connexion with this
White, together with his old fellow-student, William John,
worked out a long series of calculations as to the stability and
strength of vessels, the results of which were published in an
important paper read in 1871 before the Institution of Naval
Architects. In 1872 White was appointed secretary to the
Council of Construction at the Admiralty, in 1873 assistant con-
structor, and in 1881 chief constructor. In April 1883 he left
the service of the Admiralty, at the invitation of Lord (then Sir
W. G.) Armstrong, in order to undertake the difficult task of
organizing a department for the construction of warships of the
largest size at the Elswick works; but he only remained there
for two and a half years, for in October 1885 he returned to the
Admiralty in succession to Sir Nathaniel Barnaby as director of
naval construction, retaining that post until the beginning of
1902, when ill-health obliged him to relinquish the arduous labours
it entailed. During that period, which in Great Britain was one of unprecedented activity in naval shipbuilding as a result of the awakening of public opinion to the vital importance of sea-power, more than 200 vessels of various types were added to the British navy, at a total cost of something like 200 millions sterling, and for the design of all of these, as well as for the work of their construction, Sir William White was ultimately responsible.

In addition, he did much to further the knowledge of scientific
shipbuilding. He was professor of naval architecture at the Royal School from 1870 to 1873, and when in the latter
year it was moved to Greenwich to be merged in the Royal Naval
College, he reorganized the course of instruction and acted as
professor for eight years more. The lectures he gave in that
capacity were the foundation of his Manual of Naval Architecture,
which has been translated into several foreign languages and is
recognized as a standard text-book all over the world. Sir
William White, who was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society
in 1888, also read many professional papers before various
learned and engineering societies. He was created K.C.B. in
1895.

**WHITEAVES, JOSEPH FREDERICK** (1835— ), British
palaeontologist, was born at Oxford, on the 26th of December
1835. He was educated at private schools, and afterwards
worked under John Phillips at Oxford (1858-1861); he was led
to study the Oolitic rocks, and added largely to our knowledge
of the fossils of the Great Oolite series, Cornbrash and Corallian
visited Canada and made acquaintance with the geology of
Quebec and Montreal, and in 1863 he was appointed curator of
the museum and secretary of the Natural History Society of
Montreal, posts which he occupied until 1875. He studied the
land and freshwater mollusca of Lower Canada, and the marine
invertebrates of the coast; and also carried on researches among
the older Silurian (or Ordovician) fossils of the neighbourhood of
Montreal. In 1875 he joined the palaeontological branch of the
Geological Survey of Canada at Montreal; in the following
year he became palaeontologist, and in 1877 he was further
appointed zoologist and assistant director of the survey. In 1881
the offices of the survey were removed to Ottawa. His publica-
tions on Canadian zoology and palaeontology are numerous and
important. Dr Whiteaves was one of the original fellows of the
Royal Society of Canada, and contributed to its Transactions,
as well as to the Canadian Naturalist and other journals. He
received the hon. degree of LL.D. in 1900 from McGill University,
Montreal.

**WHITEBAIT,** the vernacular name of the small fish which
appears in large shoals in the estuary of the Thames during
the summer months, and is held in great esteem as a delicacy for
the table. Formerly whitebait was supposed to be a distinct species
of fish. T. Pennant and G. Shaw believed it to be some kind
of Cypriodin fish, similar to the bleak, whilst E. Donovan, in his
*Natural History of British Fishes* (1832-1868), misled by speci-
mens sent to him by the young fyr of herrings and sprats in
varying proportions mixed with a few shrimps, gobies, stickle-
backs, pope-fishes and young flounders; but these impurities
are as far as possible picked out from the whitebait before it is
marketed. The fishing is carried on from February to August, and samples taken in the successive months were found to contain the following percentages of herrings, the remainder being young sprats: 7, 5, 14, 30, 87, 75, 52. Hence it will be seen that sprats predominated in February, March, April and May, herrings in June and July. There is reason to believe that these young herrings are derived from a local “winter” race spawning about February and March, and having nothing to do with the great shoals of the many open sea spawning in the North Sea in November. The Thames being unequal to the supply of the large demand for this delicacy, large quantities of whitebait are now brought to London and other markets from many parts of the coast. In times past whitebait were considered to be peculiar to the estuary of the Thames; and, even after the specific identification of Thames whitebait with the young of the herring and sprat, it was still thought that there was a distinctive superiority in its condition and flavour. It is possible that the young fish find in the estuary of the Thames a larger amount of suitable food than on other parts of the coast, where the water may be of greater purity, but possesses less abundance of the minute animal life on which whitebait thrive. Indeed, Thames whitebait have been compared with that from the mouth of the Exe, the Cornish coast, Menai Strait, and the Firth of Forth seemed to be better fed; but, of course, the specific characteristics of the herring and sprat—into which we need not enter—are distinctively Thamesian.

The fry of fishes is used as an article of diet in almost every country: in Germany the young of various species of Cyprinoids, in Italy and Japan the young of nearly every fish capable of being readily captured in sufficient numbers, in the South Sea Islands the fry of Teuthis, in New Zealand young Galaxias are consumed at certain seasons in large quantities; and, like whitebait, these fry bear distinct names, different from those of the adult fish.

Whitebait are caught on the flood-tide from boats moored in from 3 to 5 fathoms of water. The net used is a bag something like a long, narrow and small-meshed towards the tail end, the mouth being kept open in the direction of the advancing tide by a framework 3 or 4 ft. It is placed alongside the boat and sunk to a depth of 4 ft. below the surface; from time to time the end of the bag is lifted into the boat, to empty it of its contents. The “schools” of whitebait advancing and retiring with the tide for days, and probably for weeks, have to run the gauntlet of a dozen of these nets, and therefore get very much thinned in number by the end of the season. When the view commenced to gain ground that whitebait were largely young herring, the question arose whether or not the immense destruction of the young brood caused thereby was injuriously affected the fishery of the mature herring. This point it does; but, since it has been ascertained that the herring is much more restricted in its migrations than was formerly believed, and that the shoals move perhaps as much as 20 miles a day, the inference is that the whitebait is methodically practised. Similar reasoning applies to sprats.

WHITEFIELD, GEORGE (1714-1770), English religious leader, was born on the 16th of December 1714 at the Bell Inn, Gloucester, of which his father was landlord. At about twelve years of age he was sent to the school of St Mary de Crypt, Gloucester, where he developed some skill in elocution and a taste for reading plays, a circumstance which probably had considerable influence on his subsequent career. At the age of fifteen he was taken from school to assist his mother in the public-house, and for a year and a half was a common drawer. He then again returned to school to prepare for the university, and in 1733 entered as a servitor at Pembroke College, Oxford, graduating in 1736. There he came under the influence of the Methodists (see Wesley), and entered so enthusiastically into their practices and habits that he was attacked by a severe illness, which compelled him to return to his native town. His enthusiastic piety attracted the notice of Martin Benson, bishop of Gloucester, who ordained him deacon on the 20th of June 1736. He then began an evangelizing tour in Bath, Bristol, and other towns, his eloquence at once attracting immense multitudes. In 1736 he was invited by Wesley to go out as missionary to Georgia, and went to London to wait on the trustees. Before setting sail he preached in some of the principal London churches, and in order to hear him, crowds assembled at the church doors long before daybreak. On the 28th of December 1737 he embarked for Georgia, which he reached on the 7th of May 1738. After three months’ residence there he returned to England to receive priest’s orders, and to raise contributions for the establishment of an orphanage. As the clergy did not welcome him to their pulpits, he began to preach in the open air. At Kingswood Hill, Bristol, his addresses to the colliers soon attracted crowds, and his voice was so clear and powerful that it could reach 20,000 folk. His fervour and dramatic action held them spell-bound, and his homely pathos soon broke down all barriers of resistance. “The first discovery of their being affected,” he says, “was by seeing the white gutters made by their tears, which plentifully fell down their black cheeks.” In 1738 an account of Whitefield’s voyage from London to Georgia was published without his knowledge. In 1739 he published his Journal from his arrival in Savannah to his return to London, and also his Journal from his arrival in London to his departure thence on his way to Georgia. As his embarkation was further delayed for ten weeks he published A Continuation of the Rev. Mr Whitefield’s Journal during the Time he was delayed in England by the Embargo. His unfavourable reception in England by the clergy led him to make replays. To Joseph Trapp’s attack on the Methodists he published in 1739 A Preparation against Unseated Notes, in which the clergy of the Church of England were denounced with some bitterness; he also published shortly afterwards The Spirit and Doctrine and Lives of our Modern Clergy, and a reply to a pastoral letter of the bishop of London in which he had been attacked. In the same year appeared Sermons on Various Subjects (2 vols.), the Church Companion, or Sermons on Several Subjects, and a recommendatory epistle to the Life of Thomas Halyburton. He again embarked for America in August 1739, and remained there two years, preaching in all the principal towns. He left his inheritance to take the new project to Savannah and the missionary court at Charleston suspended him for ceremonial irregularities. While there he published Three Letters from Mr Whitefield, in which he referred to the “mystery of iniquity” in Tillotson, and asserted that that divine knew no more of Christ than Mahomet did.

During his absence from England Whitefield found that a divergence of doctrine from Calvinism had been introduced by Wesley; and notwithstanding Wesley’s exterminations to brotherly kindness and forbearance he withdrew from the Wesleyan connexion. Thereupon his friends built for him near Wesley’s published wooden structure, which was named the Moorfields Tabernacle. A reconciliation between the two great evangelists was soon effected, but each thenceforth went his own way. In 1741, on the invitation of Ralph and Ebenezer Erskine, he paid a visit to Scotland, commencing his labours in the Secession meeting-house, Dunfermline. But, as he refused to limit his ministrations to one sect, the Seceders and he parted company, and without their countenance he made a tour through the principal towns of Scotland, the authorities of which in most instances presented him with the freedom of the burgh, in token of their estimate of the benefits to the community resulting from his preaching. From Scotland he went to Wales, where on the 14th of November he married a widow named James. The marriage was not a happy one. On his return to London in 1742 he preached to the crowds in Moorfields during the Whitson holidays with such effect as to attract nearly all the people from the shows. After a second visit to Scotland, June-October 1742 (where at Cambuslang in particular he wielded a great spiritual influence), and a tour through England and Wales, 1742-1744, he embarked in August 1744 for America, where he remained till June 1748. On returning to London he found his congregation at the Tabernacle dispersed; and his circumstances so depressed that he was obliged to sell his household furniture to pay his orphan-house debts. Relief soon came through his acquaintance with Selina, countess of Huntingdon (q.v.), who appointed him one of her chaplains.
The remainder of Whitefield's life was spent chiefly in evangelizing tours in Great Britain, Ireland and America. It has been stated that "in the compass of a single week, and that for years, he spoke in general forty hours, and in very many sixty, and to thousands.' In 1748 the synods of Glasgow, Perth and Lothian passed a general resolution to exclude him from their churches; in 1753 he compiled his hymn-book, and in 1756 opened the chapel which still bears his name in Tottenham Court Road. On his return from America to England for the last time he was placed in municipal 1850. 1758 wet or 42x153 and of 43x46 and 43x114 and employed during 43x231 northerm. found and 44x327 oratorical inhabiting orphanage "September 45x541 On 46x640 Lothian he stated 47x688 that his 47x708 died. 49x621 "WHITEHALL, Whitefield's 51x640 his 52x659 belonged to 54x249 fer a 55x259 vandesius) 56x429 W. 57x172 "WHITEFISH, has 58x492 Whitefield's 59x661 died. 60x251 from Derwentwater and Bassenthwaite lakes in Cumberland. About eight species are distinguished from the northern parts of North America. The Coregonus are mostly of small size, few of them attaining a length of 18 in. Secondary nuptial sexual characters are by no means so well marked as in Salmo, but pearl-like excrescences may appear on the scales during the breeding season, and are more prominent in males than in females. The Coregonus group are somewhat herring-shaped, silvery salmonids with small, toothless or feebly toothed mouth, and rather large scales. They are distributed over Europe, Asia and North America, some species living in the sea, but most inhabiting clear lakes. The highly esteemed 'lavaret' of Savoy, the 'felchen,' "kilch," "gangisch," "palee," "gravenche," "féa" or Switzerland and southern Germany, the "sik" of Sweden, belong to this genus, which is represented in British and Irish waters by the houting (C. oxyrhynchos), occasionally found in England. The Coregonus of Loch Lomond, Haweswater, Ullswater and Bal, the vendace (C. vandusius) of Lochmaben, and its newly described ally (C. gracilior) from Derwentwater and Bassenthwaite lakes in Cumberland. Whitehall is a village of Washington county, New York, U.S.A., in a township of the same name on the Poultney river and the Champlain Canal, at the head of Lake Champlain, and 78 m. by rail N. by E. of Albany. Pop. (1890) 4343; (1900) 4377, of whom 517 were foreign-born; (1905) 4148; (1910) 4017. Whitehall is served by the Delaware & Hudson railway, and is the N. terminus of the new large-canal system of New York state. It is situated in a narrow valley between two hills called West Mountain and Skene's Mountain, and Wood Creek flows through the village and empties into the lake with a fall, from which valuable water-power is derived; there are various manufactures, and the village owns and operates the water works. In 1759, to strengthen the British hold on Canada, a large tract of land at the S. end of Lake Champlain was granted to Colonel Philip Skene (1725-1810), who fought at Ticonderoga in 1758 and in 1759, and who established here in 1761 a settlement of about thirty families which he called Skensboro and which was patented in 1765. Skene was a Loyalist, and in May 1775 Skensboro was seized by a party of American volunteers. But it speedily recovered its footing (1777) Skene and his son, Andrew Philip Skene (1728-1826). In 1844 the settlement and Skensboro was recovered by the British after most of it had been burned by the Americans. At the close of the war Skene's estate was confiscated and in 1786 the place was named Whitehall. In the War of 1812 Whitehall was fortified and was a base of supplies for American operations against Canada. It was incorporated as a village in 1866.

**WHITEHAVEN, a municipal and parliamentary borough, seaport and market town of Cumberland, England, 41 m. S.W. of Carlisle. Pop. (1901) 19,324. It lies mainly in a valley opening upon the Irish Sea, with high ground to north, south, and west, and is served by the London & North-Western, the Cockermouth, Keswick & Penrith and the Furness railways. The harbour is protected by two main piers, of which the western is a fine structure by Sir John Rennie, and divided into four parts by others; it has a wet dock and extensive quarantine. Regular passenger communications are maintained with the Isle of Man. The exports are principally coal, pig iron and ore, steel and stone. The port was made subordinate to that of Maryport in 1802. There are collieries near the town, the workings extending beyond the town by the coal-mines and works, engineering works, shipbuilding yards, breweries, foundries, brick and earthenware works, and other industrial establishments in and near the town. The parliamentary borough returns one member. The municipal borough is under a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area 1810 acres.**

Whitehaven (Whithafen) was an insignificant possession of the priory of St Bee which became crown property at the dissolution of the religious houses. It was acquired before 1644 by relatives of the earl of Lonsdale, who secured the prosperity of the town by working the coal-mines. From 1708 the harbour was governed by twenty-one trustees, whose power was extended and municipalized by frequent legislation, until, in 1885, they were incorporated. In 1894 this government by incorporated trustees gave place to that of a municipal corporation created by charter in that year. The harbour was entrusted to fifteen commissioners. Since the Reform Act of 1832 Whitehaven has returned one representative to parliament. A weekly market and yearly fairs were granted to St John Lowther in 1666; two fairs were held in 1888; and the market days are now Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday. Whitehaven coal was sent chiefly to Ireland before the American war, and the export to Ireland was considerable, but the British soldier consumed large amounts of this coal, and during the American war naval stores were also exported. In 1800, when American war was declared, other exports were lime, freestone, and grain; West Indian, American and Baltic produce, Irish flax and Welsh pig iron were imported, and shipbuilding was a growing industry. Paul Jones, the notorious buccanneer, served his apprenticeship at the port, which in 1778 he successfully raided, burning three vessels.

**WHITEHEAD, WILLIAM (1725-1785), English poet-laureate, son of a baker, was born at Cambridge, and baptized on the 22th of February 1715. His father had extravagant tastes, and spent large sums in ornamenting a piece of land near Grantchester, afterward called known as "Whitehead's Garden," where William was his second son, and through the patronage of Henry Bromley, afterwards Lord Montfort, was admitted to Winchester College. In 1735 he entered Clare Hall, Cambridge, as a sizar, and became a fellow in 1742. At Cambridge Whitehead published an epistle "On the Danger of writing Verse" and some other poems, notably an heroic epic, _Ann Belamy to Henry the Eighth_ (1743), and a didactic _Essay an Ridicule_ (1743). In 1745 he became tutor to Viscount Villiers, son of the earl of Jersey, and took up his residence in London. He produced two tragedies: _The Roman Father_ (Drury Lane, 24th of February 1750), and _Emera_, _Queen of Athens_ (Drury Lane, 20th of April 1750), and _Cecusa, The plots are based respectively on the _Horace of Cornelle, and the Ion_ of Euripides. In June 1754 he went abroad with Lord Villiers, 1 Printed in _A Collection of Poems by several Hands_ (vol. ii., 1748).
and his companion Viscount Nunemach, son of Earl Harcourt, only returning to England in the autumn of 1756. In 1757 he was appointed poet-laureate in succession to Cibber, and proceeded to write annual effusions in the royal honour. That he was not altogether happy in his position, which was discredited by the fierce attacks made on his predecessor, Colley Cibber, appears from "A Pathetic Apology for all Laureates, past, present and to come." Charles Churchill attacked him in 1762, in the third book of The Ghost, as the heir of Dullness and Method. In the same year Whitehead produced his most successful work in the comedy of the School for Lovers, produced at Drury Lane on the 16th of February. This success encouraged David Garrick to make him his reader of plays. In November, he was admitted into the company of the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. The next year he wrote the first act of the play called The Trip to Scotland, which was performed on the 6th of January 1770. He collected his Plays and Poems in 1774. He had for some time, after his return from the Continent, resided in the house of his patrons, but from 1769 he lived in London, where he died on the 14th of April 1785. Beside the works already mentioned, Whitehead wrote a burlesque poem, The Sweeper, a number of verse contes, of which "Variety" and "The Goat's Beard" are good examples, and much occasional and official verse.

Several memoirs by his friend William Mason, prefixed to a complete edition of his poems (York, 1788). His plays are printed in Bell's British Theatre (vols. 1, 7, 20 and other collections, and his poems appear in Chalmers's Works of the English Poets (vol. 17) and similar compendia.

WHITE HORSE, VALE OF, the name of the valley of the Ock, a stream which joins the Thames from the west at Abingdon in Berkshire, England. The vale is flat and well wooded, its green meadows and foliage contrasting richly with the bald summits of the White Horse Hills, which flank it on the south. On the north a lower ridge separates it from the upper Thames valley; but local usage sometimes extends the vale to cover all the ground between the Cotswolds (on the north) and the Vale of White Horse (on the south). The vale is a topographical term, although, however, the vale is from 2 to 5 m. wide, and the distance by road from Abingdon to Shrivenham at its head is 18 m. Wantage is the only town in the heart of the vale, lying in a sheltered hollow at the foot of the hills, along which, moreover, villages are more numerous than elsewhere in the vale. Towards the west, above Ufton, the hills reach a culminating point of 806 ft. in White Horse Hill. In its northern flank, just below the summit, a gigantic figure of a horse is cut, the turf being removed to show the white chalky soil beneath. This figure gives name to the hill, the long and of the range, but it is of more archaeological than topographical interest, and it is said to stand on a bed of chalk three feet thick. The face was carved by some ancient heathen using the crudest tools to represent an animal, and no one knows its name. Tradition asserted it to be the monument of a victory over the Danes by King Alfred, who was born at Wantage; but the site of the battle, that of Ashdown (871), has been variously located. Moreover, the figure, with others of a similar character elsewhere in England, is considered to be of a higher antiquity, dating even from before the Roman occupation. Many ancient remains occur in the vicinity of the Horse. On the summit of the hill there is an extensive and well-preserved circular camp, apparently used by the Romans, but of earlier origin. It is named Ufton Castle from the village in the vale below. Within a short distance are Hardwick Castle, a square work, and, on the southern slope of the hills near Ashdown Park, a small camp traditionally called Alfred's. A smooth, steep gully on the north flank of White Horse Hill is called the Manger, and to the west of it rises a bald mound named Dragon's Hill, the traditional scene of St George's victory over the dragon, the blood of which made the ground bare of grass for ever. But the name, properly Pendaragon, is a Celtic form signifying "chief of kings," and may point to an early place of burial. To the west of White Horse Hill lies a cromlech called Wayland Smith's Cave, said to be the home of a smith who was never seen, but shod the horses of travellers if they were left at the place with payment. The legend is elaborated, and the smith appears as a character, in Sir Walter Scott's novel Kenilworth. The White Horse itself has been carefully cleared of vegetation from time to time, and the process, known as the "Scouring of the White Horse," was formerly made the occasion of a festival. Sports of all kinds were held, and keen rivalry was maintained, not only between the inhabitants of the local villages, but between local kalends and those from distant parts of England. The first of such festivals known took place in 1755, and they died out only subsequently to 1857. A grassy track runs beside the ancient road or Ridge Way along the crest of the hills continuing Icknield Street, from the Chiltern Hills to the north-east, across the Thames; and other earthworks in addition to those near the White Horse overlook the vale, such as Letcombe Castle above Wantage. At the foot of the hills not far east of the Horse is preserved the so-called Blowing Stone, a mass of sandstone with a hole through it, which according to legend is a trumpet loud note is produced. It is believed that in the earliest times the stone served the purpose of a bell. Several of the village churches in the vale are of interest, notably the fine Early English cruciform building at Ufton. The length of the vale is traversed by the main line of the Great Western railway, between Didcot and Swindon.

"See Thomas Hughes, The Scouring of the White Horse (1859)."

WHITEING, RICHARD (1840— ), English author and journalist, was born in London on the 27th of July 1840, the son of a civil servant. He was a pupil of Benjamin Wyon, medallist and engraver, and studied under him for a time, and wrote several books of papers in the Evening Star in 1866, printed separately in the next year as Mr Sprouts, His Opinions. He became leader-writer and correspondent on the Morning Star, and was subsequently on the staff of the Manchester Guardian, the New York World, and for many years the Daily News, resigning from the last-named paper in 1899. His novel The Democracy (3 vols., 1876) was published under the pseudonym of Whyte Thorne. His remarkable story The Island (1888) attracted little attention until, years afterwards, its successor, No. 5 John Street (1899), made him famous; the earlier novel was then republished. Later works were Mr Sprouts (1899), The Drop on the Wave (1900), and All Moonshine (1907).

WHITELEY, WILLIAM (1831—1907), English "Universal Provider," was born at Agbrig, near Wakefield, Yorkshire, on the 20th of September 1831, the son of a corn-factor. At the age of sixteen he was apprenticed to a firm of drapers at Wakefield. In 1851 he made his first visit to London to see the Great Exhibition, and was so impressed with the size and activity of the metropolis that he determined to settle there as soon as his apprenticeship was over. A year later he obtained a subordinate position in a draper's establishment in the city, and after studying the drapery trade in this and other London establishments for ten years, in 1863 himself opened a small shop for the sale of fancy drapery in Westbourne Grove, Bayswater. His capital amounted to about £700, which he had saved from his salaries and commissions, and he at first employed two young girls and an errand boy. Friends in the trade had assured him that Westbourne Grove was one of the two worst streets in London for his business, but Whiteley had noted the number and quality of the people who passed the premises every afternoon, and relied on his own judgment. Events justified his confidence, and within a year he was employing fifteen hands. He made a consistent practice of marking all goods in plain figures and of "dressing" his shop-window attractively, both unusual features in the retail trading of the time, and to this, coupled with the fact that he was satisfied with small profits, he largely attributed a success in which his own genius for organization and energy played a conspicuous part. In 1866 Whiteley added general drapery to his other business, opening by degrees shop after shop and department after department, till he was finally enabled to call himself the "Universal Provider," a term that there was nothing which his stores could not supply. "Whiteley's was, in fact, the first great instance of a large general goods store in London, held under one man's control. In 1899 the business, of which the profits then averaged over £100,000 per annum, was turned into a limited liability company; Whiteley retaining the bulk of the shares. On the 23rd of January 1907 he was shot dead, after an interview in his private
office, by Horace George Rayner, who claimed (but, as was proved, wrongly) to be his illegitimate son and who had been refused pecuniary assistance. Rayner was found guilty of murder, and sentenced to be hanged; but the home secretary (Mr Herbert Gladstone), in response to an agitation for his reprieve, commuted the sentence to penal servitude for life.

WHITELOCKE, SIR JAMES (1570–1632), English judge, son of Richard Whitelocke, a London merchant, was born on the 28th of November 1570. Educated at Merchant Taylors' School, London, and at St John's College, Oxford, he became a fellow of his college and a barrister. He was then engaged in managing the estates belonging to St John's College, Eton College and Westminster College, before he became recorder of Woodstock and member of parliament for the borough in 1610. In 1620 Whitelocke was made chief justice of the court of session of the county palatine of Chester, and was knighted; in 1624 he was appointed justice of the court of king's bench. He died at Fawley Court, near Reading, an estate which he had bought in 1616, on the 22nd of June 1632. His wife, Elizabeth, was a daughter of Edward Bulstrode of Hedgerley Bulstrode, Buckinghamshire, and his son was Bulstrode Whitelocke.

Sir James was greatly interested in antiquarian studies, and was the author of several papers which are printed in T. Hearne's Collection of his papers (1737). His journal of his journey to Spain, in 1618, and the manner in which he was attacked by a robber in the night, is related in the life of Sir John Bruce published by the Camden Society in 1856.

Whitelocke's elder brother, EDMUND WHITELOCKE (1569–1668), was a soldier in France and later a courtier in England. He was imprisoned because he was suspected of being concerned in the Gunpowder Plot, and although he was most probably innocent, he remained for some time in the Tower of London.

The soldier JOHN WHITELOCKE (1575–1833) was doubtless a descendant of Sir James Whitelocke. He entered the army in 1778 and served in Jamaica and in San Domingo. In 1805 he was made a lieutenant-general and inspector-general of recruiting, and in 1807 he was appointed to command an expedition sent to Hamburg from Harwich. He landed at the town, the city was stubbornly resisted, and then Whitelocke concluded an arrangement with the opposing general by which he abandoned the undertaking. This proceeding was regarded with great disfavour both by the soldiers and others in South America and in England, and its author was brought before a court-martial in 1808. On all the charges except one he was found guilty and he was dismissed from the service. He lived in retirement until his death on the 23rd of October 1833.

WHITELOCKE, BULSTRODE (1605–1675), English lawyer and parliamentarian, eldest son of Sir James Whitelocke, was baptized on the 10th of August 1605, and educated at Merchant Taylors' School and at St John's College, Oxford, where he matriculated on the 8th of December 1620. He left Oxford, without a degree, for the Middle Temple, and was called to the bar in 1626 and chosen treasurer in 1628. He was fond of field sports and of music, and in 1643 he had charge of the music in the great masque performed by the inns of court before the king and queen. Meanwhile he had been elected for Stafford in the parliament of 1626 and had been appointed recorder of Abingdon and Henley. In 1630 he was chosen member for Great Marlow in the Long Parliament. He took a prominent part in the proceedings against Strafford, was chairman of the committee of management, and had charge of articles XIX.–XXIV. of the impeachment. He drew up the bill for making parliaments indissoluble except by their own consent, and supported the Grand Remonstrance and the action taken in the Commons against the illegal canons; on the militia question, however, he advocated a joint control by king and parliament. On the outbreak of the Great Rebellion he took the side of the parliament, using his influence in the county as deputy-lieutenant to prevent the king's raising troops in Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire. He was sent to the king at Oxford both in 1643 and 1644 to negotiate terms, and the secret communications with Charles on the latter occasion were the foundation of a charge of treason brought against Whitelocke and Denzil Holles (q.v.) later. He was again one of the commissioners at Uxbridge in 1645.

Nevertheless he opposed the policy of Holles and the peace party and the proposed disbanding of the army in 1647, and though one of the lay members of the assembly of divines, repudiated the claims of divine authority put forward by the Presbyterians for their church, and approved of religious tolerance. He took the use of English in council; he thus stood against the army party, but he took no part either in the disputes between the army and the parliament or in the trial of the king. On the establishment of the Commonwealth, though out of sympathy with the government, he was nominated to the council of state and a commissioner of the new Great Seal. He urged Cromwell after the battle of Worcester and again in 1652 to recall the royal family, while in 1653 he disapproved of the expulsion of the Long Parliament and was especially marked out for attack by Cromwell in his speech on that occasion. Later in the autumn, and perhaps on consequence, Whitelocke was despatched on a mission to Christiana, queen of Sweden, to conclude a treaty of alliance and assure the freedom of the Sound. On his return he resumed his office as commissioner of the Great Seal, was appointed a commissioner of the treasury with a salary of £1,000, and was returned to the parliament of 1654 for each of the four constituencies of Bedford, Exeter, Oxford and Buckinghamshire, electing to sit for the latter constituency.

Whitelocke was a learned and a sound lawyer. He had hitherto shown himself not unfavourable to reform, having supported the bill introducing the calendar, having drafted a new treason law, and set on foot some alterations in chancery procedure. A tract advocating the registering of title-deeds is attributed to him. But he opposed the revolutionary innovations dictated by ignorant and popular prejudices. He defeated the strange bill which sought to exclude lawyers from parliament; and to the sweeping and ill-considered changes in the court of chancery proposed by Cromwell and the council he offered an unbending and honourable resistance, being dismissed in consequence, together with his colleague Widdrington, from the court of chancery in July 1654. Whitelocke's views towards Cromwell towards the Great Seal (see Lenthiall, William). He still, however, remained on good terms with Cromwell, by whom he was respected; he took part in public business, acted as Cromwell's adviser on foreign affairs, negotiated the treaty with Sweden of 1656, and, elected again to the parliament of the same year as member for Buckinghamshire, was chairman of the committee which conferred with Cromwell on the subject of the Petition and Advice and urged the protector to assume the title of king. In December 1657 he became a member of the new House of Lords. On Richard Cromwell's accession he was reappointed a commissioner of the Great Seal, and had considerable influence during the former's short tenure of power. He returned to his place in the Long Parliament on its recall, was appointed a member of the council of state on the 14th of May 1659, and became president in August; and subsequently, on the fresh expulsion of the Long Parliament, he was included in the committee of safety which superseded the council. He again received the Great Seal into his keeping on the 1st of November. During the period which immediately preceded the Restoration he endeavoured to oppose Monk's schemes, and desired Fleetwood to forestall him and make terms with Charles, but in vain.

On the failure of his plans he retired to the country and awaited events. Whitelocke's career, however, had been marked by moderation and good sense throughout. The necessity of carrying on the government of the country somehow or other had been the chief motive of his adherence to Cromwell rather than any sympathy for a republic or a military dictatorship, and his advice to Cromwell to accept the title of king was doubtless rendered with the object of giving the administration greater stability and of protecting its adherents under the Statute of Henry VII. Nor had he shown himself unduly ambitious or self-seeking in the pursuit of office, and he had proved himself ready to sacrifice high place to the claims of professional honour and duty. These considerations were not without weight with his contemporaries at the Restoration. Accordingly Whitelocke was not excepted from the Act of Indemnity, and after the
payment of various sums to the king and others he was allowed to retain the bulk of his property. He lived henceforth in seclusion at Chilton in Wiltshire, dying on the 28th of July 1675.

Whitehlocke married (1) Rebecca, daughter of Thomas Bennet, (2) Frances, daughter of Lord Willoughby of Parham, and (3) Mary Carleton, widow of Rowland. His eldest daughter Ellen, his second wife's daughter, was the author of Memoirs of the English affairs from the beginning of the reign of Charles I.,. published 1682 and reprinted, a work which has obtained greater authority than it deserves being largely compiled from various writers, composed after the events and abounding in errors. His work of greatest value, his Annals, still remains in MS. in Lord Buttes's and Lord de la Coste's collections (Hist. Brit. Comm. III. Rep. pp. 202, 217; also Egerton MSS. 4992, 4994); his Journal of the Swedish Embassy was published 1772 and re-edited by Henry Reeve in 1885 (add. MSS. 4902, 4991 and 4993 and Hist. MSS. Comm. III. Rep. pp. 217; Notes on the King's Writ for choosing Members of Parliament... were published 1796 (see also add. MSS. 4993); Memoirs of English Affairs from the supposed expedition of Bruce to this Island to the end of the Reign of James I., were published 1799; Essays Ecclesiastical and Civil (1706); Quench not the Spirit... (1711); some theological treatises remain in MS., and several others are attributed to him.


WHITE MOUNTAINS, the portion of the Appalachian Mountain system which traverses New Hampshire, U.S.A., between the Androscoggin and Upper Ammonoosuc rivers on the north and the lake country on the south. They cover an area of about 1300 sq. m., are composed of somewhat homogeneous granite rocks, and represent the remnants of long-continued erosion of a range which has been in part cut deep by rivers and streams they rise to rounded summits often noble in outline and of greater elevation than elsewhere in the Appalachian system, except in North Carolina, and culminate in Mount Washington, 6293 ft. above the sea. Thirteen other summits have an elevation exceeding 5000 ft. The scenery is so beautiful and varied that the region has long been popular as a summer resort. It is traversed by railways, one of which ascends Mount Washington, and contains numerous villages and fine hotels.

See the article NEW HAMPSHIRE; the Guidebook (Part i., Boston, 1907) published by the Appalachian Mountain Club; and Appalachia (ibid., 1876 seq.), a periodical published by the same club.

WHITE PLAINS, a village and the county-seat of Westchester county, New York, U.S.A., about 12 m. N. of New York City on the Bronx river, about midway between the Hudson river and Long Island Sound. Pop. (1890) 4508; (1900) 7890, of whom 1679 were foreign-born and 269 were negroes; (1910 census) 26,425. The village is served by the New York Central & Hudson River railway, and is connected by electric lines with New York City, and with Yonkers, Mount Vernon, New Rochelle, Tarrytown and Mamaroneck. White Plains is a beautiful residential suburb stretching over a considerable area of rolling tree-clad hills and picturesque stretches of meadow lands in the valley of the Bronx and Mamaroneck rivers. Near the village are Silver, Kensico and Rye lakes. Among the public buildings and the institutions here are a fine Public Library building, a town hall, an armory, the Westchester county court house and county jail, several private schools, the White Plains Hospital, St Agnes Hospital, the Presbyterian Convalescents' Sanitarium, the New York Orthopaedic Hospital, Muldoon's Hygienic Institute and Bloomingdale Hospital for the Insane (1821). In White Plains are the grounds of the Century Country Club, the Knollwood Golf and Country Club and the Westchester County Fair Association. There are some prosperous farms and market gardens.

When the Dutch first settled Manhattan, the central portion of what is now Westchester county was the granary for part of the Mahican tribe; it was called Quarropas by the Indians. To the early traders here the region was known as "the White Plains" from the groves of white balsam which covered it. The first organized settlement (November 1685) was by a party of Connecticut Puritans, who had settled at Rye in what was disputed territory between New York and Connecticut; they moved westward in a body and took up lands the title to which they bought from the Indians. The heirs of John Richill claimed that White Plains was comprised in a tract extending N. from the Mamaroneck river granted to him by the Dutch and confirmed by the English, and the controversy between these heirs and the settlers from Rye was only settled in 1728 by the grant to Lord Shud and and between other settlers of a royal patent, under which the freeholders chose their local officers and managed their own affairs. In 1759 White Plains succeeded Westchester as the county-seat of Westchester county. In the early summer of 1776 the Third Provincial Congress, having adjourned from New York City, met here in the old court house on South Broadway—the site is now occupied by an armory and is marked by a monument (1910). From the steps of this building the Declaration of Independence, brought from Philadelphia, was officially read for the first time in New York on the 11th of July 1776. Here Congress adopted formally the name "Convention of Representatives of the State of New York," and from this date the existence of New York as a state. After the British under Lord Howe had effected a landing at Throg's Neck on Long Island Sound, Washington withdrew (October) all his forces from the North end of Manhattan Island except the garrison of Fort Washington, and (21st October) concentrated his army near White Plains. His right rested on the Bronx river here, and there was a small force in rude earthworks on Chatterton's Hill on the W. bank. This point Howe attacked (October 28th), his troops advancing in two columns 4000 strong, the British under General Alexander and the Hessians under Colonel Johann Gottlieb Rall. General Alexander McDougall, in command of the American right wing, reinforced the troops on the hill, making the number of the defenders about 1600. The attack was stubbornly resisted for some time, after which the Americans retreated in good order across the river. The British had sustained such a severe loss (about 250) that no attempt was made to follow the Americans, who carried their dead and wounded, some 125 in number, away with them. Washington's forces retired three days later to North Castle township, where they occupied a strong position. The small but fine House, which still stands in North White Plains, was occupied at intervals by Washington as his headquarters before the battle and again in the summer of 1778. In 1779 a Continental force under Aaron Burr was stationed here for some months, and in 1781 (July) White Plains was occupied by parts of Launzn's and Rochambeau's French force. In 1866 White Plains received a village charter, which it still retains in spite of its large population.

See F. Shennard and W. W. Spooner, History of Westchester County (N.Y., 1890), and J. T. Scharl, History of Westchester County (2 vols., Ibid., 1886).

WHITE Sides, JAMES (1804–1876), Irish judge, son of William Whiteside, a clergyman of the Church of Ireland, was born on the 12th of August 1804, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, being called to the Irish bar in 1820. He very rapidly acquired a large practice, and after taking silk in 1822 he gained a reputation for forensic oratory surpassing that of all his contemporaries, and rivalling that of his most famous predecessors of the 18th century. He defended Daniel O'Connell in the state trial of 1843, and William Smith O'Brien in 1848; and his greatest triumph was in the Yelverton case in 1861. He was elected member for Enniskillen in 1851, and in 1868 became solicitor-general for Dublin city. But in Parliament he was no less successful as a speaker than at the bar, and in 1872 was appointed solicitor-general for Ireland in the first administration of the earl of Derby, becoming attorney-general in 1878, and again in 1866. In the same year he was appointed chief justice of the Queen's Bench; and he died on the 25th of November 1876. Whiteside was a man of handsome presence, attractive personality and cultivated tastes. In 1848, after a visit to Italy, he published Italy in the Nineteenth Century; and in 1870 he collected and republished some papers contributed many years before to periodicals, under the title Early Sketches of Eminent Persons. In 1853 Whiteside married Rosetta, daughter of
WHITETHROAT—WHITGIFT

William Napier, and sister of Sir Joseph Napier (1804-1882), lord chancellor of Ireland.


WHITETHROAT, a name commonly given to two species of little birds, one of which, the Motacilla sylvia of Linnaeus and Sylvia rufa or S. cinerea of recent authors, is regarded as the type, not only of the genus Sylvia, but of the sub-family of thrushes known as Sylvidae (cf. WARBLE). It is widely spread over Great Britain, in some places tolerably common, and by its gesticulations and song rather conspicuous, it is one of those birds which have gained a familiar nickname, and "pegy whitethroat," is the anthropomorphous appellation of schoolboys and milkmaids, though it shares "nettle-creeper" and other homely names with perhaps more than one congener, while to the writers and readers of books it is by way of distinction the greater white-throat. The lesser whitethroat, Sylvia cinerea, is both in habits and plumage a much less slight bird; the predominant reddish brown of the upper surface, and especially the shading of the wing-feathers, that are so distinct of its larger congener, are wanting, and the whole plumage above is of a smoky-grey, while the bird in its movements is never obtrusive, and it rather shuns than courts observation. The nests of each of these species are very pretty works of art, finely built of bents or other plant-stalks, and usually lined with horsehair; but the sides and bottom are often so finely woven as to be like open basket-work, and the eggs, splashed, spotted or streaked with olive-brown, are frequently visible from beneath through the interstices of the fabric. This style of nest-building is so frequent in both to all the species of the genus Sylvia; they are now restricted, and in many districts has obtained for the builders the name of "hay-jack," quite without reference to the kind of bird which puts the nests together, and thus is applied to the blackcap, S. atricapilla, and the garden-warbler—this last being merely a book-name—S. salicaria (S. kortenis) of some writers. The form of these deserves mention as one of the sweetest songs of Great Britain. The name blackcap is applicable only to the cock bird, which further differs from his brown-capped mate by the purity of his ashy-grey upper plumage; but, notwithstanding the marked sexual difference in appearance, he takes on himself a considerable share of the duties of incubation. All these four birds, as a rule, leave Great Britain at the end of summer to winter in the south. Two other species, one certainly belonging to the same genus, S. oretha, and the other, S. nisoria, a somewhat aberrant form, have occurred two or three times in Great Britain. The curious Dartford warbler of English writers, Sylvia undata, is on many accounts a very interesting bird, for it is one of the few of its family that winter in England—a fact more remarkable when it is known to be migratory in common to all the parts of the continent of Europe. Its distribution in England is very local, and chiefly confined to the southern counties. It is a pretty little dark-coloured bird, which here and there may be seen on furze-grown heaths from Kent to Cornwall. For a species with wings so feebly formed it has a wide range, inhabiting nearly all the countries of the Mediterranean seaboard, from Palestine to the Strait of Gibraltar, and thence along the west coast of Europe to the English Channel; but everywhere else it seems to be very local.

This may be the most convenient place for noticing the small group of warblers belonging to the well-marked genus Hypophaes, which, though in general appearance and certain habits resembling the Phylloscopi (cf. willow Wren), would seem usually to have little to do with those birds, and are not to be applied to the same genus. They have a remarkably loud song, and in consequence are highly valued on the continent of Europe, where two species at least spend the summer. One of them, H. tertia, has occurred more than once in England, and their absence as regular visitors is to be regretted. Among the minor characteristics of this little group is an affronted by their ecyces, which are of a deeper or paler brownish pink, surrounded by black. Their notes are beautiful and sweet, combining warmth with lightness in a way that cannot be fully appreciated by any description.

(A. N.)

WHITFIELD, JOHN CLARKE (1750-1836), English organist and composer, was born at Gloucester on the 13th of December 1770, and educated at Oxford under Dr Philip Hayes. In 1789 he was appointed organist of the parish church at Ludlow. Four years later he took the degree of Mus. Bac. at Cambridge, and in 1795 he was chosen organist of Armagh cathedral, whence he removed in the same year to Dublin, with the appointments of organist and master of the children at St Patrick's cathedral and Christchurch. Driven from Ireland by the rebellion of 1798, he accepted at the post vacated at Truro by Dr Warrick, president of St John's Colleges, Cambridge, and about the same time assumed the living of Long, in addition to that of Clarke, by which he had been previously known. He took the degree of Mus. Doc. at Cambridge in 1799, and in 1810 proceeded to the same grade at Oxford. In 1820 he was elected organist and master of the choristers at Hereford cathedral; and on the death of Dr Haig he was appointed professor of music at Cambridge. Three years afterwards he resigned these appointments in consequence of an attack of paralysis. He died at Hereford, on the 22nd of February 1836.

Whitfield's compositions were very numerous. Among the best of them are four volumes of anthems, published in 1808. He also composed a great number of songs, one of which—"Bird of the Wilderness," written to some well-known verses by James Hogg, the "Ettrick Shepherd,"—attained a high degree of popularity. But the great work of his life was the publication, in a popular and eminently useful form, of the oratorios of Handel, which he was the first to present to the public with a complete pianoforte accompaniment.

WHITGIFT, JOHN (c. 1530-1604), English archbishop, was the eldest son of Henry Whitgift, merchant of Great Grimsby, Lincolnshire, where he was born, according to one account in 1530, though he was probably younger, but at all events a pupil at school in the town of his own in 1530. At an early age his education was entrusted to his uncle, Robert Whitgift, abbot of the neighbouring monastery of Wellow, by whose advice he was afterwards sent to St Anthony's school, London. In 1549 he matriculated at Queens' College, Cambridge, and in May 1550 he migrated to Pembroke Hall, where he had the master John Bradford for a tutor. In May 1553 he became a fellow of Peterhouse. Having taken orders in 1560, he became in the same year chaplain to Richard Cox, bishop of Ely, who collated him to the rectory of Teversham, Cambridgeshire. In 1563 he was appointed Lady Margaret professor of divinity at Cambridge, and his lectures gave such satisfaction to the authorities that on the 3rd of July 1566 they considerably augmented his stipend. The following year he was appointed regius professor of divinity, and also became master first of Pembroke Hall and then of Trinity. He had a principal share in compiling the statutes of the university, which passed the great seal on the 23rd of September 1570, and in November following he was chosen vice-chancellor. Macaulay's description of Whitgift as "a narrow, mean, tyrannical priest, who gained the great seat of Peter only by the ruin and misery of a whole nation," is an exaggeration; but undoubtedly Whitgift's extreme High Church notions led him to treat the Puritans with exceptional intolerance. In a pulpit controversy with Thomas Cartwright, regarding the constitutions and customs of the Church of England, he showed himself Cartwright's inferior in oratorical effectiveness, but the balance was redressed by the exercise of arbitrary authority. Whitgift, with other heads of the university, deprived Cartwright in 1570 of his professorship, and in September 1571 excommunicated him in virtue of his preaching without a master's order to deprive him of his fellowship. In June of the same year Whitgift was appointed the second bishop of Armagh; and subsecively dean of Lincoln. In the following year he published An Answer to a Certain Libel intituled an Admonition to the Parliament, which led to further controversy between the two divines. On the 24th of March 1577, Whitgift was appointed bishop of Worcester, and during the absence of Sir Henry Sidney in Ireland (1577) he acted as vice-president of Wales. In August 1583 he was appointed archbishop of Canterbury, and thus was largely instrumental in giving its special complexion to the church of the Reformation. Although he wrote a letter to Queen Elizabeth remonstrating against the alienation of church property, Whitgift always retained her special confidence. In his policy against the Puritans, and in his vigorous enforcement of the subscription test, he thoroughly carried out the queen's policy of religious uniformity. He drew up articles aimed at
nonconforming ministers, and obtained increased powers for the Court of High Commission. In 1586 he became a privy councillor. His action gave rise to the Marprelate tracts, in which the bishops and clergy were bitterly attacked. Through Whitgift’s vigilance the priests of the tracts were observed, discovered, and punished; and in order more effectually to check the publication of such opinions he got a law passed in 1593 making Puritanism an offence against the statute law. In the controversy between Walter Travers and Richard Hooker he interposed by prohibiting the preaching of the former; and he moreover presented Hooker with the rectory of Boscombe in Wiltshire, in order to afford him more leisure to complete his Ecclesiastical Polity, a work which, however, cannot be said to represent either Whitgift’s theological or his ecclesiastical standpoint. In 1595 he, in conjunction with the bishop of London and other prelates, drew up the Calvinistic instrument known as the Lambeth Articles, which were not accepted by the church. Whitgift attended Elizabeth on her deathbed, and crowned James I. He was present at the Hampton Court Conference in January 1604, and died at Lambeth on the 20th of the following February. He was buried in the church of Croydon, and his monument there with his recumbent effigy was in great part destroyed in the fire by which the church was burnt down in 1687.

Whitgift is described by his biographer, Sir G. Paule, as of “middle stature, with a well shaped, of a good countenance and bright complexion, black hair and eyes, his beard neither long nor thick.” He was noted for his hospitality, and was somewhat ostentatious in his habit and room, that the people often went out in the streets of the town by retinue of 800 horsemen. He left several unpublished works, which are included among the MSS. Anglico. Many of his letters, articles, injunctions, &c. are calendared in the published volumes of the “State Paper” series of the reign of Elizabeth. His Collected Works, edited for the Parker Society by John Acre (3 vols., Cambridge, 1821-1833), include, besides the controversial tracts already alluded to, two sermons published during his lifetime, a selection from his letters to Cecil and others, and some portions of his unpublished MSS.

A Life of Whitgift by Sir G. Paule appeared in 1611, 2nd ed. 1649. It was embodied by John Strype in his Life and Acts of Whitgift (1718). The Works is also a Life by C. Mardwicke’s Ecclesiastical Biography (1810), W. F. Hook’s Archbishops of Canterbury (1875), and vol. I. of Whitgift’s Collected Works. See also C. Cooper’s Athenea Cantabrigienses.

WHITHORN, a royal burgh of Wigtownshire, Scotland, Pop. (1901) 1118. It is situated near the southern extremity of the peninsula of Machers, 121 m. S. of Wigtown by railway. The town consists of one long street running north and south, in which the town-hall is situated. It is famous for its associations with St Ninian or Ringan, the first Christian missionary to Scotland. He landed on the island near the mouth of the river about 3½ m. to the S.E. where he built (367) a church of stone and lime, which, out of contact with the dark mud and wintry huts of the natives, was called Candida Casa, the White House (Anglo-Saxon, hwiti ærne, Whitherne or Whithorn). This he dedicated to his master St Martin of Tours. Ninian died probably in 432 and was buried in the church. A hundred years later the Magnus Monasterium, or monastery of Rosnat, was founded at Whithorn, and became a noted home of learning and, in the 8th century, the seat of the bishopric of Galloway. It was succeeded in the 11th century by St Ninian’s Priory, built for the premonstratensian monks by Fergus “Long the Way,” of which only the chancel (used as the parish church till 1822) with a richly decorated late Norman doorway, and fragments of the lady chapel, vaults, cells, buttresses and tombs remain. The priory church was the cathedral church of the see till the Reformation, when it fell into gradual decay. In Roman times Whithorn belonged to the Novantae, and William Camden, the antiquary, identified it with the Leukophila of Ptolemy. It was made a royal burgh by Robert Bruce.

WHITING, city of Lake county, Indiana, U.S.A., on the S.W. shore of Lake Michigan, 50 m. S. of Chicago. Pop. (1890) 1428; (1900) 3983 (1907 foreign-born); (1910) 6587. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Pennsylvania, the Chicago, Indiana & Southern and (for freight only) the Elgin, Joliet & Eastern, the Chicago Terminal Transfer, and the Indiana Harbour Belt railways; and is connected with Chicago and with the surrounding towns by an electric line. The city has a Carnegie library and a public park. Manual training, from the fourth to the twelfth grades, is a feature of the public school system. Whiting adjoins the cities of Hammond and East Chicago, and is practically a part of industrial Chicago, from which it is separated only by the Calumet state line. It is a shipping point; the Standard Oil Company has a large refinery here, and among its manufactures are asphaltum for street paving, linoleum and men’s garments. Whiting was first settled about 1870, was incorporated as a town in 1893, and chartered as a city in 1903.

WHITING (Gadus merlangus), a fish of the family Gadidae, which is abundant on the shores of the German Ocean and all round the coasts of the British Islands; it is distinguished from the other species of the genus by having from 33 to 35 rays in its first anal fin, and by lacking tricuspid teeth on the lower jaw. The snout is long, and the upper jaw longer than the lower. A black spot at the root of the pectoral fin is also very characteristic of this species, and but rarely absent. The whiting is one of the most valuable food fishes of northern Europe, and is caught throughout the year by hook and line, and by the trawl. It is in better condition at the beginning of winter than after the spawning season, which falls in the months of February and March. Its usual size is from 1 to 3 lb, but it may attain to twice that weight.

Whitling is a name applied loosely to any inflammation involving the pulp of the finger, attended by swelling and throbbing pain. In the simplest form, which is apt to occur in sickly children, the inflammation results in a whitish vesicle of the skin, containing watery or bloody fluid. In all such cases, where the deeper structures are not implicated, no radical local treatment is needed, although the illness is an indication for constitutional treatment. The inflammation is not usually spoken of as whitlow unless it involves the deeper structures of the last joint of the finger, in which case it is associated with intense pain. As the result of a scratch or prick of the finger septic germs enter the skin and give rise to an acute inflammation, with throbbing and burning pain. If the germs do not spread from that spot, they set up an acute localized attack of erysipelas which may end in a superficial abscess. More often, however, they make their way to the peristome of the last bone of the finger, and involve it in a devastating inflammation which may end in death (necrosis) of that bone. Sometimes the germs find their way into the tendon-sheath, and, spreading into the palm of the hand, cause a deep abscess with, perhaps, sloughing of the tendon, and leaving a permanently stiffened finger. In some cases the reaction of the disease is so intense that the hand is especially apt to occur in people who are out of health, as in them the micro-organisms of the disease meet with less resistance. So soon, therefore, as the acute stage of the disease is over, tonic treatment, with quinine and iron, is needed. The local treatment of whitlow demands a free incision into the area in which the germs are undergoing cultivation, and the sooner that this is done the better. It is wrong to wait for an abscess to be formed. A prompt incision may actually prevent the formation of abscess, and the easing of the tension of the inflamed tissue by the incision gives immediate relief. Perhaps, even in the early stage of the disease, a bead or two of pus may find exit, but whether there is abscess or not, the depths of the wound should be swabbed out with some strong carabolic or mercuric lotion in order to destroy the germs. The hand should then be placed upon a splint with antiseptic fomentations around the finger. It should, moreover, be kept well raised, or worn in a sling.

WHITMAN, MARCUS (1802-1847), American missionary and pioneer, was born at Rushville, New York, on the 4th of September 1802. He studied medicine at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, and practised in Canada and in Wheeler, Steuben county, New York. In 1834 he was accepted by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions for missionary work among the American Indians, and was assigned to the Oregon territory, then under the joint occupation of Great Britain and the United States. He set out early in 1835, but returned almost immediately
to secure other workers. In February 1836 he married and in March again crossed the continent, accompanied by his wife, Rev. and Mrs H. H. Spalding and W. H. Gray, and settled at Wallatpu, near the present Walla Walla, Washington. Dis- 
sensions which arose among the missionaries and their apparent lack of success led to a resolution (February 1834) of the Prudential Committee of the Board to abandon the southern station. With the consent of his associates, Dr Whitman started from the station (3rd October 1842) on the perilous winter journey over the Rocky Mountains and across the plains for the missionary headquarters at Boston, to urge the revival of the order. He visited New York and Washington also to enlist help and sympathy. On his return journey he joined a considerable body of emigrants on their way to Oregon and piloted them across the mountains. The mission, however, gained the ill-will of the Indians, and, on the 26th of October 1847 Dr and Mrs Whitman and twelve others were killed, and the station was broken up.

On the 15th of November 1864 the statement was published, on the authority of Mr Spalding, that the purpose of Dr Whitman's ride, twenty-two years before, was to prevent the cession of the territory to Great Britain. The story was amplified by Spalding and Gray in 1865 and in its English version, and in its French version, learned at the British fort Walla Walla in September 1842 that a large number of British settlers were expected, and that it was hoped that the treaty then supposed to be signed by Governor Louisa was to be sanctioned by Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, would give the territory to the British. Thereupon Whitman made his way to Washington, and with much difficulty convinced Webster and President Polk of the error of the treaty. The story was published for the first time in the London Times, and the exchange for fishing privileges off Newfoundland. This story has been widely disseminated, but Professor E. G. Bourne and Mr W. J. Marshall independently investigated the whole question, and showed that there is no evidence that Dr Whitman influenced or attempted to influence the State Department. For the pro-Whitman side, see W. H. Gray, Oregon (Portland, 1870); William Barrows, Oregon (Boston, 1889); O. W. Nixon, New Marcus Whiteman saved Oregon (Chicago, 1892); W. A. Mowry, Marcus Whiteman (New York, 1901); Myron Eells, Marcus Whiteman (Seattle, 1909). On the other side see H. H. Bancroft, Oregon (San Francisco, 1886-1888); E. G. Bourne, Essays in Historical Criticism (New York, 1901); W. J. Marshall, History v. The Whitman-saved-Oregon Story (Chicago, 1904).

WHITMAN, WALT (1819-1892), American poet, was born at West Hills, on Long Island, New York, on the 31st of May 1819. His ancestry was mingled English and Holland Dutch, and had flourished upon Long Island more than 150 years—long enough to have taken deep root in the soil and to have developed, in its farmers and seafaring men, many strong family traits. His father, Walter Whitman, was a farmer and carpenter; his mother, Louisa Van Velsor, was the granddaughter of a sea captain. There do not appear to be any men in his line of descent who have ever striven, in any way, or even agreed, to come back to the 17th century, when we come to Abijah Whitman, a clergyman, settled in Connecticut. Later this Abijah moved to Long Island, and from him all the Whitmans on the island descended. Walt was the second of a family of nine children. The parents early moved to Brooklyn, where Whitman spent his youth. His career was a chequered one, like that of so many other self-made American men. First he was an errand boy in a lawyer's office; then he was employed in a printing office; next he became a country school teacher; he founded (1836) and still edits the Oregonian at Portland, Oregon, and later edited a daily paper in Brooklyn (the Eagle, 1846-1847); then he was found in New Orleans, on the editorial staff of the Crescent (1843-1849); afterwards he passed his time carpentering, building and selling small houses in Brooklyn (1851-1854), in the meanwhile writing for the magazines and reviews and turning out several novels, and finally revolving in his mind the scheme of his Leaves of Grass. This scheme was probably gestating in his mind during the years 1833, 1854 and 1855. He frequently stopped his carpentering to work at his poems. He was a prolific manuscript writer, showing the preparatory studies and reflections that preceded the Leaves; many of them, under the title of Notes and Fragments, were privately printed by his literary executor, Dr Richard Maurice Bucke, in 1899. Finally, in the summer of 1855 the first edition of Leaves of Grass appeared—a small quarto of ninety-four pages. The book did not attract the attention of the critics and the reading public till a letter from Emerson to the poet, in which the volume was characterized as "the most extraordinary piece of wit and wisdom that America has yet contributed," was published in the New York Tribune. This created a demand for the book, and started it upon a career that has probably had more vicissi- tudines than any other. The publisher was more prone to hostile criticism than any other contemporary literary work. In 1856 a second and much enlarged edition of Leaves of Grass appeared. In 1860 a third edition, with much new matter, was published in Boston. In 1862 Whitman went to Washington to look after his brother, Lieutenant-Colonel George W. Whitman, who was wounded at the battle of Fredericksburg. Henceforth, for more than ten years he remained in and about Washington, acting as a volunteer nurse in the army hospitals as long as the war lasted, and longer, and then finding employment as a clerk in the government departments, in the meantime devoting himself to and revising his Leaves and publishing two or three editions of himself, his own publisher and bookseller. Out of his war experiences came in 1866 his Drum Taps, subsequently incorporated into the main volume. Early in 1873 he suffered a paralytic stroke which partially disabled him. He then went to Camden, New Jersey, to live and continued to reside in that city till his death on the 27th of March 1892. In 1877 appeared his prose volume called Democratic Vistas. In 1876 he published a thin volume, called Two Rivedals, made up of prose and verse. Specimen Days and Collect, also prose, appeared in 1883. New editions of his Leaves appeared, and his life was ordered to appear as he lived. A final and complete edition of his works, including both prose and verse, was published in Philadelphia in 1889.

Whitman never married, never left America, never laid up, or aimed to lay up, riches: he gave his time and his substance freely to others, belonged to no club nor coterie, associated habitually with the common people—mechanics, coach-drivers, working men of all kinds—was always cheerful and optimistic. He was large and picturesque of figure, slow of movement, tolerant, receptive, democratic and full of charity and goodwill. He never goes into criticism or arguments at all; makes it in fact his great task to deal with the human, the individual, the indefinibles, characteristics, rivers, states, persons, &c. Be full of

strong sensual germ, ... Poet! beware lest your poems are made in the spirit that comes from the study of pictures of things—and not from the spirit that comes from the contact with real things themselves." The mother-idea of his poems, he says, is democracy, and democracy "carried far beyond politics into the region of taste, the standards of manners and beauty, and even into philosophy and theology." His Leaves certainly radiates democracy as no other modern literary work. He makes it a rule to make his work the "hallmark of natural, liberal, indig-
WHITNEY, E.—WHITNEY, W. D.

(Boston, 1904) edited by W. S. Kennedy; In re Wall Whitney (Philadelphia, 1893) edited by his literary executors, H. L. Trubel, R. M. Bucke, T. B. Harned; Horace Trubel, Wall Whitney in Camden (Boston, 1907), a recollection of studies by Bliss Perry, Wall Whitney: His Life and Work (Boston, 1907), with new material and unpublished letters; Cadamus, a series of letters (1866); Wall Whitney, a young friend" (Peter Doyle), edited by R. M. Bucke (1897), who also wrote an autobiography—Wall Whitney (Philadelphia, 1885)—which contains contemporary criticisms of Whitman and W. D. O'Connor's "Good Gray Poet" (1866); Wall Whitney (London, 1893), a study by J. Addington Symonds; Reminiscences of Wall Whitney with Extracts from his Letters (London, 1896) by W. S. Kennedy; H. B. Binns, Life of Wall Whitney (New York, 1906); and critical studies by R. H. Stevenson's Familiar Letters, by S. S. Seaton, and E. Dowden's Studies in Literature (1892), and in E. C. Stedman's Poems of America, etc. A bibliography of writings on Whitman is appended to Selections (Boston, 1909), edited by O. L. Triggs.

WHITNEY, ELI (1765-1825), American inventor, was born on a farm in Westboro, Massachusetts, on the 8th of December 1765. He exhibited unusual mechanical ability at an early age and earned a considerable part of his expenses at Yale College, where he graduated in 1792. He soon went to Savannah, Georgia, expecting to secure a position as a teacher, but was disappointed, and accepted the invitation of Mrs Nathaniel Greene, the widow of the Revolutionary general, to spend some time on her plantation on the Savannah river, while deciding upon his future course. The construction of several ingenious household contrivances led Mrs Greene to introduce to some gentlemen who were discussing the desirability of a machine to separate the short staple upland cotton from its seeds, work which was then done by hand at the rate of a pound of lint a day.

In a few weeks Whitney produced a model, consisting of a wooden cylinder encircled by rows of slender spikes set half an inch apart, which extended between the bars of a grid so closely together that the seeds could not pass, but the lint was pulled through by the revolving spikes; a revolving brush cleaned the spikes, and the lint was removed from the cotton. The machine was worked by hand and could clean 50 lb of lint a day. The model seems to have been stolen, but another was constructed and a patent was granted on the 14th of March 1794. Meanwhile Whitney had formed a partnership with Phineas Miller (who afterward married Mrs Greene), and they built at New Haven, Connecticut, a factory (burned in March 1795) for the manufacture of the gins. The partners intended to establish an absolute monopoly and to charge a toll of one-third of the cotton or to buy the whole crop. They were unable to supply the demand, and inaccuracy blacksmiths constructed many machines. A patent, later annually renewed, was granted (May 13, 1795) to Hodgen Holmes for a gin which substituted circular saws for the spikes. Whitney spent much time and money prosecuting infringements of his patent, and in 1807 its validity was finally settled. The financial returns in Georgia cannot be ascertained. The legislature of South Carolina voted $50,000 for the rights for that state, while North Carolina levied a license tax for five years, from which about $30,000 was realized. Tennessee paid, perhaps, $10,000. Meanwhile Whitney, disgusted with the struggle, began the manufacture of fire-arms near New Haven (1795) and secured profitable government contracts. He introduced this factory division of labour and standardized parts. Although the modern gin has been much enlarged and improved, the essential features are the same as in Whitney's first model, and the invention profoundly influenced American industrial, economic and social history.


WHITNEY, JOSIAH DWIGHT (1820-1890), American geologist, was born at Northampton, Massachusetts, on the 23rd of November 1820. He graduated at Yale in 1839, and after two years' work as assistant in the geological survey of New Hampshire, spent three years in Europe studying chemistry, mineralogy and geology. Returning to the United States in 1847, he laboured successfully for a time in the copper and iron lands of the Lake Superior region; in 1855 he became State chemist and professor in the Iowa University and took part in the geological survey of the state; he subsequently worked in the lead region of the upper Missouri river, in Wisconsin, and in Illinois, publishing many reports, singly or in collaboration with others. From 1860 to 1874 he was state geologist of California, and issued a comprehensive series of reports on its topography, geology and botany. In 1869, with William H. Brewer, he determined the heights of the principal Rocky Mountain summits; and in recognition of his labours Mount Whitney (5,402 ft. in elevation), the highest peak in the United States) received its name from him. After his death he was professor of geology and director of the school of mining and practical geology at Harvard University, residing in Cambridge save when absent on expeditions of research. The records of his investigations are somewhat dispersed; the most homogeneous of his writings are The Metallic Wealth of the United States, described and compared with that of other Countries (1854), a work of importance at the time of its issue, and Contributions to American Geology (vol. i. only, 1886). He died at Lincoln, New Hampshire, on the 28th of August 1866.

WHITNEY, WILLIAM COLLINS (1842-1904), American political leader and financier, was born at Conway, Massachusetts, on the 15th of July 1841, of Puritan stock. He graduated at Yale in 1863, studied law at Harvard, and practised with success in New York City. He was an aggressive opponent of the "Tweed Ring," and was actively allied with the anti-Tammany organizations, the "Irving Hall Democracy" of 1875-1890, and the "County Democracy" of 1880-1860, but upon the dissolution of the latter he became identified with Tammany. In 1875-1878 he was corporation counsel of New York, and as such brought about a codification of the laws relating to the city, and successfully contested a large part of certain claims, largely fraudulent, against the city, amounting to about $20,000,000, and a heritage from the Tweed regime. During President Cleveland's first administration (1885-1888), Whitney was secretary of the navy department and did much to develop the navy, especially by encouraging the domestic manufacture of armour plate. In 1892 he was instrumental in bringing about the third nomination of Mr Cleveland, and took an influential part in the ensuing presidential campaign; but in 1896, disgruntled by the "free-silver" legislation, he refused to support his party's candidate, Mr J. W. Bryan. Whitney took an active interest in the development of urban transit in New York, and was one of the organizers of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company. He was also interested in horse-racing, and in 1901 won the English Derby with Volodyovski, leased by him from Lady Meux. He died in New York City on the 2nd of February 1904.

WHITNEY, WILLIAM DWIGHT (1827-1894). American philologist, was born at Northampton, Massachusetts, on the 9th of February 1827. He was the fourth child and the second surviving son of Josiah Dwight Whitney, a banker, and Sarah Williston, daughter of the Rev. Payson Williston (1763-1836) of Easthampton, Mass., and a sister of Samuel Williston (1795-1874), founder of Williston Seminary at Easthampton. Through both parents he was descended from New England stock remarkable alike for physical and mental vigour; and he inherited all the social and intellectual advantages that were afforded by a community noted, in the history of New England, for the large number of distinguished men whom it produced. At the age of fifteen (1842) he entered the sophomore class at Harvard (at Williams-town, Mass.), where he graduated three years later with the highest honours. His attention was at first directed to natural science, and his interest in it always remained keen, and his knowledge of its principles and methods exerted a noticeable influence upon his philological work. In the summer of 1870 he had charge of the botany, the barometrical observations and the accounts of the United States survey of the Lake Superior region conducted by his brother, Josiah D. Whitney, and in the summer of 1873 assisted in the geographical work of the Hayden expedition in Colorado. His interest in the study of Sanskrit
was first awakened in 1848, and he at once devoted himself with enthusiasm to this at that time little-explored field of philological labour. After a brief course at Yale with Professor Edward Hitchcock (1814-1860), then the only trained Orientalist in the United States, Whitney went to Germany (1850) and studied for three years at Berlin, under Weber, Bopp and Lepsius, and at Tübingen (two summer semesters) under Roth, returning to the United States in 1853. In the following year he was appointed professor of Sanskrit in Yale, and in 1859 also of comparative philology. He also gave instruction in French and German in the college until 1867, and in the Sheffield scientific school until 1886. An urgent call to a professorship at Harvard was declined in 1866, on the ground of the importance of his work at Yale. He was early and widely recognized. He was elected to membership in numerous learned societies in all parts of the world, and received many honorary degrees, the most notable testimonial to his fame being his election on the 31st of May 1881, as foreign knight of the Prussian order pour le mérite for science and art to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Carlyle. In 1870 he received from the Berlin Academy of Sciences the first Bopp prize for the most important contribution to Sanskrit philology during the preceding three years—his edition of the Tālikāṭi-Prātiḥṣākhya (Journal of the American Oriental Society, vol. i.). He died at New Haven, Connecticut, on the 27th of June 1894.

As a philologist Whitney is especially noted for his work in Sanskrit, which placed him among the first scholars of his time. He edited (1855-1856), with Professor Roth, the Atharva-Veda-Sanhāta; published (1862) with a translation and notes the Atharva-Veda-Prātiḥṣākhya; made important contributions to the great Petersburg lexicom; issued an index verborum to the published text of the Atharva-Veda (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 1881); made a translation of the Atharva-Veda, books i.-ix., with a critical commentary, which he did not live to publish (edited by Lanman, 1905); and published a large number of special articles upon various points of Sanskrit philology. His most notable achievement in this field, however, is his Sanskrit Grammar (1879), a work which, as, Professor Delbrück has said, not only is "the best text-book of Sanskrit which we possess," but also places its author, as a scientific grammarian, on the same level with such writers as Madvig and Krüger. To the general public Whitney is best known through his works on the history and development of literature and languages as a lexicographer. The former are, perhaps, the most widely read of all English books on the subject, and have merited their popularity through the soundness of the views which they present and the lucidity of their style.¹ His most important service to lexicography was his guidance, as editor-in-chief, of the work on The Century Dictionary (1889-1891). Apart from the permanent value of his contributions to philology, Whitney is notable for the great and stimulating influence which he exerted throughout his life upon the development of American scholarship.

The chronological bibliography of Whitney's writings appended to vol. xix. (first half) of the Journal of the American Oriental Society, issued in May 1897, contains 360 numbers. Of these the most important, in addition to those mentioned above, are: Translation of the Jātaka-Stātbhānta, a Text-book of Hindu Astronomy (Jour. Am. Oriental Soc., vol. vi., 1860); Language and the Study of Language (1867); A Compendious German Grammar (1869); Oriental and Linguistic Studies (1873; second series, 1874); The Life and Growth of Language (1875); Essentials of English Grammar (1877); A Compendious German and English Dictionary (1877); A Practical French Grammar (1886); Max Müller and the Science of Language (1887); Die Vorzeit (1889); What is Religion (1891); Der B. E. (1894); and, above all, The History of Religion in the World, the second edition of which (1898) contains a large amount of new matter.

WHITSTABLE, a watering-place in the St. Augustine's parlia-

motional division of Kent, England, on the north coast at the end of the Swale, 6 m. N.N.W. of Canterbury, on the South Eastern & Chatham railway. Pop. of urban district (1901), 7,086.

¹ They are particularly important in that they counteracted the popular and interestingly written books of Max Müller; for instance, Max Müller and Wilhelm von Humboldt were in an innate faculty and Whitney considered it the product of experience and outward circumstance. See Whitney's article Philology in the present edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica.

The branch railway connecting Whitstable with Canterbury was one of the earliest in England, opened in 1830. The church of All Saints (Decorated and Perpendicular) possesses some valuable painted walls; it was restored in 1875. Whitstable has been famous for its oyster beds from time immemorial. The fisheries were held by the Incorporated Company of Dredgers (incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1793), the affairs being administered by a foreman, deputy foreman and jury of twelve; but in 1896 an Act of Parliament transferred the management of the fishery to a company. The less extensive Seasalter and Ham oyster fishery adjoins. There is also a considerable coasting trade in coal in conjunction with the South-Eastern & Chatham railway company, who are the owners of the harbour, which accommodates vessels of about 400 tons alongside the quay. The urban district consists of parts of the old parishes of Whitstable and Seasalter. In modern times the manor was held by Wynne Ellis (1706-1875), who left a valuable collection of paintings to the nation.

Tankerton, adjoining Whitstable to the N.E., is a newly established seaside resort.

WHITSUNDAY, or PENTECOST (Lat. Pentecoste, Gr. πεντηκοστήν, sc. ἡμέρα, Fr. Pentecôte, Osc. Pfingsten, ir. O. H. G. feimch(adust)). The twophrases are connected in the name of the Christian Church, celebrated on the fiftieth (sunday-thirty) day after Easter, commemorating the descent of the Holy Spirit on the disciples. The day became one of the three baptismal feasts, and the name Whitsunday is now generally attributed to the white garments formerly worn by the candidates for baptism on this feast, as in the case of the Dominica in albis. The festival is the third in importance of the great feasts of the Church and the last of the annual cycle commemorating the Lord. It is connected with the Jewish Pentecost (q.e.), not only in the historical date of its origin (see Easter), but in its connexion with the Christian observance of the first-fruits of the earth, the Christian for the first-fruits of the Spirit. In the early Church the name of Pentecost was given to the whole fifty days between Easter and Whitsunday, which were celebrated as a period of rejoicing (Tertullian, De idolea, c. 12, De bat. 19, De cor. mill. 3, A pos. Canons, c. 37, Canons of Antioch, 30). In the narrower sense, as the designation of the fiftieth day of this period, the word Pentecost occurs for the first time in a canon of the council of Elvira (305), which denounces as an heretical abuse the tendency to celebrate the day five days later instead of the a week after Easter in imitation of the Jewish observance of Sukkoth. There is plentiful evidence that the festival was regarded very early as one of the great feasts; Gregory Nazianzen (Orat. xlviv. De Pentec. cale it on the "day of the Spirit" (ἐμπνεύσεως, and in 385 the Peregriatio Silvae (see Duchesne, Origines, App.) describes its elaborate celebration at Jerusalem. The code of Theodosius (xv. 5, De spectaculis) forbade theatrical performances and the games of the circus during the feast. The custom of hallowing the days immediately surrounding the festival is comparatively late. Thus, among others, the synod of Mainz in 813 ordered the celebration of an octave similar to that at Easter. The custom of celebrating the vigil by fasting had already been introduced. The duration of the festival was however, ultimately fixed at three days. In the Church of England this is still the rule (there are special collects, gospels and epistles for Monday and Tuesday in Whitsun week); in the Lutheran churches two days only are observed.

In the middle ages the Whitsun services were marked by many curious customs. Among these described by Durandus (Rationale, 11.107) were the環ing down of a dove from the roof into the church, the dropping of balls of fire, rose-leaves and the like. Whitsun is one of the Scottish quarter-days, and though the Church festival is movable, the legal date was fixed for the 15th of May by an act of 1693. Whitsunday, which, with the Sunday itself, was the occasion for the greatest of all the medieval church fairs, was made an English Bank Holiday by an act passed on the 25th of May 1871.

See Duchesne, Origines du culte Christien (1889); W. Smith and Cheetham, Dis. of Christian Antiquities (1874-1880); Herzog-Hauck,
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Redencylklopàdie (1904), xv, 254, s.v. "Zingsten." For the many superstitions and observances of the day see P. H. Ditchfield, Folk-lore in America, Brand, Antiquities of Great Britain (Hazzitt's ed., 1906); B. Picart, Cérémonies et coutumes religieuses de tous les peuples (1723).

WHITTIER, JOHN GREENLEAF (1807-1892). America's "Quaker poet" of freedom, faith, and the sentiment of the common people, was born in a Merrimack Valley household, Haverhill, Massachusetts, on the 17th of December 1807. The dwelling was built in the 17th century by his ancestor, the sturdy immigrant, Thomas Whittier, notable through his efforts to secure toleration for the disciples of George Fox in New England. Thomas's son Joseph joined the Society of Friends and bore his share of obloquy. Successive generations obeyed the monitions of the Inner Light. The poet was born in the faith, and adhered to its liberalized tenets, its garb and speech, throughout his lifetime. His father, John, was a farmer of limited means but independent spirit. His mother, Abigail Hussey, whom the poet strongly resembled, was of good stock. The Rev. Stephen Bachiler, an Oxford man and a Churchman, who became a Nonconformist and emigrated to Boston in 1632, was one of her forebears and also an ancestor of Daniel Webster. The poet and the statesman showed their kinship by the "dark, deep-set and lustrous eyes" that impressed one who met either of these uncommon men. The former's name of Greenleaf is thought to be derived from the French Feuillevert, and to be of Huguenot origin; and there was Huguenot blood as well in Thomas Whittier, the settler. The poet thus fairly inherited his conscientious religious heredity and temperament. As it was, he never went farther than the legislature of his own state (1835-1836), elected by his neighbours in an anti-slavery town. But if Garrison, Phillips and Sumner and Mrs Stowe were to be the rhapsodists of the long emancipation struggle, Whittier was its forerunning poet-seer. In 1833 he had issued at his own cost a pamphlet, "Justice and Expediency," that provoked vehement discussion North and South. Later he shared with the agitators their experience of lawlessness, mob-violence and political odium. His sister Elizabeth, who became his life companion, and whose verse is preserved with his, was president of the Women's Anti-Slavery Society in Amherst. It is to be noted that the first collection of Whittier's lyrics was the Poems written during the Progress of the Abolition Question in the United States, issued by a friend in 1837. But Mogg Megone (1836) was his first book, a crude attempt to apply the manner of Scott's romantic cantos to a native theme. Among his other lyrical volumes, of dates earlier than the Civil War, were Lays of my Home (1843), Voices of Freedom (1848), Songs of Labor (1850), The Chapel of the Hermit (1853), The Panorama (1856), Home Ballads (1856). The titles of In War Time (1863) and National Lyrics (1865) rightly designate the patriotic rather than Romantic contents of these books. The poet was closely affiliated with the Atlantic Monthly from the foundation of that classic magazine in 1857. His repute became national with the welcome awarded to Snow-Bound in 1866, and brought a corresponding material reward. Of his later books of verse may be mentioned The Tent on the Beach (1867), The Pennsylvania Pilgrim (1872), The Vision of Echard (1878), The King's Missive (1881), At Sundown, his last poems (1890). As early as 1849 an illustrated collection of his poems appeared, and his Poetical Works was issued in London in 1850. During the remainder of his life, no less than ten successive collections of his poems appeared. Meanwhile he did much editing and compiling, and produced, among other works in prose, The Stranger in Lowell (1845), Supernaturalism in New England (1847), Leaves from Margaret Smith's Journal (1839), a pleasing treatement in old-style English of an early Colonial theme. When he died, in 1892, in New Hampshire, among the hills he loved and sang so well, he had been an active writer for over sixty years, leaving more than that number of publications that bore his name as author or editor. His body was brought to Amherst for interment: the funeral services were held in the open air, and conducted after the simple rites of the Friends, in the presence of a large concourse, certain of whom "spake as they were sustained until forced by ill-health, early in his twenty-fifth year, to re-seek the Haverhill farm. There he remained from 1832 to 1836, when the property was sold, and the Whittiers removed to Amherst in order to be near their meeting-house and to enable the poet to be in touch with affairs. The new home became, as it proved, that of his whole after-life; a dwelling then bought and in time remodelled was the poet's residence for fifty-six years, and from it, after his death on the 7th of September 1892, his remains were borne to the Amherst graveyard.

While in Hartford Whittier issued in prose and verse his first book, Legends of New England (1831), and edited the writings of the poet John Gardiner C. Brainard. Thenceforward he was constantly printing verse, but of the hundred or more pieces composed before his settlement at Amherst less than fifty are retained in his final collection. Of these none has more significance than the poem to Garrison, which appeared in 1831, and was read (December 1833) at the Philadelphia Convention that formed the Anti-Slavery Society. To that convention, with one-third of its membership composed of Friends, Whittier was a delegate, and was appointed one of the committee that drafted the famous Declaration of Sentiments. Although a Quaker, he had a polemical spirit; men seeing Whittier only in his saintly age knew little of the fire wherewith, setting aside ambition and even love, he maintained his warfare against the "national crime," employing action, argument and lyric scorn. A future was open for him among the Protectionists, who formed the Whig party, and doubtless soon would have carried him to the United States Convention. Whittier had no farther than the legislature of his own state (1835-1836), elected by his neighbours in an anti-slavery town. But if Garrison, Phillips and Sumner and Mrs Stowe were to be the rhapsodists of the long emancipation struggle, Whittier was its forerounding poet-seer. In 1833 he had issued at his own cost a pamphlet, "Justice and Expediency," that provoked vehement discussion North and South. Later he shared with the agitators their experience of lawlessness, mob-violence and political odium. His sister Elizabeth, who became his life companion, and whose verse is preserved with his, was president of the Women's Anti-Slavery Society in Amherst. It is to be noted that the first collection of Whittier's lyrics was the Poems written during the Progress of the Abolition Question in the United States, issued by a friend in 1837. But Mogg Megone (1836) was his first book, a crude attempt to apply the manner of Scott's romantic cantos to a native theme. Among his other lyrical volumes, of dates earlier than the Civil War, were Lays of my Home (1843), Voices of Freedom (1848), Songs of Labor (1850), The Chapel of the Hermit (1853), The Panorama (1856), Home Ballads (1856). The titles of In War Time (1863) and National Lyrics (1865) rightly designate the patriotic rather than Romantic contents of these books. The poet was closely affiliated with the Atlantic Monthly from the foundation of that classic magazine in 1857. His repute became national with the welcome awarded to Snow-Bound in 1866, and brought a corresponding material reward. Of his later books of verse may be mentioned The Tent on the Beach (1867), The Pennsylvania Pilgrim (1872), The Vision of Echard (1878), The King's Missive (1881), At Sundown, his last poems (1890). As early as 1849 an illustrated collection of his poems appeared, and his Poetical Works was issued in London in 1850. During the remainder of his life, no less than ten successive collections of his poems appeared. Meanwhile he did much editing and compiling, and produced, among other works in prose, The Stranger in Lowell (1845), Supernaturalism in New England (1847), Leaves from Margaret Smith's Journal (1839), a pleasing treatment in old-style English of an early Colonial theme. When he died, in 1892, in New Hampshire, among the hills he loved and sang so well, he had been an active writer for over sixty years, leaving more than that number of publications that bore his name as author or editor. His body was brought to Amherst for interment: the funeral services were held in the open air, and conducted after the simple rites of the Friends, in the presence of a large concourse, certain of whom "spake as they were
moved " in tribute to the bard. The Amesbury house has been acquired by the "Whittier Home Association," so that the building and grounds are guarded as he left them, and form a shrine to which there is a constant pilgrimage. The Haverhill homestead, memorialized in Snow-Bound, is also held by trustees "of the Poet's Farm Association," and "the natural features of the landscape," and to keep the buildings and furniture somewhat as they were in their minstrel's boyhood.

It would be unjust to consider Whittier's genius from an academic point of view. British lovers of poetry—except John Bright and others of like faith or spirit—have been slow to comprehend his distinctive rank. As a poet he was essentially a balladist, with the faults of the type. Early ballads, and ballads of a later day, like "Freedom," and their undue length, are among the few modern examples of unpolished verse. He returned again and again to their production, since they seemed to express his life and spirit and the Victorian life. So far for melody was inferior to his sense of time, but that his overfacility and structural defects were due less to lack of taste than to early habit. Georgian models, disassociation from the schools, is indicated by his work as a writer of prose. In Margaret Smith's Journal an artistic, though suggestive, Colonial style is well maintained. Whittier became very sensible of his shortcomings; and when at least to a certain extent he succeeded in correcting them, as for instance by Whittier would " turn out a song," or "perhaps turn out a sermon"; if the latter, it had deep sincerity and was as close to his soul as the other. He began as a liberator, and various causes empleased him. His early work was "If I Were King," which stood out of the rest; he loved a worker, and the Songs of Labor convey the zest of the artisan and pioneer. From 1832 to 1863 no occasion escaped him for inspiring the assailants of slavery, or cranking panaceas of their martyrdom or triumph. No crusade ever had a truer laureate than the author of "The Virginia Slave Mother," "The Pastoral Letter"—one of his stinging ballads against a time-serving Church—"A Sabbath Scene," and "The Slaves of Martinique." Randolph of Roanoke is "one of the most pathetic and most elevated of memorial tributes." Ichabod and "The Lost Occasion," both eulogies of the Stephen of Webster, are Roman in their condemnation and "with all regrett." The green Rusticity of Whittier's farm and village life imparted a brooding charm to such lyrics as "In School Days," "The Bare- foot in the Snow," "The Bee," "The Slaves of Martinique," "The Thistle and the Cedar," and "The专职民." His idyllic masterpiece is the sustained transcript of winter scenery and home-life, Snow-Bound, which has no equal except Longfellow's Evangeline. It is an American favour, but, in fact, nothing of its class since "The Cotter's Saturday Night" can justly be compared with it. Along with the Quaker poet's homing sense and passion for liberty of body and soul, religion and patriotism are the dominant notes of his song. His conception of a citizen's prerogative and duty, as set forth in "The Eve of Election," certainly is not that of one whose legend is "our country, right or wrong." Faith, hope and boundless charity pervade the "Questions of Life," "The Two Angels," and are exclusively blended in "The Eternal Goodness," perhaps the most enduring of his lyrical poems. We can do without a Church," he wrote in a letter; "we cannot do without life and liberty." It was his inspiration, and of all American poets he was the one whose song was most like a prayer. A knightly celibate, his stainless life, his arbour, caused him to be termed a Yankee Gahdah; a pure andsingle heart was hid bare to those who knew him in "My Psalm," "My Triumph," and "An Autograph." The spiritual habit abated no whit of his inborn sagacity, and it is said that in his later years political leaders found no shredder wise with whom to debate. He was a matchless and question answering "tactician." He was canvassed by a group of the public men of Lincoln's time, the vote was for Whittier; he was at least one whom they understood, and "the immortal poet," with the "abolition ballads," and, I am sure, was greatly pleased. A few years before his death, it was attempted to crown him "the poet of New England," but as the North and West then were charged with the spirit of the New England states, the two verdicts were much the same. The fact remains that no other poet has possessed so much of the poetry of the people. The people are, in that respect, the most English of the nations, that is to say, the most chivalric, the most learned, the most courtly, and that Whittier's name, among the patriotic, clean and true, was one with which to conjure. He was revered by the people claving to their altars and their fires, and his birthdays were calendared as festivals, on which greetings were sent to him by young and old.

In his age the poet revised his works, classifying them for a definitive edition, in seven volumes, published at Boston, 1888. Their metrical portion, annotated by Horace E. Scudder, can be procured in a recent and more complete edition of his "Life and Letters," prepared by his kinsman and literary executor, Samuel T. Pickard, also appeared in 1894.


WHITTINGHAM, CHARLES (1767-1840), English printer, was born on the 16th of June 1767, at Caludon or Calloton, Warwickshire, the son of a farmer, and was apprenticed to a Coventry printer and bookseller. In 1780 he set up a small printing press in a garret off Fleet Street, London, with a loan obtained from the typefoundry firm of William Caslon, and by 1795 his business had so increased that he was enabled to move into larger premises. An edition of Gray's Poems, printed by him in 1799, secured him the patronage of all the leading publishers. Whittingham inaugurated the idea of printing cheap, handy editions of standard authors, and, on the book-selling trade threatening not to sell his productions, took a room at a coffee house and sold them by auction himself. In 1809 he started a paper-pulp factory at Chiswick, near London, and in 1811 founded the Chiswick Press. From 1816 to 1819 he devoted himself to the production of the "Christian Robinson," which having been the first to use proper overlays in printing woodcut figures, as he was the first to print a fine, or "Indian Paper" edition. He was one of the first to use a steam-engine in a pulp mill, but his presses he preferred to have worked by hand. He died at Chiswick on the 5th of January 1840.

His nephew, Charles Whittingham (1795-1879), who from 1824 to 1838 had been in partnership with his uncle, in 1838 assumed control of the business. He already had printing works at Tooke's Court, Chancery Lane, London, and had printed the Authorized Version of the Bible, and had brought out a reproduction of ornamental initial letters, and the artistic arrangement of the printed page. The imprint of the Chiswick press was now placed on the productions of the Tooke's Court as well as of the Chiswick works, and in 1852 the whole business was removed to London. Under the management of the younger Whittingham the Chiswick Press achieved a considerable reputation. He died on the 21st of April 1876.

WHITTINGHAM, WILLIAM (c. 1524-1579), English scholar, who belonged to a Lancashire family, was born at Chester. Educated at Brasenose College, Oxford, he became a fellow of All Souls' College and a senior student of Christ Church, and later he visited several universities in France and Germany. A strong Protestant, he returned to England in 1553, but soon found it expedient to travel again to France. In 1554 he was a leading member of the band of English Protestant exiles who were assembled at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, and in the controversies which took place between them concerning the form of service to be adopted, Whittingham strongly supported the Calvinistic views propounded by John Knox. These opinions, however, did not prevail, and soon the Scottish reformer and his follower were found at Geneva; in 1559 Whittingham succeeded Knox as minister of the English congregation in that city, and here he did his most noteworthy work, that of making an English translation of the Bible. He was probably responsible for the English translation of the New Testament which appeared in 1557, and he had certainly a large share in the translation of both the Old and the New Testaments which is called the Geneva or Breeches Bible. This was printed at Geneva in 1560 and translated into English in the same year. His first continental work was a translation of St. John's Gospel, and his last English translation was a metrical version of some of the Psalms. Having returned to England in 1560, Whittingham went to France in the train of Francis Russell, 2nd earl of Bedford, and a little later he acted as minister of the English garrison at Havre, being in this place during its siege by the French in 1562. In the following year he was made dean of Durham. He attended well to the duties of his office, but his liking for puritan customs made
certain prelates and others look upon him with suspicion, and in 1576 or 1577 a commission was appointed to inquire into his conduct. This had no result, and another commission was appointed in 1578, one charge against Whittingham being that he had not been duly ordained. The case was still under commission when the dean died on the 10th of June 1579.

**Whittington, Richard** (d. 1423), mayor of London, described himself as son of William and Joan (Dugdale, _Monasticon Anglicanum_, vi. 740). This enables him to be identified as the third son of Sir William Whittington of Pauntley in Gloucestershire, a knight of good family, who married after 1355 Joan, daughter of William Mansel, and widow of Thomas Berkeley of Cubberley. Consequently Richard was a very young man when he is mentioned in 1379 as subscribing five marks to a city loan. He was a mercer by trade, and clearly entered on his commercial career under favourable circumstances. He married Alice, daughter of Sir Ivo Fitzwaryn, a Dorset knight of considerable property. Whittington sat in the common council as a representative of Coleman Street Ward, was elected alderman of Broad Street in March 1393, and served as sheriff in 1393–1394. When Adam Bamme, the mayor, died in June 1397, Whittington was appointed by the king to succeed him, and in October was elected mayor for the ensuing year. He had acquired great wealth and much commercial importance, and was mayor of the staple at London and Calais. He made frequent gifts to the church, as may be seen from the following entry in Whittington's will, made in 1406–1407, and proved in 1410. It was observed (J. Britton, 3rd ser. vi. 229) that the bequests of Whittington and those of the Frenchman, Fitzgerald, are the only examples of early wills in the National Archives in which bequests are made to the church.

Whittington's foundations was his chapel, which he founded in the churchyard of St Michael, Paternoster Row, and the adjoining hospital. The college was dissolved at the Reformation, but the hospital or almshouses are still maintained by the Mercers' Company at Highgate. Whittington was buried at St Michael's church. Stow relates that his tomb was spoiled during the reign of Edward VI., but that under Mary the parishioners were compelled to restore it (Stow, i. 243). Whittington had a house near St Michael's church; it is doubtful whether he had any connexion with the so-called Whittington Palace in Hart Street, Mark Lane. There is no proof that he was ever knighted; Stow does not call him Sir Richard. Much of Whittington's fame was probably due to the magnificence of his charities. But a writer of the next generation bears witness to his commercial success in _A Libell of English Policy_ by styling him "the sunne of marchaundy, that lodestarre and chief-chosen flower."

"Pen and paper may not me suffice
Him to describe, so high he was of price."

The Richardson Whittington of history is thus very different from the Dick Whittington of popular legend, which makes him a poor orphan employed as a scavenger by the rich merchant, Sir Hugh Fitzwarren, who ventures the cat, his only possession, on one of his master's ships. Distressed by ill-treatment he runs away, but turns back when he hears from Holloway the prophetic peal of Bow bells. He returns to find that his venture has brought him a fortune, marries his master's daughter, and succeeds to his property. The legend is not referred to by Stow, whose love for exposing falsehoods would assuredly have prompted him to notice if it had been well established when he wrote. The first reference to the story comes with the licensing in 1605 of a play, now lost, by John Marston, wherein J. Whittington, "in his love byth, his great fortune. Thomas Heywood in 1606 makes one of the characters in _If you know not me you know nobody, _allude to the legend, to be rebuked by another because "they did more wrong to the gentleman."

"The legend of Whittington," probably meaning the play of 1605, is also mentioned by Beaumont and Fletcher in 1611 in _The Knight of the Burning Pestle_. The story was then no doubt popular. When a little later Robert Elstracke, the engraver, published a supposed portrait of Whittington with his hand resting on a skull, he had in deference to the public fancy to substitute a cat; copies in the first state are very rare. Attempts have been made to explain the story as possibly referring to vessels called "cats," which were employed in the North Sea trade, or to the French _achat_ (purchase). But Thomas Keightley traced the cat story in Persian, Danish and Italian folklore at least as far back as the 13th century. The assertion that a carved figure of a cat existed on Newgate goal before the great fire is an unsupported assumption.

**Bibliography.**—The most important early references to Whittington are contained in _Dr R. R. Sharpe's Calendar of Letters of Edward IV._ (Rili's _Memorials of London_ and _Political Songs, _ii. 478 (Rolls series). For his charities see _Stow's Survey of London_ (ed. C. L. Kingsford, 1908). For documents relating to Whittington see the Record Office, Dugdale, _A _History of the City of London_, and the _Collected State Papers of England, 1485–1603_.

WILLIAM, archbishop of Canterbury, was probably born in the Cambridgeshire village of Whittlesey. He was educated at Oxford, and owing principally to the fact that he was a nephew of Simon Islip, archbishop of Canterbury, he received numerous ecclesiastical preferments, he held prebends at Lichfield, Chichester and Lincoln, and livings at Ixwich, Croydon and Cliffe. Later he was appointed vicar-general, and then dean of the arch of arched by Islip. In 1360 he became bishop of Rochester, and two years later bishop of Worcester. In 1368 Whittlesey was elected archbishop of Canterbury in succession to Simon Langham, but his term of office was very uneventful, a circumstance due partly, but not wholly, to his feeble health. He died at Lambeth on the 5th or 6th of June 1374.

Whittlesey, a market town in the Wisbech parliamentary division of Cambridgeshire, England, 53 m. E. of Peterborough, between that city and March, on the Great Eastern railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 3099. It lies on a gentle eminence in the flat fen country, and the fine Perpendicular tower and spire of the church of St Mary are a landmark from far. A little to the north is the great artificial cut carrying the waters of the
WHITWORTH—WHOOPING-COUGH

river Nene; and the neighbourhood is intersected with many other navigable "drains." To the south-west is the tract known as Whittlesey Mare, 6 m. distant from the town, in Huntingdonshire. It was a lake until modern times, when it was included in a scheme measurement and the so-called Whittlesey Wash, in the neighbourhood of the town, is among several tracts in the fens which are perennially flooded. St Mary's church is principally Perpendicular, but has Norman and Decorated portions; the church of St Andrew is also Decorated and Perpendicular. The town has manufactures of bricks and tiles, and a considerable agricultural trade.

WHITWORTH, SIR JOSEPH, Bart. (1803–1837), English engineer, was born at Stockport, near Manchester, on the 21st of December 1803. On leaving school at the age of fourteen, he was placed with and by a man who was a cotton-spinner, with the view of becoming a partner in the business; but his mechanical tastes were not satisfied with this occupation, and in about four years he gave it up. He then spent some time with various machine manufacturers in the neighbourhood of Manchester, and in 1825 moved to London, where he gained more experience in machine shops, including those of Henry Maudslay. In 1833 he returned to Manchester and started in business as a tool-maker. In 1840 he attended the meeting of the British Association at Glasgow, and read a paper on the preparation and value of true planes, describing the method which he had successfully used for making them when at Maudslay's. In 1841 he published on the principle that if any two of three surfaces exactly fit each other, all three must be true planes. The accuracy of workmanship thus indicated was far ahead of what was contemplated at the time as possible in mechanical engineering, but Whitworth not only proved that it could be attained in practice, but also showed how it could be measured. He found that if two true planes were arranged parallel to each other, an exceedingly small motion towards or from each other was sufficient to determine whether an object placed between them was held firmly or allowed to move. By mounting two screw-shafts with a large wheel bearing on a single periphery, he was able to obtain a very exact measurement of the amount, however minute, by which the distance between the planes was altered, by observing through what angular distance the wheel had been turned. In 1841, in a paper read before the Institution of Civil Engineers, he urged the necessity for the adoption of a uniform system of screw threads in place of the various heterogeneous pitches then employed. His system of standard gauges was also widely adopted. The principles of these gauges and of the instrument invented by him which depended upon them were exactly adopted in his own manufacturer, with the result that in the Exhibition of 1851 he had a show of machine tools which were far ahead of those of any competitor. It was doubtless this superiority in machine construction that caused the government three years later to request him to design, and estimate for making, the machinery for producing rifled muskets at the new factory at Enfield. He did not see his way to agree to the proposition in this form, but it was ultimately settled that he should undertake the machinery for the barrels only. Finding that there was no established practice to guide him, he began a series of experiments to determine the best principles for the manufacture of rifle barrels and projectiles. He ultimately arrived at a weapon in which the necessary rotation of the projectile was obtained, not by means of grooving, but by making the barrel polygonal in form, with gently rounded angles, the bullets also being polygonal and thus travelling on broad bearing-surfaces along the rotating polygon. The projectile he favoured was 3 to 3½ calibres in length, and the bore he fixed on was 0-45 in., which was at first looked upon as too small. It is reported one at the trial in 1857 weapons made according to these principles excelled the Enfield weapon in accuracy of fire, penetration and range to a degree "which hardly leaves room for comparison." He also constructed heavy guns on the same lines; these were tried in competition with Armstrong's ordnance in 1864 and 1865, and in their inventor's opinion gave the better results, but they were not adopted by the government. In constructing them Whitworth experienced difficulty in getting large steel castings of suitable soundness and ductility, and thus was led about 1870 to devise his compressed steel process, in which the metal is subjected to high pressure while still in the fluid state, and is afterwards forged in hydraulic presses, not by hammers. In 1868 he founded the Whitworth scholarship, setting aside an annual sum of £3000 to be given for "intelligence and proficiency in the theory and practice of mechanics and its cognate sciences," and in the following year he was created a baronet. He died at Monte Carlo, whither he had gone for the sake of his health, on the 22nd of January 1887. In addition to handing over £100,000 to the Science and Art Department for the permanent endowment of the thirty Whitworth scholarships, his residuary legatees, in pursuance of what they knew to be his intentions, expended over half a million on charitable and educational objects, mainly in Manchester and the neighbourhood.

WHOOPING-COUGH, or Hooping-Cough (syn. Pertussis, Chin-cough), a specific infective disease of the respiratory mucous membrane, of microbic origin (see Parasitic Diseases), manifesting itself by frequently recurring paroxysms of convulsive coughing accompanied with peculiar sonorous inspirations (or whoops). Although specially a disease of childhood, whooping-cough is by no means limited to that period but may occur at any time of life. It is one of the most dangerous diseases of infancy, the yearly death-rate in England and Wales for each of the five years 1850–1854 was per hundred births. In the interregnum it was noted that supposing a child to have given in the symptoms to indicate that they are to develop into whooping-cough, but the presence of an ulcer on the fraenum linguae is said to be diagnostic. The catarrhal stage usually lasts from ten to fourteen days. The second stage is marked by the abatement of the catarrhal symptoms, but at the same time by increase in the cough, which now occurs in irregular paroxysms both by day and by night. Each paroxysm consists in a series of violent and rapid expiratory coughs, succeeded by a loud sonorous or crowing inspiration—the "whoop." During the coughing itself the air is derived at but one stroke out of the lungs, and the air is the only air that the patient can command. In fact, the chest the symptoms of impending asphyxia appear. The patient grows deep-red or livid in the face, the eyes appear as if they would burst from their sockets, and suffocation seems imminent till relief is brought by the "whoop"—the louder and more vigorous the better. Occasionally blood bursts from the nose, mouth and ears, or is extravasated into the conjunctiva of the eyes. A single fit rarely lasts beyond from half to three-quarters of a minute, but after the "whoop" another recur, and of these a number may come and go for several minutes. The paroxysm ends by the coughing or vomiting of a greater or less quantity of mucus and phlegm. If the disease is long continued the patient seems comparatively well, or, it may be, somewhat wearied and fretful. The frequency of the paroxysms varies according to the severity of the case, being in some instances only to the extent of one or two in the whole day, while in others there may be several in the course of a single hour. Slight causes serve to bring on the fits of coughing, such as the acts of swallowing, talking, laughing, crying, &c., or they may occur without any apparent exciting cause. In general children come to recognize an impending attack by a feeling of tickling in the throat, and they, after being the less than the mothers or others think, or take hold of some object near them for support during the paroxysm; but although exhausted by the severe fit of coughing they soon resume their play, apparently little the worse. The attacks are on the whole most severe at night. This stage of the disease usually continues for thirty to fifty days, but it may
be shorter or longer. It is during this time that complications attempt to arise which may become a source of danger greater even than the malady itself. The chief of these are inflammatory affections of the bronchi and lungs and convulsions, any of which may prove fatal. When, however, the disease progresses favourably, the third or terminal stage is announced by the less frequent paroxysms of the cough, which generally loses in great measure its “whooping” character. The patient’s condition altogether undergoes amendment, and the symptoms disappear in from one to three weeks. It is to be observed, however, that for a long period afterwards in any simple catarh from which the patient suffers the cough often assumes a spasmodic character, which may suggest the erroneous notion that a relapse of the whooping-cough has occurred.

In severe cases it occasionally happens that the disease leaves behind it such structural changes in the lungs (emphysema, &c.), as entail permanent shortness of breathing or a liability to attacks of asthma. Further, whooping-cough is well known to be one of those diseases of early life which are apt to give rise to a weakened and vulnerable state of the general health, or to call into activity any inherited morbid tendency, such as that towards consumption.

The treatment in mild cases, little is necessary beyond keeping the patient warm and carefully attending to the general health. Systematized disinfection of the sputum by means of a solution of corrosive sublimate or by burning should be practised in order to check the spread of infection. In the more severe forms cough is often overtopped by a neighboring tendency to modify the severity of the paroxysms. Numerous remedies are recommended, the chief of which are the bromides of ammonium or potassium, chloral, codeine, &c. These can only be safely administered under medical advice, and with due regard to the symptoms in individual cases. During convalescence, where the cough still continues to be troublesome, a change of air will often effect its removal.

WHYMPER, EDWARD (1840— ), British artist, explorer and mountaineer, was born in London on the 27th of April 1840. The son of an artist, at an early age trained to the profession of a wood-engraver. In 1865 he was commissioned to make a series of sketches of Alpine scenery, and undertook an extensive journey in the Central and Western Alps. Among the objects of this tour was the illustration of an attempt, which proved unsuccessful, made by Professor Bonney’s party, to ascend Mont Pelvoux, at that time believed to be the highest peak of the Dauphine Alps. He successfully accomplished the ascent in 1861—the first of a series of expeditions that threw much light on the topography of a district at that time very imperfectly mapped. From the summit of Mont Pelvoux he discovered that it was overtopped by a neighbouring peak, which he named the Pointe des Écrins, which, before the annexation of Savoy added Mont Blanc to the possessions of France, was the highest point in the French Alps. Its ascent by Mr Whymper’s party in 1864 was perhaps the most remarkable feat of mountaineering up to that date. The years 1860 to 1865 are filled with a number of new expeditions in the Mont Blanc group and the Pennine Alps, among them the ascent of the Aiguille Vert and the crossing of the Morning Pass. Professor Tyndall and Mr Whymper emulated each other in fruitless attempts to reach the summit of the Matterhorn by the south-western or Italian ridge. Mr Whymper, six times repulsed, determined to try the eastern face, convinced that its precipitous appearance when viewed from Zermatt was an optical illusion, and that the dip of the strata, which on the Italian side formed a continuous series of overhangs, should make the opposite side a natural staircase. His attempt by what is now the usual route was crowned with success (14th of July 1865); but on the descent four of the party slipped and were killed, and only the breaking of the rope saved Mr Whymper and the two remaining guides from the same fate. The account of his attempts on the Matterhorn occupies the greater part of his Scrambles among the Alps (1871), in which the illustrations are engraved by the author himself, and are very beautiful. His campaign of 1865 had been planned to exercise his judgment in the choice of routes as a preparation for an expedition to Greenland (1867). This resulted in an important collection of fossil plants, which were described by Professor Heer and deposited in the British Museum. Mr Whymper’s report was published in the Report of the British Association for the year 1869. Though hampered by want of means and by the prevalence of an epidemic among the natives, he proved that the interior could be explored by the use of suitably constructed sledges, and thus contributed an important advance to Arctic exploration. Another expedition followed in 1872, and was devoted to a survey of the coast-line. He next organized an expedition to Ecuador, designed primarily to collect data for the study of mountain-sickness and of the effect of diminished pressure on the human frame. He took as his chief guide Jean-Antoine Carrel, whose subsequent death from exhaustion on the Matterhorn after bringing his employers into safety through a snowstorm forms one of the noblest pages in the history of mountaineering. During 1880 Mr Whymper on two occasions ascended Chimborazo, whose summit, 20,500 ft. above sea-level, had never before been reached; spent a night on the summit of Cotopaxi, and made first ascents of half-a-dozen other great peaks. In 1882 he published the results of his journey in a volume, entitled Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. His observations on mountain-sickness led him to conclude that it was caused by “diminution in atmospheric pressure, which operates in at least two ways—namely, (a) by lessening the value of the air that can be inspired in any given time, and (b) by causing the air or gas to assume a higher degree of density than when breathed at a lower altitude.” In 1883 he contributed an article on mountaineering to Professor Digby’s British Association for the Year Book. In 1884 he contributed a paper on the mountain-sickness of the lower altitudes to the Royal Geographical Society. He has been a member of the Physical Society, and is chairman of the Alpine Club.

WHYTE, ALEXANDER (1837— ), Scottish divine, was born at Kirkriemuir in Forfarshire on the 13th of January 1837, and was educated at the university of Aberdeen and at New College, Edinburgh. He entered the ministry of the Free Church of Scotland and after serving as colleague in Free St John’s, Glasgow (1866—1870), removed to Edinburgh as colleague and successor to Dr R. S. Candlish at Free St George’s. In 1900 he succeeded Dr Marcus Dods as principal, and professor of New Testament Literature, at the University of Edinburgh, and was made an external examiner in the degree of Doctor of Laws at the University of Edinburgh. He was appointed to the chair of Biblical Criticism and Exegesis in the University of Edinburgh in 1901—1902, and afterwards became principal of the New College, Edinburgh.

Among his publications are Characters and Characteristics of William Law (1836); Bunyan Characters (3 vols., 1844); Samuel Rutherford (1894); An Appreciation of Jacob Behmen (1895); Lancelot Andrews and his Private Devotions (1898); Biblical Characters (7 vols., 1897); Santa Teresa (1887); Father John of Cronstadt (1898); An Appreciation of Browne’s Religio Medici (1898); Cardinal Newman, An Appreciation (1901).

WHYTE-MELVILLE, GEORGE JOHN (1821—1878), English novelist, son of John Whyte-Melville of Strathkiness, Fife, and grandson on his mother’s side of the 5th duke of Leith, was born on the 19th of June 1821. Whyte-Melville received his education at Eton, entered the army in 1839, became captain in the Coldstream Guards in 1846 and retired in 1849. After translating Horace (1850) in fluent and graceful verse, he published his first novel, Digby Grand, in 1853. The unflagging verve and intimate technical knowledge with which he described sporting scenes and sporting characters at once drew attention to him as a novelist with a new vein. He was the laureate of fox-hunting;
all his most popular and distinctive heroes and heroines, Dibgy Grand, Tilbury Nogo, the Honourable Crasher, Mr Sawyer, Kate Coventry; Mrs Lascelles, are or would be mighty hunters. *Tilbury Nogo* was contributed to the *Sporting Magazine* in 1833 and published separately in 1834. He showed in the adventure of Mr Nogo—and it became more apparent in his later works—that he had a surer hand in humorous narrative than in pathetic description; his pathos is the pathos of the preacher. His next novel, *General Bounce*, appeared in *Fraser's Magazine* (1834). When the Crimean War broke out Whyte-Melville went out as a volunteer major of Turkish irregular cavalry; but this was the only break in his literary career from the time that he began to write novels till his death. By a strange accident, he lost his life not long after in the coach on the road from Dublin to Wexford; the horse of many a stiff ride meeting his fate in galloping quietly over an ordinary ploughed field in the Vale of the White Horse.

Twenty-one novels appeared from his pen after his return from the Crimea—*Kate Coventry* (1856); *The Interpreter* (1858); *Holmby House* (1860); *God for Nothing* (1861); *Market Harborough* (1861); *The Queen's Maries* (1862); *The Gladiators* (1863); *Brooklyn of Bridlemere* (1864); *Cerise* (1865); *Bones and I* (1866); *The White Rose* (1868); *M or N* (1869); *Contraband* (1870); *Sarchedon* (1871); *Satanella* (1873); *Uncle John* (1874); *Sister Louise* (1875); *Kater- rina* (1875); *Renn嵌s* (1876); *Romantic Comedy* (1878). Several of these novels are historical, *The Gladiators* being perhaps the most famous of them. As an historical novelist Whyte-Melville had no fault to find with writer in paint. His genius is in patience, consistency, and minuteness of detail; but he makes his characters live and move with great vivacity. It is his portrayal of contemporary sporting society that his reputation as a novelist rest; and, though now and then a character reconstructed as the supercilious steward, the dark and wary steeple-chaser, or the fascinating sporting widow, his work has been enjoyed for the class of incidents is amusing. Whyte-Melville was not merely the annalist of sporting society for his generation, but may also be fairly described as the principal moralist of that society; he exerted a considerable and a wholesome influence on the manners and morals of the gilded youth of his time. His *Songs and Verses* (1865) and his metrical *Legend of the True Cross* (1873), though respectable in point of versification, are of no particular merit.

**WICHITA**, a tribe of North American Indians of Caddoan stock. They called themselves Kilkikish or Tawhash. Their former range was between the Red and Washita rivers, Oklahoma, and they are now on a reservation there. They were kinmen of the Pawnee, and the French called them *Pani Pigued* ("Tattooed Pawnee"). They were known to other Indians as the "Tattooed People" in allusion to the extensive tattooing customary among them. They numbered 3000 in or about 1800, but only 400 now survive.

**WICHITA**, a city and the county-seat of Sedgwick county, Kansas, U.S.A., on the Arkansas river, at the mouth of the Little Arkansas, 208 m. (by rail) S.W. of Kansas City. Pop. (1880) 4911; (1890) 23,833; (1900) 24,671, of whom 1447 were foreign-born and 1389 were negroes; (1910 census), 52,450. Area, 18-75 sq. m. Wichita is served by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, the Missouri Pacific, the St. Louis & San Francisco, and the Kansas City, Mexico & Orient railways. The site of the city is level, about 320 ft. above the sea. The principal public buildings are the Federal building, the city hall, the county court house, a Y.M.C.A., a building, an auditorium and exposition hall and a Masonic Temple. In Wichita are Fairmount College (Congregational; co-educational; organized as a preparatory school in 1892 and as a college in 1893); Friends' University (Society of Friends; co-educational; 1886); and Mount Carmel Academy and the Pre-Cathedral School (both Roman Catholic). Among the city's parks (area in 1909, 792 acres) is one (Riverside) of 126 acres. The city is supplied with natural gas. Wichita is a transportation centre about an agricultural surrounding, and is an important market for broom-corn. In 1903 it ranked third among the cities of the state in value of its factory product ($73,696,844). The principal industry is slaughtering and meat-packing. The Kansas City, Mexico & Orient railway has carshops here. Wichita, named from an Indian tribe, was settled in 1870, and was chartered as a city in 1871. In 1890 the city adopted by popular vote government by commission under a state law of 1907 providing for a mayor and four commissioners, heads of the executive, finance, streets and public improvements, parks, public buildings and health, and water and lights departments, all elected for two years and nominated by primary election or by petition signed by at least 25 voters.

**WICK**, a royal, municipal and police burgh, seaport and county town of Caithness, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 7971. It is situated at the head of Wick Bay, on the North Sea, 327 m. N. of Edinburgh, by the North British and Highland railways. It consists of the old burgh and Louisburgh, its continuation, on the north bank of the river Wick, and of Pulteneytown, the chief seat of commerce and trade, on the south side. Pulteneytown, laid out in 1805 by the British Fishery Society, is built on a regular plan; and Wick proper consists chiefly of the narrow and irregular High Street, with Bridge Street, made in 1768, built, which contains the town hall and the county buildings. In Pulteneytown there are an academy, a chamber of commerce, a naval reserve station and a fish exchange. Among other buildings are the free libraries, the Rhind Charitable Institution and the combination hospital. The port consists of two harbours of fair size, but the entrance is dangerous in stormy weather. The chief exports are fish, cattle and agricultural produce, and the imports include coal, wood and provisions. Steamers from Leith and Aberdeen run twice a week and there is also weekly communication with Stromness. There are also cooperage, the manufacture of fish-guano and fish products, flour mills, steam saw mills, a ropery and a woolen manufactory, a brewery and a distillery. The town, with Cromarty, Dingwall, Dornoch, Kirkwall and Tain, forms the Wick group of parliamentary burghs. Wick (Vik or "bay") is mentioned as early as 1140. It was constituted a royal burgh by James VI. in 1586, its superior being then George Sinclair, 5th earl of Caithness. By a parliamentary bounty in 1768 some impetus was given to the herring-fishery, but its real importance dates from the construction of herring factories in 1808.

**WICKLOW**, a county in Ireland in the province of Leinster, bounded E. by St George's Channel, N. by the county of Dublin, S. by Wexford and W. by Carlow and detached portions of Kildare. The area is 500,216 acres or about 782 sq. m. Wicklow is among the most famous counties of Ireland for beauty of scenery, both coastal and more especially inland. The coast is precipitous and picturesque, but very dangerous of approach owing to sandbanks. There are no inlets that can be properly termed bays. The harbour at Wicklow has a considerable trade; but that of Arklow is suitable only for small vessels. To the north of the town of Wicklow there is a remarkable shingle beach, partly built up by the waves and currents. The central portion of the county is occupied by a mountain range, forming one of the four principal mountain groups of Ireland. The direction of the range is from N.E. to S.W., and the highest elevations are generally attained along the central line. The range consists of long sweeping moorlands, rising occasionally by precipitous escarpments into culminating points, the highest summits being Kippure (2473 ft.), Duft Hill (2362), Table Mountain (2416) and Lugnaquilla (3060), the last acquired by the War Office for the training of the military. The range rises from the north by a succession of ridges intersected by deep glen, and subsides towards the borders of Wexford and Carlow. To the north its foothills enter county Dublin, and add attraction to the southern residential outskirts of the capital.

In the valleys there are many instances of old river terraces, the more remarkable being those at the lower end of Glenmalure and the lower end of Glenlough. It is in its deep glen that
much of the peculiar charm of Wicklow scenery is to be found, the frequently rugged natural features contrasting finely with the rich and luxuriant foliage of the extensive woods which line their banks. Among the more famous of these glens are Glen-
dalough, Dargle, Glencree, Glen of the Downs, Devil’s Glen, Glenmalure and the beautiful vale of Avoca or Ovoca. The principal rivers are the Liffey, on the north-western border; the Vartry, which passes through Devil’s Glen to the sea north of Wicklow Head; the Avonmore and the Avonbeg, which unite at the “meeting of the waters” to form the Avoca, which is afterwards joined by the Aughrim and falls into the sea at Arklow; and the Slaney, in the west of the county, passing southwards into Carlow. There are a number of small but finely situated lakes in the valleys, the principal being Loughs Dan, Bray and Tay or Luggelaw, and the loughs of Glendalough. The trout- fishing is generally fair. Owing to its proximity to Dublin and its accessibility from England, the portions of the county possessing scenic interest have been opened up to great advantage. Bray in the north is of the character of a seaside resort in the country, and Greystones, 5 m. S. of it, the smaller one. Of the small towns and villages inland which are much frequented for the beauty of the country in which they lie, are Enniskerry, west of Bray, and near the pass of the Scalp; Laragh, near Glendalough, from which a great military road runs S.W. across the hills below Lugnaquilla; and, on the railway south of Wicklow, Rathdrum, a beautifully situated village, Woodenbridge in the Vale of Avoca and Aughrin. Near the village of Shillelagh lies the wood which is said to have given the name of skillelagh to the的土地. The churchwardsen stations used by Irishmen, Ashford and Roundwood on the Vartry river, Delgany near the Glens of the Downs, and Rathnew, a centre of coach routes, especially for the Devil’s Glen, must also be mentioned. The beauty of the central district of the Wicklow mountains lies in its wild solitude in contradistinction to the more gentle scenery of the populated glens. In the extreme north-west of the county Blessington is a favourite resort from Dublin, served by a steam tramway, which continues up the valley of the Liffey to the waterfalls of Pollaphuca. The climate near the sea is remarkably mild, and permits the myrtle and arbutus to grow.

Geology.—Wicklow, as regards its geology, is mainly an extension of county Wexford, the Leinster chain bounding it on the west, and Silurian foothills sloping thence down to the sea. The highland of muscovite-granite, with a marginal zone of mica-schist, produced by contact-metamorphism, includes the chief mineral wealth of Wicklow, north of Bray, its highest point being Lugnaquilla. The rounded heather-clad moors give way to more broken country on either side, with patches of limestone, and the valley of the Vartry is entirely supplied by Dublin is obtained from an artificial lake on the first plateu of the foothills at Roundwood. From Wicklow town to near Bray, red and greenish slates and yellow-brown quartzites, probably Cambrian, form a hilly country, in which rise Carrick Mt., the Great Sugarloaf and Bray Head. Oldahims occurs in this series. Volcanic and intrusive felsites and diorites abound in the Silurian beds of the south, running along the strike of the strata. A considerable amount of gold has been extracted from the valley-gravels north of Croghan Kinsheila on the Wexford border. Tinstone has also been found in small quantities. Lead-ore is raised west of Laragh, and the mines in the Avoca valley have been worked for copper, lead and sulphur, the last-named being obtained from pyrite. Paving-setts are made from the diorite at Arklow, and granite is extensively quarried at Bullyknockan on the west side of the mountain-chain.

History.—The town of Wicklow is the lower end of the valley; and although the greater part of the higher districts is covered with heath and turf, it affords good pasturage for sheep. There is a considerable extent of natural timber as well as artificial plantations. The acreage under permanent pasture is comparatively large and that in the west is chiefly cereals. Crops of oats and potatoes decrease considerably, the numbers of sheep, cattle, pigs and poultry are all maintained. Except in the Avoca district the growing of potatoes is on a very small scale, and some important agricultural occupations are chiefly agricultural. The port of Wicklow is the headquarters of a sea-fishery district.

WICKLOW.—The Dublin and South-Eastern railway skirts the coast by way of Bray and Arklow, which is the chief town of the county. A branch line from Woodenbridge junction to Shillelagh. A branch of the Great Southern & Western line from Sallins skirts the west of the county by Baltinglass.

Population and Administration.—The population (63,492 in 1891, 66,824 in 1901) decreases to a less extent than the average of the Irish counties, and emigration is considerable. Of the total about 80% are Roman Catholics, and 18% Protestant Episcopalians; about 80% forms the rural population. Bray (pop. 7,424), Wicklow (the county town, 3,288) and Arklow (1,944) are the principal towns, all on the coast; Wicklow is the only considerable port. Wicklow returned to the Irish parliament, until the Union in 1800, two county members and two each for the boroughs of Baltinglass, Bray, Tinahely and Arklow; it is now formed into two parliamentary divisions, an eastern and a western each returning one member. The county is divided into eight baronies. It is wholly in the Protestant dioceses of Dublin and in the Roman Catholic dioceses of Dublin, Kildare and Leighlin and Ferns. Assizes are held at Wicklow, and quarter sessions at Bray, Baltinglass, Tinahely, Arklow and Wicklow.

History and Antiquities.—Wicklow was not made a county until 1866. It was the last Irish ground shired, for in this mountainous district the Irish were long able to preserve independence. Wicklow sided with the royal cause during the Cromwellian wars, but on Cromwell’s advance submitted to him without striking a blow. During the rebellion of 1798 some of the insurgents took refuge within its mountain fastnesses, and an engagement took place near Aughrim between a band of Irishmen under Joseph Holt (1776-1826) and the British troops. A second skirmish was fought at Arklow between the rebels and General Needham, the former being defeated.

Of the ancient cromlechs there are three of some interest, one near Enniskerry, another on the summit of Lugnaquilla and a third, with a large circle, at Rathmore. The latter is the most important monastic remains at Rathdrum, Baltinglass and Wicklow. The ruins in the vale of Glendalough, known as the “seven churches,” including a perfect round tower, are, perhaps excepting Clonmacnoise, the most remarkable ecclesiastical remains in Ireland. They owe their origin to St. Kevin, who lived in the vale as a hermit, and is reputed to have died on the 3rd of June 618. Of the old fortalice or castles associated with the early wars, those of special interest are Black Castle, near Wicklow, originally founded by the Norman invaders, but taken by the Irish in 1301, and afterwards rebuilt by William Fitzwilliam; the scattered remains of Castle Kevin, the ancient stronghold of the O’Tooles, by whom it was probably originally built in the 12th century; and the ruins of the old castle of the Ormondes at Arklow, founded by Theobald FitzWalter (d. 1285), the scene of frequent contests up to the time of Cromwell, by whom it was demolished in 1649, and now containing within the interior of its ruined walls a castellary barrack. The fine mansion of Powercourt occupies the site of an old fortalice founded by De la Poer, one of the ancient proprietors of the lands of Strongbow; in the reign of Henry VIII. it was taken by the O’Tooles and O’Flynn.

WICKLOW, a seaport, market town, and the county town of county Wicklow, Ireland, picturesquely situated at the mouth of a lagoon which receives the river Vartry and other streams, 28½ m. S. of Dublin by the Dublin & South-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 3288. The harbour, which is governed by commissioners and can accommodate vessels of 1500 tons, has two piers, with quarantine. There is a considerable import trade in coal, timber, iron and slate; and some exports of grain and metallic ore, but the latter suffers by competition with the imports to Britain of sulphur ore from Spain. The town has county buildings, a parish church embodying a good Norman door from a previous structure, some ruins of a Franciscan abbey of the 13th century, and remains of Black Castle, on a commanding situation above the sea, founded in Norman times and rebuilt by William Fitzwilliam after capture by the Irish in 1301. The name shows the town to have been a settlement of the Norsmen. The cliff scenery to the S. towards Wicklow Head is fine, and the town has some claims as a seaside resort. It is governed by an urban district council.

WICKRAM, Jörg, or Jörg (d. c. 1560). German poet and novelist, was a native of Colmar in Alsace; the date of his birth is unknown. He passed the latter part of his life as town clerk of Burghem on the Rhine, and died before 1562. Wickram was a many-sided writer. He founded a Meistersinger school in Colmar in 1540, and has left a number of Meistersingertöchter. He edited Albrecht von Halberstadt’s Middle High German version of Ovid’s Metamorphoses (1543), and in 1555 he published Das Rollwagenbüchlein, one of the best of the many German collections of tales and anecdotes which appeared in the 16th century. The title of the book implies its object, namely, to
supply reading for the traveller in the "Rollwagen" or diligences. As a dramatist, Wickram wrote Fastnachtszene (Das Narren-, 1537; Der treue Eckart, 1538) and two dramas on biblical subjects, Der verlorene Sohn (1540) and Tobias (1551). A moralizing poem, Der irrezierte Pflüger (1556), is half-satiric, half-didactic. It is, however, as a novelist that Wickram has left the deepest mark on his time, his chief romances being Ritter Galmy aus Schottland (1539), Gebroth und Reinhard (1554), Der Knabenkrieg (1554), Von guten und bösen Nachborn (1556) and Der Goldfaden (1557). These may be regarded as the earliest attempts in German literature to create that modern type of mediaval romance which ultimately took the place of the decadent medieval romance of chivalry.

Wickram's works have been edited by J. Bolte and W. Scheld for the Stuttgart Literarische Verein (vols., 222, 223, 229, 230, 1900-1903); Der Ritter Galmy was republished by F. de la Motte Fouqué (1846); W. Scherker, Der Aufstand der Deutschen (1877).

WIDDRINGTON, BARONS. In November 1643 Sir William Widdrington (1610-1651), of Widdrington, Northumberland, son of Sir Robert and Elizabeth Whittingham, married, on 24 December, 1632, Margaret, daughter and sole heir of John Unett, Speaker of the House of Commons, and widow of Charles Fitzherbert, Baron Shalcross, 3rd, and sister of Sir John Unett, Chief Justice, and died at Corvey, in Ireland, 10 September 1651. He had been member for Northumberland in both the Short and the Long Parliaments in 1640, but in August 1642 he was expelled because he had joined the royal standard. He fought for the king chiefly in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire during 1642 and 1643; he was governor of Lincoln in 1643, but in 1644, after helping to defend York, he left England. Although in 1648 he had been condemned to death by the House of Commons, he accompanied Charles II. to Scotland in 1650, and he was mortally wounded in the conflict at Preston, dyng in Carmarthen, for September 1651. His great-grandson, William, the 4th baron (1678-1743), took part in the Jacobite rising of 1715, and with two of his brothers was taken prisoner after the fight at Preston. He was convicted of high treason, and his title and estates were forfeited, but he was not put to death, and he survived until the 19th of April 1743. When his son, Henry Francis Widdrington, who claimed the barony, died in September 1774, the family appears to have become extinct.

Other eminent members of this family were Sir Thomas Widdrington, 1st, and his brother Ralph, 2nd, and his grandson, William, 3rd baronet, who became Speaker of the House of Commons, and after the abdication of King Charles II, was created Baron Widdrington, as a reward for his loyalty to Charles I. He had been member for Northumberland in both the Short and the Long Parliaments in 1640, but in August 1642 he was expelled because he had joined the royal standard. He fought for the king chiefly in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire during 1642 and 1643; he was governor of Lincoln in 1643, but in 1644, after helping to defend York, he left England. Although in 1648 he had been condemned to death by the House of Commons, he accompanied Charles II. to Scotland in 1650, and he was mortally wounded in the conflict at Preston, dying in Carmarthen, for September 1651. His great-grandson, William, the 4th baron (1678-1743), took part in the Jacobite rising of 1715, and with two of his brothers was taken prisoner after the fight at Preston. He was convicted of high treason, and his title and estates were forfeited, but he was not put to death, and he survived until the 19th of April 1743. When his son, Henry Francis Widdrington, who claimed the barony, died in September 1774, the family appears to have become extinct.

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WIDDOR, CHARLES MARIE (1845- ), French composer and organist, was born at Lyons on the 22nd of February 1845. He studied first at Lyons, then at Brussels under Lemmens for the organ and Fétis for composition. In 1870 he became organist of the church of Saint Sulpice in Paris. He succeeded César Franck as professor of the organ at the Paris Conservatoire, where he was also appointed professor of composition, counterpoint and fugue. His works show a wonderful variety of technique and a rare creative ability in a variety of different styles. His works include an opera, Matière Ambros (Opéra Comique, 1860), La Korrigane (ballet, given at the Opéra, 1880), incidental music to Comte d'Avril (1885), Les Jacobites (1885) and Jeanne d'Arc (a pantomime play, 1890), three symphonies, The Walpurgis Night and other works for orchestra, a quintet for strings and piano, trio for piano and strings, a mass, psalms and other sacred compositions, symphonies for organ, a large number of piano pieces and many songs.

WIDUKIND, Saxxon historian, was the author of Res gestae Saxoniae. Nothing is known of his life except that he was a monk at the Benedictine abbey of Corvey, and that he died about 904, although various other conjectures have been formed by students of his work. He is also supposed to have written lives of St Paul and St Thecla, but no traces of these now remain. It is uncertain whether he was a resident at the court of the emperor Otto the Great or not, and also whether he was on intimate terms with Otto's illegitimate son William, archbishop of Mainz. His Res gestae Saxoniae, dedicated to Matilda, abbess of Quedlinburg, was a daughter of Otto the Great, is divided into dialogues, stories, books, and the greater part of it is not only written during the lifetime of the emperor, probably about 968. Starting with certain surmises upon the origin of the Saxons, he deals with the war between Teutcherich I., king of Austrasia, and the Thuringians, in which the Saxons played an important part. An allusion to the conversion of the race to Christianity under Charlemagne brings him to the early Saxon dukes and the reign of Henry the Fowler, whose campaigns are referred to in some detail. The second book opens with the election of Otto the Great as German king, treats of the risings against his authority, and concludes with the death of his wife Edith in 946. In the third book the historian deals with Otto's expedition into France, his troubles with his son Ludolf and his son-in-law, Conrad the Red, duke of Lorraine, and the various wars in Germany; but makes only casual reference to Otto's visits to Italy in 951 and 962. He gives a vivid account of the defeat of the Hungarians on the Lechfeld in August 955, and ends with the death of Otto in 973 and a eulogy on his life.

Widukind formed his style upon that of Sallust; he was familiar with the De vitis Caesarii of Suetonius, the Annales Magri of Eginhard, and the Vidae de Patribus Germanici. Many quotations from the Vulgate are found in his writings, and there are traces of a knowledge of Virgil, Ovid and other Roman poets. His sentences are occasionally abrupt and lacking in clearness, his Latin words are sometimes germanized (as when he writes michi for mihi) and grammatical errors are not always absent. The earlier part of his work is taken from tradition, but he wrote the contemporary part as one familiar with court life and the events of the day. He says very little about affairs outside Germany, and although laudatory of
WIDUKIND—WIEN

monastic life gives a due prominence to secular affairs. He writes
as a Saxon, proud of the history of his race and an admirer of Henry the Fowler and Otto the Great.

Three manuscripts exist of the Res gestae, one of which is in the British Museum, and the book was first published at Basel in 1532. The best edition is that edited in the Germaniae historica, Scriptores, Band iii. (Hanover and Berlin, 1826). A good edition published at Hanover and Leipzig in 1901 contains an introduction by K. A. Kehr.

See R. Körke, Widukind von Corvey (Berlin, 1867); J. Rasse, Widukind von Corvey (Rostock, 1880); and B. Simon, "Zur Kritik des Widukind" in the Neues Archiv der Gesellschaft für ältere deutsche Geschichte, Band xii. (Hanover, 1875). (A. W. H.)

WIDUKIND, or WITTEKIND (d. c. 807), leader of the Saxons during the earlier part of their resistance to Charlemagne, belonged to a noble Westphalian family, and is first mentioned in 777 when his absence from an assembly of the Saxons held by the Frankish king of Paderborn was a matter of remark. It is inferred with considerable probability that he had taken a leading part in the attacks on two Frankish garrisons in 776, and possibly had shared in earlier fights against the Franks, and so feared to meet the king. In 778 he returned from exile in Denmark to lead a fresh rising, and in 782 the Saxons at his instigation drove out the Frankish priests, and plundered the border territories. It is uncertain whether Widukind shared in the Saxons' victory over the East Saxons, or what part he took in the risings of 783 and 784. In 785 Charlemagne, leading an expedition towards the mouth of the Elbe, learned that Widukind was in the land of the Nordalbingians, on the right bank of the river. Negotiations were begun, and the Saxon chief, assured of his personal safety, appeared at the Frankish court at Attigny. There he was baptized, the king acting as his sponsor and loading him with gifts. The details of his later life are unknown. He probably returned to Saxony and occupied there an influential position, as in 922 the inheritance of the "old count" duke Widukind," is referred to. Many legends have gathered about his memory, and he was long regarded as a national hero by the Saxons. He is reported to have been duke of Engria, to have been a devoted Christian and a builder of churches, and to have fallen in battle in 807. Kingly and princely houses have sought to establish their descent from him, but except in the case of Matilda, wife of the German king, Henry I. the Fowler, without any success.

See W. Diekamp, Widukind des Sachsens nach Geschichte und Sage (Berlin, 1882); A. Dettmer, Der Sachsens Heinrich nach Geschichte und Sage (Würzburg, 1879).

WIEDEMANN, GUSTAV HEINRICH (1826-1890), German physicist, was born at Berlin on the 2nd of October 1826. After attending the Cologne gymnazium, he entered the university of Berlin in 1844, and took his doctor's degree there three years later. His thesis on that occasion was devoted to a question in organic chemistry, for he held the opinion that the study of chemistry is an indispensible preliminary to the pursuit of physics, which was his ultimate aim. In Berlin he made the acquaintance of H. von Helmholtz at the house of H. G. Magnus, and was one of the founders of the Berlin Physical Society. In 1854 he left Berlin to become professor of physics in Basel University, removing nine years afterwards to Brunswick Polytechnic, and in 1866 to Karlsruhe Polytechnic. In 1871 he accepted the chair of physical chemistry at Leipzig. The attention he had paid to chemistry in the earlier part of his career enabled him to hold his own in this position, but he found his work more congenial when in 1885 he was transferred to the professorship of physics. He died at Leipzig on the 24th of March 1890. His name is probably most widely known for his literary work. In 1877 he undertook the editorship of the Annalen der Physik und Chemie in succession to J. C. Poggendorff, thus starting the series of that scientific periodical which is familiarly cited as Wied. Ann. Another monumental work for which he was responsible was Die Lehre von der Elektricität, or, as it was called in the first instance, Lehre von Galvanismus und Elektronomagnetismus, a book that is unsurpassed for accuracy and comprehensiveness. He produced the first edition in 1861, and a fourth, revised and enlarged, was only completed a short time before his death. But his original work was also important. His data for the thermal conductivity of various metals were for long the most trustworthy at the disposal of physicists, and his determination of the ohm in terms of the specific resistance of mercury showed remarkable skill in quantitative research. He carried out a number of magnetic investigations which resulted in the discovery of many interesting phenomena, some of which have been rediscovered by others; they related among other things to the effect of mechanical strain on the magnetic properties of the magnetic metals, to the relation between the chemical composition of compound bodies and their magnetic properties, to the nature of the laws of torsion and of magnetism. He also investigated electrical endosmosis and the electrical resistance of electrolytes. His eldest son, Eilhard Ernst Gustav, born at Berlin on the 1st of August 1852, became professor of physics at Erlangen in 1886, and his younger son, Alfred, born at Berlin on the 18th of July 1856, was appointed to the extraordinary professorship of Egyptology at Bonn in 1892.

WIELAND, CHRISTOPH MARTIN (1733-1813), German poet and man of letters, was born at Oberholzheim, a village near Biberach, on the 11th of September 1733. His father, who was pastor in Oberholzheim, and subsequently in Biberach, took great pains with the child's education, and from the town school of Biberach he passed on, before he had reached his fourteenth year, to the gymnasium at Klosterberge, near Magdeburg. He was a precocious child, and when he left school in 1749 was widely read in the Latin classics and the leading contemporary French writers; amongst German poets his favourites were Brokes and Klopstock. While at home in the summer of 1750, he fell in love with a kinswoman, Sophie Gutermann, and this love affair seems to have acted as an incentive to poetic composition; under this inspiration he planned his first ambitious work, Die Natur der Dinge (1752), an didactic poem in six books. In 1750 he went to the university of Tübingen as a student of law, but his time was mainly taken up with literary studies. The poems he wrote at the university—Hermann, an epic (published by F. Muncker, 1838), Zwolf moralische Briefe in Versen (1752), Anti-Ovid (1752)—are pietistic in tone and dominated by the influence of Klopstock. They attracted the attention of the Swiss literary reformer, J. J. Bodmer, who invited Wieland to visit him in Zürich, and during the summer of 1755 he stayed in Zürich. After a few months, however, Bodmer felt himself as little in sympathy with Wieland as, two years earlier, he had felt himself with Klopstock, and the friends parted; but Wieland remained in Switzerland until 1760, residing, in the last year, at Bern where he obtained a position as private tutor. Here he stood in intimate relations with Rousseau's friend Julie de Bondelni. Meanwhile a change had come over Wieland's tastes; the writings of his early Swiss years—Der geprüfte Abraham (1753), Sympathien (1756), Empfindungen eines Christen (1757)—were still in the manner of his earlier writings, but with the tragedies, Lady Johanna Gray (1758), and Clementina von Porretta (1760)—the latter based on Richardson's Sir Charles Grandison—the epic fragment Cyrus (1759), and the "moral story in dialogues," Araspes und Panthea (1760), Wieland, as Lessing said, "forsook the ethical spheres to wander again amongst the sons of men.

Wieland's conversion was completed at Biberach, whither he had returned in 1760, as director of the chancery. The dullness and monotony of his life here was relieved by the friendship of a Count Stadion, whose library in the castle of Warthausen, not far from Biberach, was well stocked with French and English books. Here, too, Wieland met again his early love Sophie Gutermann, who had meanwhile become the wife of Hofrat La Roche, then manager of Count Stadion's estates. The former poet of an austere piety now became the advocate of a light-hearted philosophy, from which frivolity and sensuality were not excluded. In Don Sylvio von Rosalta (1761), a romance in imitation of Don Quijote, he held up to ridicule his earlier faith and in the Komische Erzählungen (1763) he gave his extravagant imagination only too free a rein. More important is the novel Geschichte des Agathon (1760-1767), in which, under the guise of
a Greek fiction, Wieland described his own spiritual and intellectual growth. This work, which Lessing recommended as "a novel of classic taste," marks an epoch in the development of the modern psychological novel. Of equal importance was Wieland's translation of twenty-two of Shakespeare's plays into prose (8 vols., 1762-1766); it was the first attempt to present the English poet to the German people in something approaching entirety. With the poems Musaion oder die Philosophie der Grazen (1768), Idris (1768), Combatus (1770), Der neue Amonid (1771), Wieland opened the series of light and graceful romances in verse which appealed so irresistibly to his contemporaries and acted as an antidote to the sentimental excesses of the subsequent Sturm und Drang movement. Wieland married in 1760; his letters and journals of this period are lost, but his professorship of Latin at Erfurt. In the last-mentioned year he published Der goldene Spiegel oder die König von Schlesien, a pedagogic work in the form of oriental stories; this attracted the attention of duchess Anna Amalie of Saxe-Weimar and resulted in his appointment as tutor to her two sons, Karl August and Konstantin, at Weimar. With the exception of some years spent at Ossmannstedt, where in later life he bought an estate, Weimar remained Wieland's home until his death on the 28th of January 1813. Here, in 1773, he founded Der deutsche Merkur, which under his editorship (1773-1782) became the most important literary journal in Germany. Of the writings of his later years the most important, are the admirable satire on German provinciality—the most attractive of all his prose writings—Die Adleriten, eine sehr wahrhaftige Geschichte (1774), and the charming poetic romances, Das Wintermärchen (1776), Das Sommermärchen (1777), Geron der Adelige (1777), Die Wünsche oder Pervonte (1778), a series culminating with Wieland's poetic masterpiece, the romantic epic of Oberon (1780). Although belonging to a class of poetry in which modern readers take but little interest, Oberon has still, owing to the facile beauty of its stanzas, the power to charm. In Wieland's later novels, such as der Geheime Geschichte des Philosophen Peregrinus Prealeus (1791) and Aristipp und einige seiner Zeitgenossen (1800-1802), a didactic and philosophic tendency obscures the small literary interest they possess. He also translated Horace's Saites (1786), Lucian's Works (1788-1789), Cicero's Letters (1808 fl.), and from 1796 to 1803 he edited the Artisches Museum which did valuable service in popularizing Greek studies.

Without creating a school in the strict sense of the term, Wieland succeeded considerably the German literature of his time. The verse-romance and the novel—more especially in Austria—benefited by his example, and even the Romanticists of a later date borrowed many a hint from him in their excursions into the literatures of the south of Europe. The qualities which distinguish his work, its fluent style and light touch, his careless frivility rather than poetic depth, show him to have been in literary temperament more akin to Ariosto and Voltaire than to the more spiritual and serious leaders of German poetry; but these very qualities in Wieland's poetry introduced a balancing element into German classical literature and added materially to its fullness and completeness.

Editions of Wieland's Sämtliche Werke appeared in (1794-1802, 45 vols.), (1818-1828, 53 vols.), (1839-1840, 36 vols.), and (1853-1856, 36 vols.). The present edition (49 vols., 1878-1882) was edited by H. Windakiewicz (1878-1882); a new critical edition is at present in preparation by the Prussian Academy. There are numerous editions of selected works, notably by H. Pröhle in Kürschners Deutsche Nationalliteratur (vols., 54-56, 1883-1889); by E. Muncker (5 vols., 1886); by W. Bölche (4 vols., 1902). Collections of Wieland's letters were edited by his son Ludwig (1815) and by H. Gesner (1815-1816); his speeches and private letters by K. Soppe, L. Hildebrandt, and L. Corrard (1856); C. M. Wieland's Letters (4 vols., 1827-1828); Düring, C. M. Wieland (1853); J. L. Loebell, C. M. Wieland (1882); H. Pröhle, Wieland, Studien, Heine (1876); L. F. Oetterling, Wielands Leben und Werke in Schlesien und in der Schweiz (1877); H. Keil, Wieland und Reinhold (1885); F. Thalmeyr, Über Wielands Klassizismus, Sprache und Stil (1894); M. Doll, Wieland und die Antike (1896); C. A. Debmer, Sterne und Wieland (1896); W. Lenz, Wieland's Verhältniszus Speyer, Pape und Swift (1906); L. Hildebrandt, Beziehungen zu den deutschen Romantikern (1904). See also M. Koch's article in the Allgemeine deutsche Biographie (1897).
of the emperor Maximilian I., who was born here in 1450. The parish church, with its two lofty towers, is substantially a Romanesque building of the 13th century, but the choir and transepts are Gothic additions of a later date. The late Gothic church of the old Cistercian abbey contains a handsome monument in memory of Leonora of Portugal (d. 1467), consort of the emperor Frederick III., and possesses a rich library and an interesting museum. The town-house is also a noteworthy building and contains large and important archives. The chief industrial establishments are a large ammunition factory and an engine factory; but manufactures of cotton, silk, velvet, pottery, and paper are also extensively carried on. Trade is also brisk, and is facilitated by a canal connecting the town with Vienna, and used chiefly for the transport of coal and timber.

Neustadt was founded in 1192, and was a favourite residence of numerous Austrian sovereigns, acquiring the title of the "ever-faithful town" (die altezeit getreue Stadt) from its unfailing loyalty. In 1246 it was the scene of a victory of the Hungarians over the Austrians; and in 1246 it was taken by Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, who, however, restored it to Maximilian I. four years later. In 1520 and 1523 it was besieged by the Turks. It was at Neustadt that the emperor Rudolf II. granted to the Bohemian Protestants, in 1600, the "Majestätis-brief," or patent of equal rights, the revocation of which helped to precipitate the Thirty Years' War.


WIENIAWSKI, HENRI (1835-1886), Polish violinist and composer, was born at Lublin, in Poland, on the 10th of July 1835. He was a pupil of the Paris Conservatoire from 1843 to 1846, and again in 1849-1850. Meanwhile he had given concerts in his native country and in Russia, and in 1850 entered upon the career of a travelling virtuoso, together with his brother Joseph, a distinguished pianist. He was appointed solo violinist to thezar in 1860, and taught in the Conservatoire of St. Petersburg from 1862 to 1867. He went on tour again in 1872 with Rubinstein in America, and on his return in 1874 was appointed to succeed Vieuxtemps as professor in the Brussels Conservatoire; but, like his predecessor, he was compelled through ill-health to give up the post after three years, returning to a public career in spite of his illness, until his death, which occurred in a hospital in Paris. It was in the Magazines of Nachod and of the Wonderland Symphony and in the Silesian Sinfonia, which were immensely popular, that his compositions were performed with the greatest success. He also invented the bass tuba or bombardin order to give greater richness and power to the bass parts. In recognition of these inventions he was, in 1835, honoured by the Royal Academy of Berlin. In 1838 he was appointed by the Prussian government director-general of all the guards' bands, and in recognition of the magnificent performance by massed bands on the occasion of the emperor Nicholas I.'s visit the same year, was awarded a special uniform. In 1843 he became director-general of the bands of the 10th Confederate army corps, and from this time exercised a profound influence on the development of military music throughout Germany, and beyond. He was the first to arrange the symphonies and overtures of the classical masters for military instruments, and to organize those outdoor performances of concert pieces by military bands which have done so much to popularize good music in Germany and elsewhere. The performance arranged by him of Beethoven's "Battle of Vittoria," in which the bugle calls were given by trumpeters stationed in various parts of the garden and the cannon shots were those of real guns, created immense sensation. Besides the great work he accomplished in Germany, Wieprecht, in 1847, reorganized the military music in Turkey and, in 1852, in Guatemala. He composed military symphonies and a large number of solo instrumental works, and distributed them frequently on his favourite subject to the Berlin musical papers. He died on the 4th of August 1872. Wieprecht was a man of genial, kindly and generous nature, and was associated with many charitable foundations established for the benefit of poor musicians.

WIESBADEN, a town and watering-place of Germany, in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau. Pop. (1905) 100,053. It is delightfully situated in a basin under the well-wooded southwestern spur of the Taunus range, 5 m. N. of Mainz, 3 m. from the right bank of the Rhine (at Biebrich), and 25 m. W. of Frankfort-on-Main by rail. The town is on the whole sumptuously built, with broad and regular streets. Villas and gardens encircle it on the north and east sides and extend up the hills behind. Its prosperity is mainly due to its hot springs and mild climate, which have rendered it a favourite winter as well as summer resort. The general character of the place, with its numerous hotels, pensions, bathing establishments, villas and places of entertainment, is largely determined by the requirements of visitors, who in 1907 numbered 150,000. The principal buildings are the royal palace, built in 1857-1870 as a residence for the Duchess of Nassau, and now a residence of the king of Prussia; the Court Theatre (erected 1829-1829); the new Kurhaus, a large and handsome establishment, with colonnades, adjoining a beautiful and shady park; the town-hall, in the German Renaissance style (1884-1888); the government offices and the museum, with a picture gallery, a collection of antiquities, and a library of 150,000 vols. Among the churches, which are all modern, are the Protestant Marktkirche, in the Gothic style with five towers, built 1533-1862; the Bergkirche; the Roman Catholic church of St. Boniface; the Anglican church and the Russian church on the Rhine (at Biebrich). There are two synagogues. Wiesbaden contains numerous scientific and educational institutions, including a chemical laboratory, an agricultural college and two musical conservatories.

The alkaline thermal springs contain 3% of common salt, and smaller quantities of other chlorides; and a great deal of their efficacy is due to their high temperature, which varies from 150° to 160° Fahr. The water is generally cooled to 93° F. for bathing. The principal spring is the Kochbrunnen (130° F.), the water of which is drunk by sufferers from chronic dyspepsia and obesity. There are twenty-eight other springs of nearly identical composition, many of which are used for bathing, and are efficacious in cases of rheumatism, gout, nervous and female disorders and skin diseases. The season lasts from April to October, but the springs are open the whole year through and are also largely attended in winter.

Two miles north-west of the town lies the Neroberg (860 ft.), whence a fine view of the surrounding country is obtained, and which is reached by a funicular railway from Beausite, and 6 m. to the west lies the Hohe Wurzel (2025 ft.) with an outlook tower.
Wiesbaden is one of the oldest watering-places in Germany, and may be regarded as the capital of the Taunus spas. The springs mentioned by Pliny (Hist. nat. xii. 2) as Fontes Malthisici were known to the Romans, who fortified the place c. 11 B.C. The massive walls in Wiesbaden were the first to wear the Galericulum, which was probably part of the fortifications built under Diocletian. The name Wissbadu ("meadow bath") appears in 830. Under the Carolingian monarch it was the site of a palace, and Otto I. gave it civil rights. In the 11th century the town and district passed to the counts of Nassau, fell to the Walram line in 1255, and in 1355 Wiesbaden became with Idstein capital of the county Nassau-Idstein. It suffered much from the ravages of the Thirty Years’ War and was destroyed in 1644. In 1744 it became the seat of government of the principality Nassau-Utzen, and was from 1815 to 1866 the capital of the duchy of Nassau, when it passed with that duchy to Prussia. Though the springs were never quite forgotten, they did not attain their greatest repute until the close of the 18th century. From 1771 to 1873 Wiesbaden was a notorious gambling resort; but in the latter year public gambling was suppressed by the Prussian government.

See Roth, Geschichte und historische Topographie der Stadt Wiesbaden (Wiesbaden, 1853); Pagenstecher, Wiesbaden im medizinisch-topographischen Beitrage (Wiesbaden, 1878); Kranz, Wiesbaden und seine Therme (Leipzig, 1884); Pfeiffer, Wiesbaden als Kurort (5th ed., Wiesbaden, 1896); and Heyl, Wiesbaden und seine Umgebungen (7th ed., Wiesbaden, 1908).

WIG (short for “periwig”), an alternative form of “peruke,” Fr. perruque; cf. Span. peluca; conjecturally derived from Lat. pilus), an artificial head of hair, worn as a personal adornment, disguise or symbol of office. The custom of wearing wigs is of great antiquity. If, as seems probable, the curious head-covering of a prehistoric ivory carving of a female head found by M. Piette in the cave of Brazemoupy in the Landes represents a wig (see Ray Lankester, Science from an Easy Chair, fig. 7) the fashion is certainly some 100,000 years old. In historic times wigs were worn among Egyptians, as a sort of official head-dress, and specimens of these have been recovered from mummies. In Greece they were used by both men and women, the most common name being πυργις or ψευδες, sometimes πρόπλωμα or κώμα πρόπλωθος. A reference in Xenophon (Cyr. i. 3. 2) to the false hair worn by Cyrus’s grandfather “as is customary among the Medes,” and also a story in Aristotle (Onon. 4. 14), would suggest that wigs were introduced from Persia, and were in use in Asia Minor. Another origin is suggested by Athenaeus (xii. 523), who says that the Iapgyian immigrants into Italy from Crete, in the 8th century, wore a ψευδες, and the elaborately trussed hair worn by some of the figures in the frescoes found at Cnosus makes it probable that the wearing of artificial hair was known to the Cretans. Lucian, in the 2nd century, mentions wigs of both men and women as a matter of course (Alex. 59, Dial. mer. 11). The theatrical wig was also in use in Greece, the various comic and tragic masks having hair suited to the character represented. A. E. Haigh (Altie Theatre, pp. 221, 239) refers to the black hair and heard of the tyrant, the fair curls of the youthful hero, and the red hair characteristic of the dishonest slave of comedy. These conventions appear to have been handed on to the Roman theatre.

At Rome wigs came into use certainly in the early days of the empire. They were also known to the Carthaginians; Polybius (iii. 78) says that Hannibal used wigs as a means of disguise. The fashionable ladies of Rome were much addicted to false hair, and we learn from Ovid, Amores, i. 14. 45 and Martial (v. 68) that the golden hair imported from Germany was most favoured. Juvenal (vi. 120) shows us Messalina assuming a yellow wig for her visits to places of ill-fame, and the scholar on the passage says that the yellow wig was characteristic of courtresses. The chief names for wigs were golares, galericum, corymbium, capillamentum, calidarium, or even conce emplum, &c. Galerius meant in the first place a skull-cap, or coif, fastening under the chin, and made of hide or fur, worn by peasants, athletes and gladiators. The first men’s wigs then would have been tight-fitting caps simulating hair, which would naturally suggest wigs of false hair. Otho wore a wig (Suetonius, Otho § 12), which could not be distinguished from real hair, while Nero ( Dio Cass. lxix. 9) wore a wig as a disguise, and Heliogabalus also were one at times (Ibid. xlix. 13). A wig was under Charles Anne Bourbon, dukes of different colours as part of their ordinary wardrobe, and Faustina, wife of Marcus Aurelius, is said to have had several hundred. An amusing development of this is occasionally found in portrait busts, e.g. that of Plautilla in the Louvre, in which the hair is made movable, so that by changing the wig of the statue from time to time it should never be out of fashion.

The Fathers of the Church violently attacked the custom of wearing wigs, Tertullian (De cultu fem. C. 7) being particularly eloquent against them, but that they did not succeed in stamping out the custom was proved by the finding of an auruban wig in the grave of a Christian woman in the cemetery of St Cyranus. In 672 a synod of Constantinople forbade the wearing of artificial hair.

Artificial hair has presumably always been worn by women when the fashion required abundant locks. Thus, with the development of elaborate coiffures in the 16th century, the wearing of false hair became prevalent among ladies in Europe; Queen Elizabeth had eighty attires of false hair, and Mary Queen of Scots was also in the habit of varying the attires of hair she wore. The periwig of the 16th century, however, merely simulated hair, either as an adornment or to cover the defects of nature. It was not till the 17th century that the periwig was worn as a distinctive feature of costume. The fashion started in France. In 1620 the abbé La Rivière appeared at the court of Louis XIII. in a periwig made to simulate long fair hair, and four years later the king himself, prematurely bald, also adopted one and thus set the fashion. Louis XIV., who was proud of his abundant hair, did not wear a wig till after 1670. Meanwhile, his courtiers had continued to wear wigs in imitation of the royal hair, and from Versailles the fashion spread through Europe. It was at the court of the duke of Marlborough, the Prince of Wales (Charles I.), while in Paris on his way to Spain, that he had “shadowed himself the most he could under a burlly perruque, which none in former days but bald-headed people used,” he had dropped the fashion on returning to England, and he and his Cavaliers were distinguished from the “Roundheads” only by wearing their own flowing locks. Under Charles II. the wearing of the periuke became general. Pepys records that he parted with his own hair and “ paid £3 for a periwig;” and on going to church in one he says “ it did not prove so strange as I was afraid it would. Quotidian hair, either as an adornment or to cover the defects of nature. It was not till the 17th century that the periwig was worn as a distinctive feature of costume. The fashion started in France. In 1620 the abbé La Rivière appeared at the court of Louis XIII. in a periwig made to simulate long fair hair, and four years later the king himself, prematurely bald, also adopted one and thus set the fashion. Louis XIV., who was proud of his abundant hair, did not wear a wig till after 1670. Meanwhile, his courtiers had continued to wear wigs in imitation of the royal hair, and from Versailles the fashion spread through Europe. It was at the court of the duke of Marlborough, the Prince of Wales (Charles I.), while in Paris on his way to Spain, had “shadowed himself the most he could under a burlly perruque, which none in former days but bald-headed people used,” he had dropped the fashion on returning to England, and he and his Cavaliers were distinguished from the “Roundheads” only by wearing their own flowing locks. Under Charles II. the wearing of the periuke became general. Pepys records that he parted with his own hair and “ paid £3 for a periwig;” and on going to church in one he says “ it did not prove so strange as I was afraid it would. Quotidian hair, either as an adornment or to cover the defects of nature. It was not till the 17th century...
This differentiation of wigs according to class and profession explains why, when early in the reign of George III. the general fashion of wearing wigs began to wane and die out, the practice held its own among professional men. It was by slow degrees that doctors, soldiers and clergymen gave up the custom. In the Church it survived longest among the bishops, the wig ultimately becoming a sort of ensign of the episcopal dignity. Wigs were first discarded by the bishops, by permission of the king, at the coronation banquet of William IV., the weather being hot; and Greville comments on the odd appearance of the prelates with their cropped polls. At the coronation of Queen Victoria the archbishop of Canterbury, alone of the prelates, still wore a wig. Wigs are now worn as part of official costume only in the United Kingdom and its dependencies, their use being confined, except in the case of the speaker of the house of commons and the Speaker of the house of lords, to the members of the lower and upper chamber, the judges and members of the bar (see Robert). Wigs of course continue to be worn by many to make up for natural deficiencies; and on the stage the wig is, as in all times, an indispensable adjunct. Many of the modern stage wigs are made of jute, a fibre which lends itself to marvellously perfect imitations of human hair.

See F. W. Fairholt, Costume in England, 2 vols., ed. Dillon (1887); C. W. Fairholt, The Dress of the People in England (1891); the articles "Coma" and "Galerus" in Darenberg and Saglio's Dictionnaire des antiquités. There is an admirable article on wigs and wig-making in Diderot's Encyclopédie (1765), t. xii., p. 1."Perruques, ou l'art du pelage. École de Paris 60,764.

WIGAN, a market town, and municipal, county and parliamentary borough of Lancashire, England; 154 m. N.W. by N. from London by the London & North-Western railway, served also by the Lancashire & Yorkshire and the Great Central railways. Pop. (1891) 55,013, (1901) 60,764. It lies on the small river Douglas, which flows into the estuary of the Ribble. There is connexion by canal with Liverpool, Manchester, &c. The older portions of the town occupy the north bank of the river, the new additions being chiefly on the south bank. The church of All Saints, late Perpendicular, consisting of chancel with aisles and two chasels, was restored in 1850 and in modern times. There are numerous modern churches and chapels. The principal public buildings are the Royal Albert Edward Infirmary and Dispensary, the public hall, the borough courts and offices, the arcade, the market hall, the free public library and the county courts and offices (1888). The educational institutions include the free grammar school (founded by James Leigh in 1619 and rebuilt in 1876), the Wigan and District Mechanics' Institute and the Wigan Savings Bank (both by public subscription and opened in 1903) and the mechanics' institution, the night school of Notre Dame (1854), with a college for pupil teachers and a high school for girls, and several Roman Catholic schools. A public park of 27 acres was opened in 1878. The town owes much of its prosperity to its coal mines, which employ a large proportion of the inhabitants and supply the factory furnaces. The chief manufacture is that of cotton fabrics; the town also possesses iron foundries, iron and brass foundries, oil and grease works, railway wagon factories, and bolt, screw and nail works. The parliamentary borough, returning one member since 1855, lies on a level plain near the middle of the county, and is divided into five wards, which form five parliamentary divisions. The county borough was created in 1888. The corporation consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen and 30 councillors. Area 5682 acres, including the former urban district of Pemberton (pop. 21,564 in 1901), which was included with Wigan in 1904.

Roman remains have been found, and it is probable that the town covers the site of a Roman post or fort, Coccium. Wigan, otherwise Wygan and Wigham, is not mentioned in Domesday Book, but three of the townships, Upholland, Dalton and Orrell are named. After the Conquest Wigan was part of the former barony of Newton, and the church was endowed with a carucate of land, the origin of the manor. Some time before Henry III.'s reign the baron of Newton granted to the rector of Wigan the manorial privileges. In 1246 Henry III. granted a charter to the famous John Mansel, parson of the church, by which Wigan was constituted a free borough and the burgesses permitted to have a Guild Merchant. In 1240 John Mansel granted by charter to the burgesses that each should have five roods of land to his burgage as freehold on payment of 12d. each. Confirmations and extensions of Henry III.'s charter were granted by Edward I. (1294), Edward III. (1340), Richard II. (1358), Henry IV. (1405), Henry V. (1413), Charles II. (1663), James II. (1685) and William IV. (1832 and 1836). In 1258 Henry III. granted by charter to John Mansel a weekly market on Monday and two fairs, each of three days, beginning on the eve of Ascension Day and on the eve of All Saints' Day, October 28th. Edward II. granted a three days' fair from the eve of St Wilfrid instead of the All Saints' fair, but in 1329 Edward III. by charter altered the date again to its original date. Charles II.'s charter granted, and James II.'s confirmed, a three days' fair beginning on the 28th of April. The Pottage fair was granted by Charles II. on the 7th of May, and also the Christmas fair. Under the Act of Trade 1661 Lord Derby landed from the Isle of Man and marched through Preston to Wigan on the way to join Charles II. At Wigan Lane on the 25th of August a fierce battle took place between the Royalist forces under Lord Derby and Sir Thomas Tyldesley and the Parliamentarians under Colonel Lilburne, in which the Royalists were defeated, Tyldesley was killed and Lord Derby wounded. During the rebellion of 1745 Prince Charles Edward spent one night (December 10th) here on his return march. In 1795 Wigan returned two members to parliament and again in 1837, the right then remaining in the hands of the new borough. In 1754, but from that time till 1885, except during the war, the borough returned one member, and since 1885 one member. The church of All Saints is of Saxon origin, and was existing in Edward the Confessor's time. The list of rectors is complete from 1109.

WIGONIE, or WIGONIE (Fr. Vigneon, from the Lat. Vipio), also called locally "Whewer" and "Whew" (names imitative of the whistling call-note of the male), the Anas penelope of Linnaeus and Marcus penelope of modern ornithologists, one of the most abundant species of ducks throughout the greater part of Europe and northern Asia, reaching northern Africa and the Crimea in winter. A good many pairs breed in the north of Scotland; but the number of the vast numbers which winter in the waters of temperate Europe are in Lapland or farther to the eastward. Comparatively few breed in Iceland.

Intermediate in size between the teal and the mallard, and less showy in plumage than either, the drake wigeon is a beautiful bird, both the greater part of his bill black, his eye red and his head neck chestnut, 2 replaced by greyish pink below and above by lavender grey, which last produced by the transverse undulations of fine black and white lines, extends over the back and along surface of the wing and bell of lining of the coverts, which are 1

1 So Pigeon (an) from Pippa. Other French names, more or less local, are, according to Rolland, Vignie, Vignieon, Vigneon, Vignie, Wigon, Wignet, Winful, Visou and Digene. In some parts of England the small teasling flies, generally called mites, are known as wigeon-mites. 2 Hence come the additional local names "bald-pate" and "red-head."
conspicuously white, and shows itself again on the flanks. The wings are further ornamented by a glossy green speculum between two blue bands. The female is spotted on the flanks; the rest of her plumage is white. The female has the inconspicuous coloration characteristic of her sex among most of the duck tribe. In habits the wigon differs not a little from most of the Anasinae. It greatly affects tidal waters during the season of its southern migration, and becomes the object of slaughter to hundreds of gunners on the coasts of Britain and Holland; but, when it resorts to inland localities, as it also does to some extent in winter, it does much of its feeding in grassing, or, to use a modern expression, on the pastures which surround the lakes or moors that it selects.

The wigon occurs occasionally on the eastern coast of North America, and not uncommonly, it would seem, on the Pribylov Islands in the Pacific. But the New World has two allied species of its own. One of them, M. americana (a freshly killed example of which was once found in a London market), inhabiting the northern part of that continent, and in winter reaching Central America and the West Indian islands as far as Trinidad, wholly resembles its Old-World congener in habits and much in appearance. But in it the chestnut of the head is replaced by a close speckling of black and buff, the white wing-coverts being wanting, and nearly all the plumage is subduced in tone. The other species, M. sibilatrix, inhabits the southern portion of South America and its islands, from Chile on the west to the Falklands on the east, and is easily recognized by its nearly white head, nape glossy with purple and green, and other differences; while the plumage hardly differs sexually at all. (A. N.)

WIGGIN, KATE DOUGLAS (1857–1914). American novelist, daughter of Robert N. Smith, a lawyer, was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 28th of September 1857. She was educated at Abbott Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, and removed in 1876 to Los Angeles, California. She taught in Santa Barbara College (1877–1878), established in San Francisco the first free kindergartens for poor children on the western coast (1878), and, with the help of her sister, Miss Nora Archibald Smith, and of Mrs Sarah B. Cooper, organized the California Kindergarten Training School (1886). She married, in 1890, Samuel Bradley Wiggins of San Francisco, who died in 1899. In 1895 she married George Christopher Rigs, but continued to write under the name of Wiggins. Her interest in children's education was shown in numerous talks, some written in collaboration with her sister, in both prose and verse. But her literary reputation rests rather on her works of prose fiction, which show a real gift for depicting character and an original vein of humour. The best known of these are: The Birds' Christmas Carol (1888); Penelope's English Experiences (1893); Marm Lisa (1896); Penelope's Progress (1898), being Penelope's experiences in Scotland; Penelope's Irish Experiences (1901); The Diary of a Goose-Girl (1902); and Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm (1903).

WIGGLESWORTH, MICHAEL (1631–1705). American clergyman, born in England and emigrated to America in 1654, where he resided nearly all his life. He was known as a Unitarian minister especially in the parishes of the north, in the 18th of October 1651. His father, Edward (d. 1653), persecuted for his Puritan faith, emigrated with his family to New England in 1638 and settled in New Haven. Michael studied for a time at a school kept by Ezekiel Cheever, and in 1651 graduated at Harvard, where he was a tutor (and a Fellow) in 1652–1654. Having fitted himself for the ministry, he preached at Charlestown in 1653–1654, and was pastor at Malden from 1656 until his death, though for twenty years or more bodily infirmities prevented his regular attendance upon his duties—Cotton Mather described him as "a little feeble shadow of a man." During this interval he studied medicine and began a successful practice. He was again a Fellow of Harvard in 1697–1705. He died at Malden on the 1th of June 1705. Wigglesworth is best known as the author of The Day of Doom; or a Poetical Description of the Great and Last Judgment (1662). At least two English and eight American editions have appeared, notable among them being that of 1687 (New York), edited by W. H. Burr and including other poems of Wigglesworth, a memoir and an autobiography. For a century this realistic and terrible expression of the prevailing Calvinistic theology was by far the most popular work written in America. Other poems include God's controversy with New England (written in 1662, "in the time of the great drought," and first printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society for 1781), and Meat out of the Eater; or Meditations concerning the Necessity, End and Usefulness of Afflictions unto God's Children (1660; revised in 1703).

His son, Samuel (1689–1768), also a clergyman, was the author of several prose works and of one poem of merit, "A Funeral Song" (1760). Another son, Edward (1693–1765), was the first professor of Divinity at Harvard (1722–1749), and the author of various theological works; and a grandson, Edward (1712–1794), was the second Hollis professor of Divinity (1795–1797), in which position he was succeeded by Michael Wigglesworth's great-grandson, Rev. David Tappan (1752–1803). See J. W. Deane, Memoir of Rev. Michael Wigglesworth (Boston, 1871).

WIGHT, ISLE OF, an island off the south coast of England, forming part of the county of Hampshire, separated from the mainland by the Solent and Spithead. It is of diamond shape, measuring 22¼ miles from E. to W. and 17½ from N. to S. (extreme). The area is 147 sq. m. The south coast is for the most part cliff-bound and grand, and there is much quietly beautiful scenery both inland and along the northern shores. Although east winds are at times prevalent in winter and spring, and summer breezes may be excessive, the climate, especially in certain favoured spots, is mild and healthy. As a result numerous watering-places have grown up on the coasts.

A range of high chalk downs crosses the island from east to west, terminating seaward in the Culver cliffs and the cliffs near Freshwater respectively. It is breached eastward by the Yar valley, which runs from Bracklesham Bay N.E., in the valley of the river Yar, along a coastal stream in the island, flowing N., and by another Yar, flowing N., in the extreme west. These down reach a height over 700 ft. west of the Medina, but east of it do not greatly exceed 400 ft. The slope northward is gradual. The north-west and north-east coasts, looking over the Solent and Spithead respectively, rise sharply, but hardly even assume the cliff form; they are beautifully wooded, and broken by many picturesque estuaries, such as those of the western Yar and Newtown on the north-west, the Medina opening northward opposite Southampton Water, and Wroxton Creek, and the mouth of the eastern Yar on the north-east. The streams mentioned rise very near the south coast; the western Yar, indeed, so close to it that the high land west of the stream is nearly insulated. A second range of downs in the extreme south, between St Catherine's Point and Dunnsore, reaches the greatest elevation in the island, exceeding 800 ft. in St Catherine's Hill. Below these heights on the seaward side occurs the remarkable tract known as the Undercliff, a kind of terrace formed by the collapse of rocks overlying soft strata (sand and clay) which have been undermined. The upper cliffs of the island are of hard chalk; the lower cliffs are remarkably mild, and many delicate plants flourish luxuriantly. This part of the island especially affords a winter resort for sufferers from pulmonary complaints. Along the south coast the action of small streams on the soft rocks has hollowed out steep gullies or ravines, known as chines. Many of these, though small, are of great beauty; the most famous are Shanklin and Blackgang chines. The western peninsula shows perhaps the finest development of sea-cliffs. Off the westernmost promontory rise three detached masses of chalk, about 100 ft. in height, known as the Needles, exposed to the full strength of the southwesterly gales driving up the Channel. During a storm in 1764 a fourth spire was undermined and fell.

Geology.—The geology of the island possesses many features of interest. Its form has been determined by the simple monoclinal fold which has thrown up the Chalk with a high northward dip, so that it now exists as a narrow ridge running from the Needles eastward to the Culver Cliffs, and from hence northward somewhat south of Carisbrook. On the north side of the ridge the Chalk dips beneath the Tertiaries of the Hampshire Basin. Immediately north of the Chalk the Lower Eocene, Reading beds and London Clay form a narrow parallel strip, followed by a similar strip of Upper Eocene, Bracklesham and Bagshot beds. The remaining northern portion of the island is occupied by fluvo-marine Oligocene strata, including the Headon, Osborne, Bembridge and Hamford beds. The various Tertiary formations are exhibited along the north
coast, and may also be studied to great advantage in White Cliff and Alum Bays. In Alum Bay the vertical disposition of the strata is well shown, and the highly-coloured Bagshot sands and clays form a conspicuous feature. From the excellent coast sections many fossils may be obtained. South of the Chalk ridge that rock has been completely removed by denudation so as to expose the underlying Upper Greensand, which has slipped in many places over the underlying Gault (local name: 'Gault Moraine'). The Greensand formations are excellent. The Lower Greensand formation may be studied in the cliff section from Atherfield Point to Rockend, and in the chine of Shanklin and Blackgang. Beneath the Greensand the Wealden is exposed in the section from Brook to Atherfield, and also, to a much less extent, in Sandown Bay. The Wealden strata have yielded abundant fossil remains of extinct reptiles (Teiuanodon), especially in the neighbourhood of Brook and Cowiezea Chine; and at Brook an extinct forest remains of a great raft of timber floated down and deposited in estuarine mud at the mouth of a great river. At Brook also the characteristic Wealden mollusks, Unio valdensis, occurs abundantly.

Towns, &c.—Newport on the head of the Medina estuary is the chief town; Cowes at the mouth the chief port. The principal resorts of visitors are Cowes (the headquarters of the Royal Yacht Squadron); Ryde on the north-east coast; Sandown, Shanklin and Ventnor on the southern coast; Freshwater Gate on the south-east coast, and in the chine of the Solent. Others are Totland Bay near the mouth of the Solent, Gurnard near Cowes, and Seaview and Bembridge south of Ryde. The principal lines of communication with the mainland are between Cowes and Southampt, Ryde and Portsmouth, and Yarmouth and Lymington. Newport is the chief railway centre, lines running N. to Cowes, W. to Yarmouth and Freshwater, S. to Ventnor, with a branch to Sandown, and E. to Ryde. A direct line connects Ryde, Sandown, Shanklin and Ventnor, and has a branch to St Helen's and Bembridge. There are few industries in the island. The land is chiefly of cultural character, a large proportion being devoted to sheep-grazing. Fishing is carried on to a considerable extent on the south coast—lobsters, crabs and prawns being plentiful. Oyster cultivation has been attempted in the Medina, in Brading Harbour and in the Newtown river. At Cowes shipbuilding is carried on, and timber is grown for the British navy in a part of the ancient forest of Parkhurst, between the Medina and the Solent. The general trade of the island centres at Newport, but in the coast towns the chief occupation of the inhabitants consists in providing for visitors. The island shares in the defences of the Solent, Spithead and Portsmouth, and has an important naval station at Portsmouth. It is divided into two liberties, East and West Medina, excluding the borough of Newport and Ryde; and it forms one petty and special sessional division of the county. The urban districts are Cowes, East Cowes, St Helen's, Sandown, Shanklin and Ventnor. Until 1885 there was one member of parliament for the island and one for the borough of Newport; now, however, there is only one member for the whole island. Episcopally the island has for many centuries belonged to the see of Winchester. Pop. (1891) 78,672; (1901) 82,418.

History.—Among the most interesting relics of the Roman occupation of the Isle of Wight following its conquest by Vespasian in A.D. 43 are the villas at Brading and Carisbrooke, the cemeteries at Newchurch, and the foundations at Combe, Farley, Guildford and between Brixton and Calbourne. The settlement of the island by the Jutes no authentic details are preserved, but in 691 it was annexed by Wulfhere to Wessex and subsequently bestowed on his vassal, the king of Sussex. In 996 it was the headquarters of the Danes, who levied their supplies from the opposite coasts of Hampshire and Sussex. From the 14th to the 16th century the island was continuously under fear of Invasions by the French, who in 1377 burnt Yarmouth and Francheville (the latter being subsequently rebuilt and known as Newtown), and so devastated Newport that it lay uninhabited for two years. In 1419, on a French force landing in the island and demanding tribute in the name of King Richard and Queen Isabella, the islanders replied that the king was dead and the queen sent home to her parents without any such condition of tribute, "but if the Frenchmen's minde were to fight, they will'd them to come up, and no man should let them for the space of five hours, to refresh themselves, but when that time was expired they should have battayle given to them"; a proposition prudently declined by the Frenchmen, who returned to their ships and sailed home again. A more formidable raid was attempted in 1545. A fleet of 25 galleys, and 50 smaller vessels drew up off Brading Harbour, and in spite of the brave defence of the islanders wrought much serious destruction. Wolverton near Brading having lain a ruined site ever since. As a result of this, the last French invasion, an organized system of defence was planned for the island, and forts were constructed at Cowes, Sandown, Freshwater and Yarmouth. During the Civil War of the 17th century the island was almost unanimous in support of the parliament, and Carisbrooke Castle was the prison of Charles I. from 1647 to 1649, and in 1650, in the person of Prince Charles of England and the Duke of Gloucester, the former dying there from the effects of a chill after only a few weeks of captivity.

The lordship of the island was granted by William the Conqueror to William Fitz-Osbern, but escheated to the crown by the treason of Roger, son of William, and was bestowed by Henry I. on Baldwin de Redvers, whose descendant Isabella de Fortibus sold it to Edward I. in 1293 for 6,000 marks. Henceforth the island was governed by wardens appointed by the crown, who in the reign of Henry VII. were styled captains, a title revived in 1839 in the person of Prince Henry of Battenberg. The ancient place of assembly for the freemen of the island was at Shide Bridge near Newport, and at Newport also was held the Knighten Court, in which cases of small debt and trespasses were judged by those who held a knight's fee or part of a knight's fee of Carisbrooke Castle. The feudal tenants held their lands for the service of escorting their lords into and out of the island, and of serving forty days at their own cost in defence of Carisbrooke Castle. In the Domesday Survey twenty-nine mills are mentioned, and salt-works at Boarhunt, Bowcombe, Watchwell and Whitfield. The island quarries have been worked from remote times, that of Alum being the largest at Alum Bay. Alum was collected at Parkhurst Forest in 1579. Alum and sand for glass-making were formerly obtained at Alum Bay. In 1295 the united boroughs of Yarmouth and Newport made an isolated return of two members to parliament. From 1584 the boroughs of Lymington, Newport, Newtown and Yarmouth returned two members each, until under the act of 1832 the two last were disfranchised. By the act of 1868 Lymington and Newport lost one member each, and by the act of 1885 were disfranchised.

Antiquities.—Early antiquities include British pit villages near Rowborough, Celtic tumuli on several of the chalk downs, and the so-called Long Stone at Mottiston, a loft sandstone monolith. The Roman villa near Brading contains some beautiful and well-preserved examples of tessellated pavements. Carisbrooke Castle is a beautiful ruin built upon the site of an ancient British stronghold. There are slight remains of Quarry ABBEY near Ryde, founded for Benedictines (afterwards Cistercians) by Baldwin de Redvers in the first half of the 12th century. The most noteworthy ancient churches are those of Bonchurch (Norman), Brading (transitional Norman and Early English), Shallet (Norman and Decorated), and Carisbrooke, of various styles.


WITGOWN, a royal burgh and the county town of Wigtownshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 1329. It is situated on the western
shore of Wigtown Bay—whence the name, from the Scandinavian vik, "bay"—7 m. S. by E. of Newton Stewart by railway. It is built on an eminence around a spacious central area laid out in walks. The Old Church, the ruined church of the Black Machers, and the Lighting House are close together, and at the opposite side are two coves, one of 1738 and the other commemorating Waterloo. Some fishing is carried on. In the old churchover, were buried Margaret MacLachlan, a widow aged 63, and Margaret Wilson, a girl of 18, two covenanting martyrs who were tied to stakes in the sands of Wigtown Bay and drowned by the rising waters (1685), to whose memory, as well as that of three men who were hanged at the same time without trial, an obelisk surmounted by an urn was erected in 1858 on the top of Windy Hill, outside the town. Wigtown was made a royal burgh in 1783.

Wigtownshire (sometimes called West Galloway), a south-western county of Scotland, bounded N. by Ayrshire, E. by Kirkcudbrightshire and Wigtown Bay, S. by the Irish Sea and W. and N. by the North Channel. Including the small island of St Helena, at the head of Luce Bay, it covers an area of 311,669 acres, or 487 sq. m. On the eastern boundary the estuary of the Cree expands into Wigtown Bay, between which and Luce Bay, farther west, extends the promontory of the Machers, terminating in Burrow Head. The indentation of Luce Bay on the south and Loch Ryan on the north the hammerhead of the coast, and the line of which, from Portpatrick to Stranraer, the most southerly point of Scotland, is the southern, and Millepromont the northern extremity. The more or less rugged coast has many small inlets, few of which, owing to hidden rocks, afford secure landing-places. Excepting Loch Ryan, a fine natural harbour of which Stranraer is the port, the harbours are not available for vessels of heavy burden, on account either of the great distance to which the sea retires, or of their exposure to frequent fierce gales. Much of the county has a wild, bleak appearance, the higher land being covered with heath and sand; and while in the lower districts there are long stretches of bog and moss, and in the north centre, a few miles west of Newton Stewart, is a tract known as the Moons. Only towards the Ayrshire border do the hills reach a considerable altitude, Benbroke and Craigairlie being each 1000 ft. in height. The chief rivers are the Cree, forming the boundary with Kirkcudbrightshire and flowing past Newton Stewart and Carty into Wigtown Bay; the Bladenoch, issuing from Loch Mabery and falling into Wigtown Bay at Wigtown after a course of 22 m., its principal affluents, all on the right, being Black Burn, the Tin in and the Lomond Mie; and the Loch Rine, formed by the junction at New Luce of Main Water and Cross Water of Luce, and emptying itself into Luce Bay. Most of the numerous lochs are small, several being situated in private parks, as at the earl of Stair’s estate of Castle Kennedy. Among the larger lakes are Loch Mabery and Loch Dornal, both partly in Ayrshire, and Loch Ochiltree in the north of the shire, Loch Connell in the west. Loch Ronald in the centre and the group of Loch and four others in the parish of Mocharum, towards the south, and Loch Dowalton, at the junction of Kirkinner, Sorbie and Glasserton parishes.

Geology.—A line drawn in a north-easterly direction from the coast about 3 m. below Portpatrick, passing slightly north of the head of Luce Bay by Newton Stewart to the Cairnsmore of Fleet, divides the county so that practically all the rocks on the northern side are Ordovician age, while those on the south are Silurian. This line coincides with the general direction of the strike of the beds throughout the country. Most of the Ordovician rocks are black shales, in which graptolites may be found, along with greywackes and grits; they include the Glenkiln and Hartfell groups of the Moffat district. These rocks may be seen exposed on the coast south of Portpatrick and in the valley of the Cree. The slate quarries of Carn Ryan are of Ordovician age, and the whole of the rocks of the Lomond and the dark grits, greywackes and shales of Llandovery age, though here and there a small exposure of the underlying black Moffat shales appears on the downs. One of these former beds, known as the Llanes, is rich in fish remains, and to this rests unconformably upon a similar belt of Carboniferous sandstones, about 8 m. long and 1 m. wide, in which lies on the west side of the shire. A small patch of granite stands out on the coast at Lagganintoch Head, and there are also a few patches and dikes of diorite and quartz-felsite. Glacial moraines and drumlins are found over much of the older formations, and are well seen between Glenluce and Newton Stewart and south of Stranraer. The Loch Ryan basin is underlain by the same beds as the eastern district, comprising the shire east of the parish of New Luce and Old Luce, and the Upper district, comprising the shire west of and including these parishes. The county is under school-board jurisdiction, and there are high schools in Newton Stewart and Stranraer. The board-schools in Whithorn and Wigtown have secondary departments, and several of the schools in the shire earn grants for higher education. The county

Population and Administration.—In 1891 the population amounted to 36,652; in 1901 to 32,655 or 87 persons to the sq. m., the decrease for the decade being the third highest in Scotland. In 1901 there were 88 persons speaking Gaelic and English. The principal towns are Stranraer (pop. 6093); Newton Stewart (1868), which, however, standing on both banks of the Cree, extends into Kirkcudbrightshire; Wigtown (1369); and Whithorn (1888). Formerly Wigtown, Stranraer and Whithorn formed with New Galloway, in Kirkcudbrightshire, a group of burghs returning one member, but in 1885 the first three were merged in the county, which returns one member to parliament. Wigtown, the county town, Stranraer and Whithorn are royal burghs. The shire forms part of the sheriffdom of Dumfries and Galloway, and a sheriff-substitute sits at Wigtown and Stranraer. The sheriff conspires with the lieutenants of the eastern district, comprising the east of the parishes of New Luce and Old Luce, and the Upper district, comprising the shire west of and including these parishes. The county is under school-board jurisdiction, and there are high schools in Newton Stewart and Stranraer. The board-schools in Whithorn and Wigtown have secondary departments, and several of the schools in the shire earn grants for higher education. The county

Wigtownshire
WIGWAM—WIHTRED

Kennedy was created earl of Cassillis. Gilbert, the 4th earl, so powerful that he was called the "king of Carrick," held the shire for Mary, queen of Scots, when her husband, the head of the Congregation, but could do little for her cause. He profited by the Reformation himself, however, to acquire by fraud and murder the estate of Glenluce Abbey (about 1570). In 1603 James VI. instituted a bishop in the see of Galloway—which had not been filled for twenty years—and otherwise strove to impose episcopacy upon the people, but the inhabitants stood firm for the Covenant. The acts against Nonconformity were stringently enforced and almost every incumbent in Galloway was deprived of his living. Field-preaching was a capital crime and the law was in force that in attendance on a sermon a reign of terror supervised, and numbers of persons emigrated to Ulster in order to escape persecution. John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, having replaced Sir Andrew Agnew, who had refused the Test, as sheriff (1682), goaded the people into rebellion, the drowning of Margaret MacLachlan and Margaret Wilson within flood-mark in Wigtown Bay (1685) being an instance of his ruthless methods. With the Revolution of 1688 Presbyterianism was restored, and John Gordon, recently consecrated bishop of Galloway, retired to France. The Jacobite risings of 1715 and 1745 excited only languid interest, but in 1747 heritable property was granted to the chiefs of MacCulloch, to be hereditary, though he was the only official able to prove continuous tenure of the post since it was granted to his family in 1451. The first sheriff appointed under the new system was Alexander Boswell, Lord Auchenleck, father of James Boswell, the biographer of Dr Johnson. In 1760 an engagement took place in Luce Bay, when the young French seaman, François Thurot, with three warships, attempting a diversion in Jacobite interests, was defeated and killed with the loss of three hundred men and his vessels.

The ancient castles in Wigtownshire may be mentioned the cliff towers, possibly of Norse origin, of Carhigdon and Castle Feather near Burrow Head; the ruins of Baldoun, south of Wigtown, associated with events which suggested to Sir Walter Scott the romance of The Bride of Lammermoor; Corsewall near the northern extremity of the Rhins; the Norse stronghold of Cruggleton, south of Garliestown, which belonged in the 13th century to de Quincy, Earl of Winchester, who had married a daughter of Alan, "king" of Galloway, and to Alexander Comyn, 2nd Earl of Buchan (d. 1289), his son-in-law; Dunseky, south of Portpatrick, built in the 16th century, occupying the site of an Saxon church, the ancient seat of the MacDonells; Myrton, the seat of the MacCullochs, in Lochrum parish; and the ruined tower of Sorbie, the ancient keep of the Hnnays.

See Sir Herbert Maxwell, History of Dumfriesshire and Galloway (Edinburgh, 1896); Sir Andrew Agnew, The Agnew of Lochan (Edinburgh, 1860); The Galloway Herd-Book (Dumfries, 1880); Proceedings of the Soc. of Ant. of Scotland, passim; Gordon Fraser, Wigtown and Whithorn (Wigtown, 1877).

WIGWAM, a term loosely adopted as a general name for the houses of North American Indians. It is, however, strictly applied to a particular dome-shaped or conical hut made of poles lashed together at the top and covered with bark. The skin tents of many of the Plains Indians are called tipis. The word "wigwam" represents the Europeanized or Anglicized form of the Algokian tekwom-un, i.e., "in his (their) house."

WIHTRED, king of Kent (d. 725), son of Ecgfrith, nephew of Hlothhere and brother of Eadric, came to the Kentish throne in 690 after the period of anarchy which followed the death of the latter king. Bede states that Whithred and Swefheard were both kings in Kent in 692, and this statement would appear to imply that both of East-Saxon influence (Agust) were present, while there is also evidence of an attack by Wessex. Whithred, however, seems to have become sole king in 694. At his death, which did not take place until 725, he left the kingdom to his sons Aethelberht, Eadberht and Alric. After the annal 692 in the Chronicle there is inserted a grant of privileges to the church, which purports to have been issued by Whithred at a place called Baccancelce. This grant, however, cannot be accepted as genuine and
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has merely an illustrative value, but there is still extant a code of laws issued by him in a council held at a place called Berghamstede (Barham?) during the fifth year of his reign (probably 605).


WILBERFORCE, ROBERT ISAAC (1802-1857), English clergyman and writer, second son of William Wilberforce, was born on the 19th of December 1802. He was educated at Oriel College, Oxford, taking a double first in 1823. In 1826 he was chosen fellow of Oriel and was ordained, among his friends and colleagues being Newman, Pusey and Keble. For a few years he was one of the tutors at Oriel, but the provost, Edward Hawkes, disapproved his religious views, and in 1831 he resigned and left Oxford. In 1832 he obtained the livings of East Farleigh, Kent, which in 1830 he exchanged for that of Burton Agnes, near Hull. In 1831 he was appointed archdeacon of the East Riding. About this time Wilberforce became very intimate with Manning, and many letters on theological and ecclesiastical questions passed between them. In 1837 Manning joined the Church of Rome, and three years later Wilberforce took the same step. He was preparing for his ordination when he died at Albano on the 3rd of February 1857. He left two sons, the younger named Wilberforce, 1834, became one of the masters of the Supreme Court of Judicature. Edward's son, Lionel Robert Wilberforce (b. 1861), was in 1900 appointed professor of physics in the university of Liverpool.

R. J. Wilberforce assisted his brother Samuel to write the Life and to edit the Correspondence of his father. His other writings include: Church Courts and Church Discipline (1843); Doctrine of the Holy Eucharist (1843); Doctrine of the Incarnation in Relation to Mankind and the Church (1848 and later editions); The Five Empires, a Sketch of Ancient History (1850); A Sketch of the History of Erastianism (1851); An Enquiry into the Principles of Church Authority (1854); and a non-fictional work, Battles and Lucius (1842).

WILBERFORCE, SAMUEL (1802-1873). English bishop, third son of William Wilberforce, was born at Clapham Common, London, on the 7th of September 1805. In 1823 he entered Oriel College, Oxford. In the "United Debating Society," which afterwards developed into the "Union," he distinguished himself as a zealous advocate of liberalism. The set of friends with whom he chiefly associated at Oxford were sometimes named, on account of their exceptionally decorous conduct, the "Bethel Union"; but he was by no means averse to amusements, and specially delighted in hurdy-gurdy and hunting. He graduated in 1826, taking a first class in mathematics and a second in classics. After his marriage on the 11th of June 1828 to Emily Sargent, he was in December ordained and appointed curate-in-charge at Checkendon near Henley-on-Thames. In 1830 he was presented by Bishop Sumner of Winchester to the rectory of Brightstone in the Isle of Wight. In this comparatively retired sphere he soon found scope for that manifold activity which so powerfully characterized his subsequent career. In 1831 he published a tract on tithes, "to correct the prejudices of the lower order of farmers," and in the following year a collection of hymns for use in his parish, which had a large general circulation; a small volume of stories entitled the Note Book of a Country Clergyman; and a sermon, The Apostolical Ministry. At the close of 1837 he published the Letters and Journals of Henry Martyn. Although a High Churchman Wilberforce held aloof from the Oxford movement, and in 1838 his divergence from the "Tract" writers became so marked that J. H. Newman declined further contributions from him to the British Critic, not deeming it advisable that they should longer "co-operate very closely." In 1838 Wilberforce published, with his elder brother Robert, the Life of his father, and two years later his father's Correspondence. In 1839 he also published Eucharistica (from the old English divines), to which he wrote an introduction, Agathos and other Sunday Stories, and a volume of University Sermons, and in the following year Rocky Island and other Parables. In November 1839 he was installed archdeacon of Surrey, in August 1840 was collated canon of Winchester and in October he accepted the rectory of Alvestoke. In 1841 he was chosen Hampton lecturer, and shortly afterwards made chaplain to Prince Albert, an appointment he owed to the impression produced by a speech at an anti-slavery meeting some months previously. In October 1843 he was appointed by the archbishop of York to be sub-almoner to the queen. In 1844 appeared his History of the American Church. In March 1847 a remonstrance was drawn up by Wilberforce the dean of the deanery of Westminster, and in October the bishopric of Oxford.

The bishop in 1847 became involved in the Hampden controversy, and signed the remonstrance of the thirteen bishops to Lord John Russell against Hampden's appointment to the bishopric of Hereford. He also endeavoured to obtain satisfactory assurances from Hampden; but, though unsuccessful in this, he withdrew from the suit against him. The publication of a papal bull in 1850 establishing a Roman hierarchy in England brought the High Church party of whom Wilberforce was the most prominent member, into temporary disrepute. The succession to the Church of Rome of his brother-in-law, Archdeacon (afterwards Cardinal) Manning, and then of his brothers, as well as his only daughter and his son-in-law, Mr and Mrs J. H. Pye, brought him under further suspicion, and his revival of the powers of convocation lessened his influence at court; but his unfailing tact and wide sympathies, his marvellous energy in church organization, the magnetism of his personality, and his eloquence both on the platform and in the pulpit, gradually won for him recognition as without a rival on the episcopal bench. His diary reveals a tender and devout private life which has been overlooked by those who have only considered the versatile facility and persuasive expediency that marked the successful public career of the bishop, and earned him the sobriquet of "Soapy Sam." In the House of Lords he took a prominent part in the discussion of social and ecclesiastical questions. He has been styled the "bishop of society"; but society occupied only a fraction of his time. The great bent of his energies was ceaselessly directed to the better organization of his diocese and to the introduction of effective schemes for increasing the intellectual efficiency of the church. In 1854 he opened a theological college at Cuddesdon, which was afterwards the subject of some controversy on account of its alleged Romanist tendencies. His attitude towards Essays and Reviews in 1861, against which he wrote an article in the Quarterly, won him the special gratitude of the Low Church party, and latterly he enjoyed the full confidence and esteem of all except the extreme men of either side and party. On the publication of J. W. Colenso's Commentary on the Romans in 1861, Wilberforce endeavoured to induce the author to hold a private conference with him; but after the publication of the first two parts of the Penitence Critically Examined he drew up the address of the bishops which called on Colenso to resign his bishopric. In 1867 he framed the first Report of the Ritualistic Commission, in which coercive measures against ritualism were disavocated by the use of the word "restrain" instead of "abolish" or "prohibit.

He also endeavoured to take the sting out of some resolutions of the second Ritualistic Commission in 1868, and was one of the four who signed the Report with qualifications. Though strongly opposed to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, yet, when the constituencies decided for it, he advised that no opposition should be made to it by the House of Lords. After twenty-four years' labour in the diocese of Oxford, he was translated by Gladstone to the bishopric of Winchester. He was killed on the 10th of July 1873, by the shock of a fall from his horse near Dorking, Surrey.

Wilberforce left three sons. The eldest, Reginald Gorton Wilberforce, being the author of An Unrecorded Chapter of the English Church in the Restoration (1905). His two younger sons both attained distinction in the English church. Ernest Roland Wilberforce (1840-1908) was bishop of Newcastle-on-Tyne from 1882 to 1895, and bishop of Chichester from 1895 till his death. Albert Basil Orme Wilberforce (b. 1841) was appointed canon residuary of Westminster in 1884, chaplain of the House of Commons in 1896 and archdeacon of Westminster in 1900; he has published several volumes of sermons.
Besides the works already mentioned, Wilberforce wrote "Heroes of British liberality," (1810), of which four volumes were published, and several volumes of sermons. See Life of Samuel Wilberforce, with Selections from his Diary and Correspondence (1879-1882), vol. i., ed. by Canon A. R. Ashwell, and vol. ii. and iii., ed. by his son H. W. Wilberforce, whio became president of Queens' College, Cambridge, in 1888. One of the volumes of the "English Leaders of Religion" is devoted to him, and he is included in Dean Burgon's Lives of Twelve Good Men (1888).

WILBERFORCE, WILLIAM (1759-1833). English philanthropist whose name is chiefly associated with the abolition of the slave trade, was descended from a Yorkshire family which possessed the manor of Wilberfoss in the East Riding from the time of Henry II till the middle of the 18th century. He was the only son of Robert Wilberforce, member of a commercial house at Hull, by his wife Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Bird of Barton, Oxon, and was born at Hull on the 24th of August 1759. It was from his mother that he inherited both his feeble frame and his many rich mental endowments. He was not a diligent scholar, but at the grammar school of Hull his skill in elocution attracted the attention of the master. Before he had completed his tenth year he lost his father and was transferred to the care of a paternal uncle at Wimbledon; but in his twelfth year he returned to Hull, and soon afterwards was placed under the care of the master of the endowed school of Pocklington. Here his love of social pleasures made him neglectful of his studies, but he entered St John's College, Cambridge, in October 1766. Left by the death of Quen's, his grandfather, a wealthy and independent fortune under his mother's sole guardianship, he was somewhat idle at the university, though he acquitted himself in the examinations with credit; but in his serious years he "could not look back without unfeigned remorse" on the opportunities he had then neglected. In 1780 he was elected to the House of Commons for his native town, his success being due to his personal popularity and his lavish expenditure. He soon found his way into the fast political society of London, and at the club at Gossetrees renewed an acquaintance begun at Cambridge with Pitt, which ripened into a friendship of the closest kind. In the autumn of 1783 he set out with Pitt on a tour in France; and after his return his eloquence proved of great assistance to Pitt in his struggle against the majority of the House of Commons. In 1784 Wilberforce was elected for both Hull and Yorkshire, and took his seat for the latter constituency.

A journey to Nice in the autumn of the same year with his friend Dr Isaac Milner (1750-1829), who had been a master at Hull grammar school when Wilberforce was there as a boy, and had since made a reputation as a mathematician, and afterwards became a member of the committee for the enclosure of Carlisle, led to his conversion to Evangelical Christianity and the adoption of more serious views of life. The change had a marked effect on his public conduct. In the beginning of 1787 he busied himself with the establishment of a society for the reformation of manners. About the same time he made the acquaintance of Thomas Clarkson, and began the agitation against the slave trade. Pitt entered heartily into their plans, and recommended Wilberforce to undertake the guidance of the project as a subject suited to his character and talents. While Clarkson was abroad promoting the anti-slavery cause, Wilberforce took every opportunity in the House of Commons of exposing the evils and horrors of the trade. In 1788, however, a serious illness compelled him to retire for some months from public life, and the introduction of the subject in parliament therefore devolved on Pitt, whose representations were so far successful that an act was passed providing that the number of slaves carried in ships should be in proportion to the tonnage. On the 12th of May of the following year Wilberforce, in co-operation with Pitt, brought the subject of abolition again before the House of Commons, but the friends of the planters succeeded in getting the matter deferred. On the 27th of January following Wilberforce carried a motion for referring to a special committee the further examination of witnesses, but after full inquiry the motion for abolition in April 1791 was lost by 163 votes to 88. In the following April he carried a motion for gradual abolition by 238 to 85 votes; but in the House of Lords the discussion was finally postponed till the following session. Notwithstanding his unremitting labours in educating public opinion and annual motion in the House of Commons, it was not till following Pitt's death, that the first great step towards the abolition of slavery was accomplished. When the anti-slavery society was formed in 1823, Wilberforce and Clarkson became vice-presidents; but before their aim was accomplished Wilberforce had retired from public life, and the Emancipation Bill was not passed till August 1833, a month after his death.

In 1797 Wilberforce published A Practical View of the Prevailing Religious System of Professed Christians in the Higher and Middle Classes of this Country Contrasted with Real Christianity, which within half a year went through five editions and was translated into the principal Italian, Dutch and German. In the same year (May 1797) he married Barbara Ann Spooner and took a house at Clapham, where he became one of the leaders of what was known as the "Clapham Sect" of Evangelicals, including Henry Thornton, Charles Grant, E. J. Eliot, Zachary Macaulay and James Stephen. It was in connexion with this group that he then occupied himself with a plan for a religious periodical which should admit "a moderate degree of political and common intelligence," the result being the appearance in January 1821 of the Christian Observer. He Pitt, compelled himself to a large degree, to abandon set up attempts to the establishment of the social and religious welfare of the community, including the establishment of the Association for the Better Observance of Sunday, the foundation, with Hannah More (q.v.), of schools at Cheddar, Somersetshire, a project for opening a school in every parish for the religious instruction of children, a plan for the education of the children of the lower classes, a bill for securing better salaries to curates, and a method for disseminating, by government help, Christianity in India. In parliament he was a supporter of parliamentary reform and of Roman Catholic emancipation. In 1822, after a falling out with the Church Establishment of Yorkshire for the sake of a constituency which would make less demands on his time, and was returned for Bramber, Sussex. In 1825 he retired from the House of Commons, and the following year settled at Highwood Hill, near Mill Hill, "just beyond the disk of the metropolis." He died at London on the 20th of July 1833, and was buried in Westminster Abbey close to Pitt, Fox and Canning. In Westminster Abbey a statue was erected to his memory, and in Yorkshire a county asylum for the blind was founded in his honour. A column was also erected to him by his townsmen of Hull. In 1851 Wilberforce left four sons, three of whom, Samuel and Robert Isaac, are noticed separately. The youngest, Henry William Wilberforce (1807-1873), was educated at Oriel College, Oxford, and was president of the Oxford Union. He took orders in the English Church, but in 1850 became a Roman Catholic. He was an active journalist and edited the Catholic Standard.

The chief authorities of the career of William Wilberforce are his Life (3 vols., 1838) by his sons, Robert Isaac and Samuel, and his Correspondence (1840) also published by his sons. A smaller edition of the Life was published by Samuel Wilberforce in 1868. See also The private papers of William Wilberforce, edited by A. M. Wilberforce (1874); Sir James Stephen, Essays in Ecclesiastical Biography (1849); C. Colerough, Wilberforce, Times, London (1866); John Stoughton, William Wilberforce (1880); J. J. Gurney, Familiar Sketch of Wilberforce (1838); and J. S. Hartford, Recollections of W. Wilberforce (1894).

WILBRANDT, ADOLF (1837—). German novelist and dramatist, was born at Rostock on the 24th of August 1837, the son of a professor at that university. Having received his early education at the gymnasium of his native town, he entered the university and engaged in the study of theology, but he soon abandoned in favour of philology and history, and continued these studies in Berlin and Munich. After taking the degree of doctor of philosophy, he joined the staff of the Süddeutsche Zeitung in Munich. He travelled abroad for a time and in 1871 settled in Vienna, where, two years later, he married the actress, Auguste Baudius. In 1881 Wilbrandt was appointed
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director of the Hofburg theatre in succession to Franz Dingelstedt, an office he held until 1887. In this year he returned to his native town of Rostock, and remained actively engaged in literary production. Wilbrandt is distinguished both as a dramatist and novelist. His merits were acknowledged by the award of the Grillparzer prize on two occasions—in 1875 for the tragedy Gracchus der Volkstrubun, and in 1890 for his dramatic poem Der Meister von Palmyra, while in 1878 he received the Schiller prize for his dramatic productions.

Among his plays may be mentioned the tragedies, Arria und Messalina (1874), Nero (1876); Kriemhild (1877); the comedies Unerreichtar (1870), Die Moler (1872), Jugendliebe (1873) and Der Kampf ums Dasein (1874); and the drama Die Tochter des Devils Fabricatz (1883). Among his novels the following may be noticed:—Meister Amor (1880); Herrmann Jinger (1892; Der Dormenweg (1894); Die Osterinsel (1895); Die Rothenburger (1895); and Der Ruhm der Truhe (1896). Wilde has long been popular and are included in modern collections of his works.

WILDE, JOHN, English 16th-century madrigal composer, was born probably at Bury St Edmunds, but the details of his life are obscure. A set of madrigals by him appeared in 1598 and a second in 1608, the two sets containing sixty-four pieces; and from a few contributions known to have been made by him to other contemporary sets, we can infer that he was alive in 1614. He is the most famous of all the English madrigalists; his pieces have long been favourites and are included in modern collections of that kind.

WILD, JONATHAN (c. 1682–1729), English criminal, was born about 1682 at Wolverhampton, where his father was a wig-maker. After being apprenticed to a local buckle-maker, he went to London to learn his trade, and, getting into debt, was imprisoned for several years. The acquaintance of many criminals which he made in prison he turned to account after his release by setting up as a receiver of stolen goods. Wild shrewdly realized that it was safer, and in most cases more profitable, to dispose of such property by returning it to its legitimate owners than to sell it, with the attendant risks, in the open market, and he thus built up an immense business, posing as a recaver of stolen goods, the thieves receiving a commission on the price paid for recovery. A special act of parliament was passed by which receivers of stolen property were made accessories to the theft, but Wild’s professed “lost property office” had little difficulty in evading the new law, and became so prosperous that two branch offices were opened. From profiting by robberies in which he had no share, Wild naturally came to arrange robberies himself, and he devised and controlled a huge organization, which plundered London and its approaches wholesale. Such thieves as refused to work with him received short shrift. The notorious Jack Sheppard, wearied of Wild’s exactions, at last refused to deal with him, whereupon Wild secured his arrest, and himself arrested Sheppard’s confederate, “Blueskin.” In return for Wild’s services in tracking down such thieves as he did not himself control, the authorities for some time tolerated the offences of his numerous agents, each a specialist in a particular kind of robbery, and so themselves strengthened his position. If an arrest were made, Wild had a plentiful supply of false evidence at hand to establish his agents’ alibi, and he did not hesitate to obtain the conviction, by similar means, of such thieves as refused to recognize his authority. Such stolen property as could not be returned to the owners with profit was taken away in a slop purchased for this work. At last either the authorities became more strict or Wild less cautious. He was arrested, tried at the Old Bailey, and after being acquitted on a charge of stealing lace, found guilty of taking a reward for restoring it to the owner without informing the police. He was hanged at Tyburn on the 24th of May 1725.

WILDBAD, a watering-place of Germany; in the kingdom of Württemberg, picturesquely situated 1475 ft. above the sea, in the romantic pine-clad gorge of the Enz in the Black Forest, 28 m. W. of Stuttgart and 14 E. of Baden-Baden by rail. Pop. 7063. (1905) 3734. It contains an Evangelical, a Roman Catholic and an English church, and has some small manufactures (cigars, paper and toys). Its thermal alkaline springs have a temperature of 90°-100° Fahr. and are used for bathing in cases of paralysis, rheumatism, gout, neuralgia and similar ailments. The fact that the springs rise within the baths, and are thus used at the fountain-head, is considered to contribute materially to their curative value. The water is used internally for affections of the stomach, intestines and digestive organs, and of the kidneys, bladder, &c. Wildebad possesses all the usual arrangements for the comfort and amusement of the visitors (over 15,000 annually), including large and well-appointed hotels, a Kurhaus, a Trink-Halle and promenades. The neighbourhood is picturesque, the most attractive spot being the Wildsee, of which legends are told.


WILDE, OSCAR F'LAHERTIE WILLS (1856–1900), English author, son of Sir William Wilde, a famous Irish surgeon, was born in Dublin on the 15th of October 1856; his mother, Jane Francisca Elgee, was well known in Dublin as a graceful writer of verse and prose, under the pen-name of “Speranza.” Having distinguished himself in classics at Trinity College, Dublin, Oscar Wilde went to Magdalen College, Oxford, in 1874, and won the Newdigate prize in 1878 with his poem “Ravenna,” besides taking a first-class in classical Moderations and in Literae Humaneores. But his career at Oxford, brilliant intellectually as he showed himself to be, was chiefly signalized by the part he played in what came to be known as the aesthetic movement. He adopted what to undergraduates appeared the effeminate pose of casting scorn on many sports, wearing his hair long, decorating his rooms with peacock’s feathers, lilies, sunflowers, blue china and other objets d’art, which he declared his desire to “live up to,” affecting a lackadaisical manner, and professing intense emotions on the subject of “art for art’s sake”—then a new-fangled doctrine which J. M. Whistler was bringing into prominence. Wilde made himself the apostle of this new cult. At Oxford his behaviour procured him a ducking in the Cherwell, and a wrecking of his rooms, but the cult spread among certain sections of society to such an extent that languishing attitudes, “too-too” costumes and “aestheticism” generally became a recognized pose. Its affectations were burlesqued in Gilbert and Sullivan’s travesty Patience (1881), which practically killed by ridicule the absurdities to which it had grown. At the same time it cannot be denied that the “aesthetic” movement, in the aspect fundamentally represented by the school of William Morris and Rossetti, had a permanent influence on English decorative art. As the leading “aesthet,” Oscar Wilde became one of the most prominent personalities of the day; apart from the ridicule he encountered, his personal paradoxes and his witty sayings were quoted on all sides, and in 1882 he went on a lecturing tour in the United States. In 1884 he married Constance Lloyd. He had already published in 1882 a selection of his poems, which, however, only attracted admiration in a limited circle. In 1888 appeared The Happy Prince and Other Tales, illustrated by Walter Crane and Jacquem Hood. This charming volume of fairy tales was followed up later by a second collection, The House of Pomegranates (1892), acknowledged by the author to be “intended neither for the British child nor the British public.” In much of his writings, and in his general attitude, there was to most people an undertone of rather nasty suggestion which created prejudice against him, and his novel, The Picture of Dorian Gray (1891), with all its sparkle and cleverness, impressed them more from this point of view than from its purely literary brilliance. Wilde contributed some characteristic articles to the reviews, all coloured by his peculiar attitude towards art and life, and in 1891 republished three of them as a book called Intentions. His first novel, with its cleverly phrased and relatively dramatic introduction Lady Windermere’s Fan at the St James’s Theatre in 1893, followed by A Woman of No Importance (1893), An Ideal Husband (1895) and The Importance of Being Earnest (1895). The
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dramatic and literary ability shown in these plays, all of which were published later in book form, was as undoubtedly as their diction and ideas were characteristically paradoxical. In 1863 the licensor of plays refused a licence to Wilde’s Salome, but it was produced in French in Paris by Sarah Bernhardt in 1894. His success as a dramatist had by this time gone some way to disabuse hostile critics of the suspicions as regards his personal character which had been excited by the apparent looseness of morals which since his Oxford days it had always pleased him to affect; but to the consternation of his friends, who had ceased to credit the existence of any real moral obliquity, in 1865 came fatal revelations as the result of his bringing a libel action against the marquis of Queensberry; and at the Old Bailey, in May, Wilde was sentenced to two years’ imprisonment with hard labour for offences under the Criminal Law Amendment Act. It was a melancholy end to what might have been a singularly brilliant career. Even after leaving prison he was necessarily an outcast from decent circles, and he lived mainly on the Continent, under the name of “Sebastian Melmoth.” He died in Paris on the 30th of November, 1900. In 1885 he published his powerful Ballad of Reading Gaol. His Collected Poems, containing some beautiful verse, had been issued in 1862. While in prison he wrote an apology for his life which was placed in the hands of his executor and published in 1905.

The manuscripts of A Florentine Tragedy and an essay on Shakespeare’s sonnets were stolen from his house in 1865. In 1904 a five-act tragedy, The Duchess of Padua, written by Wilde about 1883 for Mary Anderson, but not acted by her, was published in a German translation (Die Herzogin von Padua, transl. Max Meyendorf, Berlin). It is impossible to take a purely objective view of Oscar Wilde’s work. The Old Bailey revelations removed all doubt as to the essential unhealthiness of his personal influence; but his literary genius was none the less remarkable, and his plays were perhaps the most original contributions to English dramatic writing during the period.

(H. C.)

WILDEBRUCH, ERNST VON (1845-1900), German poet and dramatist, was born on the 3rd of February 1845 at Beyrout in Syria, the son of the Prussian consul-general. Having passed his early years at Athens and Constantinople, where his father was attached to the Prussian legation, he came in 1857 to Germany, received his early schooling at the Gymnasium at Halle and the Französisches Gymnasium in Berlin, and, after passing through the Cadet school, became, in 1863, an officer in the Prussian army. He abandoned the military career two years later, but was recalled to the colours in 1866 for the war with Austria. He next studied law at the university of Berlin, and again served in the army during the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-71. In 1876 Wildenbruch was attached to the foreign office, which he finally quitted in 1900 with the title of counsellor of legation. He achieved his first literary successes with the epics Viervall (1874) and Sedan (1875). After publishing a volume of poems, Lieder und Balladen (Berlin, 1877; 7th ed., 1900), he produced, in 1882, the tragedy, Die Karolinger. Among his chief dramas may be mentioned the tragedy Harold (1883); Die Quitzow (1888); Der Generalfeldoberst (1889); Die Haubenlere (1891); Heinrich und Heinrichs Geschlecht (1893); Die Tochter des Erasmus (1900); and König Laurin (1902). Wildenbruch was twice (in 1884 and 1890) awarded the Schiller prize, and in 1892, created a doctor of philosophy honoris causa by the university of Jena. He also wrote several volumes of short stories (Novellen, 1883; Neuausgabe, 1885; Töte Wasser, 1887, &c.). He died on the 15th of January 1909.


WILDERNESS, a large forest in Spotsylvania county, Virginia, U.S.A., on the S. bank of the Rapidan, extending from Mine Run on the E. to Chancellorsville on the W. It is famous in military history for the battles of Chancellorsville (1863) and Wilderness (1864) during the American Civil War.

Chancellorsville.—In May 1863 a three days’ battle was fought at Chancellorsville between the Army of the Potomac, under General J. Hooker, and General Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia, which had stemmed the tide of invasion in the East by taking up a defensive position along the right or south bank of the Rappahannock. General Burnside had suffered a severe repulse in front of the Confederate position at Fredericksburg in December 1862, and his successor resolved to adopt the alternative plan of turning Lee’s flank and so gaining the road to Richmond. General Lee had meanwhile weakened his forces by detaching Longstreet’s two divisions and sending them to the lines of Hampton, Robertson and Jones. Hooker had now at his disposal 12,000 cavalry, 400 guns and 120,000 infantry and artillery, organized in seven corps (I. Reynolds, II. Couch, III. Sickles, V. Meade, VI. Sedgwick, XI. Howard, XII. Slocum). General Lee counted only 45,000 men of all arms effective. Hooker detached 10,000 cavalry under Stoneman and Sedgwick’s corps (30,000) to demonstrate on his flanks the Rapidan and at Fredericksburg, while with the remainder he moved up the Rappahannock and crossed that river and after surprising the Federals who fled panic at nightfall, but Jackson was mortally wounded. Next day the attack was resumed under the direction of Stuart, who was reinforced by Anderson, while McLawes now threatened the left flank of the Federals and Fitz Lee’s cavalry brigade operated against their line of retreat. Hooker finally gained the shelter of an inner line of works covering the ford by which he must retreat. Meanwhile, Early had checked Sedgwick, but when at last the Federal corps was about to overwhelm the Confederate division Lee came to succour it. Then Sedgwick was assailed by Early, McLawes and Anderson, and driven over the Rappahannock to join the remainder of Hooker’s beaten army, which had receded from the Rapidan on the 4th of May and marched back to Falmouth. Phister’s Record states that the Federal loss was 16,000 and that of the Confederates 12,000 men.


(G. W. R.)

Grant’s Campaign of the Wilderness and Cold Harbor.—On the evening of the 3rd of May 1864, after dark, the Army of the Potomac, commanded by Major General G. IO. Meade and consisting of the II. V. and VI. and Cavalry corps, left its winter quarters about Culpeper to manoeuvre across the Rapidan with a view to fighting a battle at or near New Hope Church and Craig’s Church. The army, and the IX. corps (Burnside), which was an independent command, were directed by Lieutenant-General Grant, the newly appointed commander of the armies of the United States, who accompanied Meade’s headquarters. The opposing Army of Northern Virginia under General R. E. Lee lay in quarters around Orange Court House (A. F. Hill’s corps), Verdiersville (Ewell’s corps) and Gordonsville
(Longstreet's corps). The respective numbers were: Army of the Potomac, 98,000; IX. corps, 22,000; Army of Northern Virginia rather less than 70,000.

The crossing of the Rapidan was made at Germanna and Ely's Fords, out of reach of Lee's interference, and in a few hours the two leading corps had reached their halting-places—V., Wilderness Tavern; and II., Chancellorsville. The VI. followed the V. and halted south of Germanna Ford. Two of the three divisions of cavalry preceded the march, and scouted to the front and flanks. Controversy has arisen as to whether the early halt of the Union army in the midst of the Wilderness was a serious error of judgment. The reason assigned was the necessity of protecting an enormous wagon train, carrying 15 days' supplies for the whole army, that was crossing after the II. corps at Ely's Ford. Burnside's corps was far to the rear when the advance began, but by making forced marches it was able to reach Germanna Ford during the 5th of May. On that day the manoeuvre towards Craig's Church was resumed at 5 A.M., Wilson's cavalry division moving from Parker's Store southward, the V. corps (Warren) moving from Wilderness Tavern towards Parker's Store, followed by the VI. under sedgwick, the II. from Chancellorsville by way of Todd's Tavern towards Shady Grove Church. Of the other cavalry divisions, Gregg's went to Frederickburg (near where the Confederate cavalry corps had been reported) and Torbert's (which had acted as rearguard and watched the upper Rapidan during the first day's march) was not yet across the river.

Grant's intention of avoiding a battle until he was clear of the Wilderness was not achieved, for Confederate infantry appeared on the Orange Turnpike east of Mine Run, where on his own initiative Warren had posted a division of the V. corps overnight as flank-guard, and some cavalry, judiciously left behind by Wilson at Parker's Store, became engaged a little later with hostile forces on the Orange Plank Road. This led to the suspension of the whole manœuvre towards Lee's right rear. The first idea of the Union headquarters was that Lee was falling back to the North Anna, covered by a bold rearguard, which Grant and Meade arranged to cut off and destroy by a convergent attack of Warren and Sedgwick. But the appearance of infantry on the Plank Road as well as the Pike had shown that Lee intended to fight in the Wilderness, and Hancock (II. corps) was called in from Todd's Tavern, while one division (Gettys') of the VI. was hurried to the intersection of the Brock and Plank roads to hold that point until Hancock's arrival. Gettys arrived just in time, for Confederate skirmishers were found dead and wounded only 30 yds. from the cross roads. The division then formed up to await Hancock's arrival up the Brock Road, practically un molested, for Lee had only two of his corps on the ground (Hill on the Plank Road, Ewell on the Pike), and did not desire to force a decision until Longstreet's distant corps should arrive.

Meanwhile Warren had been slowly forming up his attacking line with great difficulty in the woods. Grant appears to have used bitter words to Meade on the subject of Warren's delays,
and Meade passed these on to Warren, who in turn forced his subordinates into premature action. In the end, about noon, Griffin's division of Warren's corps attacked directly along the Pike and crushed the enemy's first line, but, unsupported by the VI corps on the right and Wadsworth's division (V. corps) on the left, both of which units were still groping their way forward in the woods, was forced back with heavy losses. Wadsworth took a wrong direction in the woods and presented himself as an easy victim to Ewell's right, soon after Griffin's repulse.

The VI. corps advanced later in the day on Warren's right, but was only partially engaged. The result of the attack on Ewell was not decided until the late hours of the night, Lee was determined, as always, to have the last word, and about 4.15–4.30 a fierce assault was delivered amidst the burning woods upon Hancock's entrenchments along the Brock Road. For a moment, aided by the dense smoke, the Confederates seized and held the first line of works, but a counter-stroke dislodged them. Burnside, though not expecting to have to attack before 6 p.m., put into the fight such of his troops as were ready, and at 5.30 or thereabouts the assaulting line reeled into the woods. Grant cancelled his order to attack at 6, and at the decisive point the battle was at an end. But on the extreme right of the Union army a sudden attack was delivered at sunset on Heth's and Ewell's brigades. This carried off two generals and several hundred prisoners, and a panic ensued which affected all the Union forces on the Pike, and was not quelled until after nightfall.

Lee, therefore, had the last word on both flanks, but in spite of this and of the very heavy losses, Grant had already resolved to go on, instead of going back like his various predecessors. To him, indeed, the battle of the Wilderness was a victory; an indecisive victory indeed, but one that had given him a moral superiority which he did not intend to forfeit. His scheme, drafted early on the morning of the 7th, was for the same march to Spottsylvania on the night of the 7th-8th, to assemble there on the 8th, and thence to undertake a fresh manœuvre against Lee's right rear on the 9th. This movement required the trains with the fighting line to be cleared away from the roads needed for the troops at once, and Lee promptly discovered that a movement was in progress. He mistook its object, however, and assuming that Grant was falling back on Fredericksburg, he prepared to shift his own forces to the south of that place so as to bar the Richmond road. This led to a race for Spottsylvania, which was decided more by accidents to either side than by the measures of the two commanding generals. On the Union side Warren was to move to the line Spottsylvania Court House-Todd's Tavern, followed by Hancock; Sedgwick was to take a roundabout route and to come in between the V. and II. corps; Burnside to follow Sedgwick. The cavalry was ordered to watch the approaches towards the right of the army. The movement began promptly after nightfall on the 7th. But ere long the head of Warren's column, passing in rear of Hancock's line of battle, was blocked by the headquarters escort of Grant and Meade. Next, the head of the V. corps was again checked at Todd's Tavern by two cavalry divisions which had been sent by Sheridan to regain the ground at Todd's Tavern, given up on the 6th, and after fighting the action of Todd's Tavern had received no further orders from him. Meade, greatly irritated, ordered Gregg's division out towards Corbin's Bridge and Merritt's (Torbert's) to Spottsylvania. On the latter road the Union cavalry found themselves opposed by Fitz Lee's cavalry, and after some hours of disheartening work in the woods, Merritt asked Warren to send forward infantry to drive the enemy. This Warren did, although he was just preparing to rest and to feed his men after their exhausting night-march. Robinson's division at the head of the corps deployed and swiftly drove in Fitz Lee. A little beyond Alsop's, however, Robinson found his path barred by entrenched infantry. This was part

1 Wilson's division, in its movement on Shady Grove Church on the 9th, had been cut off by the enemy's advance on the Plank Road and attacked by some Confederate cavalry. But it extricated itself and joined Gregg, who had been sent to assist him, at Todd's Tavern.

2 The Union losses in the battle were 18,000, the Confederates at least 11,000.

3 In consequence of a mistaken order that the trains which he was protecting were to move forward to Piney Branch Church.
of Anderson's (Longstreet's) corps. That officer had been ordered to draw out of his (Wilderness) works, and to bivouac, preparatory to marching at 3 A.M. to the Court House, but, finding no good resting-place, he had moved on at once. His route took him to the Catharpin Road (Hampton's cavalry protecting him toward Todd's Tavern) and captured the outworks Bridge to Block House Bridge. At or near Block House Bridge the corps halted to rest, but Stuart (who was with Fitz Lee) called upon Anderson for assistance and the march was resumed at full speed. Sheridan's new orders to Gregg and Merritt did not arrive until Meade had given these officers other instructions, but Wilson's cavalry division, which was out of the line of march of the infantry, acted in accordance with Sheridan's plan of occupying the bridges in front of the army's intended position at Spotsylvania Court House, and seized that place, inflicting a smart blow upon a brigade of Stuart's force that was met there.

The situation about 9 A.M. on the 8th was therefore curious. Warren, facing E., and opposed by part of Anderson's corps, was seeking to fight his way to Spotsylvania Court House by the Brock Road. Wilson, facing S., was holding the Court House and driving Fitz Lee's cavalry partly westward on to the backs of the infantry opposing Warren, partly towards Block House Bridge, whence the rest of Anderson's infantry was approaching. All the troops were weary and hungry, and Sheridan ordered Wilson to evacuate the Court House and to fall back to the line of the N.Y. This was ordered to Anderson's Confederate infantry at Spangler's, General Robinson being severely wounded, and his division disorganized. The other divisions came up by degrees, and another attack was made about 11. It was pressed close up to, and in some places over, the Confederate log-works, but it ended in failure like the first. A third attempt in the evening dwindled down to a reconnaissance in force. Anderson was no longer isolated. Early's division observed Hancock's corps at Todd's Tavern, but the rest of Ewell's and all Hill's corps went to Spotsylvania and prolonged Anderson's line northward towards the N.Y. Thus the re-grouping of the Union army for manoeuvre, and even the running fight or strategic pursuit imagined by Grant when he found Anderson at Spotsylvania, were given up, and on the 9th both armies rested. On this day General Sedgwick was killed by a long-range shot from a Confederate rifle. His place was taken by General H. G. Wright. On this day also a violent quarrel between Meade and Sheridan led to the departure of the cavalry corps on an independent mission. This was the so-called Richmond raid, in which Sheridan defeated Stuart at Yellow Tavern (where Stuart was killed) and captured the staffs of General Jackson and of Richmond, but, having started with empty forage wagons, had then to make his way down the Chickahominy to the nearest supply depots of the Army of the James, leaving the Confederate cavalry free to rally and to rejoin Lee.

Finding the enemy thus gathered in his front, Grant decided to fight again on the 9th. While Hancock opposed Early, and Warren and Wright Hill and Anderson, Burnside was ordered by Grant to work his way to the Fredericksburg-Spotsylvania road, thence to attack the enemy's right rear. The first stage of the advance of the IX. corps was made during the night of the 8th, but not the attack itself, and Burnside was consequently ordered not to go beyond a place called "Gate" on the maps used by the Union staff. This, it turned out, was not the farm of a person called Gate, as headquarters supposed, but a mere gate into a field. Consequendy it was missed, and the IX. corps went on to Gale's or Gayle's house, where the enemy's skirmishers were driven in. The news of an enemy opposing Burnside at "Gate," which Grant still supposed to be the position of the IX. corps, at once radically altered the plan of battle. Lee was presumed to be moving north towards Fredericksburg, and Grant saw an opportunity of a great and decisive success. The IX. corps was ordered to hold its position at all costs, and the others were to follow up the enemy as he concentrated upon Burnside. Hancock was called in from Todd's Tavern, sent down to force the fords of the Po to guard silently at a position between Wright and Block House Bridge by an officer of Grant's own staff, while Warren and Wright were held ready. But once more a handful of cavalry in the woods delayed the effective deployment of the moving wing, and by the time that the II. corps was collected opposite Block House Bridge it was already night. Still there was, apparently, no diminution of force opposite Burnside, and Hancock was ordered to resume his advance at early dawn on the 10th.

Meade, however, had little or no cognizance of Grant's orders to the independent IX. corps, and his orders, conflicting with those emanating from the Lieutenant-General's staff, puzzled Hancock and crippled his advance. At to the whole scheme was given up, and the now widely deployed Union army closed on its centre as best it could for a direct attack on the Spotsylvania position. At 4, before the new concentration was complete, and while Hancock was still engaged in the difficult operation of drawing back over the Po in the face of the enemy, Warren attacked unsupported and was repulsed. In the woods on the left Wright was more successful, and at 6 P.M. a rush of twelve selected regiments under Colonel Emory Upton carried the right of Lee's log-works. But for want of support this attack was fruitless, though Upton's own staff, while Warren and Wright were held ready. But once more a handful of cavalry in the woods delayed the effective deployment of the moving wing, and by the time that the II. corps was collected opposite Block House Bridge it was already night. Still there was, apparently, no diminution of force opposite Burnside, and Hancock was ordered to resume his advance at early dawn on the 10th.

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This was the fourth battle since the evening of the 4th of May. On the morning of the 11th Grant sent his famous message to Washington, "I purpose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." The 12th was to be the fifth and, Grant hoped, the decisive battle. A maze of useful and useless entrenchments had been constructed on both sides, especially on the Union side, from mere force of habit. Grant, seeing from the experience of the 10th that his corps commanders were marring these entrenchments so strongly that they had only feebie forces disposable for the attack, ordered all superfluous defences to be given up. Three corps were formed in a connected line (from right to left, V., VI., IX.) during the 11th, and that night the II. corps was moved from Fredericksburg to Chancellorsville, and Burnside and formed up in the open field at Brown's in an attacking mass of Napoleon density—three lines of divisions, in line and in battalion and brigade columns. Burnside was to attack from Gayle's (Beverly's on the map) toward McCool's. Warren and Wright were to have at least one division each clear of their entrenchments and ready to move.

Up to the 11th Lee's line had extended from the woods in front of Block House Bridge, through Perry's and Spangler's fields to McCool's house, and its right was refused and formed in high ground. On the 11th McCool's division was removed, and Burnside's advance had caused Early's corps to entrench Spotsylvania and the church to the south of it, facing E. Between these two sections were woods. The connexion made between them gave the loop around McCool's the appearance from which it derives its historic name of The Salient. Upon the northern face of this Salient Hancock's attack was delivered.

On the 11th the abandonment of Burnside's threatening advance on his rear and other indices had disquieted Lee as to his left or Block House flank, and he had drawn off practically all Ewell's artillery from the McCool works to aid in that quarter. The infantry that manned the Salient was what remained of Stonewall Jackson's "foot cavalry," veterans of Antietam, Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. But at 4:35, in the mist, Hancock's mass swept over their works at the first rush and swarmed in the interior of the Salient, gathering thousands of
WILDERNESS

prisoners and seizing the field batteries that Lee had sent back just too late.

The thronging and excited Federals were completely disordered by success, and the counter-attack of one or two Confederate brigades in good order drove them back to the line of the captured works. Then, about 6, there began one of the most remarkable struggles in history. While Early, swiftly drawing back from Block House, checked Burnside's attack from the east, and Anderson, attacked again and again by parts of the V. corps, was fully occupied in preserving his own front, Lee, with Ewell's corps and the few thousand men whom the other

time came, Lee succeeded so well that after twenty hours' bitter fighting the new line was ready and the Confederates gave up the barren prize to Hancock. Lee had lost 4,000 prisoners as well as 4,500 killed and wounded, as against 7,000 in the Army of the Potomac and the IX. corps.

There were other battles in front of Spottsylvania, but that of the 12th was the climax. From the 13th to the 20th the Federals gradually worked round from west to east, delivering a few partial attacks in the vain hope of discovering a weak point. Lee's position, now semicircular, enabled him to concentrate on interior lines on each occasion. In the end the

Federals were entrenched facing E. between Beverly's house (Burnside's old "Gayle") and Quisenberry's, Lee facing W. from the new works south of Harrison's through the Court House to Snell's Bridge on the Po. In the fork of the Po and the Ny, with woods and marshes to obstruct every movement, Grant knew that nothing could be done, and he prepared to execute a new manoeuvre. But here, as in the Wilderness, Lee managed to have the last word. While the Union army was resting in camp for the first time since leaving Culpeper, Ewell's corps suddenly attacked its baggage-train near Harris's house. The Confederates were driven off, but Grant had to defer his intended manoeuvre for two days. When the armies left Spottsylvania, little more than a fortnight after breaking up from winter quarters, the casualties had reached the totals of 35,000 out of

The tension was so great that, after threatening to deprive Warren of his command, Meade sent General Humphreys, his chief of staff, to direct the V. corps' attack.
an original total of 120,000 for the Union army, 26,000 out of 70,000 for the Confederates.

The next manoeuvre attempted by Grant to bring Lee's army to action "outside works" was of an unusual character, though it had been foreshadowed in the improvised plan of crushing Lee against Burnside's corps on the 9th. Hancock was now (20th) ordered to move off under cover of night to Milford; thence he was to march south-west as far as possible along the Richmond and Fredericksburg railroad, and to attack whatever force of the enemy he met. It was hoped that this bold stroke by an isolated corps would draw Lee's army upon it, and the rest of the Army of the Potomac would, if this hope were realized, drive down upon Lee's rear while Hancock held him up in front. Supposing, however, that Lee did not take the bait, the manoeuvre would resolve itself into a turning movement with the object of compelling Lee to come out of his Spottsylvania lines on pain of being surrounded.

The II. corps started on the night of the 20th-21st. The alarm was soon given. At Milford, where he forced the passage of the Mattaponi, Hancock found himself in the presence of hostile infantry from Richmond and heard that more had arrived at Hanover Junction, both from Richmond and from the Shenandoah Valley. He therefore suspended his advance and entrenched. The main army began to move off, after giving Lee time to turn against Hancock, at 10 a.m. on the 21st, and marched to Catlett's, a place a few miles S.W. of Guiney's bridge, Warren leading. Burnside and Wright following. But no news came in from Hancock until late in the evening, and the development of the manoeuvre was consequently delayed, so that on the night of the 21st-22nd Lee's army slipped across Warren's front en route for Hanover Junction. The other Confederate forces that had opposed Hancock likewise fell back. Grant's manoeuvre had failed. Its principal aim was to induce Lee to attack the II. corps at Milford, its secondary and alternative purpose was, by dislodging Lee from Spottsylvania, to force on an encounter battle in open ground. But he was only offered the bait—not compelled to take it, as he would have been if Hancock with two corps had been placed directly athwart the road leading to Spottsylvania and Hanover Junction—and, having unimpaired freedom of action, he chose to retreat to the Junction. The four Union corps, therefore, could only pursue him to the North Anna, at which river they arrived on the morning of the 23rd, Warren on the right, Hancock on the left, Wright and Burnside being well to the rear in second line. The same afternoon Warren seized Jericho Ford, brought over the V. corps to the south, side, and repulsed a very sharp counter-stroke made by one of Lee's corps. Hancock at the same time stormed a Confederate redoubt which covered the Telegraph Road bridge over the river. Wright and Burnside closed up. It seemed as if a battle was at hand, but in the night reports came in that Lee had fallen back to the South Anna, and as these were more or less confirmed by the fact that Warren met with no further opposition, and by the enemy's retreat from the river, back on the branch of the North Anna's front, the Union generals gave orders, about midday on the 24th, for what was practically a general pursuit. This led incidentally to an attempt to drive Lee's rearguard away from the point of passage, between Warren's and Hancock's, required for Burnside, and in the course of this it became apparent that Lee's army had not fallen back, but was posted in a semicircle to which the North Anna formed a tangent. On the morning of the 27th this position was reconnoitred, and found to be more formidable than that of Spottsylvania. Furthermore, it divided the two halves of the Union army that had crossed above and below.

Grant gave up the game as drawn and planned a new move. This had as its objects, first, the seizure of a point of passage...
on the Pamunkey; secondly, the deployment of the Army of the Potomac and of a contingent expected from the Army of the James, and thirdly, the prevention of Lee's further retirement, which was not desired by the Union commanders, owing to the proximity of the Richmond defences and the consequent want of room to manoeuvre. On the 27th Sheridan's cavalry and a light division of infantry passed the Pamunkey at Hanover Town, and the two divided wings of the Army of the Potomac were withdrawn over the North Anna without mishap—thanks to exactitude in arrangement and punctuality in execution. On the 28th the Army of the Potomac had arrived near Hanover Town, while at Hawes's Shop, on the road to Richmond, Sheridan and anvil battle was again taken up, the "anvil" being Smith's XVIII. corps, which had come up from the James river to White House on the 30th; but once more the lure failed because it was not made sufficiently tempting.

The last episode of the campaign centred on Cold Harbor, a village close to the Chickahominy, which Sheridan's cavalry seized, on its own initiative, on the 31st. Here, contrary to the expectation of the Union staff, a considerable force of Confederate infantry—now arrivals from the James—was met, and in the hope of bringing on a battle before either side had time to entrench, Grant and Meade ordered Sheridan to hold the village at all costs, and directed Wright's (VI.) corps from the extreme right wing, and Smith's (XVIII.) from Old Church, to march thither with all possible speed, Wright in the night of the 31st of May and Smith on the morning of the 1st of June. Lee had actually ordered his corps commanders to attack, but was too ill to enforce his wishes, and in the evening Wright and Smith themselves assaulted the Confederate front opposite Cold Harbor. The assault, though delivered by tired men, was successful. The enemy's first or skirmish line was everywhere stormed, and parts of the VI. corps even penetrated the main line. Nearly 800 prisoners were taken, and Grant at once prepared to renew the attack, as at Spottsylvania, with larger forces, bringing Hancock over from the right of the line on the night of the 1st, and ordering Hancock, Wright and Smith to
assault on the next morning. But Lee had by now moved more forces down, and his line extended from the Totopotomoy to the Chickahominy. Hancock's corps, very greatly fatigued by its night march, did not form up until after midday, and meanwhile Smith, whose corps, originally but 10,000 strong, had been severely tried by its hard marching and fighting on the 1st, refused to consider the idea of renewing the attack. The passive resistance thus encountered dominated Grant's fighting instinct for a moment. But after reconsidering the problem he again ordered the attack to be made by Wright, Smith and Hancock at 5 p.m. A last modification was made when, during the afternoon, Lee's far distant left wing attacked Burnside and Warren. This, showing that Lee had still a considerable force to the northward, and being, not very inaccurately, read to mean that the 6 m. of Confederate entrenchments were equally — i.e. equally thinly — guarded at all points, led to the order being given to all five Union corps to attack at 4:30 a.m. on the 3rd of June.

The resolution to make this plain, unvarnished frontal assault on entrenchments has been as severely criticized as any action of any commander in the Civil War, and Grant himself subsequently repudiated all of it. But such criticisms derive all their force from the event, not from the conditions in which, beforehand, the resolution was made. The risks of failure were deliberately accepted, and the battle — if it can be called a battle — was fought as ordered. The assault was made at the time arranged and was repulsed at all points, with a loss to the assailants of about 8000 men. Therefore the two armiers lay for ten days less than a hundred yards apart. There was more or less severe fighting at times, and an almost ceaseless bickering of skirmishers. Owing to Grant's refusal to sue for permission to remove his dead and wounded in the术语, it was clear that the Federal lambs of war parties and many wounded were left to die between the lines. It was only on the 7th that Grant pocketed his feelings and the dead were buried.

This is one of the many incidents of Cold Harbor that must always rouse painful memories — though to blame Lee or Grant supposes that these great generals were infinitely more inhuman here than at any other occasion in their lives, and takes no account of the consequences of admitting a defeat at this critical moment, when the causes for which the Union army and people contended were about to be put to the hazard of a presidential election.

The Federal army lost, in this month of almost incessant campaigning, about 50,000 men, the Confederates about 32,000. Though the aggregate of the Union losses awed both contemporaries and historians of a later generation, proportionately the losses of the South were heavier (46% of the original strength as compared with 41% on the Union side), and whereas within a few weeks Grant was able to replace nearly every man he had lost by a new recruit, the Confederate government was almost at the end of its resources.


**WILFRID, SIR JOHN** (c. 1621-1693), English agitator, was educated at the university of Cambridge, and during the Civil War served for a short time under Sir Thomas Fairfax. He became a monk, however, not as a soldier but as an agitator, being in 1643 one of the leaders of that section of the army which objected to all compromise with the king. In a pamphlet, Putney Projects, he attacked Cromwell; he was responsible for the Case of the Army stated, and he put the views of his associates before the council of the army at a meeting in Putney church in October 1647. The authorities looked upon him with suspicion, and in January 1648 he and John Lilburne were imprisoned, preparations, says Clarendon, being made "for his trial and towards his execution." However, he was released in the following August, and for a time he was associated with the party known as the levellers, but he quickly severed his connexion with them and became an officer in the army. He was a large buyer of the land forfeited by the royalists, and in 1654 he was sent to the House of Commons as member for Scarborough. In the following year he was arrested for conspiring against Cromwell, and after his release four months later he resumed the career of plotting, intriguing alike with royalists and republicans for the overthrow of the existing régime. In 1659 he helped to seize Windsor castle for the Long Parliament, and then in November 1661 he was again a prisoner on some suspicion of participating in republican plots. For six years he remained a captive, only regaining his freedom after the fall of Clarendon in October 1667.

In or before 1661 Wildman became prominent among those who were discontented with the rule of Charles II., being especially intimate with Algeron Sydney. He was undoubtedly concerned in the Rye House Plot, and under James II. he was active in the interests of the duke of Monmouth, but owing to some disagreement, or perhaps to his cowardice, he took no part in the rising of 1685. He found it advisable, however, to escape to Holland, and returned to England with the restoration of the Monarchy in 1688. In 1689 he was a member of the convention parliament.

Wildman was postmaster-general from April 1689 to February 1691, when some ugly rumours about his conduct brought about his dismissal. Nevertheless, he was knighted by William III. in 1692, and he died on the 2nd of June 1693. Sir John, who was the author of many political pamphlets, left an only son, John, who died childless in 1712.

**WILES, IRVING RAMSAY** (1861- ), American artist, was born at Utica, New York, on the 8th of April 1861. He studied under his father, the landscape painter, Lemuel Maynard Wiles (1826-1905), in the Art Students' League, New York, and under Carolus Duran, at Paris. His earlier work was as an illustrator for American magazines, and later he devoted himself with great success to portraiture. He became a full member of the National Academy of Design (1897) and a member of the American Water Color Society.
Theodore now divided Wilfrid's large diocese into three; and the aggrieved prelate went to lay his case before the bishop of Rome. On his way a west wind drove him to Friesland, where he evangelized the natives and prepared the way for Willibrord (p.120). Late in the spring he organized St. Lioba's bishopry of the Frisians. At Eymoutiers, near Angoulême (686) ordained his restitution; but even this decision could not prevent his being cast into prison on his return home. When released he wandered first to Mercia, then to Wessex and finally to Sussex. Here he rescued the pagan folk from an impending famine, sent preachers to the Isle of Wight and founded a monastery at Selby. After Ecgrith's death (20th May 685) Wilfrid was restored to York (much circumscribed), and Ripon (686-687). He was once more driven out in 691-692, and spent seven years in Mercia. A great council of the English Church held in Northumbria excommunicated him in 702. He again appealed to Rome in person, and obtained another decision in his favour (703-704). Despite the intercession of Brixwald, archbishop of Canterbury, Aldfrith king of Northumbria refused to admit the aged prelate into his kingdom till his last illness (705). This year or the next a council was held near the River Nidd, the papal letters were read, and, despite the opposition of the bishops, Wilfrid once more received the abbey of Ripon and Hexham. Not long after he died at Oundle in Northamptonshire as he was going on a visit to Ceolred, king of Mercia (709). He was buried at Ripon, whence, according to Ecgrith, his body was carried to the monastery of Erlangford.

Wilfrid's is a memorable name in English history, not only because of the large part he played in supplanting the Celtic discipline and in establishing a precedent of appeal to papal authority, but also by reason of his services to architecture and learning. At York he renewed Paulinus's old church, roofing it with lead and furnishing it with glass windows; at Ripon he built an entirely new basilica with columns and pinnacles; at Hexham in honour of St Andrew he reared a still nobler church, one of the great buildings of the subsequent days of his bishopric he used to travel about his diocese attended by a little troop of skilled masons. He seems to have also reformed the method of conducting the divine services by the aid of his skilled chanters, Ede and Zona, and to have established or renewed the rule of St Benedict in the monasteries. On each visit to Rome it was his delight to collect relics for his native land; and to his favourite basilica at Ripon he gave a bookcase wrought in gold and precious stones, besides a splendid copy of the Gospels.

Wilfrid's life was written shortly after his death by Eddius at the request of Acca, his successor at Hexham, and Tathbert, abbot of Ripon, both of whom were of great bishop. Other lives were written by Frithgode in the 10th, by Fokard in the 11th, and by Edmer early in the 12th century. See also Bede's Hist. Eccl. v. 19, iii. 25, iv. 13, &c. All the lives are printed in J. Kaine's Historians of the Church of York (2 vols. 1829-31), and they are prefixed to the Wulfstan Rolls *secreta*.

**Wilhelmina (WILHELMINA) HELENA PAULINE MARIA OF ORANGE-NASSAU** (1880-), queen of the Netherlands, was born at the Hague on the 31st of August 1880. Her father, William III. (Willem Paul Alexander Frederik Lodewijk), had by his first wife, Sophia Frederika Mathilde of Württemberg, three sons, all of whom predeceased him. Having been left a widow on the 3rd of June 1877, he married on the 7th of January 1879 Adelheid Emma Wilhelmina Theresia, second daughter of Prince George Victor of Waldeck-Pyrmont, born on the 2nd of August 1859, and Wilhelmina was the only issue of that union. She succeeded to the throne on her father's death, which took place on the 23rd of November 1890, but until her eighteenth year, when she was "inaugurated" at Amsterdam on the 6th of September 1898, the business of the state was carried on under the regency of the queen-mother, in accordance with a law made on the 2nd of August 1884. On the 7th of February 1901 Queen Wilhelmina married Henry Wladimir Albert Ernst, duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin (born on the 19th of April 1876). To the great joy of the Dutch people, Queen Wilhelmina gave birth on the 10th of April 1909, in the Palace of Huis ten Bosch, to a son, born to the throne, the Prince of Orange Nassau (Juliana Louise Emma Maria Wilhelmina). (See Holland: History.)

**Wilhelmina (Sophia Frederika Wilhelmina) (1700-1738), margravine of Baireuth, was born in Berlin on the 3rd of July 1709, the daughter of Frederick William I., crown prince, afterwards king of Prussia, and of Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the elector of Hanover (George I. of England).**

Wilhelmina shared the unhappy childhood of her brother, Frederick the Great, whose friend and confidante she remained, with the exception of one short interval, all her life. Sophia Dorothea wished to marry her daughter to Frederick, prince of Wales, but on the English side there was no disposition to make the offer except in exchange for substantial concessions. The wish of the king of Prussia was not prepared to assent. The fruitless intrigues carried on by Sophia Dorothea to bring about this match played a large part in Wilhelmina's early life. After much talk of other matches, which came to nothing, she was eventually married in 1731 to Frederick, hereditary prince of Baireuth. The marriage, only accepted by Wilhelmina under threats from her father and with a view to lightening her brother's disgrace, proved at the outset a happy one, though it was clouded at first by narrow means, and afterwards by the infidelities of the future margrave with Dorothea von Marwitz, whose ascendency at the court of Baireuth was bitterly resented by Frederick the Great, and caused an estrangement of some three years between Wilhelmina and the brother she so devotedly loved. When Wilhelmina's husband came into its inheritance in 1735 the pair set about making Baireuth a miniature Versailles. Their building operations included the rebuilding of their summer residence, the Ermitage, the great Baireuth opera-house, the building of a theatre and the reconstruction of the Baireuth palace and of the new opera house. They also founded the university and the Charles Eugenius (Duke of Württemberg) and theart of the margravine, bringing the court to the verge of bankruptcy.

The margravine made Baireuth one of the intellectual centres of Germany, surrounding herself with a little court of wits and artists which gained added prestige from the occasional visits of Voltaire and Frederick the Great. With the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, Wilhelmina's interests shifted from dilettantism to diplomacy. She acted as eyes and ears for her brother in southern Germany until her death on the 14th of October 1758, the day of Frederick's defeat by the Austrians at Hochkirch. Her only daughter Fredericka had contracted in 1748 an unhappy marriage with Charles Eugenius (Duke of Württemberg) and theart of the margravine, being rescued from it by the marriage of Wilhelmina of the Prussian family in 1756.

The margravine's memoirs, Mémoires de ma vie, written or revised between 1748 and her death, are preserved in the Royal Library of Berlin. They were first printed in two forms in 1810—a German translation down to the year 1733 from the firm of Cotta of Tübingen; and in French, published by Veyrandon du Brusacier and prefixed with a memoir by the margravine, which was printed between 1748 and 1749. There have been several subsequent editions, including a German one published at Leipzig in 1898. An English translation was published in London in 1899. For the French translation see also Arvede, Les Mémoires de Wilhelmine, Margravine of Baireuth (London, 2 vols. 1905); and R. Fester, Die Bayreuther Schwester Friedrichs des Grossen (Berlin, 1902).

**Wilhelmshaven, or Wilhelmshaffn, a town of Germany,** and the chief naval station and war harbour of the empire on the North Sea, situated on the northwest shore of the Jade Busein, a large shallow basin formed by inundations and united with the sea by the Jade, a channel 3 m. long. Pop. (1885), 19,427; (1903), 26,012, of whom 827 belonged to the navy or army. For the town see J. A. Vroedt, Wilhelmshafft, Merkwaardige van Baireuth (London, 2 vols. 1905); and R. Fester, Die Bayreuther Schwester Friedrichs des Grossen (Berlin, 1902).

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acres in area and 26½ ft. deep) is connected by means of a lock (57½ ft. long) with the new harbour entrance, which was completed in 1886. On the north it is connected with the fitting-out basin (383½ ft. long, 446 ft. wide), which again is connected by a lock (158 ft. long) with the outer basin (617½ ft. long, 410½ ft. wide), and so with the old harbour entrance. North of this the "third entrance" has been recently constructed, with two enormous locks, one of which in an emergency could be used as an additional dock. On the west side of the fitting-out basin lies the shipbuilding basin (1237½ ft. long by 744½ ft. wide), with three dry-docks (of which the 452½ ft. wide, 30½ ft. deep, whilst the third is 304½ ft. long), and also with two slips of the largest size. Further new docks (each about 617½ ft. by 97 ft.), capable of containing large battle-ships, were completed in 1906. A torpedo harbour lies to the south-east of the new harbour. The three entrances to the old and new harbours are sheltered by long and massive moleis; and the whole complex of docks, building slips, machine shops, &c., forms the government dockyard, which is enclosed by a lofty wall with fourteen iron gates. The establishment is defended by strong fortifications.

The commercial harbour lies on the south side of the town at the east end of the Ems-Jade canal. The industries of the place are almost exclusively connected with the requirements of the dockyard, and embrace machine shops, iron foundries and boiler works. Wilhelmshaven is visited for its sea-bathing. It possesses depots for artillery and mines, a meteorological observatory and a signalling station. A battalion of marines is stationed here.

Since 1900 the development of the naval establishment and of the town has been exceptionally rapid, coincident with the growth of the German navy, and with the shifting of political and naval activity from the Baltic to the North Sea.

See Eberhard, "Näher durch Wilhelmshaven und seine Umgebung" (Wilhelmshaven, 1906); L. v. Krohn, "Vierzig Jahre in einem deutschen Kriegshafen" (Wilhelmshaven, 1905).

WILKES, CHARLES (1798–1872), American naval officer and explorer, was born in New York City on the 3rd of April 1798. He entered the United States Navy as a midshipman in 1818, and became a lieutenant in 1826. In 1830 he was placed in charge of the division of instruments and charts, and in 1838 was appointed to command an exploring and surveying expedition in the Southern Seas, authorized by Congress in 1836. The expedition, including naturalists, botanists, a mineralogist, twelve marines, and a medical officer, sailed from New York on the 1st of November 1837, and returned to the United States on the 1st of July 1841, after having visited the Fiji, Samoan, and Haurorian islands, the western coast of South America, including the Columbia river, San Francisco Bay and the Sacramento river, in 1841, and returned by way of the Philippine islands, the Sulu archipelago, Borneo, Singapore, Polynesia and the Cape of Good Hope, reaching New York on the 10th of June 1842. He was court-martialled on his return, but was acquitted on all charges except that of illegally punishing men in his squadron. For a short time he was attached to the Coast Survey, but from 1844 to 1861 he was chiefly engaged in preparing the report of the expedition. Twenty-eight volumes were printed but only nineteen were published. Of these Wilkes wrote the "Narrative" (2 vols., 1857), and dealt with the "Voyages" and "Hydrography and Meteorology" (1851). The "Narrative" contains much interesting material concerning the manners and customs of the people and political and economic conditions in many places then little known. Other valuable contributions were the three reports of James D. Dana on Zoophytes (1846), Geology (1849) and Crustacea (2 vols., 1852–1854). At the outbreak of the Civil War, Wilkes (who had reached the rank of commander in 1843 and that of captain in 1853) was assigned to the command of the "San Jacinto" to search for the Confederate commerce destroyer, "Sumter." On the 8th of November 1861 he stopped the British mail packet "Trent," and took off the Confederate commissioners to Europe, James M. Mason and John Slidell. This action was strongly disapproved by Congress, and Wilkes' action was later disavowed by President Lincoln. In 1863 he was given command of the James river flotilla, but after reaching the rank of commodore, on the 16th of July 1862, he was assigned to duty against blockade runners in the West Indies. He was disrated (becoming a captain) on the retired list in November 1862 on the ground that he had been too old to receive the rank of commodore under the act then governing promotions; and engaged in a long controversy with Gideon Welles, secretary of the navy. This controversy ended in his being court-martialled in 1864 and being found guilty of mutiny and sentenced to public reprimand and three years' additional service. But on the 25th of October 1866 he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral on the retired list.

He died at Washington on the 8th of February 1877.

In addition to many shorter articles, reports, &c., he published Western America, including California and Oregon (1849) and Theory of the Winds (1856).

WILKES, JOHN (1727–1757), English politician, descended from a family long connected with Leighton-Buzzard in Bedfordshire, was born at Clerkenwell, London, on the 17th of October 1727, being the second son of Israel Wilkes, a rich distiller, and the owner, through his wife Sarah, daughter of John Heston of Hoxton, of considerable house property in its north-eastern suburbs. After some training under private tuition John Wilkes was sent to the university of Leyden, matriculating there on the 8th of September 1744. Several young men of talent from Scotland and England were studying in this Dutch university at that period, and a lively picture of their life, in which Wilkes displays the gayety of temper which remained faithful to him all his days, is presented to us by Alexander Carlyle ("Autobiog.", ed. J. H. Burton). With this training he acquired an intimate knowledge of classic literature, and he enlarged his mind by travelling through Holland, Flanders and part of Germany. At the close of 1748 he returned to his native land, and in a few months (October 1749) was drawn by his relations into marrying Mary, sole daughter and heiress of John Mead, citizen and grocer of London, who was ten years his senior. The ill-assorted pair—for she was grave and staid, while he roved in exuberant spirits and love of society—lived together at Aylesbury for some months, when, to make matters worse, they returned to town to dwell with her wife's mother. One child, a daughter, was born to them (5th of August 1750), and then Wilkes left his wife and removed to Westminster, where he kept open house for many young men about town possessing more wit than morals. In 1754 he contested the constituency of Berwick-upon-Tweed, but failed to gain the seat.

Wilkes was now a well-known figure in the life of the west end, and among his associates were Thomas Potter, the son of the archbishop of Canterbury, Sir Francis Dashwood, afterwards Lord le Despencer, and Lord Sandwich, the last of whom in after years showed great animosity towards his old companion in revelry. In July 1757, by a triangular arrangement in which Potter and the first William Pitt played the other parts, Wilkes was elected for Aylesbury, and for this constituency he was again returned at the general election in March 1761. Pitt was his leader in politics; but to Pitt he applied in vain for a seat at the Board of Trade, nor was he successful in his application for the post of ambassador at Constantinople, or for that of governor of Quebec. As he attributed these failures to the opposition of Lord Bute, he established a paper called the North Briton (June 1762), in which he from the first attacked the Scotch prime minister with exceeding bitterness, and grew bolder as it
proceeded in its course. One of its articles ridiculed Lord Talbot, the steward of the royal household, and a duel was the result. When Bute resigned, the issue of the journal was suspended; but, when the royal speech forwarded by George Grenville's ministry showed that the change was one of men only, not of measures, a supplementary number, No. 45, was published, 23rd of April 1763, containing a caustic criticism of the king's message to his parliament. Lord Halifax, the leading secretary of state, issued a general warrant "to search for authors, printers and publishers," and to bring them before him for examination. Charles Churchill, the poet and a co-author in this newspaper enterprise, escaped through the good offices of Wilkes; but the chief offender was arrested and thrown into the Tower (30th of April 1763). A week later, however, he was released by order of the Court of Common Pleas on the ground that his privilege as a member of parliament afforded him immunity from arrest. General warrants were afterwards declared illegal, and Halifax himself, after a series of discardable shifts, was cast in heavy sums, on actions brought against him by the persons whom he had injured—the total expenses incurred by the ministry in these lawless proceedings amounting to at least £100,000. So far Wilkes had triumphed over his enemies, but he gave them cause for rejoicing by an indirect reprint of the obnoxious No. 45, and by striking off at his private press thirteen copies of an obscene Essay on Woman. Fenton, by his friend Potter, a re-publication of his Essay on Man, one of which got into the hands of Lord Sandwich. Immediately on the meeting of the House of Commons (15th of November 1763) proceedings were taken against him. Lord North moved that No. 45 was "a false, scandalous and seditious libel," and the paper was publicly burnt in Cheapside on the 4th of December. The Essay on Woman was on the same day brought before the Upper House by Lord Sandwich, and, on account of the improper use which had been made of Bishop Warburton's name as the author of some coarse notes, the work was voted a breach of privilege, and Wilkes was ordered to be prosecuted in the Court of King's Bench for printing and publishing an obnoxious libel. He was expelled from the House of Commons on the 19th of January 1764; and on the 21st of February he was found guilty in the King's Bench of reprinting No. 45 and of printing and publishing the Essay on Woman. Wilkes was on these dates absent from England. Some strong expressions applied to him by Samuel Martin, an ex-secretary of the treasury, had provoked a duel (16th of November 1763), in which Wilkes was severely wounded in the stomach. He withdrew to Paris, and as he did not return to England to receive his sentence in the law courts was permitted to stay there.

For several years Wilkes remained abroad, receiving £1000 a year from the leading Whigs, and in the course of his travels he visited many parts of Italy. In February 1768 he returned to London and sued the king for pardon, but in vain. His next step was to offer himself as a candidate for the representation of the city of London, when he was the lowest at the poll. Undaunted by this defeat, he solicited the freeholders of Middlesex to return him as their champion, and they placed him at the head of all competitors (28th of March). He appeared before the King's Bench, and on a technical point procured a reversal of his outlawry; but the original verdict was restored, and he was sentenced to imprisonment for twenty-two months as well as to a fine of £5000, and he was further ordered to produce securities for good behaviour for seven years after his liberation. His conduct was brought before the House of Commons, with the result that he was expelled from the House on the 3rd of February 1769, and with this proceeding there began a series of contests between the ministry and the electors of Middlesex without parallel in English history. They promptly re-elected him (10th of February), only to find him pronounced incapable of sitting, and his election void. Again they returned him (16th of March) and again he was rejected. A fourth election then followed (13th of April), when Colonel Henry Lawes Luttrell, with all the influence of the court and the Fox family in his favour, obtained 296 votes, while 1143 were given for Wilkes, but two days later the House declared that Luttrell had been duly elected. Through these audacious proceedings a storm of fury broke out throughout the country. In the cause of "Wilkes and liberty" high and low enlisted themselves. His prison cell was thronged daily by the chief of the Whigs, and large sums of money were subscribed for his support. So great was the popular sympathy in his favour, that a keen judge of contemporary politics declared that, had George III. possessed a bad and Wilkes a good character, the king would have been an outcast from his dominions. At the height of the conflict in January 1769 Wilkes was elected an alderman for the city of London; in 1771 he served as sheriff for London and Middlesex, and as alderman he took an active part in the struggle between the corporation and the House of Commons by which freedom of publication of the parliamentary debates was obtained. His admirers endeavoured in 1772 to procure his election as lord mayor of London, but he was set aside by the aldermen, some of whom were allied with the ministry of Lord North, while others, as Oliver and Townshend, leant to the Liberalism of Lord Shelburne. In 1774, however, he obtained that dignity, and he retained his seat for Middlesex from the dissolution in 1774 until 1790. He moved in 1776 for leave to bring in a bill "for a just and equal representation of the people of England in parliament"; but attempts at parliamentary reform were premature by at least half a century. After several failures he was once more the attention of another direction, for on the 3rd of May 1782 all the declarations against him for his elections in Middlesex were ordered to be expunged from the journals of the House. In 1779 Wilkes was elected chamberlain of the city by a large majority, and the office became his freehold for life. He died at his house in Grosvenor Square, London, on the 26th of December 1797. His daughter Mary, to whom he was tenderly attached, died on the 12th of March 1802.

Wilkes printed editions of Catullus (1788) and Theophrastus (1790), and at the time of his death had made considerable progress with a translation of Vergil. He was a master of a caustic ridicule, of obscenity and profanity; but he knew how to suit his conversation to his company, and his well-known assertion that, in spite of his squint and ugly as he was, with the start of a quarter of an hour he could get the better of any man, however good-looking, in the graces of any lady, shows his confidence in his powers of fascination. The king was obliged to own that he had never met so well-bred a lord since he was young. To Gibbon he was "the most unscrupulous of criminals, and his devoted friend and legal adviser, Serjeant Glynn, "Ah, sir! he was a Wilkite, which I never was." His writings were marked by the same electric sarcasm that had marked Willett, his correspondent, one of Letters to his Daughter, in four volumes in 1804, the other Correspondence with his Friends, in which are introduced Memoirs of his Life, by John Almon, in five volumes, in 1805. A Life by Percy Fitzgerald was published in 1888. Essays on him are in Historical Gleanings, by J. E. Thorold Rogers, 2nd ser. (1870): Wilkes and Cobbett, by J. S. Watson (1879); and Wilkes, Sheridan and Fox, by W. P. Ree (1874). His connexion with Bath is set out in John Wilkes and Cobbett, by W. Gregory (1888) and that with the city of London in Modern History of the City, by Charles Welch (1896). A fragment of his autobiography (Br. Museum Addit. MSS. 30865), chiefly descriptive of his residence in France and Italy, was printed in 1888. F. Taylor of Harrow in (W. P. C.)

WILKES-BARRÉ, a city and the county-seat of Luzerne county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the north branch of the Susquehanna river, about 100 m. N.N.W. of Philadelphia. Pop. (1890), 37,718; (1900), 51,721, of whom 12,188 were foreign-born, including 2702 Germans, 2083 Welsh, 2034 Irish, 1578 English and 1000 Russian Poles; (1910 census), 67,105. Area, 48 sq. m. Wilkes-Barré is served by the Central Railroad of New Jersey, the Lehigh Valley, the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, the Delaware & Hudson, the New York, Susquehanna & Western and the Pennsylvania railways, and by three interurban electric lines—the Wilkes-Barré & Hazleton, connected with Hazleton, about 20 m. S., the Wilkes-Barré & Wyoming Valley, and the Lackawanna & Wyoming Valley, connecting with Scranton about 17 m. N.E. On the opposite bank of the river (which is here spanned by two iron bridges) lies Kingston.
The city is attractively situated in the historic Wyoming Valley. The principal public buildings include the county court-house, the post office, the city hall, the county gaol and the 9th Regiment Armory. Among the city parks are Hollenback (102 acres) and Riverside (19 acres) parks, the River Common (35 acres) and the Frances Slocum Playground. In the city are the Harry Hillman Academy (non-sectarian), a secondary school for boys; the Malinckrodt Convent, the Wilkes-Barré Institute (Presbyterian), a school for girls; St Mary’s Academy (Roman Catholic) for girls; the Osterhout Free Library (44,000 vols.), the Library of the Law and Library Association (10,000 vols.) and that of the Wyoming Historical and Geological Society (18,000 vols.), which was founded in 1858. Wilkes-Barré is situated in the centre of the richest anthracite coal region in the United States, Luzerne county ranking first in 1908 in the production of anthracite in Pennsylvania; and the value of the factory products increased from $8,616,765 in 1900 to $11,246,893 in 1905, or 39.3%. Among important manufactures are foundry and machine-shop products, valued at $1,273,491 in 1905; silk and silk-competition ($1,054,863); lace curtains, cotton goods, wirework, &c.

The city is governed by a mayor elected for three years, and by a legislative body composed of a select council (one member from each of the 16 wards elected for four years) and of a common council (one member from each ward, elected for two years).

The township of Wilkes-Barré was one of five townships the free grant of which, in December 1768, by the Susquehanna Land Company of Connecticut was intended to encourage settlement and make good the company’s claim to the Wyoming Valley (300 sq. mi.). In May 1769 more than 100 settlers from New England, in command of Major John Durkee (1728-1782), arrived at this place. With others who came a few days later they erected the necessary log cabins on the river bank, near the present Ross Street, and in June began to enclose these within a stockade, known as Fort Durkee. During the same summer Major Durkee gave the town its present name in honour of John Wilkes (1727-1797) and Colonel Isaac Barré (1726-1802), both stout defenders in parliament of the American colonists’ cause before and during the War of Independence, and in the following year the town plat was made. In September 1769, the “First Pennamite-Yankee War,” and the conflict between Connecticut and Pennsylvania for the possession of the valley is called, broke out. The Yankees lost Fort Durkee in November, but recovered it in the following February. The Pennamites erected Fort Wyoming on the river bank near the present Northampton Street in January 1771, but the Yankees took it from them in the following August. In the War of Independence, immediately after the battle of Wyoming (July 3, 1778), Wilkes-Barré was burned by the Indians and British Rangers; and again in July 1784, during the “Second Pennamite-Yankee War,” twenty-three of the twenty-six buildings were burned. In 1786 the Pennsylvania legislature sent here Colonel Timothy Pickering (q.v.) to organize Luzerne county, and to effect a reconciliation between the Connecticut settlers and the government of Pennsylvania. Colonel John Franklin (1749-1831) led a counter movement, and was imprisoned on a charge of treason in October 1787, but Franklin’s followers retaliated by kidnapping Pickering in June 1788, and kept him in the woods for nearly three weeks in a vain effort to make him promise to intercede for Franklin’s pardon. Wilkes-Barré was gradually rebuilt after its destruction in 1784, and in 1806 the borough was erected, though it was not separated politically from the township until 1818 (or 1819). A new charter was granted to the borough in 1835, and Wilkes-Barré was chartered as a city in 1871.


WILKIE, SIR DAVID (1785-1841), Scottish painter, was born on the 18th of November 1785, the son of the parish minister of Colts in Fifeshire. He was early imbued with a love for art. In 1790, after he had attended school at Pitlessie, Kettle and Cupar, his father reluctantly yielded to his desire to become a painter; and through the influence of the earl of Leven Wilkie was admitted to the Trustees’ Academy in Edinburgh, and began the study of art under John Graham, the teacher of the school. From William Allan (afterwards Sir William Allan and president of the Royal Scottish Academy) and John Burnet, the engraver of Wilkie’s works, we have an interesting account of his early studies, of his indomitable perseverance and power of close application, of his habit of haunting fairs and market-places, and transferring to his sketch-book at such he caught in figure or incident, and of his admiration for the works of Carse and David Allan, two Scottish painters of scenes from humble life. Among his pictures of this period are mentioned a subject from Macbeth, “Ceres in Search of Proserpine,” and “Dianna and Calisto,” which in 1803 gained a premium of ten guineas at the Trustees’ Academy, while his pencil portraits of himself and his mother, dated that year, and now in the possession of the duke of Buccleuch, proved that he had already attained considerable certainty of touch and power of rendering character. A scene painted by the “Blind Fiddler,” and a sketch from MacNeill’s ballad of Scotland’s Skait, afterwards developed into the well-known “Village Politicians,” were the first subjects in which his true artistic individuality began to assert itself.

In 1804 Wilkie returned to Cults, established himself in the manse, and began his first important subject-picture, “Pitlessie Fair,” which includes about 140 figures, and in which he introduced portraits of his neighbours and of several members of his family circle. In addition to this elaborate figure-piece, Wilkie was much employed at the time upon portraits, both at home and in Kinghorn, St Andrews and Aberdeen. In the spring of 1805 he left Scotland for London, carrying with him his “Bounty-Money, or the Village Recruiter,” which he soon disposed of for £6, and began to study in the schools of the Royal Academy. One of his first patrons in London was Stodart, a pianoforte maker, a distant connexion of the Wilkie family, who commissioned his portrait and other works and introduced the young artist to the dowager-countess of Mansfield. This lady’s son was the purchaser of the “Village Politicians,” which attracted great attention when it was exhibited in the Royal Academy of 1806, where it was followed in the succeeding year by the “Blind Fiddler,” and a second portrait of the lady’s lifelong friend Sir George Beaumont. Wilkie now turned aside into the paths of historical art, and painted his “Alfred in the Neatherd’s Cottage,” for the gallery illustrative of English history which was being formed by Alexander Davison. After its completion he returned to genre-painting, producing the “Card-Players” and the admirable picture of the “Rent Day,” which was composed during recovery from a fever contracted in 1807 while on a visit to his native village. His next great success was the “English Deluge,” afterwards entitled the “Village Festival” (now in the National Gallery), which was purchased by J. J. Angerstein for 800 guineas. It was followed in 1813 by the well-known “Blind Man’s Buff,” a commission from the prince regent, to which a companion picture, the “Penny Wedding,” was added in 1818.

Meanwhile Wilkie’s eminent success in art had been rewarded by professional honours. In November 1800 he was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, when he had hardly attained the age prescribed by its laws, and in February 1811 he became a full academician. In 1812 he opened an exhibition of his collected works in Pall Mall, but the experiment was unsuccessful, entailing pecuniary loss upon the artist. In 1814 he executed the “Letter of Introduction,” one of the most delicately finished and perfect of his cabinet pictures. In the same year he made his first visit to the continent, and at Paris entered upon a profitable and delighted study of the works of art collected in the Louvre. Interesting particulars of the time are preserved in his own matter-of-fact diary, and in the more sprightly and flowing pages of the journal of Haydon, his fellow-traveller. On his return he began “Distraining for Rent,” which was the most popular of his pictures. In 1816 he made a tour through Holland and Belgium in company with Raimbach, the engraver of many of his paintings. The “Sir
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Walter Scott and his Family," a cabinet-sized picture with small full-length figures in the dress of Scottish peasants, was the result of a visit to Abbotsford in 1818. "Reading a Will," a commission from the king of Bavaria, now in the New Pinakothek at Munich, was completed in 1820; and two years later the great picture of "Chelsea Pensioners Reading the Gazette of the Battle of Waterloo," commissioned by the duke of Wellington in 1816, at a cost of 1200 guineas, was exhibited at the Royal Academy.

In 1822 Wilkie visited Edinburgh, in order to select from the royal progress of George IV. a sitting subject for a picture. The Reception of the King at the Entrance of Holyrood Palace was chosen; and this was executed in 1824. But in the following year, when the artist, upon the death of Raeburn, had been appointed royal limmer for Scotland, he received sittings from the monarch, and began to work diligently upon the subject. But several years elapsed before its completion; for, like all such ceremonial works, it proved a harassing commission, uncongenial to the painter while in progress and unsatisfactory when finished. His health suffered from the strain to which he was subjected, and his condition was aggravated by heavy domestic trials and responsibilities. In 1825 he sought relief in foreign travel; after visiting Paris, he passed into Italy, where he remained for some time, and the handsome reward which, before he left, was promised him for an essay of a union of his earlier and later styles, a "mixture" which was very justly pronounced by Haydon to be "like oil and water." His "Preaching of John Knox before the Lords of the Congregation" had also been begun before he left for abroad; but it was painted throughout in the later style, and consequently presents a more satisfactory unity and harmony of treatment and handling. It was one of the most successful pictures of the artist's later period.

In the beginning of 1830 Wilkie was appointed to succeed Sir T. Lawrence as painter in ordinary to the king, and in 1836 Sir David Baird, who had been an honorary Professor of Fine Arts at the University of Edinburgh, was created a baronet. Two of his works, which occupied him until the end were "Columbus in the Convent at La Rabida" (1835); "Napoleon and Fuss VII. at Fontainebleau" (1836); "Sir David Baird Discovering the Body of Tippoo Sahib" (1838); the "Empress Josephine and the Fortune-Teller" (1838); and "Queen Victoria Presiding at her First Council" (1838). His time was also much occupied with portrait-painting, many of his works of this class being royal commissions. His portraits are pictorial and excellent in general distribution, but the faces are frequently wanting in character, in which the charm of his best portraits, his way of showing his sitters at their best, and his female portraits, in particular, rarely gave satisfaction. A favourable example of his cabinet-sized portraits is that of Sir Robert Liston; his likeness of W. Esdaile is an admirable three-quarter length; and one of his finest full-lengths is the gallery portrait of Lord Kellie, in the town hall of Cupar.

In the autumn of 1840 Wilkie resolved on a voyage to the East. Passing through Holland and Germany, he reached Constantinople, where, while detained by the war in Syria, he painted a portrait of the young sultan. He then sailed for India, and travelled to Jerusalem, where he remained a month, on a return voyage of five busy weeks. The last work of all upon which he was engaged was a portrait of Mehmet Ali, done at Alexandria. On his return voyage he suffered from an attack of illness at Malta, and died at sea off Gibraltar on the morning of the 1st of June 1841. His body was consigned to the deep in the Bay of Gibraltar.

An elaborate Life of Sir David Wilkie, by Allan Cunningham, containing, the painter's journals and his observant and well-considered "Critical Remarks on Works of Art," was published in 1843. Redgrave's Century of Painters of the English School and John Burnet's Practical Essays on the Fine Arts may also be referred to for a critical estimate of his works. A list of the exceptionally numerous and excellent engravings from his pictures will be found in the Art Union Journal for January 1840. Apart from his skill as a painter Wilkie was an admirable etcher. The best of his plates, such as the "Gentleman at his Desk" (Laing, VII.), the "Pope examining a Censer" (Laing, VIII.), and the "Seat of Hands" (Laing, IV.), are worthy to rank with the work of the greatest figure-etchers. During his lifetime he issued a portfolio of seven plates, and in 1854 Dr. Dana and Dr. J. W. Esdaile catalogued and published the complete series of his etchings and dry-points, supplying the place of a few copper-plates that had been lost by reproductions, in his Etchings of David Wilkie and Andrew Geddes.

WILKINS, SIR CHARLES (1749-1836), English Orientalist, was born at Frome, Somersetshire, probably in 1749, and in 1770 he went to India as a writer in the East India Company's service. He was soon attracted to the study of Oriental languages, particularly Sanskrit, and did an important work towards facilitating such study by founding a printing press for these languages, taking a large personal share in the practical work of
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preparing the type. He returned to England in 1786, but con-
tinued his study of Sanskrit, and he afterwards became librarian
to the East India Company, and examiner at Haileybury on the
establishment of the college there in 1805. Wilkins was knighted in
1833 in recognition of his services to Oriental scholarship, and
he died in London in 1836. He was a pioneer in the department
of learning with which his name was associated, being the first
Englishman to acquire masterly knowledge of Sanskrit, and to make a
thorough study of Indian inscriptions in that script. He compiled
a Sanskrit grammar and published several translations from the
sacred books of the East, besides preparing a new edition of
Richardson's Persian and Arabic dictionary, and a catalogue of the
manuscripts collected by Sir William Jones, who acknowledged
his indebtedness to Wilkins, and with whom the latter assisted
in founding the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

WILKINS, GEORGE (c. 1607), English playwright and
pamphleteer, is first mentioned as the author of a pamphlet on the
Three Miseries of Barbary, which probably dates from 1604.
He was associated with the King's Men, and was thus a colleague
of Shakespeare. He was chiefly employed in remodelling old
plays. He collaborated in 1607 with William Roweley and John
Day in The Travails of the Three English Brothers. In the
same year a play was produced which was apparently entirely
Wilkins's work. It is The Miseries of Inforst Mariage, and
treats the story of Walter Calverley, whose identity is thinly
veiled under the name of 'Scarborough.' This man had killed
his two children and had attempted to murder his wife. The
play had originally a tragic ending, but as played in 1607 ended
in comedy, and the story stopped short before the catastrophe,
perhaps because of objections raised by Mrs Calverley's family,
the Cobhams. The crime itself is dealt with in A Yorkshire
Tragedy, which was originally performed with three other plays
under the title of All's One. It was entered on the Stationers' Register in 1608 as 'written by William Shakespeare,'
published with the same ascription in that year, and reprinted in
1619 without contradiction of the statement. Mr Sidney Lee
assigns to George Wilkins a share in Shakespeare's Pericles and
collaborates in Timon of Athens. Delius conjectured that Wilkins
was the original author of Pericles and that Shakespeare
remodelled it. However that may be, Wilkins published in 1608
a novel entitled The Painfull Advances of Pericles, Prince of
Tyre, being the true history of Pericles as it was lately presented
by . . . John Gower, which sometimes follows the play very
closely.

Mr Flesy (Biog. Chron. of the Drama) says that the external
evidence about the authorship of Shakepearean authors of the Yorkshire
plays cannot be impugned, and in the absence of other authorship
cannot be lightly set aside, but he does not abandon the hope of establishing
a contrary opinion. Both Mr Flesy and Professor A. W. Ward
(Eng. Drama, 1842) seem to think that the story of Pericles was a complete original play by Shakespeare, and that the
remodelling story should be reversed, i.e. that Pericles is a Shake-
sperean play remodelled by a playwright, possibly Wilkins. Mr
Lee (Dist. Nat. Biog., Art. Wilkins) says the Yorkshire Tragedy
was 'fraudulently assigned' to Shakespeare by Thomas Pavier, the
publisher.

WILKINS, JOHN (1614-1672), bishop of Chester, was born
at Fawsley, Northamptonshire, and educated at Magdalen Hall,
Oxford, ordained and became chaplain of the Earl of Pembroke in 1637,
but soon resigned and became chaplain successively to Lord Saye
and Sele, Lord Berkeley, and Prince Charles Louis, nephew of Charles I., and afterwards elector palatine of the Rhine. In 1648
he became warden of Wadham College, Oxford. Under him the
college was extraordinarily prosperous, for, although a supporter
of Cromwell, he was in touch with the most cultured leaders,
who placed their sons in his charge. In 1659 Richard Cromwell
appointed him master of Trinity College, Cambridge. At the
Restoration in 1660 he was deprived, but appointed prebendary of York and Vicar of Cranford, Middlesex. In 1661 he was
preacher at Gray's Inn, and in 1662 vicar of St Lawrence Jewry,
London. He became vicar of Polesbrook, Northamptonshire,
in 1666, prebendary of Exeter in 1667, and in the following year
prebendary of St Paul's and bishop of Chester. Possessing strong
scientific tastes, he was the chief founder of the Royal Society
and its first secretary. He died in London on the 19th of November 1672.

The chief of his numerous works is an Essay towards a Real
Character and a Philosophical Language (London, 1668), in which he ex-
pounds a new universal language for the use of philosophers. He is
remembered also for a curious work entitled The Discovery of a
World in the Moon (1638, 3rd ed., with an appendix-"The possibility
of a passage thither," 1640). Other works are A Discourse concerning
a New Planet (1640); Mercury, or the Secret and Swift Messenger
(1641), a work of some importance to the means of rapid correspond-
ence; and Mathematical Magick (1648). See P. A. Wright Henderson, The Life and Times of John Wilkins (1910), and also the article AERONAUTICS.

WILKINS, MARY ELEANOR (1826— ), American novelist,
was born in Randolph, Massachusetts, on the 7th of January
1826, of Puritan ancestry. Her early education, chiefly from
reading and observation, was supplemented by a course at
Mount Holyoke Seminary; South Hadley, Mass. Her home was
in her native village and in Brattleboro, Vermont, until her
marriage in 1902 to Dr Charles M. Freeman of Metuchen, New
Jersey. She contributed poems and stories to children's magazines, and published several books for children, including
Young Lucretia and other Stories (1892), The Pot of Gold and
other Stories (1892), and Once upon a Time and other Child
Verses (1897). For older readers she wrote the following volumes
of short stories: A Humble Romance and other Stories (1887),
A New England Nun and other Stories (1891), Silence and other
Stories (1898), three books which gave her a prominent place
among American short-story writers: The People of Our Neigh-
borhood (1898), The Love of Parson Love and other Stories (1900),
Understudies (1901) and The Givers (1904); the novels Jane
Field (1892), Pembroke (1894), Madelon (1896), Jerome, a Poor
Man (1897), The Jamesons (1899), The Portion of Labor (1901)
and The Debor (1905); and Giles Corey, Yeoman (1893), a prose
tragedy founded on incidents from New England history. Her
longer novels, though successful in the portrayal of character,
lack something of the unity, suggestiveness and charm of her
short stories, which are notable contributions to modern American
literature. She deals usually with a few traits peculiar to the
village and country life of New England, and she gave literary
permanence to certain characteristics of New England life which
are fast disappearing.

WILKINSBURG, a borough of Allegheny county, Pennsyl-
vania, U.S.A., immediately E. of Pittsburg, of which it is a
residential suburb. Pop. (1890) 4060; (1900) 11,886, of whom
1336 were foreign-born and 275 were negroes; (1910 census
8692. Wilkinsburg is served by the Pennsylvania railway and
by interurban electric lines. It is a post-station of Pittsburg.
It is a prosperous borough and a centre of the borough of
Aged Persons (1882), the United Presbyterian Home for the
Aged (1879), and Columbia hospital (1908). Settled in 1798 and
known first as McNairville and then as Rippeyville, the place was
named about 1840 in honour of William Wilkins (1779-1865), a member of the United
States Senate in 1831-1834, minister to Russia in 1834-1835,
a representative in Congress in 1843-1844, and secretary of
war in President John Tyler's cabinet in 1844-1845. In 1887
Wilkinsburg was incorporated as a borough.

WILKING, JOHN (1775-1825), American soldier and
adventurer, was born in Calvert county, Maryland, in 1775.
At the outbreak of the War of Independence he abandoned the
study of medicine to enter the American army, and he served with
General Benedict Arnold in the Quebec campaign and was
later under General Horatio Gates, acting from May 1777 to
March 1778 as adjutant-general of the Northern Department.
He was sent to Congress to report Gates's success against Bur-
goyne, but his tardiness secured for him a sarcastic reception.
Gates recommended him for a brigadier-general's commission,
which he received, but he was not actually promoted, and
succeeded in gaining it, but their friendship was broken by the collapse
of the Conway Cabal against Washington in which both were
implicated and about which Wilking had indirectly blabbed.
Wilking then resigned (March 1778) his newly-acquired
commission, but later re-entered the service in the quartermaster-
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general's department, and was clothier-general from July 1779 to March 1781.

In common with many other army officers Wilkinson now turned toward the West, and in 1784 settled near the Falls of the Ohio (Louisville), where he speedily became a prominent military and commercial man of considerable influence. He began to take an active part in the movement for separate statehood for Kentucky, and in 1787 he entered into an irregular commercial agreement with the Spanish officials of Louisiana. At this time, as his own papers in the Spanish archives show, he took an oath of allegiance to Spain and began to intrigue with his fellow-Kentuckians to detach the western settlements from the Union and bring them under the influence of the Louisiana authorities. His commercial connections at New Orleans enabled him to hold out the lure of a ready market at that port for Kentucky products, and this added greatly to the strength of the separatist movement. He neutralized the intrigues of certain British agents who were then working in Kentucky. For these various services he received until 1800 a substantial pension from the Spanish authorities, being officially known in their correspondence as "Number Thirteen." At the same time he worked actively against the Spanish authorities, especially through Philip Nolan. Wilkinson's ventures were not as lucrative as he hoped for, and in October 1791 he was given a lieut.-colonel's commission in the regular army, possibly, as a contemporary suggested, to keep him out of mischief. During this year he took an active part in the minor campaign which preceded General Arthur St Clair's disastrous defeat by the Indians. As brigadier-general (from March 1792) and second in command, he served under General Anthony Wayne in the latter's successful campaign of 1794 against the Indians, and in this campaign he seems to have tried to arouse discontent against his superior among the Kentucky troops, and to have intrigued to supplant him upon the reduction of the army. Upon Wayne's death in 1795, Wilkinson became general in command of the regular army, retaining his rank as brigadier and likewise his Spanish pension. He seems to have tried to stir up both the Indians and the Spaniards to prevent the survey of the southern boundary of the United States in 1797 and 1798, and succeeded in delaying Commissioner Andrew Ellicott for several months in this important task. At the same time he protégé, the fabuliste, Philip Nolan, was engaged in a reconnaissance for him west of the Mississippi.

In 1803 Wilkinson was one of the commissioners to receive Louisiana from France, and in 1805 became governor of that portion of the Purchase above the 33rd parallel, with headquarters at St Louis. In his double capacity as governor of the Territory and as merchant and land speculator he made marked his hold on Jefferson, and favourably situated upon the frontier remote from the centre of government, he attempted to realize his ambition to conquer the Mexican provinces of Spain. For this purpose in 1805 he entered into some sort of agreement with Aaron Burr, and in 1806 sent Z. M. Pike to explore the most favourable route for the conquest of the south-west. Before his agent returned, however, he had betrayed his colleague's plans to Jefferson, formed the Neutral Ground Agreement with the Spanish commander of the Texas frontier, placed New Orleans under martial law, and apprehended Burr and some of his accomplices. In the ensuing trial at Richmond the prisoners were released for lack of sufficient evidence to convict, and Wilkinson himself emerged with a much damaged reputation.

He was then subjected to a series of courts-martial and congressional investigations, but succeeded so well in hiding traces of his duplicity that in 1812 he resumed his military command at New Orleans, and in 1813 was promoted major-general and took possession of Mobile. Later in this year he made a most miserable fiasco of the campaign against Montreal, and this finally brought his military career to a dishonorable end. For a time he lived upon his plantation near New Orleans, but later appeared in Mexico City as an applicant for a land grant. Incidentally acting as agent for the American Bible Society. Here on the 28th of December 1825 he succumbed to the combined effects of climate and of opium.

See Wilkinson's Memoirs of My Own Time (Philadelphia, 1816); uncomplimentary and to be used with caution; when he said, "Wilkinson and the Beginning of the Spanish Conspiracy," in American Historical Review, vol. ix. (New York, 1904). (I. J. C.)

Wilkinson, James John Garth (1812-1869), Swedish-borgian writer, the son of James John Wilkinson (died 1845), a writer on mercantile law and judge of the County Palatine of Durham, was born in London on the 3rd of June 1812. He studied medicine, and set up as a homoeopathic doctor in Wimpole Street in 1834. He was early attracted by the works of William Blake, whose Songs of Experience he endeavoured to interpret, and of Swedenborg, to the elucidation of whose writings he devoted the best energies of his life. Between 1840 and 1850 he edited Swedenborg's treatises on The Doctrine of Charity, The Animal Kingdom, Outlines of a Philosophical Argument on the Infinite, and Hieroglyphic Key to Natural and Spiritual Mysteries. Wilkinson's preliminary discourses to these translations and his criticisms of Coleridge's comments upon Swedenborg displayed a striking aptitude not only for mystical research, but also for original philosophic debate. The vigour of his thought won admiration from Henry James (father of the novelist) and from Emerson, through whom he became known to Carlyle and Froude; and his speculation further attracted Tenenzyon, the Ophiliants and Edward Maitland. He wrote an able sketch of Swedenborg for the Penny Cyclopaedia, and a standard biography, Emanuel Swedenborg (published in 1846); but interest in this subject has since waned, and Wilkinson's work has been little noticed, and even ignored.

He was a traveller, a linguist, well versed in Scandinavian literature and philology, the author of mystical poems entitled Improvisations from the Spirit (1857), a social and medical reformer, and a convinced opponent of vivisection and also of vaccination. He died at Finchley Road, South Hampstead, where he had resided for nearly fifty years, on 18th October 1890. He is commemorated by a bust and portrait in the rooms of the Swedishborgian Society in Bloomsbury Street, London.
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tubes, cylinders and iron work required for the Paris water-works, the most formidable undertaking of the day. He also erected the first steam engine in France, in connexion with these works. Wilkinson is said to have anticipated by many years the introduction of the hot blast for furnaces, but the leathern pipes, then used, scorched, and it was not a success. His were the first coal-cutting machines. He proposed and cast the first iron bridge. It connected Broseley and Madeley, across the Severn, and its span of 100 ft. 6 in. was considered a triumphal wonder. Wilkinson was now a man of great means and greater influence. He issued tokens of copper, bearing his likeness and on the reverse a forge and tools of the trade, silver coins for 3s. 6d., and also pound notes, as other tradesmen of that day did. He never wrote a letter without using the word iron, indeed he was iron-minded, and provided by will that he should be buried in an iron coffin, preferably in his garden at Castle Head, near Lindal. He died on the 14th of July 1808.

Wilkinson was twice married without issue. His very large property was frittered away during a lawsuit brought by a niece against the illegitimate children whom he had named as his heirs. It was carried from various courts in the kingdom to the House of Lords and then to the Court of Chancery. Here Lord Eldon decided for the defendants, thus reversing all previous decisions taken upon the law of the case.

WILKINSON, SIR JOHN GARDNER. (1797–1873). English traveller and Egyptologist, was born on the 5th of October 1797, the son of the Rev. John Wilkinson, a well-known student of antiquarian subjects. Having inherited a sufficient income from his parents, who died when he was young, he was sent by his guardian to Harrow in 1813, and to Exeter College, Oxford, in 1816. He took no degree, and, suffering from ill-health, went to Italy, where he met Sir William Cell, and resolved to study Egyptology. Between 1821 and 1833 he travelled widely in the Nile Valley and began to publish the results. He returned to England in 1833 for the sake of his health, was elected fellow of the Royal Society in 1834, published The Topography of Thebes and General Survey of Egypt (1835) and Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians (3 vols., 1837), and on the 26th of August 1839 was knighted by the Melbourne ministry. In 1842 he returned to Egypt and contributed to the Journal of the Geographical Society a chapter entitled "Survey of the Valley of the Natron Lakes." This appeared in 1843, in which year he also published an enlarged edition of his Topography, entitled Moseiim Egypt and Thebes, a work afterwards reissued in Murray's series. During 1843 he travelled in Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, an account of his observations being published in 1845 (Dalmatia and Montenegro, 2 vols.). A third visit to Egypt in 1848–1849 resulted in a further article in the Journal, "On the Country between Wady Halfah and Jebel Berkel" (1851); in 1855 he again visited Thebes. Subsequently he investigated Cornish antiquities, and studied zoology. He died at Llandovery on the 29th of October 1875. To his old school, Harrow, lie had already in 1864 presented his collections with an elaborate catalogue.

Besides the works mentioned he published Materia Hieroglyphica (Malta, 1828); Extracts from several Hieroglyphic Subjects (1830); Topography of Thebes (1854) and facsimiles of the papyrus (1854), previously edited without the writing on the back of the papyrus by Lepsius; Architecture of Ancient Egypt (1850); A Popular Account of the Ancient Egyptians (1854); important notes in Rawlinson's Herodotus, Colour and Taste (1858); articles in archaeological and scientific periodicals.

WILKINSON, TATE (1730–1803). English actor and manager, was born on the 27th of October 1730, the son of a clergyman. His first attempts at acting were badly received, and it was to his wonderful gift of mimicry that he owed his success. His imitations, however, naturally gave offence to the important actors and managers whose peculiarities he hit off to the life. Garrick, Peg Woffington, Samuel Foote and Sheridan, after being taken in the imitation, had the most angry, when it came to their turn, and threatened never to forgive him. Garrick never did. As an actor, Wilkinson was most successful in Foote's plays, but his list of parts was a long one. In Shakespearian characters he was very popular in the provinces. In 1766 he became a partner of Joseph Baker in the management of several Yorkshire theatres, and sole manager after his partner's death in 1770 of these and others. In this capacity he was both liberal and successful. He died on the 16th of November 1803. See his Memoirs (4 vols., 1790) and The Wandering Patenter (4 vols., 1795).

WILL in philosophy. The "Problem of Freedom" provides in reality a common title under which are grouped difficulties and questions of varying and divergent interest and character. These difficulties arise quite naturally from the obligation, which metaphysicians, theologians, moral philosophers, men of science, and psychologists alike recognize, to give an account, consistent with their theories, of the relation of man's power of deliberate and purposive activity to the rest of the universe. In the main, no doubt, the problem is a metaphysical problem, and has its origin in the effort to reconcile that belief in man's freedom which is regarded by the unsophisticated moral consciousness as indisputable, with a belief in a universe governed by rational and necessary laws. But the historical origin of the questions at issue is to be sought rather in theology than in metaphysics, while the discovery made from time to time by men of science of the inapplicability of natural laws or modes of operation (which they have been accustomed to regard as of universal range and necessity) to the facts or assumed facts of human activity, is a constant source of fresh discussions of the problem. Similarly the modern attempt upon the part of psychology to analyse (under whatever limitations and with whatever object of inquiry) all the forms and processes of human consciousness has inevitably led to an examination of the consciousness of human freedom: while the postulate of most modern psychologists that conscious processes are not to be considered as removed from the sphere of those necessary causal sequences with which science deals, produces, if the consciousness of freedom be admitted as a fact of mental history, the old metaphysical difficulty in a new and highly specialized form.

There is some ground nevertheless for maintaining, contrary to much modern opinion, that the controversy is fundamentally and in the main a moral controversy. It is true that the precise relation between the activities of human wills and other forms of activity in the natural world is a highly speculative problem and one with which the ordinary man is not immediately concerned. It is true also that the ordinary moral consciousness accepts without hesitation the postulate of freedom, and is unaware of, or imperfectly acquainted with, the speculative difficulties that surround its possibility. Moreover, much work of the highest importance in ethics in modern as well as ancient times has been completed with but scanty, if any, reference to the subject of the freedom of the will, or upon a metaphysical basis compatible with most of the doctrines of both the rival theories. The determinist equally with the libertarian moral philosopher can give an account of morality possessing internal coherence and a certain degree of verisimilitude. Yet it may be doubted (1) whether the problem would ever have arisen at all except for the necessity of reconciling the theological and metaphysical hypotheses of the omniscience and omnipotence of God with the needs of a moral universe: and (2) whether it would retain its perennial interest if the incursions of modern scientific and psychological inquiry into the domain of human consciousness did not appear to come into conflict from time to time with the presuppositions of morality. The arguments proceeding from either of the disputants by means of which the controversy is debated may be largely or almost wholly speculative and philosophical. But that which produces the rival arguments is primarily a moral need. And there are not wanting signs of a revival in recent years of the earlier tendency of philosophical speculation to subordinate the necessities of metaphysical, scientific, or moral inquiries to the prima facie demands of the moral consciousness.

There is no trace of the emergence of the problem of freedom
in any intelligible or distinct form in the minds of early Greek physicists or philosophers. Their doctrines were mainly based upon a belief in the government of the universe by some form of physical necessity, and, though different opinions might prevail as to the mode of operation of the various forms of physical necessity the occasional recognition in material contingency caused them to amount to a recognition of the independence of human volition or intelligence. Nor can it be seriously maintained that the problem of freedom in the form in which it is presented to the modern mind ever became the subject of debate in the philosophy of Socrates, Plato or Aristotle. It is true that Socrates brought into prominence the moral importance of rational and intelligent conduct as opposed to action which is the result of unintelligent caprice. Moral conduct was, according to Socrates, the result of knowledge while it is strictly impossible to do wrong knowingly. Vice, therefore, is the result of ignorance and to this extent Socrates is a determinist. But the subsequent speculations of Aristotle upon the extent to which ignorance invalidates responsibility, though they seem to assume man's immediate consciousness of freedom, do not in reality amount to very much more than an analysis of the conditions ordinarily held sufficient to constitute voluntary or involuntary action. The further question whether the voluntary acts for which a man is ordinarily held responsible are really the outcome of his freedom of choice, is barely touched upon, and most of the problems which surround the attempt to distinguish between modern libertarians or determinists are left unexplored. Aristotle remains content with a successful demonstration of the independence of "voluntariness" as an attribute of conduct upon knowledge and human personality. And though ultimately the attribution of responsibility for conduct is further limited to actions which are the result of purposive choice (προοπτικαί), Aristotle appears to waver between a view which regards προοπτικαί as involving an ultimate choice between divergent ends of moral action and one which would make it consist in the choice of means to an end already determined. A similar absence of discussion of the main problem at issue is noticeable in Plato. It is true that in a famous passage in the tenth book of the Republic (x. 617 ff.) he seems to make human souls responsible through their power of choice for the destinies which they meet with during their respective lives. But, as with Socrates, their power of making a right choice is limited by their degree of knowledge or of ignorance, and the vexed question of the relation of this determining intelligence to the human will is left unsolved. With the Stoic and Epicurean philosophies the problem as it shapes itself for the consideration of the modern world begins with the recognition of the immediate and absolute contingency of human action. The Stoic doctrine of determinism, as the result of the universal validity of the principles of causality, nor the Epicurean counter-assertion of freedom avoid the error of regarding chance as a real cause and universal contingency as an explanation of the universe, it was nevertheless a real step forward to perceive the existence of the problem. Moreover, the argument by means of which Chrysippus endeavoured to prove the compatibility of determinism with ethical responsibility is in some respects an anticipation of modern views. For the distinction between main and contributory causes of conduct (causa adiuvantes and causa principale-the aorov and f Cowrov of Platonc and Aristotelian philosophy) preserved the possibility of regarding character, the main cause, as the responsible and accountable element in morality. And there is much that is anticipatory of modern libertarian views in the psychological argument by which Crameddes attempted at once to avoid the Epicurean identification of will with chance, and to prove the rationality of choice, undetermined by any external or antecedent necessity, as an explanation of human actions (cf. Janet and Séailles, Hist. of Problems of Philosophy—Psychology, p. 324).

It was not until the rise of Christianity as an historical religion that the difficulty of reconciling a belief in human freedom with a belief in the Divine government of the world became apparent to its fullest extent. The Christian doctrine of the Creation at once challenged the panstist presuppositions of Hellenic thought and reinforced the belief already existing in will as a real cause. At the same time the dualism involved in the simultaneous acceptance of an optimistic account of the origin and nature of the universe (such as is implied in Christian theology) and a belief in the reality of moral evil witnessed to by the Christian doctrine of Redemption, intensified the difficulties already felt concerning man's responsibility and God's omnipotence. Neoplatonic philosophy had been in the main content either to formulate the contradiction or to deny the reality of one of the opposing terms. And traces of Neoplatonic influence, more especially as regards their doctrine of the unreality of the material and sensible world, are to be found everywhere in the Christian philosophers of Alexandria, preventing or impeding their formulation of the problem of freedom in its full scope and urgency. St Augustine was, perhaps, the first thinker to face, though not to solve, the true theological and moral difficulty inherent in Christian thought. Two lines of thought are to be traced in the most implausible hostility and contradiction throughout his system. On the one hand no thinker with more evident than Augustine the belief in individual responsibility and of will. He affirms the priority of will to knowledge and the dependence of consciousness upon physical attention. He asserts also the fact that our human power of receiving divine illumination (i.e. a capacity of spiritual insight in no sense dependent upon the creative activity of the intellect) is conditioned by our spontaneous acts of faith. And he finds in the existence of divine foreknowledge no argument for the impotence or determined character of human acts of will. The timelessness foreknowledge of the Deity foresees human actions as contingent, not as causally determined. But when Augustine is concerned to reconcile the reality of individual freedom with humanity's universal need of redemption and with the absolute voluntariness of Divine Grace, he is constrained to contradict most of those postulates of which in his advocacy of libertarianism he was an eager champion. He limits the possession of freedom to Adam, the first man, who, by abusing his prerogative, has corrupted the human race. Man as he now cannot do otherwise than evil. Inherited incapacity for the choice of good is the punishment for Adam's misuse of freedom. The possibility of redemption depends upon the bestowal of Divine Grace, which, because it is in no instance deserved, can be awarded or withdrawn without injustice. And because Adam's choice necessitates punishment it follows that in some instances Divine Grace can never be bestowed. Hence arises in Augustine's system the doctrine of Predestination (q.v.). From the theological standpoint every individual is predestined either by his natural birthright to evil or by Divine Grace to good, and the absolute foreknowledge and omnipotence of God excludes even the possibility of any initiative on the part of the individual by means of which he might influence God's timeous choice. The medieval treatment of the problem follows in the main Augustinian or Aristotelian traditional lines of thought, though successive thinkers arrive at very diverse conclusions.

Thomas Aquinas, for example, develops the Platonic argument which proves the dependence of the will upon the intellect and makes the identification of morality with knowledge. Freedom exists for Thomas, if it exists at all, only as the power of choosing what is necessarily determined by the intellect to be choiceworthy, the various possibilities of choice being themselves presented by the understanding to the will. And though in his treatise on human knowledge with human freedom, the freedom with which men act is itself the product of Divine determination. Man is predetermined to act freely, and Divine foreknowledge foresees human actions as contingent. Duns Scotus on the other
hand is the great champion of indeterminism. Upon his view the intellect must always be subordinate to the will, and to the will belongs the power of complete self-determination. Morality in effect—to such an extreme position is he driven in his opposition to the Thomists—becomes the arbitrary creation of the Divine Will and in no sense depends for its authority upon rational principles or is a form of knowledge.

The modern treatment of the problem from Descartes, Hobbes, Spinoza and Leibnitz down to Kant is too much inwoven into the metaphysical systems of individual great philosophers to afford the possibility of detailed treatment in the present article. Reference should be made either to the individual philosophers themselves or to articles on metaphysics or on ethics. Hobbes is the great exponent of materialistic determinism. Ideals and volitions are upon his view ultimately movements of the brain. Will is identified with appetite or fear, the causes of which are to be found only in the external world. Descartes advocates a kind of freedom which is apparently consistent with forms both of determinism and indeterminism. He explains the possibility of volition on the ground that the mind possesses the libertum arbitrium indifferenter and can always refuse to affirm the truth of a conclusion drawn from premises which are not self-evident. And even when the presentations before the mind are so clear that assent to their truth cannot be refused, the possibility of asent still rests with the will, which can refuse to attend to any presentation, or can refuse assent with the sole motive of proving its freedom. Spinoza is a convinced determinist regarding the will as necessarily determined by ideas.

Extension, i.e. the spatial world, and the world of consciousness are alike attributes of the one substance which can only be called free in the sense of being determined by nothing but itself. Freedom in the moral sphere consists simply in the control of the passions by reason. Leibnitz retains this attenuated belief in moral freedom and combines with it a belief in the spontaneity of moral agents in the sense that they possess the power of acting and need no other principle of action save the laws of their own natures. But inasmuch as the agreement between the acts of Leibnitz's monads is due to a divine pre-established harmony, and the theoretical contingency which in the abstract, i.e. as logically possible, can be predicated efficaciously, is in practice non-existent, Leibnitz is in effect a determinist.

Locke's treatment of the problem is in some respects more interesting than the theories of other English philosophers of his school. Freedom, according to Locke, belongs to the man, not to the will. If we will at all we are to that extent free, i.e. our actions express our purposes. If, on the other hand, we press Leibnitz's objection, i.e. that such an argument is no answer to the question whether an act of will can be free in the sense that it is not determined by reasons presented by the understanding, Locke replies that the will is in effect determined by the uncessness of desire, i.e. by the desire to avoid pain. Hume's doctrine follows logically from his theory as to the nature of causality. If our belief in necessary connexion in the physical world is in reality an illusion, it follows that the opposition between freedom and necessity will be illusory also. On the other hand if our belief in the necessity of causal connexion is the result of custom, to custom will be due also the belief in a necessity governing human actions observable everywhere in men's ordinary opinions and practice. Contrasted with this belief in necessity the supposition we have of freedom is illusory, and, if extended so as to involve a belief that men's actions do not proceed from character or habitual disposition, immoral.

Kant's theory of freedom is, perhaps, the most characteristic doctrine of his system of ethics. Distinguishing between two worlds, the sensuous and the intelligible, the phenomenal and the noumenal, Kant allows no freedom to the natural will determined by the succession of motives, desires and appetites which form the empirical and sensuous self. But in contrast with the phenomenal world governed by empirical laws Kant sets the noumenal and intelligible world in which by a timeless act of will man is free to accept the moral command of an unconditional imperative for no reason other than its own rational necessity as the deliverance of his highest nature. The difficulties of the Kantian system are mainly to be looked for in his account of the relation between the phenomenal and noumenal world.

In more recent times the controversy has been continued either with the attempted proof of determinism by the advocates of psychological Hedonism, an attempt which in the present time is generally admitted to have failed; or with the doctrine that the influence of environment in its bearing upon the development of character and the possibility of freedom. The great advance of biological knowledge in recent times though it has in no sense created a new problem (men have always been aware of the importance of racial or hereditary physical qualities in their influence upon human conduct) has certainly rendered the existence of complete individual freedom (in the sense in which it was advocated by older libertarians) in the highest degree unlikely. The advocate of freedom must, therefore, in order to maintain the relative power of influencing conduct, e.g. a power of controlling inherent temperament or subduing natural passion. Such a relative freedom, indeed, taking into account the admitted inviolability of natural laws, was from the very beginning all that they could claim.

But it was inevitable that the enormous advances made by the physical and other sciences in modern times should bring with them a reasoned attempt to bring the phenomena of consciousness within the sphere controlled by physical laws and natural necessity. There will never perhaps in any period of the world's history be wanting advocates of materialism, who find in the sensible the only reality. But the materialism of modern times is more subtle than that of Hobbes. And the determinism of modern science no longer consists in a crude denial of the reality of conscious processes, or an attempt to explain them as only a sublated form of matter and its movements; it is content to admit the relative independence of the world of consciousness, while it maintains that laws and hypotheses sufficient to explain material processes may be extended to the will be discovered to be valid of the changing sequence of conscious states of mind. Moreover, much of the apparent cogency of modern scientific determinist arguments has been derived from the unguarded admissions or timorous acquiescence of their opponents. It is not enough merely to repel the incursions of physiological science, armed with hypotheses and theories valid enough in their own sphere, upon the domain of consciousness. If the attack is to be finally repulsed it will be imperatively necessary for the libertarian to maintain that no full explanation of the physical universe can ever gain assent which does not take account of the reality and influence within the material world of human power of initiative and freedom.

Of this necessity there is a growing consciousness in recent years, and no more notable exposition of it has been published than is contained in James Ward's Naturalism and Agnosticism. Nor is there any lack of evidence of a growing dissatisfaction on the part of many physiologists with the complacent assumption that the methods of physical science, and particularly the conception of causal activity common to the sciences which study inorganic nature, can be transferred without further criticism to the examination of life and mind. Meanwhile the scientific onslaught upon the libertarian position has been directed from two chief quarters. It has been maintained, on the one hand, that any theory which presupposes a direct correspondence between the molecular movements of the brain, and the states of consciousness which accompany them must make the freedom of the will impossible. On the other hand it is asserted that quite apart from any particular view as to the relation between mind and body the existence of the freedom of the will is necessarily incompatible with the principle of the conservation of energy and is therefore in direct contradiction to...
many if not most of the assured conclusions of the physical sciences.

As regards the first of these two main contentions, it must suffice here to point out the main difficulties in which a determinist and especially materialist account of the relation between consciousness and the succession of material processes which accompany it appears to be involved. The arguments of thorough-going materialism can in most cases be met with a direct negative. No kind of evidence can be adduced sufficient to prove that consciousness is a secretion of the brain, an effect or even a consequent of material processes or modes of motion. No direct causal relationship between a molecular movement and a state of consciousness has ever been established. No physiologist has ever claimed the power to prophesy with any approach to accuracy the future mental states of any individual from an examination of his brain. And, though some kind of correspondence between the physical and conscious series of states has been observed and is commonly taken for granted in a number of instances, proof that entire correspondence exists is still wanting, and the precise kind of correspondence is left undetermined. Nevertheless, the belief that material processes must be held sufficient to account for material changes in the human organism as in all other regions of the material world, can be held quite independently of any particular theory as to the relation between mind and body, and in many of its forms is equally destructive of a belief in the freedom of the will. The mechanical hypothesis, too, which is increasingly prevalent in modern science. The theory of psychophysical parallelism involves no doubt in the minds of the majority of its upholders the further assumption of some unity underlying both the physical and psychical series which may one day be discovered to be susceptible of scientific expression and interpretation. Certainly without some such assumption the hypothesis of an exact correspondence between the series described as parallel becomes, as Professor Ward has shown, unmeaning. And many scientific thinkers, while professing allegiance to a theory which insists upon the independence of each parallel series, in reality tacitly assume the superior importance if not the controlling force of the physical over the psychical terms. 

But a mere insistence upon the complete independence of the physical series coupled with the belief that its changes are wholly explicable as modes of motion, i.e. that the study of molecular physics is competent to explain all the phenomena of life and organic movements, is sufficient to eliminate the possibility of spontaneity and free origination from the universe. For if consciousness be looked upon as simply an epiphenomenon, an unaccountable appearance accompanying the actual mechanical changes of the brain, the possibility either of active interference by human volition at any point within the physical series or of any controlling or directing efficacy of consciousness over the whole set of material changes which accompany its activity becomes unthinkable. There are, nevertheless, serious difficulties in the supposition that the changes in the brain with which physiology and the biological sciences deal can be satisfactorily explained by the mechanical and mathematical conceptions common to all these sciences, or, indeed, that all of these organic changes is susceptible in the last resort of explanation derived from physics alone. The phenomena of life and growth and assimilation have not been satisfactorily explained as mechanical modes of motion, and the fact that identical cerebral movements have not been discovered to recur makes scientific and accurate prediction of future cerebral changes an impossibility. But more convincing than most of the philosophical arguments by which the theories of psychophysical parallelism have been assailed is the fact that it runs counter to the plain evidence of the ordinary consciousness. No matter to what extent the unphilosophical thinker may be under the influence of materialistic presuppositions, he always recoils from the conclusion that the facts of his mental life have no influence upon his physical movements. Meaning, design and purpose are to him terms far more explanatory of his movements in the outer world than the mechanical and mathematical equivalents to which his actions will ultimately be reduced if the sciences should achieve their avowed purpose. To regard himself as a conscious automaton he can never be persuaded. Further, he finds in the series of antecedents and consequents capable of mathematical and spatial determination, which certain men of science present to him as their final account of his physical and psychical history, no real explanation of the facts: he is far more inclined to look for an explanation of the efficacy of causal changes in the categories of will and purpose for which they are a substitution.

Nor, finally, is the last defensive position of scientific determinism—the theory, namely, that the freedom of the will is incompatible with the doctrine of the conservation of energy—to be accepted without question. That doctrine, if it is to possess cogency as a proof of the impossibility of the libertarian position, must assume that the amount of energy sufficient to account for physical and psychical changes is constant and invariable in quantity, an assumption which no scientific investigator is competent to prove. A regulative principle which may possess great value when applied and confined to the comparatively abstract material of the mathematical and quasi-mathematical sciences is highly dangerous if extended to the investigation of living bodies. "In its present form, and since the development of the mechanical theory of heat, the principle of the conservation of energy certainly seems to apply to the whole range of physico-chemical phenomena. But no one can predict the energy which a nerve will lose in making a response and of nervous phenomena in particular, will not reveal to us, besides the *vis viva* or kinetic energy of which Leibnitz spoke, and the potential energy which was a later and necessary adjunct, some new kind of energy which may differ from the other two by rebelling against calculation" (Bergson, *Time and Free Will*, Eng. trans. by F. L. Pogson, pp. 151, 152).

It is, however, from the development of the scientific study of psychology more than from any other region of thought that light has been thrown upon the problem of freedom. The determinist or the positions of psychophysiology (determinist because they involve the application of the causal conceptions of modern science to mental phenomena) have in many instances in no way retarded the utilization of new information concerning mental processes in order to prove the reality of freedom. Bergson is perhaps the most notable instance of a philosopher fully conversant with psychological studies and methods who remains a convinced libertarian. But the contribution made by psychology to the solution of the problem has taken the form not so much of a direct reinforcement of the arguments of either of the opponent systems, as of a searching criticism of the false assumptions concerning conative processes and the phenomena of choice common alike to determinists and libertarians. It has already been pointed out that the problem as it presented itself to utilitarian philosophers could lead only to a false solution, depending as it did upon a wholly fictitious theory as to the nature of desire. There are still many traces to be found in modern psychology of a similar unreal identification of desire with will. But, nevertheless, the new light thrown upon the unity of the self and the more careful and accurate scrutiny of mental phenomena is sufficient to make the determinist or the phenomena of decision have rendered it no longer possible either for determinists to deny the fact of choice (whatever be their theory as to its nature) or for libertarians to regard the self or the will as isolated from and unaffected by other mental constituents and antecedents, and hence, by an appeal to wholly fictitious entities, to prove the truth of freedom. The self or the will can no longer be looked upon as possessing a kind of *imperium in imperio*, this way and that dividing the swift mind." And if freedom of choice be a possibility at all, it must in future be regarded as the prerogative of a man's whole personality, exhibited continuously throughout the development of his character, displayed to some extent in all conscious conative processes, though especially apparent in crises necessitating deliberate and serious purpose. The mistake of earlier advocates of determinism lay in the
supposition that self-conscious moral action could be explained by the use of the same categories and upon the same hypotheses usually considered sufficient to explain the causal sequences observable in the physical world. Conduct was regarded as the result of interaction between character and environment; or it was asserted to be the resultant effect of a struggle between motives in which the strongest prevailed. And the libertarian critic had before him a comparatively easy task when he exhibited the complete interdependence of character and environment, or rather the impossibility of treating either as determinants in a process explicable by the use of ordinary scientific categories.

It was not difficult to show that motives have meaning only with reference to a self, and that it is the self which alone has power to erect a desire into a motive, or that the attraction of an object of appetite derives much of its power from the character of the self to which it makes its appeal. What is possibly not so obvious is the extent to which libertarians have themselves been guilty of a similar fallacy. It is comparatively unimportant to the determinist whether the cause to which he attributes conduct be the self, or the will, or character, or the strongest motive, provided that each of these causes is regarded as definitely ascertainable and that its effects in sufficiently known circumstances be calculable. It is possible to treat will as a permanent cause manifesting itself through a series of sequent changes, and obedient to the laws which govern the development of the personality of the single individual.

And the libertarian, by his arguments showing that appeal must be made to an act of will or of the self in the explanation of the phenomena of choice, does nothing directly to disprove the truth of such a contention. If, however, it be argued by libertarians that no explanation is possible of the manner in which the self or the will makes its decisions and inclines to this motive or to that, while they still assert the independent existence of the self or will, then they are undoubtedly open to the retort of their opponents that upon such a theory no rational explanation of conduct will be possible. For to regard a particular decision as the effect of the "fiat" of a self or will unmotived and uninfluenced by the idea of a future object of attainment seems to be equivalent to the simple statement that the choice was made or the decision taken. Such a theory can prove nothing either for or against the possibility of freedom.

Moreover, many of the arguments by which the position of rigid libertarians of the older school has been proved untenable have been advanced by moral philosophers, and by thinkers not always inclined to regard psychology with complete sympathy. The doctrine of self-determination, advocated by T. H. Green and idealist writers of his school, has little or nothing in common with the doctrine that the self manifests its freedom in unmotived acts of will. The advocates of self-determination maintain that conduct is never determined, in the sense in which, e.g., movements in the physical world are determined, because man in virtue of his self-consciousness has a power of distinguishing himself from, even while he identifies himself with, a purely natural object of desire; and this must always make it impossible to regard him as an object governed by purely natural forces. Consciousness and especially self-consciousness, can never be explained upon hypotheses adequate only to explain the blind working of the unconscious world. But the insistence of idealist writers upon the relation of the world of nature to conscious intelligence, and especially to a universal consciousness realizing itself throughout the history of individuals, rendered it alike impossible to deny altogether some influence of environment upon character, and to regard the history of individual willing selves as consisting in isolated and unconnected acts of choice. Self-consciousness, if it be conceived as distinguishing itself from its past history or from the natural world, must be conceived also as in some sense related to the empirical self which has a history in time and to the natural organism in which it finds a home. It is the precise mode of this relation which idealist philosophers leave obscure.

Nor is that obscurity to any appreciable degree illuminated by the tendency also noticeable in idealist writers to find the true possession of freedom only in a self emancipated from the influence of irrational passion, and liberated by knowledge from the dominion of chance or the despotism of unknown natural forces. Here also psychology, by its elucidation of the important part which instinctive appetites and animal impulses play in the development of intelligence, still more perhaps by arguments (based largely upon the examination of hypnagogic subjects or the phenomena of fixed ideas) which show the permanent influence of irrational or semi-rational suggestions or habits upon human conduct, has only helped to aid andabet idealists in their contentions. It cannot in fact be denied that from one point of view human freedom is strictly relative, a possession to be won only after painful effort, exhibiting itself in its entirety only in supreme moments when the self is unswayed by habit, and out of full knowledge makes an individual and personal choice. Ideal freedom will be the supreme achievement of a self completely moralized. But the process by which such freedom is eventually to be gained must, if the prize is to be worth the having, itself exhibit the gradual development of a self whose actions are as under whatever limitations, permitted or permitted, to the liberty of choice in its early stages as it is in its latest. And no theory which limits the exercise of freedom to the choice only of what is strictly good or rational can avoid the imputation of destroying man's responsibility for the choice of evil.

But the most important point at issue between the opposing theories has remained throughout the history of the controversy, the morality or immorality of their respective solutions to the ethical problem. The advocates of either theory must in the last resort appeal to the direct evidence of the moral consciousness. It remains to give a brief sketch of the arguments advanced on either side.

It has always been maintained by convinced libertarians that without a belief in the freedom of the will morality becomes unmeaning (see determinism). Moreover, without a belief in the freedom of the will the conception of moral obligation upon which the existence of morality depends and from which all other moral terms derive their meaning loses its chief significance. What is opposed to obligation, or at least always distinguished from it, is that very domain of necessity within which determinism would be the only or the determining factor. If there is no obligation absolute, where the will is completely moralized, where it is inconceivable in the case of a good man that the act which he performs should be other than it is, there the obligation which he recognizes is an obligation to choose autonomously, and as such is distinguished from desire or appetite or any of the other alleged determinants of action. If the question be asked: "Where is the evidence for this alleged freedom to choose between alternatives?" the appeal is always made to the witness of the moral consciousness itself. No one, it is said, who ever feels remorse for the committal of a wrong act can honestly avoid the admission that at the moment when the act was committed he could have acted otherwise. No one at the moment of action is ever aware that his will is being necessitated. What he is clearly conscious of is the power to choose. Any proof, in the scientific sense, that a man's acts are due to his power of free initiative would be from the nature of the case impossible. For, inasmuch as scientific proof depends upon the evidence of causality, such efforts after scientific demonstration would end only by bringing either the man's whole personality or some factor in it within the sequence of the chain of natural causes and effects, under the domination of that natural necessity from which as a conscious being he is free. The science of morality must be content in its search for causes to recognize the rationality of choice as a real determining agent in human affairs. And no account of the psychology of human action which regards conduct as due to self-determination, but leaves open the question whether the self is free to choose is, so it is argued, capable of providing an adequate theory of the admitted facts of moral consciousness.

We must now consider the arguments by which determinists
attacked the position of his opponents and the evidence which they adduce to show that the freedom of the will is no necessary postulate of moral action. Moral determinism of the older type the dependence of morality upon freedom did not of necessity prove an obstacle.

Hedonistic psychology denied the libertarian hypothesis, but it denied also the absoluteness and intuitive character of moral obligation, and attested no validity to the ordinary interpretation of terms like "ought" and duty. Modern determinists differ from the earlier advocates of their theory in their endeavour to exhibit at least the compatibility of morality with the absence of freedom, if not the enhancement of moral values which, according to some of its advocates, follows upon the acceptance of the deterministic account of conduct.

If a coherent theory capable of giving an explanation of the ordinary facts of morality and not involving too violent a breach with the meaning of moral terms in their accepted usage were all that need be required of determinists in order to reconcile the defenders of the moral consciousness to the loss of their belief in the will's freedom, it would follow without question that the determinists have proved their case. Neither the deterrent nor the reformationary theories of punishment (q.v.) necessitate the abolition of personal freedom in the freedom of the will. On the contrary, a belief that conduct is necessarily determined, in the presence of certain motives, and that upon the application of certain incentives, whether of pain or pleasure, upon the presence of certain stimuli, is as necessary to the shaping of the actions of a character will necessarily ensue, would seem to vindicate the rationality of the ordinary penal legislation, if its aim be deterrent or reformationary, to a far greater extent than is possible upon the libertarian hypothesis. Humanitarian moralists, who hesitate to believe in the retributive theory of punishment because, as they think, its aim is not the criminal's future well-being but merely the vindication of the law, would find a plausible point upon which to base the rationality of the criminal need never have committed, might welcome a theory which urges that the sole aim of punishment should be the exercise of an influence determining the criminal's future conduct for his own or public advantage. Moreover, the belief that the justice of punishment depends upon the responsibility of the criminal for his past offences and the admission of the moral consciousness that his previous wrong-doing was due to his own act because it is so, and that his punishment is deserved by reason of his very act alone, would make the libertarian moralist willing to accept retribution. For whatever may have been the character of the individual in the past, it is possible upon the libertarian view that by the exercise of his freedom he has brought about in himself a complete change of character: he may be now the exact opposite in character of what he was then. Upon what grounds, therefore, shall we discriminate between acts and the moral responsibility for their commission when he was at a previous period in his life and the injustice of forgiving him because of what he is in the present? While if the deterrent and reformationary theories alone provide a rational basis for punishment to aim at then the libertarian hypothesis fails, it cannot be that all punishments equally useless. For no punishments can prevent the individual from becoming a person of whatsoever character he chooses, or from enjoying the product of acts of which determines to prefer. A similar line of argument would lead to the conclusion that the conception of the state as an educating, controlling and civilizing agency involves the belief that individual citizens can be influenced and directed by motives which have their origin in external suggestion, i.e. that the determinist theory alone provides a rational basis for state activity of whatever kind.

It might, however, be thought that whatever be the compatibility of theories of punishment or of the activity of the state as a moralizing agency with determinism, to reconcile the denial of freedom with a belief in the reality of remorse or penitence would be a serious objection to its adoption. Men's moral responsibility and tendency on the part of modern determinists to evade the difficulty. They argue with considerable cogency that determinism is very far from affording any ground for believing in the impotence of will. They believe that an action which determines a person's moral character in the future may be as yet unanalysed and unappreciated, but which can be must intrusive analysis the hidden elements in his personality. The existence of feelings of remorse and penitence testify to the presence in the human frame of other elements of an individual, which, if good, are the causes of and act in the same manner as the determinists' contention. For they are the natural and logical consequences of the acts which the penitent deplores. Such feelings and the good acts of a character in a consciousness sufficiently moralized as incalculably as pain in the.

natural world follows upon the violation of one of nature's laws. And they would lose a great part of their significance if they did not testify to the continued existence in a man's personality of motives and tendencies likely to influence his conduct in the future as they have in the past. They have, however, a deeper rational explanation of the idea of responsibility itself upon determinist assumptions. To hold to a person to be a responsible agent is to believe that he possesses a certain stability and character of nature from which his actions issue. Now it sometimes seem to lead to the conclusion that free agents are irresponsible, unaccountable. The truth seems to be that throughout the history of the controversy the chief arguments for either side have been pressed upon the external events; the most important of such arguments being to demonstrate that the actions of his opponents have been driven in the presentation of their case. So long as libertarians contend that what alone possesses moral value is the character of the action, at least, and when they bring the saving the arbitrary flat of individual selves at the moment of decision, it is difficult for determinists to exhibit the absurdities to which their arguments lead. It can easily be shown that men do as a matter of fact act on their moral desires, the environment, nor the influence of determinist account of conduct.

Punishment.

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acts of a certain character. But even with regard to the expediency of such punishments we may have doubts. For the very argument from the undeveloped possibilities of such man's character by which the determinist proves the compatibility of his theory with the phenomenon of sudden conversion and the like is sufficient also to prove that the state of his character after the punishment is such that the individual will have the effect upon his character and conduct which it desires. It may be replied that experience makes it reasonably certain that the infliction of certain penalties will produce an effect upon the character of the individual, and that this effect upon conduct may be established as reasonably probable by induction. But when the data are admittedly so uncertain is a valid inductive argument of such a character possible? And even if it were what would be its bearing upon the justice of the injustice of inflicting punishments at all? The unsophisticated moral consciousness will still consider it unjust to punish a man for deeds of which he will not avoid the performance, and regard the alleged desire to produce in his future life consequences favourable to himself or society as beside the mark and irrelevant to the question at issue.

At the moment of action the individual invariably regards himself as free to choose between alternatives. This immediate consciousness of freedom persists upon an occasion even though subsequent reflection upon conduct should lead the individual to regard himself as determined at the very moment when he was aware of himself as free. It is this immediate consciousness of the power of choosing between alternatives which the determinist finds so difficult to explain. He may regard it as an illusion, and attempt to prove the incompatibility of our consciousness of freedom with the facts of existence and the nature of the world. But, in ordinary cases of illusion, once let the reason for the illusion be discovered and then there is no longer the illusion of our being longer deceived. The phenomena which deceived us may continue to persist, but they no longer persist as illusion; the appearance which deceived us is seen in its true nature, even though it should still retain those characteristic marks or signs of reality which hitherto we regarded as significant of a nature which we now no longer believe it to possess. But can it be maintained that the same truth holds good of our consciousness of freedom? Is it possible to hold that determinist arguments are of so convincing a character as to enable us to perceive at the moment of the action the untrustworthy nature of our consciousness of freedom? But, if we are to suppose that our past acts were determined, that desire of pleasure or the wish to avoid pain controlled our will, the unphilosophical observer interprets, in offenders against morality, such arguments as a mere excuse. Moreover, reminiscence and evidence are witnesses in the wrongdoer to the truth of the interpretation. On the other hand we have no such immediate consciousness of the necessity which is said to control our wills. We sharply distinguish that freedom which is the prerogative of human action from the necessary causation discoverable in nature. Within the domain of human consciousness retrospective analysis is unable to discover those chains of necessary sequences which it is the province of science to investigate in the physical world. And until the determinist can successfully explain to us how in a world obeying throughout its history necessary laws and limited in its nature to the exhibition of causal sequences the consciousness of freedom could ever have arisen, we may be content to trust the immediate affirmation of our moral selves.


**WILL**

**WILL,** or Testament, the legal documentary instrument by which a person regulates the rights of others over his property or family after his death. 1 For the devolution of property not disposed of by will, see Inheritance, Intestacy. In strictness "will" is a general term whilst "testament" applies only to dispositions of personalty; but this distinction is seldom maintained in practice. The court of Hastingstow will, familiar as it is in modern England, is by no means, in fact, complete freedom is the exception rather than the rule. Legal systems which are based upon Roman law, such as those of Scotland and France, allow the whole property to be alienated only where the deceased leaves no widow or near relatives. In France this restriction has met with condemnation from eminent legal and economical authorities. R. T. Treglown, for instance, held that "un peuple n'est pas libre, s'il n'a pas le droit de tester, et la liberté du testament est la plus grande preuve de la liberté civile." 2

**History.**—The will, if not purely Roman in origin, at least owes to Roman law its complete development—a development which in most European countries was greatly aided at a later period by ecclesiastics versed in Roman law. In India, according to Macfarlane, 3 the earliest written Roman law was used by the Indians, who interpreted the Roman will, as the Roman law, with Mohammedan law. The early Roman will, as Sir H. Maine shows, 4 differed from the modern will in most important respects. It was at first merely a written statement of the distribution of the movable property of the deceased, and the part of the movable property which was to be disposed of by the testament; the will was in public form; and it was irrevocable. Its original object, like that of adoption, was to secure the perpetuation of the family. This was done by securing the due vesting of the heredities in a person who should be relied upon to keep up the family rites. There is much probability in the conjecture that a will was only allowed to be made when the testator had no gentiles discoverable, or when the gentiles were of their rights. It is certain from the text of Gaius 5 that the earliest form of will, in which those made in the testament, and those made in praetura, made in praetura, or in the course of battle. The former were published before the comitia, as representative of the patrician gentes, and were the subject of particular legislation in the case of the plebeian and patrician gentes. At a later time grew up a form of plebeian will (testamentum per aet titribam), and the law of succession under testament was further modified by the influence of the praetor, especially in the direction of recognition of fideicommissa or testamentary trusts. Codicilli or informal wills, also came into use, and were sufficient for almost every purpose but the appointment of an heir. In the time of Justinian a will founded partly on the jus civile, partly on the edict of the praetor, partly on imperial constitutions and so called testamentum tripertitum, was generally in use. The main points essential to its validity were that the testator should possess testamentary power, that the will should not be modified by the testator in the presence of seven witnesses, or published orally in open court. The witnesses must be idonei, or free from legal disability. For instance, women and slaves were not good witnesses. The testator might dispose of his property for life and for the life of his testator, or the lifetime of his testator, or the lifetime of his testator. The rights of heirs and descendants were protected by enactments which secured to them a legal minimum, the queria inagolasci testamenti being the remedy of those passed over. The age at which testamentary capacity began was fourteen in the case of males, twelve in the case of females. Up to A.D. 439 a will must have been in Latin; after that date Greek was allowed. Certain persons, especially the patricians, were privileged from observing the ordinary forms. The liability of the heir to the debts of the testator varied at different periods. At first it was practically unlimited. Then the law was gradually modified in his favor until the testator made it possible that the heir who duly made an inventory of the property of the deceased was liable only to the assets to which he had succeeded. This limitation of liability is generally termed by the civilians beneficiarium inventarium. Sometimes the like in the English probate is to be found in the rules for breaking the seals of a will in presence of the praetor. Closely connected with the will was the donatio mortis causa, the rules of which have been as a whole adopted in England (see below). An immense series of codicilli in the Code Carolini and the Corpus Iuris Canonici is, as a rule, not alienated to the whole of part v. of the Digest (books xxviii.-xxxvi.) deals with the subject, and so do a large number of constitutions in the Code and Xantippe.

1 This is practically in accordance with the definition of Modestinus in Digest xxvii. 1, i. 13, volutati nostrae justa sententia de eo quid post mortem suam fuerit vellet.

2 Traité des donations entre-vifs et des testaments (1855), preface.

3 Les Lettres, chap. vi. 11. 101.

4 Hist. of Roman Law, 1.
early as Constantine, and heretics and monks were placed under a disability to make a will or take gifts left by will. A will was often deposed in a church. The canon law was favorable to this because it was to the advantage of the Church.

No Church property could be bequeathed. Manifest users were added to the list of those under disability. For the validity of a will, the testator had to be of full age and free from the presence of a priest and two witnesses, unless where it was made in pias causas. The witnesses, as in Roman law, must be idonei. Gifts to the Church were not subject to the deductions in favour of the heir nor were they subject to the claims of creditors. A will made in a church could be, in part, modified by the Church, and the Church was not incapacitated to receive, and married women, infants, idiots and lunatics to devise. An act of 1660, by abolishing tenure by knight service, made all lands devisable. In the same reign the Statute of Frauds (1660) enacted that no contract should be enforced unless it was made in writing and signed by both parties. There was a time when even the handwriting of another person, constituted a sufficient will, if published by the testator as such. The Statute of Frauds required, inter alia, that all devises should be in writing signed by the person whose devise is made, and made in the presence and by his direction, and should also be subscribed by three or four credible witnesses. The strict interpretation by the courts of the credibilitas of such witnesses held good until the 1751–1752, making interested witnesses sufficient for the due execution of the will, but declaring gifts to them void. The will of a man was revoked by marriage and the birth of a child, of a woman by marriage and the birth of a child. A will revoked by the birth of a child would have effect only against such child, and even by a void conveyance inter vivos of land devised by the will made subsequently to the date of the will, which was presumed to be an attempt by the grantor to give legal effect to a change of intention. As in Roman law, a will spoken from the time of the making, so that it could not avail to pass after-acquired property without republication, which was equivalent to making a new will. A written will need not be "credibile," i.e., be witnessed, but could be rendered to the use of the will of the copyhold tenant; an act of 1815 made them devisable simply. Devises of lands have gradually been made liable to the claims of creditors by a series of statutes beginning 1752.

The history of wills of personality was considerably different, but to some extent followed parallel lines. In both cases partial preservation of pre-Christian property and the consolidation of ideas of personal freedom and personal property. The opinion of the best authorities is that by the common law of England a man could only dispose of his whole personal property if he left no wife or children; if he left either wife or children he could not dispose of them without the will. In the case of a will in the presence of witnesses and even by a void conveyance the devise of land made by the will was void. In the case of the will, the will of a man was revoked by marriage and the birth of a child, of a woman by marriage and the birth of a child. A will revoked by the birth of a child would have effect only against such child, and even by a void conveyance of land devised by the will made subsequently to the date of the will, which was presumed to be an attempt by the grantor to give legal effect to a change of intention. As in Roman law, a will spoken from the time of the making, so that it could not avail to pass after-acquired property without republication, which was equivalent to making a new will. A written will need not be "credibile," i.e., be witnessed, but could be rendered to the use of the will of the copyhold tenant; an act of 1815 made them devisable simply. Devises of lands have gradually been made liable to the claims of creditors by a series of statutes beginning 1752.

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WILL

The Judicature Acts 1873 and 1875 and the Land Transfer Act 1897. All but the acts of 1873 and 1875 deal mainly with what has happened after death. They are set under the voluntary or contentious jurisdiction of the Probate Division (see Prorate).

Some of the earlier acts are still law, though of little importance since the more modern and comprehensive enactments.

The earliest on the statute roll is an act of Henry III. (1263), enabling a widow to bequeath the crops of her lands. Before the Wills Act uniformity in the law had been urgently recommended by the Blackstone Commission and had been adopted by the Court of Chancery. A rather mischievous report is that at the time of its appearance there were ten different ways in which a will might be made under different circumstances.

The act of 1857 affected both the making and the interpretation of wills. It extended for the first time the operation of its enactments to seafarers, and it also bequeathed the court rolls, which were to be made by any person under the age of twenty-one is valid. Every will is to be in writing, signed at the foot or end thereof by the testator or by some person in his presence and by his direction, and such signature is to be made or acknowledged by the testator in the presence of two or more witnesses present at the same time, who are to subscribe the will in the presence of the testator. It is usual for the testator and the witnesses to sign every will, although it is not necessary. Misinterpretation of the importance of a will, if it is to be valid, or to a witness to a will, is not necessary. Gifts to a witness or the husband or wife of a witness are void. A creditor or executor may attest. A will is revoked (except where made in contemplation of marriage) by the testator's death, by renunciation, or by destruction, with the intention by the testator's death, or by destruction, with the intention of revoking, but not by pre-emption arising from an alteration in circumstances. Alterations in a will must be executed and attested as a will. A will speaks from the date of its execution, unless the intention to make a will is evidenced by an unattested document may be, if properly identified, incorporated in a will, but such a document, if executed subsequently to the will, is invalid.

Rules of interpretation or construction depend chiefly on decisions of the courts, to a smaller extent on statutory enactment. The law was gradually brought into its present condition through pre-annelian enactments extending back for centuries, especially decisions of the Court of Chancery, the court par excellence of construction, as distinguished from the court of probate. The court of probate did not deal unless incidentally with the meaning of the will; its jurisdiction was not necessarily limited to the interpretation of a will, but its present state of the law of interpretation is highly technical. Some phrases have obtained a conventional meaning which the testators who used them probably did not dream of. Many of the judicial doctrines which had gradually become established were altered by the Wills Act. These provisions of the act have since that time themselves become the subject of judicial decision. Among other provisions are these, most of them to take effect only in the absence of a contrary intention. A residuary devise is to include estates comprised in lapsed and void devises. A general gift of the testator's lands is to include such lands and other heritable property of the testator. A gift of an estate to take effect in whole or in part at the death of the person whose issue was named, not as before the act, an indefinite failure of issue, an estate tail being thus created. Trustees under an unlimited devise are to take the fee simple. Devises of estates tail are not to lapse if the devise, though he pre- deceased the testator, left issue inheritable under the entail. Gifts to children or other issue leaving issue living at the testator's death are to lapse. Rules of interpretation founded on principles of equity independent of statute are very numerous, and for them the works devoted to the subject must be consulted. Some of the more important, stated in as general a form as possible, are these. The intention of the testator is to be observed. This rule is followed by Sir E. Coke: the pole star to guide the judges. There is a presumption against intestacy, against double portions, against constructing meaning out of words, and to import into the meaning of the words of the act is to be expounded by another. Interlineations and alterations are presumed to have been made after, not as in deeds before, execution. Words are supposed to be used in their strict and primary sense. Many words and phrases, however, such as "money," "residue," and "issue," and words of the same meaning, have become invested with technical meanings, but there has been a recent tendency to include illegitimate children in a gift to "children." Evidence is admissible in consideration of an intestate or of an intestate estate, of an antenuptial settlement, and of a settlement of the estate of a testator. Terms of a lost will may be given as in the famous case of Sugden v. Lord St Leonards (1876), 1 Prob. Div. 154.

A will in whole or in part, for many reasons, which may be divided into two great classes, arising from external circumstances and those arising from the will itself. The main examples of the former class are revocation by burning, tearing, &c., by a later will, or by marriage of the testator (except as below), incapacity of the testator from insanity, infamy or legal disability (such as being a convict), undue influence and fraud, any one of which will render the will void. It is for the testator's own death, however, that the rule against perpetuities applies. A will being ambulatory is always revocable, unless in one or two exceptional cases. Undue influence is a ground upon which a will will not be confirmed by the Court of Probate, but it may be confirmed by the Court of Chancery. It is well explained in a judgment of Lord Penzance's: "Pressure of whatever character, whether acting on the fears or the hopes, as it is exerted to overpower the will without convincing the judgment, is a species of influence which is more often exerted than acknowledged, the will remaining good as a whole. Where the will is not duly executed, e.g., if it is a forgery or if it is not signed by the testator or his executors, or if the testator is under any sort of duress, the will is void altogether. Where it contains devises or bequests bad in law, as in general restraint of marriage, or tending to create perpetuities, or contrary to public policy, or to some particular enactment, only the illegal part is void. A remarkable instance is a well-known case in which a condition subsequent in a devise was held void as against public policy, being a gift over of the estate devised in case the first devisee, personally to a certain value, having before his death obtained the lapsed title of duke of Bridgewater.1

There are some wills of an exceptional kind which demand special notice. The King.—It was resolved in parliament in Richard II's time that the Crown should not make wills. It was decided, as a rule, not to make their testaments. In some later cases parliamentary authority has been given to royal wills, in others not. The executors of Henry IV, were confirmed in their office by letters patent of Henry V, andthose of Henry VI, were confirmed in their office by letters patent. The daughter and heir of an English king were given to Henry VII, by an act of 1535-34, empowering him to limit and appoint the succession to the crown by his will. The will of the last sovereign, by will, bequeathed the whole of his estate to his wife. By 39 & 40 Geo. III. c. 88 the king and his successor may devise or bequeath their private property.2 No court, however, has jurisdiction to grant probate of the will of a king. Guardian.—As a general rule, wills deal with property, but even at common law a will simply appointing a guardian was good. The common law was superseded by an act of 1660, under which a father may dispose of the custody of his unmarried infant children by will. The will of the sovereign bequeaths to the crown the duties and powers in cases to the mother. Married Woman.—At common law a married woman could not (with a few exceptions) make a will without her husband's licence and consent, and this disability was specially preserved by the Wills Acts of Henry VIII. and of 1837. A common mode of avoiding this difficulty was for the husband to contract before marriage to permit the wife to make an appointment disposing of property by will. The right of a woman to make a will also in the case of marriage to the next of kin, does not extend to the next of kin to the husband by marriage and the birth of a child. Wills of soldiers on an expedition may be made by unattested writing or by non-testamentary testament before two witnesses. Wills of petty officers and seamen in the navy, and of marines, as far as relates to their pay or prize-money, must be attested by an officer, and wills made by a seaman in the merchant service must, if made at sea, be attested by the master or mate, if made on land by a super- intendent of a mercantile marine office, a minister of religion, justice, or officer of the navy. (1827) 5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 76. The Merchant Shipping Act 1845, ss. 177. The wills of prisoners of war are subject to special regulations, and the Admiralty may at its discretion waive

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1 Fourth Report, p. 12.
2 By § 1 of the act the word "will" includes codicil.
the due execution of wills in other instances. The effects of seamen, marines and soldiers, killed or dying in the service, are exempt from probate. Some provisions due to seamen employed in the navy may be paid out without probate where the whole assets do not exceed £32. The Board of Trade may at its discretion dispense with the probate of a will of a merchant seaman whose effects do not exceed £32. If the will is not presented within 12 months the Act requires that the whole of the effects shall vest in the native. The due execution of valid wills in the case of seamen is subject to the condition that the instruments shall be sealed. This does not apply to seamen who die abroad in the service of the Crown. Where the testator is a British subject, and where the property is left to the Crown, the property vests in the Crown.

Louisiana follows French law, by which the testator can provide for circumstances alienate by will more than half his property if he leave issue or descendants. In some states a married woman may not leave more than half her property away from her husband. Some require the husband's consent and subscription to make the will of a married woman valid. Unmarried and untestamentarily willed are in usu. The former are confined to personality and must generally be reduced to writing within a short time after the words are spoken. In Louisiana the mystic or sealed will still exists. There are several deviations of state courts that belief in spiritualism does not of itself constitute testamentary incapacity.


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**France.**—The law is mainly contained in ss. 657-1074 of the Code Civil. Wills in France may be of three kinds: (1) holograph, which must be wholly written, dated and signed by the testator; (2) made as a public instrument, i.e. received by two witnesses before two witnesses or by one notary before four witnesses; this form of will must be dictated by the testator and written by the notary, but must be read over to the testator in the presence of the witnesses and must be signed by testator and witnesses; (3) mystic, which are signed by the testator, then closed and sealed and delivered by him to a notary before six witnesses; the notary then draws up an account of the property disposed of on the instrument which is signed by all notaries and witnesses. Legateses and their blood relations to the fourth degree may not be witnesses. Nuncupative wills are not recognized. Soldiers' and sailors' wills are subject to special rules as in most other countries. Full liberty of disposition only exists where the testator has no ascendants or descendants, in other cases his quantité disponible is subject to réserve; if the testator has one child he may only dispose of half his estate, if two only one-third, if three or more only one-fourth; if he has no descendants but ascendants in both lines he may dispose of half, if ascendants in one line only he may dispose of three-fourths. The full age of testamentary capacity is twenty-one years, but minors over the age of sixteen may dispose by will of half of the estate of which they could dispose had they been of full age. There is no restriction against married women making wills. A contract to dispose of the succession is invalid, s. 791.

The codes of the Latin races in Europe are in general accordance with the French law.

**Germany.**—Most of the law will be found in the Bürgehliches GesichtsG. ss. 266-273. A holograph will, either single-handed or witnessed, is lawful. The judge or notary (or outside Germany) a consul. Two witnesses are required, unless the witness be a notary or the registrar of the court, who is sufficient alone. The formalities may be relaxed in certain cases, such as imminent death, a state of siege, a prevailing epidemic, &c. Descendants, ascendants and the husband and wife, are entitled to compulsory portions (pflichtberechtigt). But those prima facie entitled may be deprived of their share for certain specified kinds of misconduct. A contract to make any specified testamentary disposition is operative. But a contract of inheritance (Erbevorsicht) may only be made by direct disposition is valid in certain cases and may operate on the death of the contractor. The modes of revocation are the same as in England (except marriage).

But there is one peculiar to Germany, the inconsistency of a will with an Erbrecht; in such an event the will is wholly or pro tanto revoked.

**International Law.**—There are three main directions which the opinion of jurists and the practice of courts have taken. (1) The property of the testator may be subjected to the law of his domicil. To this effect is the opinion of Savigny and the German practice. Certain modifications have been made by modern law, e.g. that the other events of 1896. (2) The property may be subjected to the law of the place where it happens to be at the
time of the testator’s death. (3) The movable property may be subject to the law of the domicil, the immovable (including leaseholds) to the law of the place where it is situate, the lex loci rei sitae. England and the United States follow this rule. Testamentary capacity is governed in the first instance by the law of the testator’s domicile at the time of his death, the form of the instrument in most countries either by the law of his domicil or the law of the place where the will was made, or by his testator’s domicile at the time of making it, or by the law of the place of his origin. Subsequent change of domicil does not affect the original law applicable. In Domicile Act 1864, enacted that by convention with any foreign government foreign domicil with regard to wills could not be acquired by domicil. It was carried on for the year and a written declaration of intention to become domiciled. By the same act foreign consuls may by convention have certain authority over the wills and property of subjects of foreign states dying in England. In the United States some states have adopted the narrow policy of enacting by statute the old common law rule, and providing that no will is valid unless made in the form required by the law of the state of the testator’s domicile. The capacity of the testator, revocation and construction of a will, are governed by the law of the domicil of the testator at the time of his death—except in cases affected by Lord Kingsdon’s Act, as he must be supposed to have used language in conscience with the law of his domicil. In England in 1874, the law was made to suit the case where the testator’s domicile was known to be in a place of the United Kingdom. A good instance is Groos’ Case (1904), Prob. 269, where it was held that the will of a Dutch woman (at the time of her death domicil in England) duly made in Holland was not revoked by her being domiciled in England at the time of revocation, or by the law of Holland.¹ The persons who are to take under a will are decided by different rules according as the property is movable or immovable, the former being governed by the law of the domicil, the latter by the law of Holland. It was held, however, in 1881 by the court of appeal in England that, under the will of an Englishman domicil in England, leaving personal property to children, children legitimated per subsequentum matrimoni could take, as they were legitimate by the law of Holland, though not by the law of England (re Goodman’s Trusts, 17 Ch. D. 266). This principle was carried further in re Grey’s Trusts (1882), 3 Ch. 88, where it was held that a testamentary device for conveying land not specifically subject to the laws of any particular country by the testator’s domicil was not valid, a testator’s domicil being in another country, of another country.

WILLEMITE, a mineral consisting of zinc orthosilicate, Zn₂SiO₄, crystallizing in the parallel-faced hemispherical class of the rhombohedral class. Crystals have the form of hemi-spherical prisms terminated by rhombohedral planes; there are distinct cleavages parallel to the prism-faces and to the base. Granular and cleavage masses are of more common occurrence. The colour varies considerably, being colourless, white, greenish-yellow, apple-green, flesh-red, &c. The hardness is 5½, and the specific gravity 3.9-4.2. A variety containing much manganeus replacing zinc is called “troostite.” Willemite occurs at Sterling Hill, Sussex county, and Franklin Furnace in New Jersey, where it is associated with other zinc ores (franklinite and azurite) as crystalline limestone. It has been found at only one other locality in the United States, and for this reason the mineral was named after William I. of the Netherlands. Under the influence of radium radiations, willemite fluoresces with a brilliant green colour.

WILLEM, FLORENT JOSEPH MARIE (1825-1905), Belgian painter, was born at Liége on the 8th of January 1825. He had no regular tuition in painting, but learnt by copying and restoring old pictures at Malines, where he lived from 1832. He made his debut at the Brussels Salon in 1842 with a “Music Party” and “An Interior of a 17th-century Guard-room” in the style of Terbrugghen and Rubens, and is well known for his landscapes, where his pictures enjoyed considerable popularity under the second empire. Among his most famous works may be mentioned “The Wedding Dress” (Brussels Gallery), “La Fête des grands-parents” (Brussels Gallery), “Le Baise-main” (Mme. Cardon’s collection, Brussels), “Farewell” (Willem’s coll., Brussels), “The Arches of the Peace” (Delahaye coll., Antwerp) and “The Widow” (engraved by Desvaches). He died at Neuilly-sur-Seine on the 23rd of October 1905.

WILLARD, FRANCES ELIZABETH (1830-1898), American reformer, was born at Churchville, Monroe county, New York, on the 28th of September 1830. She attended the Milwaukee Female College in 1837 and in 1839 graduated at the Northwestern Female College at Evanston, Illinois. She then became a teacher in the female schools of Evanston, Illinois, and in 1847-1849 was president of the Woman’s College at Evanston, which became part of the North-Western University in 1873. In 1874 she became corresponding secretary and from 1879 until her death was president of the National Woman’s Christian Temperance Union, and from 1887 until her death was president of the World’s Woman’s Christian Temperance Union. She first spoke in favour of woman’s suffrage in 1877; and in 1884 she was a member of the Executive Committee of the Prohibition party. In 1890 she was elected president of the Woman’s National Council of the National American Woman Suffrage Association. She was one of the founders of Our Union, a New York publication in the interests of the National Woman’s Christian Temperance Union, and of the Signal (after 1882 the Union Signal), which she edited in 1892-1898 and which was the Illinois organ of the union. She died in New York City on the 18th of February 1898.

With Mary A. Livermore she edited A Woman of the Century (Buffalo, N.Y., 1893), which includes a sketch of her life; and she published Unearthing Yesterday (1894), a life of Benjamin Franklin. Her famous books are: How to Win: A Book for Girls (1886), Glimpses of Fifty Years (1886), and, in collaboration with H. M. Winslow, Mrs S. J. White and others, Our Century (1897). She was a writer for A. Gordon, 2 A Life of Frances E. Willard (Chicago, 1898), with an introduction by Lady Henry Somerset, and W. M. Thayer, Women Who Win (New York, 1896).

¹ The law of Holland will be found set out in the case. It is in general accordance with that of France.
WILLETTE—WILLIAM I. (ENGLAND) 569

Lady of Willesden) was in the 11th century an object of pilgrimage, but by the middle of the century following the ceremonies had fallen into abuse, and the shrine was suppressed.

WILLETTE, LEON ADOLPHE (1857— ), French painter, illustrator, caricaturist, and lithographer, was born in Chalons-sur-Marne. He studied for four years at the Ecole des Beaux-Arts under Cabanel—a training which gave him a unique position among the graphic humorists of France. Whether comedy or tragedy, dainty triviality or political satire, his work is instinct with the profound sincerity of the artist. He set Pierrot upon a lofty pedestal among the imaginary heroes of France, and established a high place in the school of Paris. When he died, in 1902, the grief of his friends was hearted, in the affection of the nation. Willette is at once the modern Watteau of the pencil, and the exponent of sentiments that move the more emotional section of the public. Always a poet, and usually gay, fresh, and delicate, in his presentation of idylls exquisitely dainty and characteristically Gallic, illustrating the more "charming" side of love, often pure and sometimes unnecessarily materialistic, Willette frequently reveals himself bitter and fierce, even ferocious, in his hatreds, being a violent though at the same time a generous partizan of political ideas.

They met the same success with "Le Pincé" (1887), which is a satire on the Baudelaire-Verlaine rivalry for a female, whether they be ground down under the heel of political oppression, or are merely the victims of unrequited love, suffering all the pangs of grateful anguish that are born of scornful treatment. There is charm even in his thrilling apotheosis of the guillotine, and in the introduction into his caricatures of the figure of Death itself. The artist was a prolific contributor to the French illustrated press under the pseudonyms "Cémoi," "Pierrot," "Louison," "Bébé," and "Noo," but more often under his own name. He illustrated Méliandrin's Les Pierrots and Les Gboulités d’Avril, and has published his own Psaume Pierrot and other works, in which he tells his stories in scenes in the mode of Busch. He decorated several "brasseries artistiques" with wall-paintings, stained glass, &c., notably Le Chat noir and La Palette d’or, and he painted the highly imaginative ceiling for La Cigale music hall. His characteristically fantastic "Parce Domine" was shown in the Franco-British Exhibition in 1908. A remarkable collection of his works was exhibited in 1888.

His "Valmy" is in the Luxembourg, Paris.

WILLIAM (A.S. Wilhelm, O. Norse Viljæðr; O. H. Ger. Willhelm, Wilhel, Willhelm, M. H. Ger. Wilhel, Willhelm, Mod. Ger. Wilhelm, Wilhel, Mod. Fr. Guillaume, from "will," Goth. wijja, and "helm," Goth. hilms, Old Norse hildr, meaning "one who will to protect"), a masculine proper name borne by many European sovereigns and others, of whom the more important are treated below in the following order:—(1) kings of England and Scotland. (2) Other sovereigns in the alphabetical order of their states. (3) Other ruling princes. (4) Princes, Counters, &c.

WILLIAM I. (1027 or 1028-1087), king of England, surmounted the Conqueror, was born in 1027 or 1028. He was the bastard son of Robert the Devil, duke of Normandy, by Arlette, the daughter of a tanner at Falaise. In 1034 Robert resolved on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Having no legitimate son he induced the Norman barons to acknowledge William as his successor. They kept their engagement when Robert died on his journey (1035), though the young duke-elect was a mere boy. But the next twelve years was a period of the wildest anarchy. Three of William's guardians were murdered; and for some time he was kept in strict concealment by his relatives, who feared that he might experience the same fate. Trained in a hard school, he became a sworn enemy to the French government. He was but twenty years old when he stamped out, with the help of his overlord, Henry I of France, a serious rising in the districts of the Bessin and Cotentin, the object of which was to put in his place his kinsman, Guy of Brionne. Accompanied by King Henry, he met and overthrew the rebels at Val-des-Dunes near Caen (1047). It was by no means his last encounter with Norman traitors, but for the moment the victory gave him an assured position. Next year he joined Henry in attacking their common enemy, Geoffrey Martel, count of Anjou. Geoffrey occupied the border fortress of Alençon with the good will of the inhabitants. But the duke recovered the place after a severe siege, and inflicted a terrible vengeance on the defenders, who had taunted him with his base birth; he also captured the castle of Domfront from the Angevins (1049).

In 1051 the duke visited England, and probably received from his kinsman, Edward the Confessor, a promise of the English succession. Two years later he strengthened the claims which he had thus established by marrying Matilda, a daughter of Baldwin V. of Flanders, who traced her descent in the female line from Alfred the Great. This union took place in defiance of a prohibitory interdict, and was evidenced by the ceremony of burial only, and even then the cause for a much earlier death had been promulgated, in 1049, by the papal council of Reims. But the affinity of William and Matilda was so remote that political rather than moral considerations may have determined the pope's action. The marriage was zealously opposed by Archbishop Malger of Rouen and Lanfranc, the prior of Bec; but Lanfranc was persuaded to intercede with the Curia, and Pope Nicholas II. at length granted the needful dispensation (1059). By way of menace William and his wife founded the abbey of St Stephen and the Holy Trinity at Caen. The political difficulties caused by the marriage were more serious. Alarmed by the danger of a connexion between Flanders, the English and the house of Rollo. He joined forces with Geoffrey Martel in order to crush the duke, and Normandy was twice invaded by the allies. In each case William decided the campaign by a signal victory. The invasion of 1054 was checked by the battle of Mortemer; in 1058 the French rearguard was cut to pieces at Varaville on the Dive, in the act of crossing the stream. Between these two wars William aggrandized his power at the expense of Anjou by annexing Mayenne. Soon after the campaign of Varaville both Henry I. and Geoffrey Martel were removed from the throne by death (1066). He at once recovered Maine from the Angevins, nominally in the interest of Herbert II., the lawful count, who became his vassal. In 1062, however, Herbert died and Maine was formally annexed to Normandy. This acquisition brought the Norman frontier almost to the Loire and isolated Brittany, long coveted by the Norman dukes, from the rest of France.

About 1064 the accidental visit of Harold to the Norman court added another link to the chain of events by which William's fortunes were connected with England. Whatever doubt hangs over the details of the story, it seems clear that the earl made a promise to support the claims of his host upon the English succession. This promise he was invited to fulfil in 1066, after the Confessor's death and his own coronation. Harold's perjury formed the chief excuse for the Norman Conquest of England, which in reality was a piratical venture resembling that of the sons of Tancred d'Hauteville in Lower Italy. William had some difficulty in securing the help of his barons. When consulted in a great council at Lillebonne they returned an unfavourable reply, and it was necessary to convince them individually by threats and persuasions. Otherwise the conditions were favourable. William secured the benevolent neutrality of the emperor Henry IV.; the influence of the archdeacon Hildebrand obtained for the expedition the solemn approval of Pope Alexander II. Philip I. of France was a minor under the guardianship of William's father-in-law, the count of Flanders. With Tostig, the banished brother of Harold, William formed an alliance which proved of the utmost service. The duke and his Normans were enabled, by Tostig's invasion of northern England, to land unmolested at Pevensey on the 28th of September 1066. On the 14th of October a crushing defeat was inflicted on Harold at the battle of Senlac, or Hastings; and on Christmas Day William was crowned at Westminster.

Five years more were to elapse before he became master of the west and north. Early in 1067 he made a progress through parts of the south, receiving submissions, disposing of the lands of those who had fought against him, and ordering castles to be built; he then crossed the Channel to celebrate his triumph in Normandy. Disturbances at once occurred in Northumbria, on the Welsh marches and in Kent; and he was compelled to
return in December. The year 1068 was spent in military expeditions against Exeter and York, in both of which the adherents of Harold had found a welcome. In 1069 Robert of Conminges, a Norman to whom William had given the earldom of Northumberland, was murdered by the English at Durham; the north declared for Edgar Atheling, the last male representative of the West-Saxon dynasty; and Sweyn Estrithson of Denmark sent a fleet to aid the rebels. Joining forces, the Danes and English captured York, although it was defended by two Norman castles. The position seemed critical; but, fortunately for the king, the south and west gave no effective support to the rebellion. Marching rapidly on York he drove the Danes to their ships; and the city was then reduced by a blockade. The king ravaged the country as far north as Durham with such completeness that traces of devastation were still to be seen sixty years later. But the English leaders were treated with politic clemency, and the Danish leader, Jarl Ósbern, was bribed to withdraw his fleet. Early in 1070 the reduction of the north was completed by a march over the moors to Chester, which had not hitherto been submitted but was now placed under an earl of William's choice. From this point we hear no more of general rebellions against the foreign rule. In 1071 a local rising in the fens caused some trouble. An outlawed Englishman, Hereward by name, fortified the Isle of Ely and attracted a number of desperate spirits to his side; amongst others came Morcar, formerly earl of Northumbria, who had been disappointed in the hopes which he based on William's personal favour. The march of English and Danes, under the earl of Essex, which proved unexpectedly difficult. But the failure of the insurgents was a foregone conclusion.

Of the measures which William took to consolidate his authority we have many details; but the chronological order of his proceedings is obscure. The redistribution of land appears to have proceeded pari passu with the reduction of the country; and at every stage of the conquest each important follower received a new reward. Thus were formed the vast but straggling fleets which are recorded in Doomsday. The great earldoms of the West-Saxon period were allowed to lapse; the new earls, for the most part closely connected with William by the ties of blood or friendship, were lords of single shires; and only on the marches of the kingdom was the whole of the royal jurisdiction delegated to such feudatories. William's writs show not only that he kept intact the old system of governing through the sheriffs and the courts of shire and hundred, but also that he found it highly serviceable. Those whom he enfeoffed with land held it according to the law of Norman feudalism, which was already becoming precise. They were thus brought into close personal relations with the king. But he forced the most powerful of them to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the ancient local courts; and the old fyrd-system was maintained in order that the crown might not be wholly dependent on feudal levies. Though his forest-laws and his heavy taxation caused bitter complaints, William soon won the respect of his English subjects. They appear to have accepted him as the lawful heir of the Confessor; and they regarded him as their natural protector against feudal oppression. This is to be explained by his regard for legal forms, by his confidence in the law, by his liberality, and by the courtesy which he received from the church. Doomsday Book shows that in his confiscations he can have paid little attention to abstract justice. Almost every English landholder of importance was dispossessed, though only those who had actually borne arms against William should have been so treated. As far as possible Englishmen were excluded from all responsible positions both in church and state. After 1071 our accounts of William's doings become jeneune and disconnected. Much of his attention must have been engrossed by the work of administra-
tion, carried on without the help of those elaborate institu-
tions, judicial and financial, which were perfected by Henry I. and Henry II. William had few ministers of note. William Fitz Ósbern, earl of Hereford, who had been his right-hand man in Normandy, fell in the civil wars of Flanders (1071). Odo, bishop of Bayeux, William's half-brother, lost favour and was finally thrown into prison on a charge of disloyalty (1082). Another half-brother, Robert of Mortain, earl of Cornwall, showed little capacity. Of the king's sons Robert, though titular count of Maine, was kept in leading strings; and even William Rufus, who was in constant attendance on his father, never held a public office. The Conqueror reposed much confidence in two prelates, Lanfranc of Canterbury and Geoffrey of Coutances. They took an active part in the civil war, and were instrumental in the ecclesiastical government. But the king himself worked hard in hearing lawsuits, in holding councils and ceremonies courts, in travelling between England and Normandy, and finally in conducting military operations.

In 1072 he undertook a campaign against Malcolm, king of Scots, who had married Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, and was inclined to promote English rebellions. When William reached the Forth his adversary submitted, did homage as a vassal, and consented to expel Edgar Atheling, who was subsequently endowed with an English estate and admitted to William's favour. From Scotland the king turned to Maine, which had profited by the troubles of 1069 to expel the Norman garrisons. Since then the Manceaux had fallen out among themselves. The barons supported Azo of Liguria, the lawful successor of Herbert II.; the citizens of Le Mans set up a commune, expelled Azo's representatives and made war on the barons. William had therefore no difficulty in reducing the country, even though Le Mans was assisted by Fulk of Anjou (1073). In 1075 the king's attention was claimed by a conspiracy of the earls of Hereford and Norfolk, in which the Englishman Walthof, earl of Northampton, was implicated to some degree. The rebels were defeated by Lanfranc in the king's absence; but William returned to settle the difficult question of their punishment, and to stamp out the last sparks of disaffection. The execution of Walthof, though strictly in accordance with the English law of treason, was a measure which he sanctioned after long hesitation, and probably from considerations of expediency rather than justice. This severity to a man who was generally thought innocent, is one of the dark stains on his career. In 1076 he invaded Brittany to get possession of the fugitive earl of Norfolk; but Philip of France came to the aid of the Bretons, and William gave way before his superior forces. The next few years were troubled by a quarrel between the king and his eldest son. Robert fled from Normandy and after aimless wanderings obtained from King Philip the castle of Gerberoi, in the Beauvaisis, from which he harassed the Norman marches. William besieged Gerberoi in 1079, and was wounded in single combat by his son. A little later they were reconciled; but the reconciliation was short-lived; to the end of the reign Robert was a source of trouble. In the year 1083 there was a second rising in Maine which was not laid to rest until William had granted liberal terms to the leader, Hubert of Beaumont. In 1085 news arrived that Cnut the Saint, king of Denmark, was preparing to assert the claims of his house in England. The project fell through, but gave occasion for the famous moot at Salisbury in which William took an oath of direct allegiance from "all the land-sitting men that were in England" (1086). While the danger was still impending he took in hand the compilation of the "laws of the Assizes," the work of the justices ordered at the Christmas Council of 1074 and carried out in the following year. It is probable that William never saw the Doomsday Book as we possess it, since he left England in the summer of 1086 and never returned. In 1087 he invaded the French Vexin to retaliate on the garrison of Mantes for raids committed on his territory. He sacked and burned the town. But as he rode out to view the ruins his horse plunged on the burning cinders and inflicted on him an internal injury. He was carried in great suffering to Rouen and there died on the 28th of September 1087. He was buried in St Stephen's at Caen. A plain slab still marks the place of his tomb, before the high altar; but his bones were scattered by the Huguenots in 1562.

In a profligate age William was distinguished by the purity of his married life, by temperate habits and by a sincere piety. His most severe measures were taken in cold blood, as part of
William II. (England)

his general policy; but his natural disposition was averse to unnecessary bloodshed or cruelty. His one act of wanton devastation, the clearing of the New Forest, has been grossly exaggerated. He was avaricious, but his church policy (see article ENGLISH HISTORY) shows a disinterestedness as rare as it is honourable. In personal appearance he was tall and corpulent, of a dignified presence and extremely powerful physique, with a bald forehead, close-cropped hair and short moustaches.

By Matilda, who died in Normandy on the 3rd of November 1083, William had four sons, Robert, duke of Normandy, Richard, who was killed whilst hunting, and the future kings, William II. and Henry I., and five daughters, including Adela, who married Stephen, count of Blois.


William II. (c. 1056-1100), king of England, surnamed Rufus, was the third son of William I. by his queen Matilda of Flanders. Rufus was born some years before the conquest of England, and the exact date is uncertain. He seems to have borne his father’s favour and was his heir apparent to the Conqueror’s company, although like his brothers he was carefully excluded from any share in the government either of England or Normandy. A squabble with Rufus was the immediate cause of Robert’s first rupture with the Conqueror; in the ensuing civil war we find Rufus bearing arms on the royal side (1077-1080). On this death-bed the Conqueror was inclined to disinherit his eldest son in favour of Rufus, who, by the early death of Prince Richard, was now left second in the order of succession. The king’s advisers, however, used their influence to obtain a promise that the throne should be occupied by the Conqueror’s son while Rufus was designated as the son on whom the Conqueror desired that the kingdom of England should devolve. With the help of Lanfranc the English were easily induced to accept this arrangement. Rufus was crowned at Westminster on the 26th of September 1087, fifteen days after the death of his father.

It may be in part the fault of our authorities that the reign of Rufus presents itself to us as a series of episodes between which the connexion is often of the slightest. In his domestic administration we can trace a certain continuity of purpose, and in his dealings with the Welsh and Scots he proceeded, though intermittently, along the broad lines of policy which his father had marked out. Beyond the Channel he busied himself with schemes, first for the reunion of England and Normandy, then for the aggrandisement of Normandy at the expense of France. But his attention was perpetually distracted by the exigencies of the moment. He threw himself into each particular design with unreflecting impetuosity, but never completed what had been well begun. The violence, the irregularity, the shamelessness of his private life are faithfully reflected in his public career. Every passing success increased his general policy could be justified, his methods of execution were cruelly conceived, brutal and shortsighted. Rufus may well stand as the typical product of early feudalism. He was not without valour or glimmerings of chivalry, but perfidious to his equals, oppressive to his subjects, contemptuous of religion; with no sense of his responsibilities, and possessed by a fixed determination to exact the last farthing of his rights. The first year of his reign was troubled by a general conspiracy among the baronage, who took up arms for Robert in the name of the hereditary principle, but with the secret design of substituting a weak and indolent for a ruthless and energetic sovereign. Local risings in Norfolk, Somerset and the Welsh marches were easily repressed by the king’s lieutenants. The castles of Kent and Sussex offered a more formidable resistance, since their lords were in direct communication with Robert of Normandy, and were led by the able Odo of Bayeux (q.v.), the king’s uncle, who had been released from prison at the opening of the reign. Rufus, however, made an earnest appeal to the native English, promising good laws, the abolition of unjust taxes and redress for those who had suffered by the afioresaments of the last king. The promise, which he never attempted to fulfil, served the purpose of the moment. Followed by large contingents of the national militia he successfully laid siege to the strongholds of the rebels. They were leniently treated, and the arch- conspirator, Odo of Bayeux, left England under a safe-conduct to sow fresh seeds of discord in Normandy. But Rufus resolved to take vengeance on his brother, and two years later invaded eastern Normandy. Encountering little resistance—for under Robert’s rule the duchy had relapsed into a state of anarchy—he might have expelled the duke with no great trouble. But in 1091 a treaty was hastily patched up. Rufus reiterated the claims of his son to the duchy of Normandy in certain seaports. In return he undertook to aid Robert in reducing the rebellious county of Maine, and in recovering the Cotentin from his younger brother, Henry Beaucler, to whom it had been pledged by the impiecunious duke. The last part of the agreement was duly executed. But Rufus then recrossed the Channel to chastise the Scots who in his absence had raided the north country. By a march to the Firth of Forth he vindicated English honour; Malcolm III. of Scotland prudently purchased his withdrawal, by doing homage (Aug. 1091) on the fulfillment of the terms which William I. had imposed in 1075. Next year Rufus broke the treaty by seizing the stronghold of Carlisle and the other lands held or claimed by Malcolm in Cumberland and Westmorland. Malcolm in vain demanded satisfaction; while attempting reprisals on Northumberland he was slain in an obscure skirmish (1093). Rufus immediately put forward a candidate for the vacant throne; and this policy, though at first unsuccessful, finally resulted in the accession of Edgar (1097), a son of Malcolm, who had acknowledged the English overlordship. Carlisle remained an English possession; in the next reign Cumberland and Westmorland appear as shires in the English census. The foreign policy of Rufus, though legally unjustifiable, was thus comparatively successful. In dealing with the Welsh he was less fortunate. Three campaigns which he conducted in North Wales, during 1095 and 1097, yielded no tangible result. The expansion of the Welsh marches in this reign was due to the enterprise of individual adventurers.

The affairs of Wales and Scotland did not prevent Rufus from resuming his designs on Normandy at the first opportunity. Robert was rash enough to repudiate his brother with non-fulfilment of the terms arranged in 1095; and Rufus seized the excuse for a second invasion of the duchy (1094). Less prosperous than the first, and interrupted by a baronial conspiracy, which kept Rufus in England for the whole of 1095, this enterprise found an unexpected termination. Robert resolved to go upon Crusade and, to obtain the necessary funds, gave Normandy in pledge to his brother (1096). There can be no doubt that Rufus intended to remain in lasting possession of this rich security. The interests of Normandy at once became the first consideration of his policy. In 1098-1099 he renewed the marches of the duchy, and also received commenced operations for the recovery of the Vexin. Early in 1100 he accepted a proposal, made by William IX. of Aquitaine, that he should take over that duchy on terms similar to those arranged in the case of Normandy. Contemporaries were startled at the rapid progress of the king’s ambitions, and saw the direct interposition of heaven in the fate which cut them short.

On the 2nd of August 1100 Rufus fell, in the New
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Forest, the victim of an arrow from an unknown hand. The common story names Walter Tirel, who was certainly close at hand and fled the country without venturing to abide the issue of a trial. But a certain Ralph of Aix is also accused; and Tirel, from a safe distance, solemnly protested his innocence.

It remains to notice the main features of the domestic administration which made the names of William and his minister, Ralph Flambard, infamous. Respecting the grievances of the laity we have few specific details. But we are told that the "moots" all over England were "driven" in the interests of the king; which perhaps means that aids were extorted from the shire-courts. It is also said that the tax which was levied, managed, and administered; that the king revived, for certain offences, the death-penalty which his father had abolished; that all men were vexed by unjust gelds and the feudal classes by unscrupulous misinterpretations of the customs relating to the incidents of wardship, marriage and relief. On one occasion the militia were summoned in considerable numbers for a Norman expedition, which was no part of their duty; but when they arrived at the sea-coast they were bidden to hand over their journey money and go home. The incident is not un instructive as a side-light on the king's finances. As to the expenditure of the revenues, we are fully informed; after allowing for exaggeration there still remains evidence enough to prove that the ecclesiastical policy of Rufus was unscrupulously venal. Vacant sees and abbeys were either kept for years in the hands of the king, who claimed the right of a feudal guardian to appropriate the revenues so long as the vacancy continued; or they were openly sold to the highest bidder. The history of Anselm's relations with the king is fully narrated by the biographer Eadmer. Anselm received the see of Canterbury in 1093, after it had been in the king's hands for upwards of four years. William made the appointment with a view of obtaining the hands of the king, who, who had accepted the primacy on the distinct condition that he should be allowed to acknowledge Urban. The dispute came before a great council which was held at Rockingham (Feb. 25, 1093). The king demanded that the assembly should adjudge Anselm guilty of contumacy, and was supported by the bishops. The lay barons, however, showed their ill-will towards the king's general policy by taking Anselm's part. Rufus was forced to give way. He recognized Urban, but entered upon intrigues at Rome to procure the suspension of the archbishop. Finding that Urban would not betray a loyal supporter, the king fell back upon his authority as a feudal suzerain. He taxed Anselm with having failed to provide a satisfactory quota of knights for the Welsh war (1097). The archbishop, seeing that he was never to be left in peace, and despairing of an opportunity to effect the reforms on which his heart was set, demanded urgently that he should be allowed to leave England for the purpose of visiting Urban. Both the king and the barons suspected that this was the first step towards an appeal to the pope's jurisdiction against that of the royal court. Leave was at first refused; but ultimately, as Anselm continued to press his demand, he was suffered to depart, not without experiencing some petty insults on his way (Oct. 1097). The motive of the king's apparent clemency was soon revealed. He seized the estates of the archbishopric, and kept them in his own hands for the future. The friends of the archbishop were thus justifiably in their assertion that the zeal of Rufus for his father's "customs" was a mere cloak for avarice and tyranny.

In appearance William II. was unattractive; bull-necked, with sloping shoulders, extremely corpulent and awkward in his gait. His long locks and clean-shaven face marked his predilection for the new-fangled fashions which contemporary ecclesiastics were never weary of denouncing. His features were strongly marked and coarse, his eyes grey and deeply set; he owed his nickname to the fiery hue of his complexion. He stuttered violently and in moments of passion was almost inarticulate. His familiar conversation was witty and blasphe- mous. He was also twitted by Anselm, the archbishop, who was then as noted for his learning, as the king for his folly, and no semblance of decorum was maintained in his household. His character was assailed by the darkest rumours which he never attempted to confute. He died unmarried and without issue.

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Franches Comité and other places in Spanish Flanders to France. For some reason never yet made clear, but perhaps in order to produce a modification of terms which threatened the balance of power, William attacked the French army at Mons four days after the signature of peace. Luxembourg defeated him after a sanguinary and resolute struggle, and William gained nothing by his inexplicable action.

After the war Louis continued a course of aggression, absorbing frontier-towns in imperial or Spanish territory. William started a new coalition against him in October 1661 by making a treaty with his daughter Mary to secure her marriage with his own son and heir, and the grand duke of Tuscany, and several German princes. After absorbing Strassburg (1681), Louis invaded Spanish Flanders and took Luxemburg (1684). Even then the new league would not fight and allowed Louis to retain his conquests by the truce of Regensburg (1685), but none the less these humiliations gave rise to a more closely-knit and aggressive coalition, which was organized in 1686 and known as the League of Augsburg.

From 1677 onwards William had carefully watched the policies of England. On the accession of James II. in 1685 he forced the duke of Orleans to leave Holland, and sought to disinherit him from his ill-starred expedition to England. He apparently tried to conciliate his father-in-law in the hope of bringing him into the League of Augsburg. At the same time he astutely avoided offending the party in England which was opposed to James. By November 1687 he had decided that it was hopeless to expect that James would join the league against Louis, and he therefore turned for support to the English opposition. He caused his chief minister Fagel to write a letter expressing his disapprobation of the religious policy of James, which was published in November 1687. This announcement of his views was received with wild enthusiasm by the English who saw in him the friend of their liberties and their Church. But he knew too much of the English to suppose they would tolerate an armed invasion, and he accordingly made it clear that he would not undertake active interference unless he received a definite invitation from leading Englishmen. On the 30th of June 1688 Admiral Herbert, disguised as a blue-jacket, set out from England with a letter from seven influential Englishmen, asking William to “bring over an army and secure the infringed liberties of England.”

William set out from Holland with an army on the 2nd of November and landed at Torbay (Nov. 5th 1688). After a few days of hesitation, many influential noblemen declared for him in different parts of the country. James, who had at first joined his army at Salisbury, fell back to London and tried to negotiate. While his commissioners were amusing William, James sent off his wife and son to France, and tried to follow them. He was stopped in his flight by some fishermen at Faversham, and was forced to return to London. William insisted that he should be sent to Rochester, and there allowed him to escape to France. After this final flight of James, William, on the advice of an assembly of notables, summoned a convention parliament on the 22nd of January 1689. After a great deal of discussion, William was at length proclaimed joint-sovereign of England in conjunction with his wife, Mary (Feb. 13th 1689).

A constitutional settlement was effected by the end of 1689, almost all the disputed points between king and parliament being settled in favour of the latter. Though William by no means appreciated this confinement of his prerogative, he was too wise to oppose it. His own initiative is more clearly traceable in the Toleration Act, extending liberty of private worship to Dissenters. He also succeeded in passing an Act of Grace and Indemnity in 1690, by which he calmed the violence of party passion. But in general his domestic policy was not very fortunate, and he can hardly claim any personal credit for the reassessment of the land-tax (1692), the creation of the national debt or the recoinage act (1693–1695). Further, he threatened the existence of the Bank of England, by lending his support to a counter-institution, the Land Bank, which ignominiously collapsed. Though he was not blind to the commercial interests of England, he was neglectful of the administration and affairs of her oversea colonies. But though he was unable to extract the best results from parliament he was always able to avert its worst excesses. In spite of strong personal opinions to the contrary, he accepted the Triennial Act (1694), the vote reducing the army to 10,000 men (1697), the vote disbanding his favourite Dutch Guards (1699) and even (November 1699) a bill recinding the grants of forfeited Irish estates, which he had made to his favourites. The main cause of the humiliations William suffered from parliament lay in his incapacity to understand the party or cabinet system. In his view the best way to govern was to govern himself, and he frequently went to the ministry, so that, as Whig and Tory fell out, the king came by his own hand to take the body of his reign shows that this method was unsuccessful, and that his affairs went most smoothly when the parliamentary majority held the same views as the ministry. It is not often remembered that William possessed an experience of the workings of representative government in Holland, which was remarkably similar to that in England. Hence his mistakes though easy to understand are by no means so pardonable as were, for example, those of the Georges, who had been absolute monarchs in their own country. William’s unpopularity with his new people was on the whole cured by his death, though it was partly darkened by the stain of the “Massacre of Glencoe.” In 1692 he signed an order for the “extirpation” of the Macdonalds, a small clan in the vale of Glencoe. It is improbable that he meant his order to be literally executed, it is not certain that he knew they had taken the oath of allegiance to him. None the less, when the massacre was carried out with circumstances of revolting barbarity, William behaved as he had done after the murder of De Witt. Popular pressure forced him to bring the murderers to justice, to punish them and dismiss them from service. But shortly afterwards they were all received into favour; “one became a colonel, another a knight, a third a peer.”

These and other actions indicate that William could show on occasion a cold and cynical ruthlessness. But while admitting that his means were sometimes unprincipled, it must be recollected that his real ends were high and noble. While he sometimes disregarded the wishes of others, no one was more ready to sacrifice his own feelings for the attainment of the master aim of his life, the restoration of the “Balance of Power,” by the overthrow of the predominance of France. This was the real aim of William in going to England in 1688. He had set off to secure an ally against Louis, and he came back from his expedition with a crown on his head and a new nation at his back, united in its detestation of popery and of France.

As king of England he concluded treaties of alliance with the members of the League of Augsburg and sent a large army to oppose the French in Flanders. But his greatest immediate peril during 1689-1690 came from the circumstance that the French disputed the mastery of the seas with the Anglo-Dutch fleet, and that Ireland was strongly for King James. On the 1st of July 1690 the allies were badly beaten at sea off Beachy Head, but on the same day William himself won a decisive victory over James’s army at the Boyne in Ireland. Dublin and Drogheda soon fell and James fled from Ireland. The chances of continued resistance in Ireland, which depended on communication with France, were finally destroyed by the great victory off Cape La Hogue (May 10th, 1692). Ireland was speedily conquered when once the supremacy of England on the sea became assured. Now the French fleet was definitely destroyed, and though a destruc- tive privatising warfare continued, England was no longer in danger of invasion.

The decisive successes for the Alliance were gained by its naval victories, whose importance William somewhat underrated and for whose execution he had only an indirect responsibility. In 1692 he lost Namur and was badly defeated at Steinkirk (August 4th), and in 1693 he was disastrously beaten at Neerwinden or Landen (July 19th). In 1693 he was able to resume the offensive and to retake Namur in a brilliant and what was more unusual, a successful campaign. William had assumed the duties of commander-in-chief too young to learn the full duties of a professional soldier himself, and his imperious will did not suffer.
others to direct him. Hence though often fertile in resource and ingenious in plan, he was always a brilliant amateur; and, though sometimes unlucky, he was never really the equal of such generals as Condé or Luxembourg.

In diplomacy William was as uniformly successful as in war he was the reverse. His unity of aim and constancy of purpose make him one of the greatest of modern diplomats. He held together his ill-assorted coalition, and finally concluded peace at Ryswick in September 1697. Louis restored all his acquisitions since 1678, except Strassburg, and recognized William as king of England. During the subsequent years William tried to arrange a partition treaty with France, by which the domains of the childless Charles II. of Spain were to be divided at his death. But on the death of Charles in 1700 the whole heritage was left to France. William endeavoured to oppose this, and used Louis's recognition of James Edward the "Old Pretender" as king of England (September 1701) to set the English people in a flame. War was already declared in 1702, but William, who had long been ailing, died from the combined effects of a fall from his horse and a chill on the 8th of March 1702. It was truly tragic that his doom should have come at the moment when he had once more drawn together a great alliance in Europe, and when he possessed a popularity in England such as he had never before enjoyed.

In viewing William's character as a whole one is struck by his entire absence of ostentation, a circumstance which reveals his mind and policy more clearly than would otherwise be the case. No one can doubt his real belief in religion in spite of many misunderstandings. His great favourites were a faithful wife and a fanatical wife, and often treated his wife with scant consideration; he was too fond of Dutch favourites like Keppel or worthless women like Lady Orkney. When it suited his interests he sanctioned the systematic corruption of members of parliament, and he condoned massacres like those at the Hague or in Glencoe. On the other hand he did not hesitate to inflict considerable injury on his own people, the Dutch, by the terms of the treaty with England (1689), when it became clear that only in this way could England's co-operation be secured. The Dutch criticism on him has been that he might have done more to reform the dummies of their constitutional procedure, and thus given them some return for the crippling expenses of the war. English criticism avers that he ought to have recognized more fully the system of party government, and to have done more to promote our colonial and commercial development. Military historians point out that he sometimes sacrificed great advantages to impetuosity; naval experts that he sometimes threw away great opportunities by indifference. Some of these criticisms are rather beside the mark, but were all true, they would not impair his essential greatness, but another - that a real powers of statemanship is that the peace of Utrecht was subsequently made on the broad lines which he had laid down as the only security for European peace nearly a dozen years before its conclusion. While he lacked in diplomacy the arts of a Louis XIV. or the graces of a Marlborough, he grasped the central problems of his time with more clearness, or advanced solutions with more ultimate success, than any other statesman of his age. Often baffled, but never despairing, William fought on to the end, and the ideas and the spirit of his policy continued to triumph long after the death of his author.


**WILLIAM IV. (ENGLAND)**

WILLIAM IV. (1765-1837), king of England, third son of George III., was born at Buckingham Palace on the 21st of August 1765. In 1779 he was sent to sea and became a midshipman under Admiral Digby. Next year he sailed under Rodney and took part in the action off Cape St Vincent (16th of January 1780). During the rest of the war the young prince saw plenty of service, for which he imbibed a strong liking, and so laid the foundation of his popularity. On the conclusion of the war he travelled in Germany, visiting Hanover and Berlin, where he was entertained by Frederick the Great. In 1788 he passed for lieutenant; next year he was made captain and stationed in the West Indies. Shortly after 1787, being tired of his station, he sailed home without orders, and was punished for his insubordination by being obliged to stay at Plymouth till his ship was refitted; when he again sailed for the West Indies.

In 1789 he was made duke of Clarence. When war was declared against the French republic in 1793, he strongly supported it and was anxious for active employment; but, though he was made rear-admiral of the red, he could obtain no command. Thus condemned to inactivity, he amused or revenged himself by joining the prince of Wales and the duke of York in their opposition to the king. He threw himself into the dissipation of society, and his hearty geniality and bluff, sailor-like manners gained him popularity, though they did not secure him respect. He took his seat in the House of Lords, where he defended the extravagancies of the prince of Wales, spoke on the Divorce Bill, vehemently opposed the emancipation of slaves and defended slavery on the ground of his experience in the West Indies. Meanwhile he formed a connection with Mrs Jordan, the actress, with whom he lived in terms of mutual affection and fidelity for nearly twenty years, and the union was only broken off eventually for political reasons. During all this period the prince had lived in comparative obscurity. The death of Princess Charlotte in 1817 brought him forward as in the line of succession to the crown. In 1818 he married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, a lady half his age, without special attractions, but of a strong, self-willed nature, which enabled her subsequently to obtain great influence over her husband. On the death of the duke of York in 1827 the duke of Clarence became heir to the throne, and in the same year he was appointed lord high admiral. In discharging the functions of that office he endeavoured to assume independent control of naval affairs, although his patent precluded him from acting without the advice of two members of his council. This involved him in a quarrel with Sir George Cockburn, in which he had to give way. As he still continued to act in defiance of rules, the king was at length obliged to call upon him to resign.

On the 28th of June 1830 the death of George IV. placed him on the throne. The beginning of the first twenty years of his reign England underwent an agitation more violent than any from which it had suffered since 1688. William IV. was well-meaning and conscientious; but his timidity and irresolution drove ministers to despair, while his anxiety to avoid extremes and his want of insight into affairs prolonged a dangerous crisis and brought the country to the verge of revolution. Immediately after his accession the revolution of July broke out in France and gave a great impulse to the reform movement in England. The king, though he called himself an old Whig, did not dismiss the Tory ministry which had governed the country during the last two years of his brother's reign; but the elections for the new parliament placed them in a minority. Within a fortnight of the opening of parliament they were beaten on a motion for the reform of the civil list, and resigned. Lord Grey undertook to form a ministry, with the avowed intention of bringing in a large measure of reform. This was not in itself displeasing to the king, who had liberal tendencies, and a few years before had supported Catholic emancipation. But, when the struggle in parliament began, his disinclination to take up a decided attitude soon exposed the government to disaster. The first Reform Bill was introduced on the 1st of March 1831; the second reading was carried on the 21st of March by a majority of one. Shortly afterwards the government were beaten in committee.
and offered to resign. The king declined to accept their resignation, but at the same time was unwilling to dissolve, although it was obvious that in the existing parliament a ministry pledged to reform could not secern office. From this dilemma William was rescued by the conduct of the opposition, which, anxious to bring about a change of ministry, moved an address against dissolution. Regarding this as an attack on his prerogative, William at once dissolved parliament (April 1831). The elections gave the ministry an overwhelming majority. The second Reform Bill was brought in in June, and passed its third reading (21st of September) by a majority of 100. A fortnight later (8th of October) the Lords threw out the bill by a majority of 41. But after a protracted political crisis (see the article on Grey, CHARLES GREY, and Earl) the king was compelled to consent to create a sufficient number of new peers to carry the bill, and the threat was successful in bringing about the passing of the act in 1832.

During the rest of his reign William IV. had not much opportunity of active political interference, but on one other occasion he made an unjustifiable use of his prerogative. Two years after the passing of the Reform Bill the ministry of Lord Grey had become unpopular. In July 1834 Lord Grey himself retired and Lord Melbourne took the lead. There were divergences of opinion in the cabinet, and the king was anxious to secure a ministerial policy respecting the Irish Church. On the shallow pretext that Lord Althorp's removal to the Upper House would weaken the ministry in the House of Commons, where, however, they still had a majority, he suddenly dismissed them and summoned Sir Robert Peel (14th of November). Peel's ministry, containing many members who had been in the government on the king's accession, was called from its short duration "the ministry of the hundred days." Its formation clearly indicated that the Whig proclivities of the king, which had never been more than partial or lukewarm, had wholly disappeared. The step was regarded with general disapproval. It was immediately followed by a dissolution, and the ministry soon found themselves in a minority. Beaten on Lord John Russell's motion respecting the Irish Church (3rd of April 1835), Peel resigned and Melbourne again came into power. Under him the Whigs retained the lead during the remainder of the reign. This coup d'etat of November 1834 was the last occasion on which the English sovereign has attempted to impose an unpopular ministry on the majority in parliament.

In May 1837 the king began to show signs of debility, and died from a combination of the heart on the 20th of June, leaving behind him the memory of a genial, frank, warm-hearted man, but a blundering, though well-intentioned prince. He was succeeded by his niece Queen Victoria.

AUTHORITIES.—Correspondence of Earl Grey with William IV. and Sir Herbert Taylor (London, 1867); Fitzgerald's Life and Times of William IV.; Greville's Memoirs; Memoirs of Sir Robert Peel; the Conway Papers; Civil Correspondence of the Duke of Wellington; Walpole's History of England; Martineau's History of the Peace.

(W. G. P.)

WILLIAM (1113-1180), king of Scotland, surnamed the Lion, was the second son of Henry, earl of Huntingdon (d. 1153), a son of King David I., and became king of Scotland on the death of his brother, Malcolm IV., in December 1165, being crowned at Scone during the same month. After his accession to the throne William spent some time at the court of the English king, Henry II.; then, quarrelling with Henry, he arranged in 1168 the first definite treaty of alliance between France and Scotland, and with Louis VII. of France assisted Henry's sons in their revolt against their father in 1173. In return for this aid the younger Henry granted to William the earldom of Northumberland and other territories which the latter had lately sought from the English king, and which was possibly the cause of their first estrangement. However, when ravaging the country near Alnwick, William was taken prisoner in July 1174, and after a short captivity at Richmond was carried to Normandy, where he soon purchased his release by assenting in December 1174 to the treaty of Falaise. By this arrangement the king and his nobles, clerical and lay, undertook to do homage to Henry and his son; this and other provisions placing both the church and state of Scotland thoroughly under the suzerainty of England. William's next quarrel was with Pope Alexander III., the throwing out of a double choice for the vacant bishopric of St. Andrews. The king put forward his chaplain, Hugh; the pope supported the archdeacon, John the Scot, who had been canonically elected. The usual interchange of threats and defiances followed; then after the death of Alexander in 1181 his successor, Lucius III., consented to a compromise by which Hugh got the coveted bishopric and John became bishop of Dunkeld. In 1188 William secured a papal bull which declared that the Church of Scotland was directly subject only to the see of Rome, thus rejecting the claims to supremacy put forward in the English archbishop. This step was followed by the temporal independence of Scotland, which was one result of the continual poverty of Richard I. In December 1189, by the treaty of Canterbury, Richard gave up all claim to suzerainty over Scotland in return for 10,000 marks, the treaty of Falaise being thus definitely annulled.

In 1186 at Woodstock William married Ermengarde de Beaumont, a cousin of Henry II., and peace with England being assured three years later, he turned his arms against the turbulent chiefs in the outlying parts of his kingdom. His authority was recognized in Galloway which, hitherto, had been practically independent. He was also active in Scotland, and, as Lord Moray and Inverness; and a series of campaigns taught the far north, Caithness and Sutherland, to respect the power of the crown. The story of William's relations with King John is interesting, although the details are somewhat obscure. Soon after John's accession in 1199 the Scottish king asked for the earldom of Northumberland, which Richard I., like his father, had refused to restore to Scotland. John, too, refused this demand, but the threatened war did not take place, and in 1200 William did homage to the English king at Lincoln with the stipulation that he would remain in his own right. In 1202 a period of inaction between the two countries again became imminent in 1205; but a peace was made at Norham, and about three years later another amicable arrangement was reached. Both these treaties seem to have been more favourable to England than to Scotland, and it is possible that William acknowledged John as overlord of his kingdom. William died at Stirling on the 4th of December 1214 and was buried at Arbroath. He left one son, his successor Alexander II., and two daughters, Margaret and Isabella, who were sent to England after the treaty of 1200, and were both married English nobles, Margaret becoming the wife of the French king, and Isabella the wife of Walter de Bruce, Earl of Carrick, and later King of Scotland. William's reign is a very important period in the early history of Scotland, and may almost be said to mark an epoch in every department of public life. The relations of England and Scotland and of Scotland and France; the rise of towns, the development of trade and the establishment of order in Scotland itself; and the attitude of the Scottish Church, both to the papal see and to England, were all vitally affected by the events of this reign. William founded and richly endowed the abbey at Arbroth, and many of the Scottish towns owe their origin to his charters.

See E. W. Robertson, Scotland under her Early Kings (Edinburgh, 1862); Lord Hailes, Annals of Scotland (Edinburgh, 1819); A. Lang, History of Scotland, vol. i. (1900); also SCOTLAND: History.

WILLIAM I. (1179-1188), king of Prussia and German emperor, was the second son of Frederick William III. of Prussia and Louise, a princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. He was born at Berlin on the 22nd of March 1797, and received the names of Wilhelm Friedrich Ludwig. He was a delicate child and had to be carefully nurtured. His constitution, however, was sound, and he became one of the most vigorous men in Germany. After the battle of Jena his father, Frederick the Great, for a time fell into desperate circumstances. Meanwhile he had given evidence of sterling honesty, a strict love of order, and an almost passionate interest in everything relating to war. On the 1st of January 1807 he received an officer's patent, and on the 30th of October 1813 was appointed a captain. William accompanied his father in the campaign of 1814, and early in the following year received the iron cross for personal bravery shown at Bar-sur-Aube. He took part in the
entry into Paris on the 31st of March 1814, and afterwards visited London. He joined the Prussian army in the final campaign of the Napoleonic wars, and again entered Paris. The prince so was made a colonel and a member of the permanent military commission immediately after his twentieth birthday, and at the age of twenty-one became a major-general. In 1820 he received the command of a division; and during the following nine years he had not only made himself master of the military system of his own country but studied closely those of the other European states. In 1825 he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and obtained the command of the corps of guards. On the 11th of June 1829 he married Augusta, daughter of Charles Frederick, grand duke of Saxe-Weimar. This lady, who had imbibed the Liberal tendencies of the court of Weimar and later developed a keen sympathy with Catholicism, exercised afterwards as queen and empress a considerable influence at court, in a sense generally hostile to Bismarck's views. She died on the 7th of January 1890.

On the death of his father in 1840—the new king, Frederick William IV., being childless—Prince William, as heir presumptive to the throne, received the title of prince of Prussia. He was also made lieutenant-governor of Pomerania and appointed a general of infantry. In politics he was decidedly conservative; but at the outbreak of the revolutionary movement of 1848 he showed that some concessions to the popular demand for liberal forms of government were necessary. He urged, however, that order should be restored before the establishment of a constitutional system. At this time he was the best-hated man in Germany, the mass of the Prussian people believing him to be a vehement supporter of an absolutist and reactionary policy. He was even held responsible for the blood shed in Berlin on the 18th of March, and was nicknamed the "Cartidge Prince," although he had been relieved nine days before of his command of the guards. So bitter was the feeling against him that the king entrusted him with very few responsibilities for some months; he went to London, where he formed intimate personal relations with Prince Albert, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston and other English statesmen. On the 8th of June he was back at Berlin, and on the same day he took his seat as member for Wirsitz in the Prussian national assembly, and delivered a speech in which he expressed belief in constitutional principles. In 1849, when the revolutionary party in the grand-duchy of Baden became dangerous, he accepted the command of the "army of operation in Baden and the Palatinate," and his plans were so skilfully prepared and so successfully carried out that the course of a few days the rebellion was crushed. At the beginning of the campaign an unsuccessful attempt was made on his life. In October 1849 he was appointed military governor of the Rhineland and Westphalia, and took up his residence at Coblenz. In 1854 the prince was raised to the rank of a field-marshal and made governor of the federal fortress of Mainz. When the king was attacked with a disease of the brain, Prince William assumed the regency (7th October 1858), and on his brother's death, on the 2nd of January 1861, succeeded him as William I. The political events of William's regency and reign are told elsewhere (see Germany: History: Prussia: History). His personal influence upon these events is, however, of great importance and deserves separate notice. William was not a ruler of the intellectual type of Frederick the Great; but he believed intensely in the "God of battles" and in his own divine right as the viceroy of God so conceived. He believed also in the ultimate union of Germany and in the destiny of Prussia as its instrument; and he held that whoever aspired to rule Germany must seize it for himself (Letter to von Natzer of the 30th of May 1843, in Natzer's Unter den Hohenzollern). He opposed an attitude so wholly alien to the Liberal temper of contemporary Germany was tempered by shrewd common sense, and, above all, by a capacity to choose his advisers well and listen to their advice. Thus it came about that the regent, whose reactionary views were feared, called the Liberals into office on Bismarck's advice, though later he did not hesitate to override the constitution when the refusal of the supplies for the new armaments made this course necessary. From September 1862, when Bismarck took office as minister president, William's personality tends to be obscured by that of his masterful servant, who remained beside him till his death. But Bismarck's Reminis- cences contain plentiful proof that his master was by no means a cipher. His prejudices, indeed, were apt to run athwart the minister's plans; as in the Schleswig-Holstein question, when the king's conscience in the matter of the claims of the Augusten- burg prince threatened to wreck Bismarck's combinations. But, as Bismarck put it, the annexation of the duchies gave him "a taste for conquest," and in the campaign of 1866 the difficulty was to restrain the king, who wished to enter Vienna in triumph. Whatever may have been the feelings of the Prussians before the war, the striking success of Bismarck's policy, and on his return to Berlin he was received with unbounded enthusiasm.

In the events immediately preceding the Franco-German War of 1870-71 again it was Bismarck and not the king that gave the determining impulse. In the matter of the Hohenzollern candidacy King William's attitude was strictly "correct." He was justified in refusing to discuss further with Benedetti the question of "guarantees," a matter which touched his honour; and if the refusal, courteously framed, was read in Paris as an insult, this was due to Bismarck's "editing" of the Ems telegram (see page 467). The king, however, was not the person who initiated the French declaration of war that was all Germany rallied round the king of Prussia, and when, on the 31st of July, he quitted Berlin to join his army, he knew that he had the support of a united nation. He crossed the French frontier on the 11th of August, and personally commanded at the battles of Gravelotte and Sedan. It was during the siege of Paris, at his headquarters in Versailles, that he was proclaimed German emperor on the 18th of January 1871. On the 3rd of March 1871 he signed the preliminaries of peace which had been accepted by the French government. On the 19th of March, according to the constitution, he had opened the first imperial parliament of Germany. On the 16th of June he triumphantly entered Berlin at the head of his troops.

After that period the emperor left the destinies of Germany almost entirely in the hands of Bismarck, who held the office of imperial chancellor. In his personal history the most notable events were two attempts upon his life in 1875—one by a working lad called Hödel, another by an educated man, Karl Nobiling. On the first occasion the emperor escaped without injury, but on the second he was seriously wounded. These attempts grew out of the Socialist agitation and the execution for murder of the crown prince Frederick William (b. 1831), who succeeded him as Frederick III. (q.v.), and the princess Louise (b. 1838), married in 1856 to the grand-duke of Baden.

The reign of William I. marked an era of vast importance in the history of Germany. In his time Prussia became the first power in Germany and Germany the first power in Europe, though these momentous changes were due in a less degree to him than to Bismarck and Moltke; but to him belongs the credit of having recognized the genius of these men, and of having trusted them absolutely. Personally William maintained the best traditions of the Hohenzollerns, not only by the splendour of the achievements with which his name will always be intimately associated, but by the simplicity, manliness and uprightness of his daily life. By his marriage with Augusta of Saxe-Weimar William I. had two children: the crown prince Frederick William (b. 1831), who succeeded him as Frederick III. (q.v.), and the princess Louise (b. 1838), married in 1856 to the grand-duke of Baden.

William I.'s military writings were published in 2 vols. at Berlin in 1887. Of his letters and speeches several collections have appeared: Politische Korrespondenz Kaiser Wilhelms I. (1890); Kaiser Wilhelms des Grossen Briefwechsel und Selbsterzahlungen (ed. on behalf of the Kaiser of Bismarck (ed. Penzler, Leipzig, 1900). A large number of biographies have appeared in German, of which may be mentioned L. Schneider's Aus dem Leben Kaiser Wilhelms I. ( für die Jahre 1845-1850. Berlin, 1888. Fr. translation, 1888); v. Bernhardt, Die ersten Regierungsjahre K. Wilhelms. Tagebuchblätter (Leipzig, 1895); Oncken, Das Zeitalter Kaiser Wilhelms I. (2 vols., Berlin, 1890-1892); F. Delbrück, Die Jugend des Königs Friedrich Wilhelm IV. von Preussen und der Kaisers u. König Wilhelm I. Tagebuchblätter (Berlin, 1907); Blume, Kaiser Wilhelm und ... Roon als Bildner des preussisch-deutschen Heeres (Berlin, 1906); E. Marx, Kaiser...
WILLIAM II. (GERMANY)


**WILLIAM II.** [FRIEDRICH WILHELM VICTOR ALBERT] (1859— ), king of Prussia and German emperor, was born on the 27th of January 1859 at Berlin, being the eldest child of Prince Frederick of Prussia, afterwards crown prince and second German emperor, and of Victoria, princess royal of Great Britain, and Margaret, Duchess of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. On his tenth birthday he was appointed second lieutenant in the First Regiment of the Guards. From September 1874 to January 1877 he attended the gymnasium at Cassel; he studied for two years at Bonn, and was then for some time chiefly occupied with his military duties. In 1883 he was appointed colonel of the Hussars of the Guard. He was much influenced by the military atmosphere in which his life was spent, and was more in sympathy with the strongly monarchical feelings of the emperor William and Bismarck than with the more liberal views of his own parents, but until the illness of his father in 1887 he took no part in political life. The death of his content to follow the secure and orderly received with the intimacies of his nature, which he was unwilling to yield to the ardent and restless spirit of the old time, with which the emperor had to contend in the year 1884. On November 11th of that year he became ninth king of Prussia and third German emperor. The chief events of his reign up to 1910 are narrated under GERMANY: History, but here it is necessary to dwell rather on the personality of the emperor himself. His first act was an address to the army and navy, while that to his people followed after three days. Throughout his reign, indeed, he repeatedly stated that the army was the true basis of his throne: “The soldier and the army, not parliamentary majorities, have welded together the German Empire.”

From the first he showed his intention to be his own chancellor, and it was this which brought about the quarrel with Bismarck, who could not endure to be less than all-powerful. The dismissal and disgrace of the great statesman first revealed the resolution of the new ruler; but, as regards foreign affairs, the apprehensions felt at his accession were not fulfilled. While he maintained and confirmed the alliance with Austria and Italy, in accordance to the last injunctions of his grandfather, he repeatedly attempted to establish more cordial relations with Russia, but his overtures, though warmly received by the government, were not so cordially returned. The intimacy of Russia was, from that time, increased, and more than a year passed before the Russian emperor appeared on a short visit to Berlin. In 1890 the emperor again went to Russia, and the last meeting between him and Alexander III. took place at Kiel in the autumn of 1891, but was marked by considerable coolness. By his visit to Copenhagen, as in his treatment of the duke of Cumberland and in his frequent overtures to France, the emperor showed the strong desire, by the exercise of his own great personal charm and ability, to heal the wounds left by the events of a generation before. In the autumn of 1885 he visited not only the courts of the confederate princes, but those of Austria and Italy. While at Rome he went to the Vatican and had a private conversation with Pope Leo XIII., and this visit was repeated in 1893 and again in 1903. In 1889 the marriage of his sister, the Princess Sophie, to the duke of Sparta, took him to Athens; and thence he sailed to Constantinople. It was the first time that one of the great rulers of Christendom had been the guest of the sultan. The more active interest was now taken by Germany in the affairs of the Levant, and the emperor showed that he would not be confounded, indeed, were it necessary to assert roads along which Bismarck had so long guided the country. It was not enough that Berlin had become the centre of the European system. The emperor was the apostle of a new Germany, which claimed that her voice should be heard in all political affairs, in whatever quarter of the globe they might rise. Once again, in 1898, he went to Constantinople. It was the time when the Armenian massacres had made the name of Abd-ul Hamid notorious, and the very striking friendliness shown towards him scarcely seemed consistent with the frequent claims made by the emperor to be the leader of Christendom; but any scruples were doubtless outweighed by the great impulse he was able to give to German influence in the East. From Constantinople he passed on to Palestine. He was present at the consecration of the German Protestant church of the Redeemer. By the favour of the sultan he was able to present to the German Catholics a plot of ground, the Dormition de la Sainte Vierge, very near to the Holy Places.

The motive of his frequent travels, which gained for him the nickname of *Der Reise-Kaiser*, was not solely political, but the love of his country. His love of the sea was shown in an annual voyage to Norway, and in repeated visits to the Cowes regatta. He was a keen yachtsman and fond of all sorts of sport, and, though deprived of the use of his left arm through an accident when he was a child, he became an excellent shot and rider.

At the time of his accession there was a strong manifestation of anti-British feeling in Berlin, and there seemed reason to suppose that the party from which it proceeded had the patronage of the emperor. Any temporary misunderstanding was removed, however, by his visit to England in 1889. For the next six years the relations of Germany to England were on the whole amicable. The emperor was prepared to understand the position of Great Britain, and during the period that Caprivi held office the political relations between Germany and Great Britain were very close. While the emperor’s visits were largely prompted by personal reasons, they had an important political effect; and in 1890, when he was entertained at the Mansion House in London and visited Lord Salisbury at Hatfield, the basis for an _entente cordiale_ seemed to be under discussion. But after 1895 the growth of the colonial spirit in Germany and the strong commercial rivalry with Great Britain, which was creating in Germany a feeling that a navy must be built adequate to protect German interests, made the situation regards England more difficult. And an unexpected incident occurred at the end of that year, which brought to a head all the latent feelings of suspicion and jealousy in both countries. On the occasion of the Jameson Raid he despatched to the president of the Transvaal a telegram, in which he congratulated him that “without appealing to the help of friendly powers,” he had succeeded in restoring peace and preserving the independence of his country. It was very difficult to regard this merely as an impulsive act of generous sympathy with a weak state unjustly attacked, and though warmly approved by Germany, it caused no less alarm from Great Britain. The emperor did not again visit England until the beginning of 1901, when he attended the deathbed and funeral of Queen Victoria. On this occasion he placed himself in strong opposition to the feelings of the large majority of his countrymen by conferring on Lord Roberts the Order of the Black Eagle, the most highly prized of Prussian decorations. He had already refused to receive the ex-president of the Transvaal on his visit to Europe. Meanwhile, with the other great branch of the English-speaking people in the United States, it was the emperor’s policy to cultivate more cordial relations. In 1902, on the occasion of the launching of a yacht built for him in America, he sent his brother Prince Henry to the United States as his representative. The occasion was rendered of international importance by his official attitude and by his gifts to the American people, which included a statue of Frederick the Great. The emperor also initiated in 1906 the exchange of professors between German and American universities.

As regards home policy, the most important work to which the emperor turned his attention was the increase of the German naval forces. From the moment of his accession he constantly showed the keenest interest in naval affairs, and the numerous changes made in the organization were due to his personal initiative. It was in January 1895, at an evening reception to members of the Reichstag, that he publicly put himself at the head of the movement for making Germany a sea power. In all the subsequent discussions on the naval bills his influence was decisively used to overcome the resistance of the Reichstag. “Our future,” he declared, “is on the water,” and in speeches in all parts of the country he combated the indifference of
the inland Germans to the sea. "I will not rest," he telegraphed to his brother, "till I have brought my navy to the same height at which my army stands." The development of German armaments during the next few years (see Navy) showed that this was no idle boast. But, while it was inevitable that the inference should be drawn that the increase of the German navy was directed towards eventual hostilities with Great Britain, the emperor himself insisted that the real object was the preservation of peace consistently with the maintenance of Germany's "place in the sun." In March 1905, in a speech at Bremen, he declared the aim of the Hohenzollerns to be "a world-wide dominion founded upon conquests not gained by the sword, but by the moral and political incensiveness of nations that press towards the same end." Every German warship launched, he said, "is one guarantee more for peace on earth." In the same spirit he protested later, in an "interview" published in the Daily Telegraph of the 28th of October 1906, that he had always been actuated by the friendliest feelings towards England, but that "Germany must be prepared for any eventualities in the East," and that, in view of the growing naval power of Japan, England should welcome the existence of a German fleet "when they speak together on the same side in the great debates of the future." In a letter to the emperor, who had published a cartoon, drawn by himself, representing him as the "Europeans" against the Yellow Peril, the Anglo-Japanese alliance seemed a betrayal of the white race, an unnatural league which could not last. The justification of his naval policy so far as European affairs were concerned was revealed in the effective intervention of Germany in regard to France and Morocco in 1905, and in 1909 in the defence of British policy when Austria, backed by Germany, tore up the treaty of Berlin in regard to Bosnia and Herzegovina.

In numerous rhetorical speeches the emperor had impressed the world with his personal conviction of autocratic sovereignty, and his monarchical activity was certain, sooner or later, to bring him into conflict with the constitutional limitations of his position as king of Prussia and German emperor. His imperial style, constitutionally but the honorary title of the primus inter pares in a free confederation of sovereign princes, was invested in him by something of the glamour of that of the Holy Roman emperors, with their shadowy claim to world-dominion. In speech after speech he proclaimed the world-mission of Germany, of which he himself was the divinely appointed instrument; Germany, he said, was "the river of the eternal life, which flows in the work of civilization," and Germanism, like the spirit of imperial Rome, must expand and impose itself. This new imperialism, too, had a religious basis, for "the whole of human life hinges simply and solely on our attitude towards our Lord and Saviour." The emperor's progress in the East were conceived in the spirit of the new crusade, at once Christian and German; and a solemn service, to which none but the emperor and his train were admitted, was held on the summit of the Mount of Olives. In the same spirit, too, the emperor dispensed the marks of his approval and disapprobation beyond the borders of his own jurisdiction, sometimes with results which were open to criticism. The "Kruger telegram" has been mentioned; scarcely less characteristic was the message despatched by him on the 9th of April 1906, after the Algiers conference, to Count Goluchowski, the Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, congratulating him on having proved "a brilliant second on the dwelling-ground." Goluchowski's retirement was mainly due to this compliment. In 1905 he bestowed the order Pour le Mérite not only on the Japanese general Sogi, but also on the Russian general von Stössel, the defender of Port Arthur, who was afterwards condemned by a Russian court-martial for dereliction of duty. In 1902 his telegram to the regent of Bavaria condemning the refusal of the clerical majority in the diet to vote £5000 for art purposes, and offering himself to supply the money, was regarded as an unwarrantable interference in the internal affairs of Bavaria and roused strong resentment among the clericals all over Germany.

Owing to the political conditions in Germany, it was generally left for the Socialists to attack these excursions on the part of the emperor into fields which lay beyond his strict prerogative. But, apart from the traditional lines of political cleavage, such as the inherited hatred of the Liberal South for the Hohenzollern "corporate's cane," other centres of dissatisfaction were coming into being. The emperor was isolated in his efforts to impose the old, strenuous, Prussian ideals of "self-denial, discipline, religion, avoidance of foreign contagion." With the growth of wealth Germany was becoming materialized and to some extent Americanized, partly through the actual reflux of emigrants grown rich in the United States. In this mood, far removed from the days, denounced by the historian Gervinus, when the Germans were content to "fiddle and be slaves," the phrases which still woke responsive echoes in the cusses of the Old Mark of Brandenburg were apt to create surprise, if not indignation; and in the great industrial classes the principles of Social Democracy spread apace. The emperor himself here and there even yielded a little to the new ideas, as when, in the famous "Babel and Bible" controversy of 1903, arising out of lectures in which Professor Delitzsch had derived Jewish monotheism from Babylonian polytheism, he publicly accepted the main conclusion of the "higher criticism" of the Old Testament, while maintaining that the kernel and contents, God and His works, remain always the same; or when on the 17th of November 1906, on the 25th anniversary of William I's edict announcing national insurance, he promised further social reforms. But he was impatient of what he considered factious opposition, and was apt to appeal from the nation in parliament to the nation in arms, as when in 1906, at the Silesian manoeuvres, he condemned the critical spirit exercised towards the government, and invoked once more the protection of Germany's "Divine Ally." Clearly, this was an attitude which was inconsistent with the development of what prided itself on being a constitutional state; but there were obvious difficulties in the way of controlling the utterances of a ruler, vigorous, self-confident and conscious of the best intentions, who was also the master of many legions, whose military spirit he could evoke at will. In October 1906 the publication of Prince Hohenlohe's Memoirs, containing indirect revelations of the emperor's action in the dismissal of Bismarck, caused a profound sensation. A further injury to the emperor was the fall of Caprivi in 1894. The long-drawn-out trials and counter-trials left the character of the emperor entirely unattested, but they resulted in the disgrace of men who had been his confidants—Prince Philip Eulenburg, Count Kuno Moltke and others. The attitude of the emperor throughout was manly and sensible; and not the least satisfactory outcome of the whole sorry business was the issue, on the 28th of January 1907, of an edict, afterwards embodied in a bill, greatly modifying the law of lese-majeste, which in the earlier part of the reign had been used to ridiculous excess in the imprisonment of the authors of the slightest reflection on the person of the sovereign.

 Anglo-German relations were apparently improved by a visit of the emperor to England in November 1907. But early in 1908 they were again strained by the revelation, made in The Times of the 6th of March, of a correspondence between the emperor and Lord Salisbury in 1898, in which the former, in answer to friendly assurances on the emperor's part, the British secretary of state had communicated to him an outline of the new naval programme before it had even been laid on the table of the House of Commons. The angry controversy to which this gave rise, and the emperor's attempts to allay it, led at the end of the year to a serious crisis in his relations with his subjects. On the 11th of August he had met Edward VII. at Cronberg; on the 30th, in a speech at Strassburg, he reiterated
the intention of Germany to maintain the high level of her armaments; and on the 28th of October there appeared in the Daily Telegraph an extraordinary "interview," authorized by him, in which he expounded his attitude. The document was a résumé of his table-talk during his stay at Highcliffe Castle, on the Hampshire coast opposite the Isle of Wight, in the autumn of 1907. In it he reiterated that his heart was set on peace; he declared that, so far from being hostile to the English, he had offended large sections of his people by his friendship for England. He instanced his refusal to receive the Boer delegates and his rejection of their proposals (the two columns are in pencil) as the best of all the ways to stop the South African War; he also mentioned the curious fact that at an early stage of the war he had himself drawn up a plan of campaign for the British and sent it to Windsor. It was on this occasion, too, that he made the suggestion of an eventual co-operation of the British and German fleets in the Far East. This pronouncement created a profound sensation, not only in Germany, where the indignation was intense, but in Russia, France and Japan, where it was regarded as a Machiavellian attempt to loosen existing alliances. In the German press and parliament a storm of protest arose. Prinz Bülow only received recognition, which was not accepted, and he was forced to make in the Reichstag the best defence that he could for the imperial indiscretion, declaring that henceforward the emperor would show more reserve. The emperor publicly endorsed the chancellor's explanations, and for nearly two years maintained in public an almost unbroken silence. But this came to an end in a speech delivered at Königsberg, on the 25th of August 1910. In this the emperor again laid special stress upon the divine right by which alone the kings of Prussia rule, adding: "considering myself as the instrument of the Lord, without heeding the views and opinions of the day, I go my way." This speech led to a debate, on a Socialist interpellation, in the Reichstag (November 26). In reply to the enquiry what the government intended to do in fulfilment of the pledge given in 1908, the chancellor denied that the emperor had exceeded his constitutional rights, a view supported by the majority of the House.

The emperor married on the 27th of February 1881 Princess Augusta Victoria, daughter of Frederick, duke of Augustenborg, who in 1864 had come forward as claimant to the duchy of Schleswig-Holstein; the marriage had, therefore, some political importance, for it sealed the reconciliation of one of the dynasties that had suffered by the rise of Prussia. Those of the family of William II., born 6th May 1852, Crown Prince, whose coming of age was celebrated with much ceremony on his eighteenth birthday, and who married on the 6th of June 1905 the duchess Cecilia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, then princess, were: (1) Wilhelm, born 27th July 1892; (2) Eitel Friedrich, born on the 7th of July 1885; (3) Adalbert, born on the 14th of July 1883; (4) August Wilhelm, born on the 27th of July 1888; (5) Joachim, born on the 17th of December 1896; and (6) Viktoria Luise, born on the 13th of September 1892.

For the emperor's speeches, see Kaisersreden, Reden und Erklärungen, Briefe und Telegramme Kaiser Wilhelms II. (Leipzig, 1902; translated by L. Elkind, as The German Emperor's Speeches (London, 1904).

William I. (1772-1844), king of the Netherlands, born at the Hague on the 24th of August 1772, was the son of William V., prince of Orange and hereditary stadtholder of the United Netherlands by Sophia Wilhelmina, princess of Prussia. In 1791 he married Frederica Wilhelmina, daughter of Frederick William II., king of Prussia, thus cementing very closely the relations between the houses of Orange-Nassau and Hohenzollern. After the outbreak of the revolt in 1793, he distinguished himself in the struggle against the revolutionary army under Dumouriez by the capture of Landrecies and the relief of Charleroi. By the victories of Pichegru the stadtholder and all his family were, however, compelled to leave Holland and seek refuge in England, where the palace of Hampton Court was set apart for their use. He afterwards made Berlin his residence, and took an active part in the unfortunate campaign under the duke of York for the reconquest of the Netherlands. After the peace of Amiens he had an interview with Napoleon at Paris, and received some territory adjoining the hereditary domains of the house of Nassau in Westphalia as a compensation for the abandonment of the stadtholderate and the domains of his house.

William refused, however, in 1806, in which year by the death of his father he became prince of Orange, to separate his interests from those of his Prussian relatives, and fought bravely at Jena. He was therefore despoiled by Napoleon of all his possessions. In 1809 he accepted a command in the Austrian army under the archduke Charles and was wounded at the battle of Wagram. When Holland rose in revolt against French domination in 1813, after eighteen years of exile he landed at Scheveningen (on the night of July 28th), and was the central figure in the reversal rejoicing, proclaimed prince sovereign of the Netherlands. His assumption in the following year of the title of king of the Netherlands was recognized by the powers, and by the treaty of Paris his sovereignty was extended over the southern as well as the northern Netherlands, Belgium being added to Holland as an increase of territory." After the battle of Waterloo, in which Dutch and Belgian troops fought side by side under his command, the congress of Vienna further aggrandized him by making him sovereign of the territory of Luxemburg with the title of grand duke.

William had many excellent qualities, but his long life of exile and hardship had made him niggardly and narrow. He was unable to rise to the great opportunity which lay before him of creating out of the Dutch and Belgian provinces a strong and united state. Two hundred and fifty years of political separation and widely differing experiences had caused the two kindred populations on this and that side of the Scheldt to grow apart in sentiment and tradition. This difference was still further accentuated by strong divergence in religious creed. Further, one-third of the Belgian provinces was inhabited by a Walloon population divided from the Flemings by racial characteristics and their use of a Romance instead of a Teutonic dialect. All these things William was inclined to ignore. He drew up a constitution, which was accepted unanimously by the Dutch, but was rejected by the Belgians, because it contained provisions for liberty of worship. The king, however, by a subterfuge declared that the fundamental law had been approved. The new constitution, therefore, started badly, and it was soon evident that William intended to make his will prevail, and to carry out his projects for what he conceived the social, industrial and economic welfare of his country. His royal prerogative and the opposition of Belgian public opinion. The Belgians had many grievances. Their representation in the states general was exactly equal to that of the Dutch, though their population was in the proportion of seven to five. With the help of the official vote of ministers the Dutch were thus able to have a perpetual majority. The whole machinery of government was centralized at the Hague, and Dutchmen filled nearly all the principal posts. The attempt of the king to enforce the official use of the Dutch language, and the foundation of the so-called philosophical college at Louvain helped to exacerbate the growing discontent. The rapid advance of Belgium in industrial and manufacturing prosperity, due largely to the stimulus of William's personal initiative, did nothing to bring north and south together, but rather increased their rivalry and jealousy, for the Dutch provinces had neither manufactures nor iron- and coal-mines, but were dependent on agriculture and sea-borne commerce for their welfare. Such clashing of interests was sure to produce alienation, but the king remained apparently blind to the signs of the times, and the severe enforcement of a harsh law restricting freedom of the press led suddenly in 1830 to a revolt (see Belgium), which, beginning at Brussels at the end of August, rapidly spread over the whole country. The Dutch were almost without striking a blow expelled from the country, the strongly fortified seaport of Antwerp alone remaining in their hands. Had the king consented at once to the administrative autonomy of Belgium, and appointed the prince of Orange governor of the southern Netherlands, it is probable that the revolt might have been appeased. At the first there was undoubtedly a strong body of public opinion in favour of such a compromise, and the house of Orange had many adherents in the country. William,
however, was too proud and too obstinate to lend himself to such a course. He appealed to the powers, who had, in 1815, created and guaranteed the independence of the kingdom of the Netherlands. By the treaty of the eighteen articles, however, concluded at London on the 20th of June 1831, the kingdom of Belgium was recognized, and Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was elected king. William refused his assent, and in August suddenly invaded Belgium. The Belgian forces were dispersed, and the Dutch would have entered Brussels in triumph but for the intervention of the French. Still, however, William declined to recognize the result as a constitution, and he had behind him the unanimous support of Dutch public opinion. For nine years he maintained this attitude, and resolutely refused to append his signature to the treaty of 1831. His subjects at length grew weary of the heavy expense of maintaining a large military force on the Belgian frontier and in 1839 the king gave way. He did so, however, on favourable terms and was able to insist on the Belgians yielding up their possession of portions of Limburg and Luxemburg, which they had occupied since 1830.

A cry now arose in Holland for the revision of the fundamental laws of the country for more liberal institutions; ministerial responsibility was introduced, and the royal control over finance diminished. William, however, disliked these changes, and finding further that his proposed marriage with the countess of Oultremont, a Belgian and a Roman Catholic, was very unpopular, he suddenly abdicated on the 7th of October 1840. After his abdication he married the countess and spent the rest of his life in quiet retirement upon his private estate in Stiles. He died in 1844.

See L. Jotte, Guillaume d’Orange avant son abdication au trône hollandais (Rotterdam, 1833; and in the Couronne du royaume des Pays-Bas depuis 1789 jusqu’en 1830 (5 vols., Brussels, 1842); W. H. de Beaufort, De eerste regeringsjaren van Koning Willem I. (Amsterdam, 1886); H. C. Colenbrander, De Belgische Oorlovingstijd (The Hague, 1911); T. J. van Boven, De Sovraren van Koning Willem II. (Rotterdam, 1879); K. Dederichs, Geschiedenis der Nederlandse Volk, vols. vii. and viii. (Leiden, 1907–1908).

WILLIAM II. (1762–1839), king of the Netherlands, son of William I., was born at the Hague on the 6th of December 1762. When he was three years old his family was driven out of Holland by the French republican armies, and lived in exile until 1813. He was educated at the military school at Berlin and afterwards at the university of Oxford. He entered the English army, and in 1811, as aide-de-camp to the duke of Wellington, took part in several campaigns of the Peninsula War. In 1815 he commanded the Dutch and Belgian contingent, and won high commendations for his courage and conduct at the battles of Quatre Bras and Waterloo, at the latter of which he was wounded. The prince of Orange married in 1816 the grand duchess Anna Paulowna, sister of the tsar Alexander I. He enjoyed considerable popularity in Belgium, as well as in Holland for his affability and moderation, and in 1830, on the outbreak of the Belgian revolution, he betook himself to Brussels, and did his utmost by personal conferences with the most influential men in the Belgian capital to bring about a peaceable settlement on the basis of the administrative autonomy of the southern provinces under the house of Orange. His father had given him powers to treat, but afterwards threw him over and rejected the terms of accommodation that he had proposed. He withdrew this to England and resided there for several months. In April 1831 William took the command of a Dutch army for the invasion of Belgium, and in a ten-days’ campaign defeated and dispersed the Belgian forces under Leopold I. After a sharp fight near Louvain. He would have entered Brussels in triumph, but his victorious advance was stayed by the intervention of the French. In 1830, on the abdication of his father, he ascended the throne as William II. The peace of 1830 had settled all differences between Holland and Belgium, and the new king found himself confronted with the task of the reorganization of the finances, and the necessity of meeting the popular demand for a revision of the fundamental law, and the establishment of the electoral franchise on a wider basis. He acted with good sense and moderation, and, although by no means a believer in democratic ideas, he saw the necessity of satisfying public opinion and frankly gave his support to larger measures of reform. The fundamental law was altered in 1848 and the Dutch monarchy, from being autocratic, became henceforth constitutional. The king’s attitude secured for him the good will and affection of a people, loyal by tradition to the house of Orange, and the revolutionary disturbances of 1848 found no echo in Holland. William died suddenly on the 17th of March 1849.

See J. Abbing, De eerste regeringsjaren van Koning Willem II. (Amsterdam, 1849); J. de Bescha, Het Leven van Willem den Tweede, Koning der Nederlanden, 1792–1849 (Amsterdam, 1852); P. Blok, Geschiedenis der Nederlandsche Volk (Leiden, 1908).

(G. E.)

WILLIAM III. (1817–1890), king of the Netherlands, son of William II., was born at Brussels on the 10th of February 1817. He married in 1839 Sophia, daughter of William I., king of the Netherlands. Sophia was an accomplished woman of high intelligence, but unfortunately the relations between the royal pair were far from cordial and finally ended in complete disagreement, and the breach between them continued until the death of the queen in 1877. The private life of the king in fact gave rise to much scandal; nevertheless he was an excellent constitutional monarch, and, though he never sought to win popular favour, succeeded in winning and retaining in a remarkable degree his people’s affectionate loyalty. He had no sympathy with political liberalism, but throughout his long reign of forty-two years, with a constant intermixture of ministries and many ministerial crises, he never had a serious conflict with the states-general, and his ministers could always count upon his fair-mindedness and an earnest desire to help them to further the national welfare. He was economical, and gave up a third of his civil list in order to help forward the task of establishing an equilibrium in the annual budget, and he was always ready from his large private fortune to help forward all schemes for the social or industrial progress of the country. It was largely due to his prudent diplomacy that Holland passed pacifically through the difficult period of the Luxemburg settlement in 1866 and the Franco-German War of 1870.

William III. had two sons by his marriage with Sophia of Württemberg, William (1841–1879), and Alexander (1843–1884). Both of them died unmarried. The decease of Prince Alexander left the house of Orange without a direct heir male, but the prospect of a disputed succession had fortunately been averted by the marriage of the king in 1879 with the princess Emma of Waldeck-Pyrmont. From this union a daughter, Wilhelmina, was born in 1882. On her father’s death at the Loo, on the 23rd of November, 1890, she ascended the throne as queen of the Netherlands under the regency of her mother.

William was grand duke of Luxemburg by a personal title, and his death severed the dynastic relation between the kingdom of the Netherlands and the grand duchy. The sovereignty of the Luxemburg duchy passed to the next heir male of the house of Nassau, Adolphus, ex-duke of Nassau.

See J. A. Brujinse, Geschiedenis van Nederland in ouwen tijd (5 vols., Schiedam, 1889–1906); P. Blok, Geschiedenis der Nederlandse Volk (Leiden, 1906), vol. viii.; and G. L. Keppeler, De regerings van Koning Willem III. (Groningen, 1887).

WILLIAM (1227–1256), king of the Romans and count of Holland, was the son of Count Floris IV. and his wife Matilda, daughter of Henry, duke of Brabant. He was about six years of age when his father was killed in a tournament, and the fact that his long minority was peaceful and uneventful speaks well for the good government of his two paternal uncles, who were his guardians. William was, however, suddenly in 1247 to become a prominent figure in the great Guelp-Ghibelline struggle, which at that time was disturbing the peace of Europe. The quarrel between the church and the emperor Frederick II. had now reached an acute stage. Pope Innocent IV., who had failed in repeated efforts to induce various princes to accept the dignity of king of the Romans in place of the excommunicated Frederick, found the youthful William of Holland ready to accept the proffered crown. After a long siege William succeeded in taking the imperial city of Zwickau, where he was crowned on All Saints’ Day 1248. As the recognized head of the Guelp party he spared no efforts to win for himself friends
in Germany, but he never really succeeded in forming a party or gaining for himself a footing in the Empire during the lifetime of Frederick. With the extinction of the Hohenstaufen house in 1254 his chances were much improved, but shortly afterwards his death occurred on the 28th of January 1256 through his horse breaking through the ice during an obscure campaign among the Friesian marshes. William was more successful in his struggles with Margaret, countess of Flanders and Hainaut, known as "Black Meg." She wished her succession to pass to the sons of her second marriage with William of Dampierre in preference to those of his first marriage with Bouchard of Avennes. But John of Avennes, her eldest son, had married William's sister Aleidis. William took up arms in defence of his brother-in-law's rights and Margaret was decisively beaten at West Kappel in 1253, and was compelled to acknowledge John of Avennes as her successor to the county of Hainaut.

See A. Ulrich, Geschichte des römischen Königs, Wilhelm von Holland (Hanover, 1882).

WILLIAM I. (d. 1166), king of Sicily, son of King Roger II. by Elvira of Castile, succeeded in 1154. His title "the Bad" seems little merited and expresses the bias of the historian Falcandus and the baronial class against the king and the official class by whom he was guiled. It is obvious, however, that William was far inferior in character and energy to his father, and that his rule was more of a despotism than of a constitutional monarchy. The real power in the kingdom was at first exercised by Maio of Bari, a man of low birth, whose title *ammiratorum* was the highest in the realm. Maio continued Roger's policy of excluding the nobles from the administration, and sought also to curtail the liberties of the towns. The barons, always chafing against the royal power, were encouraged to revolt by Pope Adrian IV., whose recognition William had not yet sought, by the Basileus Manuel and the emperor Frederick II.

At the end of 1155 Greek troops recovered Bari and began to besiege Brindisi. William, however, was not devoid of military energy; landing in Italy he destroyed the Greek fleet and army at Brindisi (28th May 1156) and recovered Bari. Adrian came to terms at Benevento (15th June 1156), abandoned the rebels and confirmed William as king, and in 1158 peace was made with the Greeks. These diplomatic successes were probably due to Maio; on the other hand, the African dominions were lost to the Almohads (1166-1167), and it is possible that he advised their abandonment in face of the dangers threatening the kingdom down from the north. The policy of the minister led to a general conspiracy, and in November 1160 he was murdered in Palermo by his chief bodyguard, a leader of the armed forces, who had been made a knight by islanders. It is surmised that he was in the hands of the conspirators, who purposed murdering or deposing him, but the people and the army rallied round him; he recovered power, crushed the Sicilian rebels, had Bonello blinded, and in a short campaign reduced the rest of the Regno. Thus freed from feudal revolts, William confirmed the government to men trained in Maio's school, such as the grand notary, Matthew d'Agelo. His latter years were peaceful; he was now the champion of the true pope against the emperor, and Alexander III. was installed in the Lateran in November 1165 by a guard of Normans. William died on the 7th of May 1166.

WILLIAM II. (d. 1189), king of Sicily, was only thirteen years old at the death of his father William I. when he was placed under the regency of his mother, Marguerite of Navarre. Until the king came of age in 1171 the government was controlled first by the chancellor Stephen of Perche, cousin of Marguerite (1166-1168), and then by Walter Ophamul, archbishop of Palermo, and Matthew d'Agello, the vice-chancellor. William's character is very indistinct. Lacking in military enterprise, secluded and pleasure-loving, he devotes himself to his palace life at Palermo. Yet his reign is marked by an ambitious foreign policy and a vigorous diplomacy. Champion of the papacy and in secret league with the Lombard cities he was able to defy the common enemy, Frederick II. In 1174 and 1175 he made treaties with Genoa and Venice and his marriage in February 1177 with Joan, daughter of Henry II. of England, marks his high position in European politics. To secure peace with the emperor he sanctioned the marriage of his aunt Constance, daughter of Roger II., with Frederick's son Henry, afterwards the emperor Henry VII., causing a general oath to be taken to her as his successor in case of his death without heirs. This step, fatal to the Norman kingdom, was possibly taken that William might devote himself to foreign conquests.

Unable to revive the African dominion, William directed his attack on Egypt, from which Saladin threatened the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem. In July 1174, 50,000 men were landed before Alexandria, but Saladin's arrival forced the Sicilians to re-embark in disorder. A better prospect opened in the confusion in Byzantine affairs which followed the death of Manuel Comnenus (1180), and William took up the old design and feud against Constantinople. Durazzo was captured (11th June 1185) and in August Thessalonica surrendered to the joint attack of the Sicilian fleet and army. The troops then marched upon the capital, but the troop of the emperor Isaac Angelus overthrew the invaders on the banks of the Strymon (7th Sept. 1185). Thessalonica was at once abandoned and in 1189 William made peace with Isaac, abandoning all the conquests. He was now planning to induce the crusading armies of the West to pass through his territories, and seemed about to play a leading part in the third Crusade. In 1191 he married Margherita, daughter of George of Antioch, with 60,000 ducats' worth of dowry. The Mediterranean open for the Franks, and forced the all-victorious Saladin to retire from before Tripoli in the spring of 1188. In November 1189 William died, leaving no children. His title of "the Good" is due perhaps less to his character than to the cessation of internal troubles in his reign. The "Voyage" of Ibn-Ghiaib, a traveller in Sicily in 1183-1185, shows William surrounded by Moslem women and eunuchs, speaking and reading Arabic and living like a Moslem king.

(Ε. Κ.)

WILLIAM I. (Friedrich Karl) (1781-1864), king of Württemberg, was born at Lüben in Silesia on the 27th of September 1781. In his early days he was debarred from public life owing to a quarrel with his father, whose time-serving deference to Napoleon was distasteful to him. In 1814-1815 he suddenly rose into prominence through the Wars of Liberation against France, in which he commanded an army corps with no little credit to himself. On his accession to the throne of Württemberg in 1816 he realized the expectations formed of him as a liberal-minded ruler by promulgating a constitution (1819), under which serfdom and obsolete class privileges were swept away. His firm and able administration led to the recovery of the financial and industrial development and the educational progress of his country. In 1848 he sought to disarm the revolutionary movement by a series of further liberal reforms which removed the restrictions more recently imposed at Metternich's instance by the Germanic diet. But his relations with the legislature, which had from time to time become strained owing to the bureaucratic spirit which he kept alive in the administration, were definitely broken off in consequence of a prolonged conflict on questions of Germanic policy. He cut the knot by repudiating the enactments of 1838-1849 and by summoning a packed parliament (1851), which re-enforced the code of 1819.

The same difficulties which beset William as a constitutional reformer impeded him as a champion of Germanic union. Intent above all on preserving the rights of the Middle Germanic states against encroachments by Austria and Prussia he lapsed into a policy of mere obstruction. The protests which he made in 1820-1823 against Metternich's policy of making the minor German states subservient to Austria met with less success than they perhaps deserved. In 1849-1850 he made a firm stand against the proposals for a Germanic union propounded by the National Parliament at Frankfort, for fear lest the exaltation of Prussia should eclipse the lesser principalities. Though forced to accede to the proffering of the imperial crown to the king of Prussia, he joined heartily in Prince Schwarzenberg's schemes for undoing the work of the National Parliament, and by means of

1 Chalandon, *La Domination normande*, ii. 389.
the coup d'état described above forced his country into a policy of alliance with Austria against Prussia. Nevertheless his devotion to the cause of German union is proved by the eagerness with which he helped the formation of the Zollverein (1828-1830), and in spite of his conflicts with his chambers he achieved unusual popularity among his subjects. He died on the 25th of June 1864, and was succeeded by his son Charles.


WILLIAM IV., landgrave of Hesse (1532-1590), was the son and successor of the landgrave Philip the Magnanimous. He took a leading part in safeguarding the results of the Reformation and was indefatigable in his endeavours to unite the different sections of Protestantism for the sake of effective resistance against the Catholic reaction. His counsels were marred by his reluctance to appeal to arms at the critical moments of action, and by the slenderness of his own resources, but they deserve attention for their broad common sense and spirit of tolerance. As an administrator he displayed rare energy, issuing numerous ordinances, appointing expert officials, and particular establishing the finances on a scientific basis. By a law of primogeniture he secured his land against such testamentary divisions as had diminished his own portion of his father's estate. He not only patronized art and science, but continued as ruler the intercourse with scholars which he had cultivated in his youth.

William was a pioneer in astronomical research and perhaps owes his most lasting fame to his discoveries in this branch of study. Most of the mechanical contrivances which made Tycho Brahe's instruments so superior to those of his contemporaries were adopted at Cassel about 1584, and from that time the observations made there seem to have been about as accurate as Tycho's; the resulting longitudes were 6' too great in consequence of the adopted solar parallax of 3'. The principal fruit of the observations was a catalogue of about a thousand stars, the places of which were determined by the methods usually employed in the 17th century, connecting a fundamental star by means of Venus with the sun, and thus finding its longitude and latitude, while other stars could at any time be referred to the fundamental star. It should be noticed that clocks, on which Tycho Brahe depended very little, were used at Cassel for finding the difference of right ascension between Venus and the sun before sunset; Tycho preferred observing the angular distance between the sun and Venus when the latter was visible in the daytime. The Hessian star catalogue was published in Lucius Babetti's Historia coelestis (Augsburg, 1668), and a number of other observations have been found in William's possession (Philips, Observations Hassiacae (Leiden, 1618), edited by Willem de Snell. R. Wolf, in his "Astronomische Mittheilungen," No. 45 (Vierteljahrschrift der naturforschenden Gesellschaft in Zürich, 1870), has given some of the manuscripts and observed at Cassel, which speedily developed into relations of coolness and then of distrust. The harshness with which the stern laws against heretics were carried out, the presence of Spanish troops, the filling up of ministerial offices by Spaniards and other foreigners, had even before the departure of Philip for Spain (August 1559), stirred the most influential Netherland noblemen—foremost among them the prince of Orange, and the counts of Egmont and Hoorn—to a policy of constitutional opposition. With the advent of Margaret of Parma the situation became more serious: her husband was carried out by the Consulta; all power was virtually placed in the hands of Cardinal Granvelle; the edicts against heretics enforced with the utmost severity; the number of bishoprics increased from three to fourteen (see NETHERLANDS). As a protest, Orange, Egmont and Hoorn withdrew from the council of state, and wrote to the king setting forth their grievances. At this time Orange was still nominally a Catholic, but his marriage in August 1561 with Anne, daughter and heiress of the elector Maurice of Saxony, with Lutheran rites, at Dresden, was significant of what was to come. It marked the beginning of that gradual change in his religious opinions, which was to lead William through Lutheranism to that moderate Calvinism which he professed after 1573. Of the sincerity of the man during this period of transformation there can be little doubt. Policy possibly played its part in dictating the particular moments at which the changes of faith were acknowledged. No student of the prince's voluminous correspondence can fail, however, to see that he was a deeply religious man. The charges of insincerity brought against him by his enemies arise from the fact that in age of bigotry and fanaticism with religious questions, and his aversion to persecution for matters of opinion, were misunderstood. His point of view was in advance of that of his time.

In the spring of 1564 the constitutional opposition of the great nobles to the policy of the king appeared to be successful. Granvelle was withdrawn, the Consulta abolished, and Orange, Egmont and Hoorn took their seats once more on the Council. They speedily found, however, that things did not mend. Granvelle had gone, but the royal policy was unchanged. In
August 1564 Philip issued an order for carrying out the decrees of the Council of Trent, and for the strict execution of the placards against heretics. Protests, letters, personal missions were vain, the king’s will was not to be moved from its purpose. The spirit of resistance spread first to the lesser nobles, then to the people. In the memorable year 1566 came “the Compromise, theRequest,” the banquet at the Hotel Culemborg with its cry of “Vive le Gueux” followed by the wild iconoclastic riots and outrages by bodies of fanatical Protestant sectaries at Antwerp and elsewhere. The effect of this last outbreak was disastrous. Philip was filled with anger and vowed vengeance. The national leaders drew back, afraid to identify themselves with revolutionary movements, or the cause of extreme Protestantism. Egmont was a good Catholic, and took active steps to suppress disorder, and Orange himself at the request of the regent betook himself to Antwerp, where the citizens in arms were on the point of engaging in civil strife. At the risk of his life the prince in March published a lengthy defence of his conduct, and he proclaimed its terms to a sullen and half-hostile crowd he uttered for the last time the words, “Long live the King!” It was his final act of loyal service to a sovereign, who from secret emissaries that he kept at Madrid, he knew to be plotting the destruction of himself and his friends. In vain he endeavoured to rouse Egmont to a sense of his danger, and to induce him and other prominent leaders to take steps, if necessary by armed resistance, to avert their doom. Finding all his efforts fruitless William, after resigning all his posts, left the country (22nd of April 1567), and took up his residence with his family at the ancient seat of his ancestors, Mark-Nassau-Dillenburg. At that very time Alva was quitting Madrid for his terrible mission of vengeance in the Netherlands (see Alva). The story of the Council of Blood and of the executions of Egmont and Hoorn is told elsewhere. The prince of Orange was out of reach of the tyrant’s arm, but by an act of imprudence he had left his eldest son, Philip William, count of Buren, studying at the university of Louvain. He was seized (February 1568) and carried off to Spain, to be brought up as an enemy to the political and religious principles of his father. He himself was outlawed, and his property confiscated. In March he published a lengthy defence of his conduct, entitled “Justification of the Prince of Orange against his Calumniators,” and meanwhile strained every nerve to enlist an armed force for the invasion of the Netherlands. To raise money his brother, John of Nassau, pledged his estates, William himself sold his plate and jewels. An attack was made in three directions, but with disastrous results. The force under Louis of Nassau indeed gained a victory at Heiligerlee in Friesland (May 23rd), but met with a crushing defeat at the hands of Alva in person (July 21st) at Jemmingen. All seemed lost, but William’s indomitable spirit did not despair. “With God’s help,” he wrote to his brother Louis, “I am determined to go on.” In September he himself crossed the Meuse at the head of 18,000 infantry and 7000 cavalry. But Alva, while clinging to his steps, refused to fight, and William, through lack of funds, was compelled to disband his mercenaries, and withdraw over the French frontier (November 17th).

Then followed the most miserable period of Orange’s life. In fear of assassination, in fear of creditors, he wandered about from place to place, and his misfortunes were aggravated by the bad conduct of his wife, Anne of Saxony, who left him. She was finally, on the 1st of January, placed in close confinement by her own family, and remained incarcerated until her death six years later. During the years 1560–1572 the brothers William and Louis, the one in Germany, the other in France, were, however, actively preparing for a renewal of the struggle for the freedom of the Netherlands. The barbarities of Alva had caused Spanish rule to be universally hated, and the agents of the Nassaüs were busy in the provinces rousing the spirit of resistance and trying to raise funds. In 1569 eighteen vessels provided with letters of marque from the prince of Orange were preying upon Spanish commerce in the narrow seas. Stimulated by the hope of plunder their number rapidly grew, until the wild and fierce corsairs—named “Beggars of the sea” (Gueux de mer)—became a terror to their enemies. The refusal of Queen Elizabeth in 1572 to allow the Beggars to refit in English harbours led to the first success of the patriot cause. On the 1st of April a force under the command of Lumbres and Tresling, being compelled to take refuge in the Maas, seized the town of Brill by surprise. Encouraged by their success they likewise took by assault the important sea-port of Flushing. Like wildfire the revolt spread through Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht and Friesland, and one after the other, submitted themselves to the authority of the prince of Orange as their lawful stadtholder. Louis of Nassau immediately afterwards dashed with a small force from France into Hainault, and captured Valenciennes and Mons. In Mons, however, Louis was blocked by a superior Spanish force, and eventually forced to surrender. William crossed the Rhine with 20,000 men to relieve him, but he was out-generalled by Alva, nearly lost his life during a night attack on his camp at Harmignies (September 11th), and retired into Holland. Delft became henceforth his home, and he cast in his lot for good and all with the brave Hollanders and Zeelanders in their struggle for freedom, “being resolved,” as he wrote to his brother John, “to maintain the affair there as long as possible and decided to find there my grave.” It was his spirit that animated the desperate resistance that was offered to the Spanish arms at Haarlem and Alkmaar, and it was through his personal and unremiting exertions that, despite an attack of fever which kept him to his bed, the relief of Leiden, on the 3rd of October 1574, was effected just as the town had been reduced to the last extremity.

William (24th of June 1555) took as his third wife, Charlotte de Bourbon, daughter of the duke of Montpensier. This marriage gave great offence to the Catholic party, for Charlotte was a renegade nun, having been abbess of Jouarre, and Anne of Saxony was still alive. In April 1576, an act of Union between Holland and Zeeland was agreed upon and signed at Delft, by which supreme authority was conferred upon the prince, as ad interim ruler. In this year (1576) the outrages of the Spanish troops in the southern Netherlands, who had mutinied for want of pay, caused a revulsion of feeling. The horrors of the “Spanish Fury” at Antwerp (November 4th) led to a definite treaty being concluded, known as the Pacification of Ghent, by which under the leadership of the prince of Orange, the whole seventeen provinces bound themselves together to drive the foreigners out of the country. This was supplemented by the Union of Brussels (January 1577) by which the Southerners pledged themselves to expel the Spaniards, but to maintain the Catholic religion and the king’s authority. To these conditions William willingly assented; he desired to force no man’s conscience, and as yet he professed to be acting as stadtholder under the king’s commission. On September 23rd he entered Brussels in triumph as the acknowledged leader of the whole people of the Netherlands, Catholic as well as Protestant, in
their resistance to foreign oppression. At this moment he touched the zenith of his career. It was, however, but a short-lived position of eminence. After the entry into Brussels followed the period of tangled intrigue during which the archduke Matthias, the duke of Anjou, the patriciate count John Casimir and Don John of Austria were all striving to secure for themselves a position of supremacy in the land. William had to steer a difficult path, and his soap-aroma of quicksands, and his brilliant talents as diplomatist and statesman shone more brightly. But after the sudden death of Don John he found himself face to face with an opponent of abilities equal to his own in the person of Alexander Farnese, prince of Parma, appointed governor general by Philip. Farnese skilfully fomented the jealousy of the Catholic nobles of the south—the Malcontents—against the prince of Orange, and the Pacification of Ghent was henceforth doomed. The Walloon provinces bound themselves together in a defensive league, known as the league of Arras (5th of January 1579) and by the exactions of John of Nassau (at that time governor of Gelderland) Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland and Zutphen replied by signing (20th of January) the compact known as the Union of Utrecht. William still struggled to keep the larger federation together, but in vain. The die was now cast, and the Northern and Southern Netherlands from this time forward had separate histories.

On the 25th of March 1581 a ban was promulgated by King Philip against the prince of Orange, in which William was denounced as a traitor and enemy of the human race, and a reward of 25,000 crowns in gold or land with a patent of nobility was offered to any one who should deliver the world of this pest. William replied in a lengthy document, the Apology, in which he defended himself from the accusations brought against him, and on his part charged the Spanish king with a series of misdeeds and crimes. The Apology is valuable for the biographical details which it contains. William now felt that his struggle with Philip was a war of attrition, and knowing that the United Provinces were too weak to resist the Spanish armies unaided, he endeavoured to secure the powerful aid of France, by making the duke of Anjou sovereign of the Netherlands. Holland and Zealand were averse to this project, and to conciliate their prejudices Orange, provisionally, and after some demur, accepted from those provinces the offer of the countship (24th of July 1581). Two days later the representatives of Brabant, Flanders, Utrecht, Gelderland, Holland and Zeeland assembled at The Hague, solemnly abjured the sovereignty of Philip, and agreed to accept the French duke as their sovereign in his place. Anjou was solemnly inaugurated by the prince in person at Antwerp, as duke of Brabant, on the 19th of February 1582. While at Antwerp an attempt was made upon William's life (March 18th) by a Biscayan youth, named Juan Jauregui. Professing to offer a petition he fired a pistol at the prince's head, the ball passing in at the right ear and out by the left jaw. After hanging for some time between life and death, William ultimately recovered and was able to attend a thanksgiving service on the 2nd of May. The shock and anxiety proved, however, fatal to his wife, Charlotte de Bourbon. She expired on the 5th of May after a very short illness.

The French soon made himself impossible to his new subjects, and the hopes that William had based upon Anjou were sorely disappointed. The duke was dissatisfied with his position, aimed at being an absolute ruler, and tried to carry his ambitious ideas into effect by the treacherous attack on Antwerp, which bears the name of the "French Fury." Its failure rendered Anjou at once ridiculous and detested, and his shameless misconduct brought no small share of opprobrium on William himself. The trusty Hollanders and Zeelanders remained, however, staunchly loyal to him, and Orange now fixed his residence permanently in their midst. On the 7th of April 1583 he married in fourth wcekcl Louise de Coligny, daughter of the famous Huguenot guerre, and widow of the Seigneur de Tilly. With her, "Father William," as he was affectionately styled, settled at the Prinshof at Delft, and lived like a plain, homely Dutch burgier, quietly and unostentatiously, as became a man who had spent his all in his country's cause, and whose resources were now of the most modest description.

Ever since the promulgation of the ban and the offer of a reward upon his life, religion and political fanaticism had been continually compassing his assassination, and the free access which the prince gave to his person offered facilities for such a purpose, despite the careful watch and ward kept over him by the guards of Don and his own household. He was shot dead by a Bucquoyan, called Gerard, on the 9th of July 1584, as he was leaving his dining hall. Gerard was moved by devoted loyalty to his faith and king, and endured the torments of a barbarous death with supreme courage and resignation. William was buried with great pomp at the public charges in the Neuw Kerk at Delft amidst the tears of a mourning people.

William the Silent was tall and well formed, of a dark complexion, with brown hair and eyes. He was the foremost statesman of his time, capable of forming wise and far-reaching plans and of modifying them to suit the changing circumstances in which they were to be carried out. William once put them in execution. In moments of difficulty he displayed splendid resource and courage, and he had a will of iron, which misfortunes were never able to bend or break. To rescue the Netherlands from the tyrannical power of Spain, he sacrificed a great position, vast wealth and eventually his life. He had the satisfaction, however, of knowing before he died that the cause for which he had endured so much and striven so hard had survived many dangers, and had acquired strength to offer successful resistance to the overwhelming power of King Philip. He was the real founder of the independency and greatness of the Dutch republic.

He left a large number of children. By Anne of Egmont he had a son Philip William, who was kidnapped from Louvain (1567) and educated at Madrid, and a daughter. By Anne of Saxony, a son Maurice (see Maurice of Nassau, prince of Orange) and two daughters. By Charlotte de Bourbon, six daughters. By Louise de Coligny, one son, Frederick Henry (see Frederick Henry, prince of Orange).

See Genhard, Correspondance de Guillaume le Taciturne; Groen van Prinventer, Archives ou correspondance inédite de la maison d’Orange-Nassau; Collin, Wilhelm et Mauris van Nassau, prinsen van Oranien, haar leven en bedrijf; Meursius, Gulielmus Aureaicus; Nederlanden en de opstand om het Nederlandse rijk, vol. ii.; R. Fruin, Het voorspel van den tactiegijzigen oorlog; Motley, Rise of the Dutch Republic; Cambridge Modern History, vol. iii. cc. vi., vii.

WILLIAM II. (1559-1609), prince of Orange, born at The Hague on the 27th of May 1569, was the son of Frederick Henry, prince of Orange, and his wife Amalia von Solms, and grandson of William the Silent. By the act of survivance passed in 1613 the offices and dignities held by Frederick Henry were made hereditary in his family. On the 12th of May 1641 William married, in the royal chapel at Whitehall, Mary, princess royal of England, eldest daughter of King Charles I. At the time of the wedding the bridegroom was not yet fifteen years old, the bride was five years younger. William from his early youth accompanied his father in his campaigns, and already in 1643 highly distinguished himself in a battle near Zutphen (September 5). On the death of Frederick Henry William succeeded him, not only in the family honours and possessions, but in accordance with the terms of the act of survivance in all his official posts, as stadtholder of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overysssel and Groningen and captain-general and admiral-general of the Union. At the moment of his accession to power the negotiations for a separate treaty of peace with Spain were almost concluded, and peace was actually signed at Münster on the 5th of January 1648. By this treaty Spain recognised the independence of the United Provinces. William, who had always been bitterly opposed to the policy of abandoning the French alliance in order to gain better terms from Spain, did his utmost to prevent the ratification, but matters were too far
advanced for his interposition to prevail in the face of the determination of the states of Holland to conclude a peace so advantageous to their trade interests. William, however, speedily opened secret negotiations with France in the hope of securing the armed assistance of that power for the carrying out of his ambitious projects of a war of aggression against Spain. His negotiations and of a restoration of his brother-in-law, Charles II., to the throne of England. The states of Holland, on the other hand, were determined to thwart any attempts for a renewal of war, and insisted, in defiance of the authority of the captain-general supported by the states-general, in virtue of their claim to be a sovereign province, in disbarring a large part of the regiments in their pay. A prolonged controversy arose, which ended in the states-general in June 1659 commissioning the prince of Orange to visit the towns of Holland and secure a recognition of their authority. The mission was unsuccessful. Amsterdam refused any hearing at all. William resolved therefore to use force and crush resistance. On the 30th of July six leading members of the states of Holland were seized and imprisoned in the castle of Loevestein. On the same day an attempt was made to occupy Amsterdam with troops. The citizens were, however, warned in time, and the gates closed. William's triumph was nevertheless complete. Cowed by the bold seizure of their leaders, the states of Holland submitted. The prince had now obtained that position of supremacy in the republic at which he had been aiming, and could count on the support of the province of Holland, that was his policy. He lost no time in entering into fresh negotiations with the French government, and a draft treaty was already early in October drawn up in Paris and the Count d'Estrees was commissioned to deliver it in person to the prince of Orange. It was, however, never to reach his hands. William had, on the 8th of October, after his victory was assured, gone to his hunting seat at Dieren. Here on the 27th he became ill and returned to The Hague. The complaint proved to be small-pox, and on the 6th of November he died. William was one of the ablest of a race of great men, and had he lived he would probably have left his mark upon history. A week after his death his widow gave birth to a son, who was one day to become William III., king of England.

(G. E.)

WILLIAM THE BRETON (c. 1160-c. 1225), French chronicler and poet, was as his name indicates born in Brittany. He was educated at Mantes and at the university of Paris, afterwards becoming chaplain to the French king Philip Augustus, who employed him on diplomatic errands, and entrusted him with the education of his natural son, Pierre Charlo. William is supposed to have been present at the battle of Bouvines, and the works on which he was engaged are the Philippide and the Gesta Philipp. regis Francorum. The former, a poem three versions of which were written by the author, gives some very interesting details about Philip Augustus and his time, including some information about military matters and shows that William was an excellent Latin scholar. In its final form the Gesta is an abbreviation of the work of Rigord (q.v.), who wrote a life of Philip Augustus from 1179 to 1206, and a continuation by William himself from 1207 to 1220. In both works William speaks in very laudatory terms of the king; but his writings are valuable because he had personal knowledge of many of the facts which he relates. He also wrote a poem Karlotis, dedicated to Pierre Charlo, which is lost.

William's works have been edited with introduction by H. F. Delaborde as Œuvres de Rigord et de Guillaume le Breton (Paris, 1882-1885), and have been translated into French by Guizot in Collection des mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France, tomes xi. and xii. in 1829-1830. Denoël, Histoire de la littérature française, Moliner, Les Sources de l'histoire de France, tome iii. (Paris, 1903).

WILLIAM THE CLITO (1101-1128) was the son of Robert, duke of Normandy, by his marriage with Sibylla of Conversano. After his father's defeat and capture by Henry I. of England in the battle of Tinchebrai (1106) the young William fell into the hands of the conqueror. Henry magnanimously placed his nephew in the custody of Helias of Saint Saens, who had married a natural daughter of Duke Robert. Fearing for the safety of the boy, Helias carried him, in 1111, to the court of Louis VI. of France. That sovereign joined with the discontented Norman barons and others of Henry's enemies in recognizing William as the rightful claimant to the duchy; Robert, a prisoner whom there was no hope of releasing, they appear to have regarded as dead in the eye of the law. William's claim furnished a pretext for two Norman rebellions. The first which lasted from 1112 to 1120 was abated by Louis, with Fulk V. of Anjou and by Baldwin VII. of Flanders. In the second, which broke out during 1123, Henry I. had merely to encounter the forces of his own Norman subjects; his diplomatic skill had been successfully employed to paralyse the ill-will of other enemies. In 1122 or 1123 William married Sibylle, daughter of Fulk of Anjou, and with her received the county of Maine; but Henry I. prevailed upon the Curia to annul this union, as being within the forbidden degrees. In 1127, however, the pretender obtained from the hand of Johanna of Montfort, half-sister of the French queen, and the vacant see of Flanders. His own rigorous government or the intrigues of Henry I. raised up against William a host of rebels; a rival claimant to Flanders appeared in the person of Thierry or Dirk of Alaise. In besieging Alast, one of the strongholds of the rival party, William received a wound which mortified and proved fatal (July 28, 1128). He left no issue; although Duke Robert survived him and only died in 1134, the power of Henry I. was thenceforth undisputed by the Normans.


WILLIAM OF MALMESBURY (c. 1080-c. 1143), English historian of the 12th century, was born about the year 1080, in the south country. He had French as well as English blood in his veins, but he appears to have spent his whole life in England, and the best years of it as a monk at Malmesbury. His tastes were literary, and the earliest fact which we record of his career is that he assisted Abbot Godfrey (1081-1105) in collecting a library for the use of the community. The education which he received at Malmesbury included a smattering of logic and theology, but moral philosophy and history, especially the latter, were the subjects to which he devoted most attention. Later he made for himself a collection of the histories of foreign countries, from reading which he conceived an ambition to produce a popular account of English history, modelled on the great work of Bede. In fulfilment of this idea, William produced about 1120 the first edition of his Gesta regnum, which at once gave him a reputation. It was followed by the first edition of the Gesta pontificum (1125). Subsequently the author turned aside to write on theological subjects. A second edition of the Gesta pontificum (1127) was dedicated to Earl Robert of Gloucester, whose literary tastes made him an appreciative patron. William also formed an acquaintance with Bishop Roger of Salisbury, who had a castle at Malmesbury. It may have been due to these friends that he was offered the abbacy of Malmesbury in 1140. But he preferred to remain a simple biblthecarius. His one public appearance was made at the council of Winchester (1141), in which the clergy declared for the empress Matilda. About this date he undertook to write the Historia novella, giving an account of events since 1125. This work breaks off abruptly at the end of 1142, with an unfilled promise that it will be continued. Presumably William died before he could redeem his pledge.

He is the best English historian of his time. The master of a good Latin style, he shows literary instincts which are, for his time, remarkably sound. But his contempt for the annalistic form makes him at times careless in his chronology and arbitrary in his method of arranging his material; he not infrequently flies off at a tangent to relate stories which have little or no connexion with the main narrative; his critical faculty is too often allowed to lie dormant. His researches were not profound; he gives us less of the history of his own time than we have a right to expect—far less, for example, than Orderic. He is, however, an authority of considerable value from 1066 onwards; many telling anecdotes, many shrewd judgments on persons and events, can be gleaned from his pages.
WILLIAM OF NANGIS—WILLIAM OF ST CALAIS

Printed Works.—The Gesta regum covers, in its final form, the years 1490–1277. But the later recensions add little, beyond fulsome dedications to Earl Robert, to the edition of 1120. The sources used are not always easy to trace. But for the pro-Conquest period William makes use of the work of his predecessor, William of Jumièges; one or more English chronicles similar to the extant "Worcester," and "Peterborough" texts; Asser's Life of Alfred; and a mercurial biography of Alexelstan; the chronicles of S. and F. (in the former the reign of the emperor Henry III., and in the lives of various saints. For the life of William I. he draws on William of Poitiers; for the first crucial period many French sources; his Anselm's primacy comes mainly from Eadmer; and at least up to 1100, he makes use of an English chronicle. The fifth and last book, dealing with the reign of Henry I., is chiefly remarkable for its de- sultory and somewhat rambling character; the best known is the anonymous chronicler, whose treatment of Anselm he prudently ascribes to Robert of Meulan (d. 1118). Both in this work and in the Gesta pontificum the later recensions are more remarkable for the omission of certain passages which might give offence to those in high places. The deleted sentences usually relate to eminent persons; they sometimes repeat scandal, sometimes give the author's own opinion. The Gesta pontificum gives accounts of the several English sees and their bishops, from the beginning to about 1120; the later recensions continue the work, in part, to 1140. Many saints of the south and midlands are also noticed. This work, like the Gesta regum, contains five books, but it is less an annalistic history of the church of Malmesbury, and is based upon the biography by Abbot Faricetus; it is less useful than books 1–4v, which are of the greatest value to the student of these chronicles. The Historia novella is another book which was projected soon after the battle of Lincoln, as an apology for the supporters of the empress. The author embarks on special pleading in favour of Earl Robert and Bishop Roger of Salisbury, but shows a certain detachment from the personal character of Stephen, whose case he states with studious fairness.

The historical works of William of Malmesbury were edited by Sir T. D. Hardy (1841). His Seats and Bedes (London, 1843, and the Memoirs of St Dunstan ("Rolls" series, London, 1874) prints a Vita S. Dunstani which was written about 1126.

Unprinted Extant Works.—Among these are Miracles of the Virgin; Liber Historiae Langobardorum Yerencorum; and an abridgment of Amalarius' De divinis officiis; De dictis et factis memorabilibus philosophorum; an epitome of the Historia of Hyrno of Fleury and some other works, historical and legal (autograph in the Bodleian Library). St. Wilfrid's Gesta Regis MSS. of the 12th century are printed in part from the British Museum, partly in the Bodleian.

Lost Works.—A Vita Sancti Patricii and Miracula Sancti Benigni are mentioned in the prologue to the book on Glastonbury; a metrical life of St. Edgitha is quoted in the Gesta pontificum; Chronica tribus libelli are mentioned in the prologue to the Historia novella, and a fragment of them is apparently preserved in the Brit. Mus. Landesms. 436. Leland gives extracts from an Itinerarium Johannes abbatis, describing the journey of Abbot John to Rome in 1140 (Leland, Collectanea, iii. 272). (H. W. C. D.)

WILLIAM OF NANGIS (d. 1300), French chronicler, was a monk in the abbey of St Denis. About 1285 he was placed in charge of the abbey library as custos cartarum, and he died in June or July 1300. Having doubtless done some work on the Latin manuscripts on which the Grandes Chroniques de France are based, William wrote a long Chronicon, dealing with the history of the world from the creation until 1300. For the period before 1113 this work is the most precise part of the Chronicon his writings do not add materially to our knowledge of the time. Both his chronicles, however, became very popular and found several continuators, Jean de Joinville being among those who made use of the Chronicon. This work from 1113 to 1300, with continuations to 1368, has been edited by H. Gérard for the Société de l'histoire de France (Paris, 1843), and practically all William's writings are found in some vols. of Dom Bouquet's Recueil des historiens des Gaules et de la France (Paris, 1754–1840). A French translation of the Chronicon is in tome xii. of Guizot's Collection des mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France (Paris, 1825–1853).

WILLIAM OF NEWBURY (d. c. 1198), or, as he is sometimes styled, Guillelmus Parvus, English ecclesiastic and chronicler, was a canon of the Augustinian priory of Newbury in the North Riding of Yorkshire. He was born about 1136, and lived at Newbury from his boyhood. Shortly before 1156 he began his Historia rerum Anglicarum. This work, divided into five books, covers the period 1066–1158. A great part of it is derived from known sources, especially from Henry of Huntingdon, Jordan of Fontaine, the Itinerarium Rits Ricardi, or its French original, and a lost account, by Anselm the chaplain, of the captivity of Richard I. The value of Newbury's work lies in his estimates of men and situations. Except for the years 1154–1173 and the reign of Richard he records few facts which cannot be found elsewhere; and in matters of detail he is prone to inaccuracy. But his political insight and his impartiality entitle him to a high position among the historians of the 12th century.


WILLIAM OF POITIERS (c. 1200–c. 1200), Norman chronicler, was born at Préaux, near Pont Audemer, and belonged to an influential Norman family. After serving as a soldier he studied at Poitiers, and then returning to Normandy became chaplain to the Count of Meulan and seneschal of Lisieux. He wrote an eulogistic life of the duke, the earlier and concluding parts of which are lost; and Ordericus Vitalis, who gives a short biography of him in his Historia ecclesiastica, says that he also wrote verses. William's Gesta Guielmi II. duce Normannorum, the extant part of which covers the period between 1047 and 1068, is valuable for details of the Conqueror's life, although untrustworthy with regard to affairs in England. According to Freeman, "the work is disfigured by his constant spirit of violent partisanship." It was written between 1071 and 1080, and was used by William of Malmesbury.

The Gesta was first published by A. Duchesne in the Historiae normannorum scriptores (Paris, 1619); and it is also found in the Scriptores rerum gestarum Willelmi Conquestoris of J. A. Giles (London, 1745). There is a French translation in tome xxi. of Guizot's Collection des mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France (Paris, 1826). See G. Köring, Wihelsm von Poitiers Gesta Guilelmi duces (Dresden, 1875); and A. Moliniere, Les Sources de l'histoire de France, tome iii. (Paris, 1903).

WILLIAM OF ST CALAIS (CARLER) (d. 1096), bishop of Durham and chief counsellor of William Rufus, was a Norman monk and prior of St Calais in Maine, who received the see of Durham from the Conqueror (1081). In Durham annals he is honourably remembered as the prelate who designed the existing cathedral, and also for his reform of ecclesiastical discipline. His political career is less creditable. Honoured with the special confidence of William Rufus he deserted his patron's cause at the first sign of rebellion, and joined with Odo of Bayeux in urging Duke Robert of Normandy to claim the crown (1088). After the collapse of this plot William was put upon his trial before the Great Council. He claimed the right to be judged by his fellow-bishops alone; this claim being rejected he appealed to the see of Rome. This was the first case of an appeal to the pope from an English tribunal which had occurred since the 9th century. Rufus and Lanfranc did not venture to dispute the right of appeal, but contended that the bishop, as a royal vassal, could not appeal against the forfeiture of his temporalities. These were confiscated, and William left the kingdom, but no more was heard of his appeal, and in 1091 he regained the royal
favour and his see. Thenceforward he showed the utmost subservience. He managed the king's case against Anselm, and at Rockingham (1095) actually claimed the right of appeal, when it was claimed by the archbishop. Notwithstanding his zeal for the royal interests, William was soon afterwards disgraced. He died in January 1096.

See E. A. Freeman, William Rufus (1882), and Symeon of Durham, vol. 1, pp. 170-195 (Rolls ed.).

WILLIAM (c. 1130-c. 1190), archbishop of Tyre and chronicler, belonged to a noble French family and was probably born in Palestine about 1132. He is mentioned as a frequent benefactor of the crusading works, both by the fact that he had seen Ralph, the Patriarch of Antioch, who died about 1141, and that he seems to have called himself a contemporary historian from the accession of Baldwin III. to the throne of Jerusalem, an event which he places in November 1142, and that he remembered the fall of Edessa in 1144. Unfortunately the chapter (xii. 12) which relates to his early life has been excised or omitted from every extant manuscript of his Historia, and this remark holds good, not only for the original Latin, but also for the French translation of the 13th century. William was still pursuing his studies in 1152, where he is called Ralph, the Patriarch of Jerusalem, who died about November 1152, but he returned to Palestine towards the close of 1166, or early in 1167, and was appointed archdeacon of Tyre at the request of Amalric in August 1167. In 1168 he was sent on an embassy, the forerunner of several others, to the emperor Manuel I. at Constantinople, and in 1169, at the time of the disastrous campaign against Damietta, he was obliged to take refuge in Rome from the "unmerited anger" of his archbishop. He was then in Palestine again, and in 1170 he was appointed tutor to Amalric's son, Baldwin, afterwards King Baldwin IV. Towards the end of 1174, soon after Baldwin's departure for his second crusade, he was given the charge of the kingdom of Jerusalem, an office which he held until 1183, and less than a year later (May 1175) he was consecrated archbishop of Tyre. He was one of those who were sent to negotiate with Philip II., count of Flanders, in 1177, and in 1179 he was one of the bishops who represented the Latin Church of the East at the Lateran council in Rome. On his return to Palestine he stayed seven months at Constantinople with Manuel. This is William's last appearance in history, but he was writing his history in 1181, and this breaks off abruptly at the end of 1183 or early in 1184. He is described by later one of his commentators accused Heraclius, the patriarch of Jerusalem, of procuring his death by poison at Rome, but this story appears to be legendary. Equally untrustworthy is the theory which identifies William with the archbishop of Tyre sent to Europe to preach a new crusade in 1188. It is true that Matthew Paris speaks of the English king, Henry II., as receiving the cross from the hands of Willelmus episcopus Tyrcaensis; but more contemporary writers omit the Christian name, while others write it Josce or Joscius.

If not the greatest, William of Tyre is at least among the greatest, of medieval historians. His Historia rerum in partibus transmarinis gestarum, or Historia Hierosolymitana or Belli sacri historia covers the period between 1095 and 1184, and is the main authority for the history of the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem from its foundation in 1109, until 1183 or 1184, when Ernoul takes up the narrative. It was translated into French in the 13th century, or possibly before the end of the 12th, and this translation, known as the Livre de la Croisade, or Livre de la Croisade de la Turquie, was quoted by Jean de Joinville, and increased by various continuations, is the standard account of the exploits of the French warriors in the East. William's work consists of twenty-two books and a fragment of another book; it extends from the foundation of the first crusade by Peter the Hermit and Pope Urban II. to the end of 1183 or the beginning of 1184. It was undertaken at the request of Amalric, who was himself a lover of history and who, according to the Liber historiae historiarum Arabic manuscripts, and the question has been raised, "is it, in this work we have had no guide, whether Greek or Arab, but have had recourse to traditions only, save as regards a few things that we ourselves have seen?" The work has been criticized severely for its lack of references to other sources and for its lack of critical evaluation. The Geography of the Ge?a Frangorum of Tudebode, the writings of Fulcher of Chartres, of Baudry of Bourgueil and, above all, of Albert of Aix. From the beginning to about 1144 the Historia is taken from these writers; from 1144 to the end it is contemporary and original.

William also wrote Historia de orientalibus principibus. This work, which is now unfortunately lost, was partly based upon the Arabic chronicle of a certain Said-ihr Battrik (d. 940), patriarch of Alexandria.

No medieval writer, except perhaps Giraldus Cambrensis, possesses William's power of delivering the physical and mental features of his heroes. Very few, moreover, had his instinctive insight into what would be of real value to future ages; genealogy, topography, archaeology, social life, ordinary human nature, matters all find due exposition in his pages. It is hardly too much to say that from his work alone a fairly detailed map of the Levant, as it was in the 12th century, might be constructed; and it is impossible to praise too highly the classification by which he defines nearly all the technical terms, whether relating to land or sea, which he uses. His chief fault is in his chronology, where, indeed, he is often at discord with himself. In the later books of the Historia the names are often confused, even names already given, and beyond the Nile or the Euphrates as well as in Europe, is singularly exact. His powers of industry were exceptionally great, and although a man of much learning and almost certainly acquainted with Greek and Arabic, he is as ready to enliven his pages with a homely proverb as he is to embellish them with quotations from Cicero, Virgil, Ovid or Plato. A prelate of pious character, he was inclined to see the judgment of God on the iniquities of his fellow-countrymen in every disaster that overtook them and in every success which attended the arms of the Saracens.

As Belli sacri historia the Historia rerum was first published in 1549 at Antwerp, and more recent editions are in J. P. Migne's Patrologia Latina, tome cxi., and in the "Recueil des historiens des croisades," Hist. occid. i. (Paris, 1854). Manuscripts are in the British Museum, London, and in the collection of Christi College, Cambridge. Translations are by E. and R. Kauser (Stuttgart, 1848), and by Rouelle in Guizot's Collection des memoires, tomes xvi., xvii. (Paris, 1824); and Italian and into Spanish. An English translation has been made by A. M. Colvin (Leipzig, 1851); and the Book of the First Crusade by M. N. G. Whinham (1882). See the Histoire littéraire de la France, tome xiv. (1869); B. Kugler, Studien zur Geschichte des zweiten Kreuzfahrts (Stuttgart, 1866); H. Prutz, Studien über Wilhelm von Tyrus (Hanover, 1885); and H. von Sylburg, Geschichte des Kreuzzuges (Leipzig, 1843).
author of a *Life of Wykeham*, published in 1597, taught classics, French and geometry by a learned Frenchman on the site of Winchester College, is a guess due to Wykeham’s extant letters being in French and to the assumption that he was an architect. After some unspecified secular employment, Wykeham became “under-notary (vice tabellio) to a certain squire, constable of Winchester Castle, probably Robert of Popham, sheriff of Hampshire, appointed constable on the 28th of April 1354, not as commonly asserted Sir John Scures, the lord of Wykeham, who was not a squire but a knight, and had held the office from 1321, though, from Scures being named as second of his benefactors, Wykeham perhaps owed this appointment to his influence. “Two or three years afterwards, namely after he was twenty,” Wykeham “was transferred to the king’s court,” i.e. c. 1343. Wykeham has been credited (Gent. Mag. lxxxv. 180) with the living of Ixtele, Norfolk, of the king’s gift on the 12th of July 1349. But apart from the fact that this Wykeham is described in the grant as “chaplain,” the prolate of his will on the 8th of March 1376-1377 (Norwich Reg. Heydon, f. 130) shows that a different person (H. Chitty in *Notes and Queries*, 10th ser. iv. 130). Our Wykeham first appears in the public records in 1350 as keeper of the manor of Rochford, Hants, during the minority of the heir, William Botreaux.

On the 12th of October 1352 Henry Sturmy of Elvetham, sheriff and escheator of Hants, and frequently a justice in eyre for the forests of Hants and Wilts, at Winchester, describes William of Wykeham as “my clerk” in a power of attorney dated at Winchester, to deliver seisin of lands in Meonstoke Ferrers and elsewhere which he held, to the use of the bishop of Winchester (Win. Coll. Lib. H. 249). On the 15th of November (not December as Lowth, *Life of Wykeham*, 14) Edyndon, by a letter dated at London, appointed William of Wykeham, clerk (not “my clerk” as Kirby, *Archaeol. 57*, ii. 202, where the deed is also misdated 1353), his attorney to take seisin of lands in Meonstoke Tour, Hants, which he had bought from Alice de Roche, daughter of William of Tour (ibid. f. 250). These lands were afterwards bought by Wykeham and given to Winchester College. On the 14th of April 1353 (Clas. 26 E. III. m. 29 d) Wykeham served as attorney of John of Foxe, of Boro, on behalf of William Foxe, constable of Windsor Castle, in acknowledging payment of a debt due from John of Palton, sheriff of Somerset and of Hants. On the 15th of April 1356 schedules touching the New Forest and other forests in Hants and Wilts were delivered out of the Tower of London to William of Wykeham to take to the justices in eyre (Clas. 30 E. III. m. 10 d). In the same year on the 24th of August Peter atte-Wode and William of Wykeham, clerk, were appointed keepers of the rolls and writs in the eyre for the forests of Hants and Wilts, of which Henry Sturmy was one of the justices. On the 10th of May 1356 Wykeham first appears in the direct employment of the king, being appointed clerk of the king’s works in the manors of Henley and Yeshampstead (Easthamstead) to pay all outgoings and expenses, including wages of masons and carpenters and other workmen, the purchase of stone, timber and other materials, and their carriage, under the view of one controller in Henley and two in Easthamstead. On the 8th of June Walter Nuthirst and Wykeham were made commissioners to keep the statute of labourers and servants in the liberty of the Free Chapel (St George’s), Windsor. On the 30th of October 1356 Wykeham was appointed during his surveyor (surveyor) of the king’s woods in the castle of Windsor, for the same purposes as at Henley, with power to take workmen everywhere, except in the fee of the church or those employed in the king’s works at Westminster, the Tower of Dartford, at the same wages as Robert of Bernham, probably Burnham, Bucks, who had been appointed in 1353, used to have, viz. 1s. a day and 3s. a week for his clerk. He was to do this under supervision of Richard of Teyton, John le Peyntour (the painter) and another. From this appointment it has been inferred that Wykeham was the architect of “Round Table” at Windsor, which has been confused with the Round Tower, and a story which is first told by Archbishop Parker, writing thirty years afterwards (Antiq. Brit. Eccles. ed. 1729, p. 358), relates that Wykeham nearly got into trouble for inscribing on it, “This made Wickam,” which he only escaped by explaining that it did not mean that Wykeham made the tower, but that the tower was the making of Wykeham. But Wykeham had nothing to do with building either the Round Tower or the Round Table. The Round Tower, called the High Tower in Wykeham’s day, is the Norman Keep. It was being refitted for apartments for the king and queen, and was used as a dungeon. Many of his accounts include the last items for its internal decoration, including 28 stained glass windows. The Round Table, a building 200 ft. in diameter for the knights of the Round Table, who preceded the knights of the Garter, had been built in 1344 (Chron. Angl. *Rolls* ser. No. 61, p. 17) when Wykeham had nothing to do with Windsor. The inscription, “This made Wykeham,” did exist on a small square tower in the Middle Bailey formerly known as Wykeham Tower, now entirely rebuilt with the inscription recopied and known as Winchester Tower, of which the 1st of April 1366 is attributable to £2871. The chief items were new Great Gate with two flanking towers, a belfry for St George’s Chapel and houses in the Lower Bailey, probably for the canons, and in the Upper Bailey, probably for the royal household. On the 1st of November 1361 Wykeham was succeeded as clerk of the works by William of Mulsho, another canon of Windsor, who afterwards succeeded him also as dean of St Martin-le-Grand. Under Wykeham, William of Wynford, who appears in 1360 as “apparrelle” under Sponle, in 1361 became chief mason and ordinances, and he was probably what we should call in the strict sense of the word the great master of capable, in Wykeham’s supervision. For wherever we find Wykeham building afterwards, we find Wynford as chief mason. When Wykeham was provost of Wells, Wynford was retained as architect on the 1st of February 1362-1365 at a fee of 40s. a year and 6d. a day when in Wells (Wells, Lib. Abb. f. 253). He was architect to Abingdon Abbey (at a fee of £3, 6s. 8d. and a furled robe) in 1372-1376 when the existing Outer Gate of the abbey was built (Abingdon Obed. Acc. Camb. Soc., 1862). He was chief mason for Wykeham’s works at Winchester Cathedral and for Winchester College, where his portrait may be seen in the east window of the chapel, and where his contract with the clerk of the works, an ex-scholar of the college, for the building of the outer gate, is still preserved.

The ascription to Wykeham of the invention of the Perpendicular style of medieval architecture is now an abandoned theory. In so far as he gave vogue to that style the credit must be given to William of Wyndham, not to William of Wykeham. At all events he had very little to do with building Windsor Castle. How far he really was responsible for the other great castle attributed to him, that of Queenborough Castle in the Isle of Sheppey, cannot be tested, as the building accounts for it are only partially extant. The account from the 1st of
November 1361 to 1362 shows Simon of Bradstede, clerk of the works, then expending £1733, of which £300 was received by the hands of William of Wykeham at the exchequer, and that from 1369 shows Bernard Cokles, clerk of the works, expending £2306. The chief evidence cited in support of the theory that Wykeham owed his advancement to his skill as an architect is the remark in a tract Why Poor Priests have no beneUes that "Lords will not present a clerk able of cunning of God's law and good life and holy ensample... but a kitchen clerk or a fancy clerk or wise in building castles or worldly doing, though he cannot well read his psalter." This tract has been attributed to William of Wykeham himself and it is thought to be of later date, and if Wykeham is meant by the castle-building clerk it only shows that popular repute is no guide to fact. That Wykeham, who was clearly an extremely good man of business, should, when clerk of the works, have played a considerable part in determining what works should be done and the general character of the buildings with which he was connected, we may believe; but to think that this attorney and notary, this keeper of the king's dogs (20th Aug. 1356, Devon's Issues of the Exchequer, 163) and of the king's forests, this carrier of the royal herald's staff, the local resident always being present, at Windsor and Queenborough Castles, of Winchester Cathedral and College, is to credit Wykeham with a superhuman combination of knowledge, of training and of functions.

That he gave great satisfaction to the king when once he was appointed surveyor at Windsor in 1356 is unquestionable. He is first called king's clerk on the 14th of November 1357, when he was given a day, beyond the wages he was already receiving for his offices at Windsor and elsewhere, "until peacefully advanced to some benefice." Ecclesiastical benefices were the chief means by which, before the Reformation, the civil servants of the crown were paid for services which, though clerical, were also ecclesiastical, and for which the settled stipends were wholly inadequate. In his accumulation of benefices Wykeham seems to have distanced all his predecessors and successors, except perhaps John Maunsell, the chancellor of Henry III., and Thomas Wolsey, the chancellor of Henry VIII., the latter being a pluralist not in canonicities and livings but in bishoprics.

Wykeham's first benefice was the rectory of Pulham, the richest in Norfolk, worth £53 a year, or some £600 of our money, to which he was presented on the 30th of November 1357. But this was not a "peaceful advancement, for it was only in the king's patronage by reason of the temporalities of the see of Ely having been seized into the king's hands the year before, on account of the bishop being implicated in certain murders and robberies, which he denied, contesting the king's action in the papal court. On the 16th of April 1359 the king gave Wykeham a pension of £50 a year from the exchequer until he could obtain peaceable possession of Pulham. On this, and what may have been similarly contested presentation to the canony and prebend of Flixton in Lichfield cathedral on the 1st of March 1359, repeated on the 22nd of August 1360, and supported by a mandate to the new bishop on the 20th of January 1361, Wykeham's latest biographer (George Herbert Moberly, Life of Wykeham, 1887, 2nd ed., 1893) has built an elaborate story of Wykeham's advancement being opposed by the pope because he was the leader of a national party against papal authority in England. The baselessness of this is clear when we find that Wykeham had obtained from Innocent VI., on the 27th of January 1357, an indulgence to choose his own confessor (Cal. Pap. Reg.), and on the 9th of June 1358 (Cal. Pap. Pet. i. 331) asked for the title of chaplain. On the 21st of April Wykeham on the ground that he had passed to the pope's patronage by the promotion of its former possessor to the see of London. In spite of papal and royal authority, it is doubtful whether Wykeham obtained peaceable possession of Pulham till again presented to it by the king on the 10th of July 1361 after the bishop of Ely's death. The difficulty as to the prebend of Flixton was no doubt something of the same kind. Between bishop, pope and king the next vacant prebend in every great church was generally promised two or three deep before it was vacant, and the episcopal and chapter registers are full of the contest which ensued.

Wykeham's civil offices rapidly increased. On the Ides (15th) of March 1359 a French fleet sacked Winchelsea, carrying off the women and girls. On the 10th of July 1359 Wykeham was made chief keeper and surveyor, not only of Windsor, but of the castles of Dover, Hadley and Leeds (Kent), and of the manors of Foliejohn, Eton, Guildford, Kennington, Sheen (now Richmond), Eltham and Langly and their parks, with power to repair them and to pay for workmen and materials. On the 20th of February 1366, when another French invasion was expected, it was resolved that, aside from the work of keeping the castles, he should be paid £40 a year for housing the French prisoners. On the 21st of October 1366 he had to work for the king at the works at Dover. In April the sheriffs of four batches of counties were each ordered to send forty masons to Wykeham at Windsor. This secular activity was rewarded by presentation to the deanery of St Martin-le-Grand, with an order for induction on the 21st of May, on which day he was commissioned to inquire by a jury of men of Kent into the defects of the walls and tower of Dover (Pat. 34 E. III. pt. 1, m. 12). On the 13th of August he was directed to hand over £40 given him for the purpose, to a successor, the treaty of Bretagne having been made on the 10th of July. On the 11th of August the pope, on the king's request, provided him with Wykeham as one of the witnesses on the 24th of October. In January 1361 building work at Windsor was vigorously resumed, and again the sheriffs were ordered to contribute their quotas of 40 freestone masons and 40 cœntarii to Wykeham's charge.

On the 13th of February, on the joint petition of the kings of England and of France, the pope "provided" Wykeham to a canony and dignity at Lincoln, notwithstanding his deanship and a prebend at Llandaff. On the 2nd of April four commissioners were appointed to superintend the construction of the new castle ordered in the Isle of Sheppy, which when finished was called Queenborough, the purchases and payments of the works being under the beloved clerk, Wykeham. In this year came the second visitation of the Black Death, the Second Plague, as it was called, and carried off four bishops and several magnates, with many clerics, whose vacant prebends were poured on Wykeham. The bishop of Hereford being dead, on the 12th of July 1361, the king presented Wykeham to a prebend in Hereford cathedral, and on the 24th of July to one in Bromyard collegiate church; the bishop of St David's being dead, prebends in the collegiate churches of Abergavenny and Llandewywibrifi were given him on the 16th of July. On the 11th of August the pope, on the king's request, provided him with a prebend in St Andrew's Auckland collegiate church. This Mr Moberly curiously misrepresents as action against Wykeham. He in fact never obtained possession of it, probably because the pope had already "provided" it to Robert of Stretton, a papal chaplain, who, however, was asked in January 1362 for a canony at Lincoln instead, because he was "in fear and terror of a certain William of Wykeham." On the 24th of September 1361 the king gave Wykeham a prebend in Beverley Minster, on the 1st of October the prebend of Oxgate in St Paul's (which he exchanged for Tattenhall on the 1st of December), on the 22nd of November a prebend in St David's cathedral, on the 20th of December a prebend in Wherwell Abbey, Hants. So far the Patent Rolls. The Salisbury records show him also admitted to a prebend there on the 16th of August, which he exchanged for other prebends on the 9th and 15th of October. All these clerical preferments Wykeham held when he was a simple clerk, who had no doubt undergone the "first tonsure," but was not even ordained an acolyte till the 5th of March 1368. This was only a step towards the 29th of July during the year that the see of York (officium cirurgico) of the exchequer on the 24th of October. On the 9th of October he acted as attorney to the king in the purchase of the manor of Thunderley, Essex. Next year, 1362, he entered holy orders, being ordained subdeacon on the 12th of March and priest on the 12th of June; and adding to his canonicies and prebends one in Shaftesbury Abbey on the 15th of July and another in Lincoln cathedral on the 20th of August. Wykeham meanwhile was acting as keeper of the forests south of Trent and as a trustee for Juliana,
countess of Huntingdon. Next year, 1363, he was made a canon of the collegiate church in Hastings Castle on the 3rd of February, and of the royal chapel of St Stephen’s, Westminster, then newly founded, or re-founded, on the 21st of April. He obtained the archdeaconry of Northampton on the 26th of April, and resigned it on the 12th of June, having been promoted to that of Lincoln, the richest of all his preferments, on the 23rd of May. On the 31st of October he was made a canon of York, and on the 15th of December provost of the fourteen prebends of Combe in Wells cathedral, while at some date unknown he obtained also prebends in Bridgennorth collegiate church and St Patrick’s, Dublin, and the rectory of Menheniot in Cornwall. On the 5th of May 1364 he became privy seal, and in June is addressed by the new pope, Urban V., as king’s secretary. On the 14th of March 1365 he was given 20s. a day from the exchequer “notwithstanding that he is living in the household.” He was so much the king's factotum that Froissart (i. 249) says “a priest called Sir William de Wican reigned in England...by him everything was done and about him they did nothing.” In fact, as privy seal he was practically prime minister, as Thomas Cromwell was afterwards to Henry VIII. On the 7th of October 1366, William Edington, the treasurer of England and bishop of Winchester, died; on the 13th of October Wykeham was recommended by the king to the chapter of monks of St Swithun’s cathedral priory and elected bishop.

A long story has been made out of Pope Urban V.’s delay in the recognition of Wykeham, which has been conjectured to have been because of his nationalist proclivities. But little more than the ordinary delays took place. On the 1st of December the king, “for a large sum of money paid down,” gave Wykeham, not only the custody of the temporalities of the see, but all the profits from the day of Edington’s death. On the 11th the pope granted him the administration of the spiritualities. The papal court was then moving from Avignon to Rome, and on the 14th of July 1367 the bull of “provision” issued at Viterbo. Wykeham was in no hurry himself, as it was not till the 10th of October 1367 that he was consecrated, nor till the 9th of July 1368, after the war parliament which met on the 3rd of June had been dissolved on the 16th of June, that he was enthroned. Meanwhile he had been made chancellor on the 17th of September 1367—thus at the age of forty-three he held the richest ecclesiastical, and the best-paid civil, office in the kingdom at the same time. The war in France was disastrous, how far through Wykeham's fault we have no means of knowing. When parliament again met in 1371, the blame was laid on the clerical ministers, under the influence of Wycliffe. He had been born in the same year as Wykeham, and like him had profited by papal provisions to prebends in 1361, but had since led achselless life and was no friend to the crown. Many demanded that laymen only should be chancellor, treasurer, privy seal and chamberlain of the exchequer. On the 8th of March 1372 Wykeham resigned the chancellorship, and Bishop Brantingham of Exeter the treasurership, and laymen were appointed in their places, though Sir Robert Thorp, who became chancellor, was master of Pembroke Hall at Cambridge, and as much a cleric as Wykeham had been when he was dean of St Martin-le-Grand and surveyor of Windsor Castle.

As soon as he became bishop Wykeham had begun his career as founder. In 1367 (Pat. 41 E. III. pt. 2, m. 5) he purchased the estates of Sir John of Boarhunt, near Southwick, with which he endowed a chantry in Southwick Priory for his parents. Next year he began buying lands in Upsonborne, Hants, which he gave to Winchester College, and in Oxford, which he gave to New College. On the 1st of September 1373 he entered into an agreement (Episc. Reg. iii. 98) with Master Richard of Herton "grammaticus" for ten years faithfully to teach and instruct the poor scholars, whom the bishop maintained at his own cost, in the art of grammar, and to provide an usher to help him. Meanwhile the war with France was even more unsuccessful under the lay ministry and John of Gaunt. In the parliament of 1373 Wykeham was named by the Commons as one of the eight peers to treat with them on the state of the realm. In the parliament which met on the 12th of February 1376, Lord Latimer and Alice Perrers, the king’s mistress, a lady of good birth, and not (as the mendacious St Albans chronicer alleged) the ugly but persuasive daughter of a tailor, were impeached, and Wykeham took a leading part against Latimer, even to the extent of opposing his being allowed counsel. At the dissolution of parliament a council of nine, of whom Wykeham was one, was appointed to assist the king. But on the 8th of June the Black Prince died. Alice Perrers returned. John of Gaunt called a council on the 16th of October to impeach Wykeham on articles which alleged misapplication of the revenues, oppressive fines on the leaders of the free companies, taking bribes for the release of the royal French prisoners, especially of the duke of Bourbon, who helped to make him bishop, failing to send relief to Ponthieu and making illegal profits by buying up crown debts cheap. He was condemned on one only, that of halving a fine of 380 paid by Sir John Grey of Rotherfield for licence to alienate lands, and tampering with the rolls of chancery to conceal the transaction. Wykeham’s answer was that he had reduced the fine because it was too large, and that he had received nothing for doing so. Skipwith, a judge of the common pleas, cited a statute under which for any erasure in the rolls to the deceit of the king 100 marks fine was imposed for every penny, and so Wykeham owed 900,000 marks. Wykeham was convicted, and on the 17th of November his revenues were seized and bestowed on the isth of March 1377 on the young prince Richard, and he was ordered not to come within 20 m. of the king. He “broke up household... sending also to Oxford, wear upon alms and for God’s sake he found no takers, they thought it to be to their friends for he could no longer help or fend them” (Chron. Angliae, lxxx.). But when convocation met in 1377 the bishops refused to proceed to business without Wykeham, and he was fetched back from Waverley Abbey. He was exempted, however, from the general pardon issued on the occasion of Edward III’s jubilee. But on the 13th of June the prince restored his temporalities, on condition of his maintaining three galleys with 50 men-at-arms and 50 archers for three months, or providing the wages of 300 men. The St Albans monk says that this was obtained by a bribe to Alice Perrers. Meonstoke Perrers, part of the endowment of Winchester College, was certainly bought on the 12th of June 1380 from Sir William Windsor, his husband, whose name seems to be derived from Windsor, near Southampton water. As Hampshire people they may have helped Wykeham. But as Wykeham was of the party of the Black Prince and his widow Joan of Kent, no dea ex machina was needed.

On the 21st of June 1377 Edward III. died. Wykeham was present at the coronation of Richard II. on the 19th of July. On the 2nd of August the bull pardoning the greater and lesser privy seal, which at the request of Richard’s first parliament were ratified under the great seal on the 4th of December 1377, Wykeham at once took an active part in the financial affairs of the new king, giving security for his debts and himself lending 500 marks, afterwards secured on the customs (Pat. 4 Rich. II. pt. i. m. 4). He then set to work to buy endowments for Winchester and New Colleges. On the 30th of June he obtained licence in mortmain and on the 26th of November issued his charter of foundation of “Seint Marie College of Wycneste in Oxendone” for a warden and 70 scholars to study theology, canon and civil law and arts, who were temporarily housed in various old halls. On the 4th of March 1380 the first stone was laid of the present buildings, which were entered on by the college on the 14th of April 1386. The foundation of Winchester was begun with a bull of Pope Urban VI. on the 1st of June 1378, enabling Wykeham to found “a certain college he proposed to establish for 70 poor scholars, clerks, who should live college-wise and study in grammaticals near the city of Winchester,” and appropriate to it Downownt rector, one of the richest livings belonging to his bishopric. The bull says that the bishop “had, as he asserts, for several years administered the necessities of life to scholars studying grammar in the same city.” On the 6th of October 1392 the crown licence in mortmain was issued, on the 10th-13th
of October the site was conveyed, and on the 20th of October 1382 "Sancte Marie collegium" or in vulgar tongue "Seinte Marie College of Wynchestre by Winchester" was founded for a warden and "70 pore and needy scholars studying and becoming proficient in grammaticals or the art and science of grammar." The first stone of the buildings was laid on the 26th of March 1388, and they were entered on by the scholars on the 28th of March 1394, not, as supposed at the quincentenary celebration in 1893, in 1393. While the new buildings were being erected, the college remained in the parish of "St John the Baptist on the Hill" of St Giles, supplying scholars to New College then as since. A reference to this in a letter of Wykeham's of the 8th April 1393 is to the effect that another to be given to the college of St John the Baptist at Winchester by the Rev. W. Hunt (Dic. Nat. Biog. sub. "Chicheley"). The foundation was on the model of Merton and Queen's colleges at Oxford, to which grammar schools were attached by their founders, while fellows of Merton were the first wardens of both of Wykeham's colleges. Both were double the size of Merton, and the same size as the Navarre college of the queen of France and Navarre, founded at Paris in 1304, which also contained a school. But each of Wykeham's colleges contained as many members as the French example, and the severance of the school which was to feed the college exclusively, placing it not at Oxford, but at Winchester, and constituting it a separate college, was a new departure of great importance in the history of education. Ten fellows and 16 choristers were added in 1394 to the 70 scholars, the choristers attending the school like the scholars, and being generally, during the first three centuries of the foundation, promoted to be scholars. The original statutes have not come down to us. Those which governed the colleges until 1557 were made in 1400. They state that the colleges were provided to repair the ravages caused by the Black Death in the ranks of the clergy, and to build a chapel for a chorister of the college, and to provide the cloister and gates. The foundation was added in 1400, and the wars with France, Scotland and Spain during John of Gaunt's ascendency. Then followed the constitutional revolution of the lords appellant in 1388. When Richard II. took power on himself, on the 3rd of May 1389, he at once made Wykeham chancellor, with Brantingham of Exeter again as treasurer. Wykeham's business capacity is shown perhaps by the first record of the minutes of the privy council being kept during his term of office, and his promulgation in 1390 of general orders as to its business. At least one occasion is recorded in the minutes on which Wykeham, on behalf of the council, took a firm stand against Richard II. and that in spite of the king's leaving the council in a rage. Peace was made with France in August. On the meeting of parliament in January 1390 Wykeham resigned the great seal; and asked for an inquiry into the conduct of the privy council, and on being assured that all was well resumed it. He now showed that he had not by his charities wronged his relations by settling on his great-nephew and heir Thomas Wykeham, whom he had educated at Winchester and New College, Broughton Castle and estates, will held by his descendants in the female line, the family of Twisleton-Wykeham-Fiennes (peerage of Saye and Seale). In July 1391 he obtained a papal bull enabling him to appoint at pleasure conductors to do his episcopal business. On the 27th of September 1391, Wykeham finally resigned the chancellorship. For three years after there are no minutes of the Council. On the 24th of November 1394 Wykeham lent the king the sum of £1000 (some £30,000 of our money), which same sum or another £1000 he promised on the 21st of February 1395 to repay by midsummer, and did so (Pat. 18, Rich. II. pt. ii. m. 23, 41). The murder of the duke of Gloucester, Richard's uncle, in 1397, was followed next year by the assumption of absolute power by Richard. Wykeham was clearly against these proceedings. He excused himself from convocation in 1397, and from the subervient parliament at Shrewsbury in 1398. The extraordinary comings and goings of strangers to Winchester College, just opposite the gates of the bishop's palace at Wolvesey in 1399, suggest that he took part in the revolution of Henry IV. He appeared in the privy council four times at the beginning of Henry's reign (Proc. P.C. i. 100). On the 23rd of July 1400 he lent Henry IV. £500 for his journey towards Scotland, and in 1402 another sum of £500, while a general loan for the war with France and Scotland on the 1st of April 1403 was headed by Wykeham with £1,000, the bishop of Durham lending 1000 marks (£666, 13s. 4d.), and no one else more than £500. Meanwhile on the 29th of September 1394 he had begun the recasting of the nave of the cathedral with William Wynford, the architect of the college, as chief mason, and Simon Membury, an old Wykehamist, as clerk of the works. On the 24th of July 1403, he made his will, giving large bequests amounting to some £10,000 (£500,000 of our money), to friends and relations and every kind of religious house. On the 16th of August 1404, he signed an agreement with the prior and convent for three monks to sing daily three masses in his beautiful chantry chapel in the nave of the cathedral, while the boys of the almonry, the cathedral choir-boys, were to say their evening prayers there for his soul. He died on the 27th of September 1404, aged eighty.

His effigy in the cathedral chantry and a bust on the graining of the monument tower at Winchester college are no doubt authentic portraits. The pictures at Winchester and New College are late 16th-century productions. Three autograph letters of his, all in French, and of the years 1364-1366, are preserved, one at the British Museum, one at the Record Office, a third at New College, Oxford. A fourth letter imputed to Wykeham at the British Museum is shown alike by its contents and its handwriting not to be his.

See Thomas Martin, Wilhelmi Wicami (1607); R. Lowth, Life of Wykeham (1756); Mackenzie E. C. Walcot, William of Wykeham and his Colleges (1852); T. F. Kirby, Annals of Winchester College (1892); G. H. Mulcaster, Life of Wykeham (1888); A. F. Leach, History of Winchester College (1800); and the Calendars of Patent and Close Rolls, Edward III, and Richard II. (A. F. L.)

WILLIAMS, JOHN (1582-1659), English archbishop and lord keeper, son of Edmund Williams of Conway, a Welsh gentleman of property, was born in March 1582 and educated at St John's College, Cambridge. He was ordained about 1605, and in 1610 he preached before King James I., whose favour he quickly gained by his love of compromise. The result was the rapid promotion of Williams in the church; he obtained several livings besides prebends at Hereford, Lincoln and Peterborough. In 1617 he became chaplain to the king, in 1619 dean of Salisbury, and in the following year dean of Westminster. On the fall of Bacon in 1621 Williams, who had meantime ingratiated himself with the duke of Buckingham, was appointed lord keeper, and was at the same time made bishop of Lincoln, retaining also the deanship of Westminster. As a political adviser of the king
WILLIAMS, JOHN (1796–1839), English Nonconformist missionary, was born at Tottenham near London on the 29th of June 1796. He was trained as an ironmonger, and acquired considerable experience in mechanical work. Having offered himself to the London Missionary Society, he was sent, after some training, in 1816 to Elmore, in the Society Islands, where he rapidly acquired a knowledge of the native language. After staying there for a short time, he finally settled at Rarotonga, which became his permanent headquarters. His success as a missionary here and elsewhere was remarkable. The people rapidly became Christianized and adopted many of the habits of civilization. Williams was fairly liberal for his age, and the results of his labours among the Pacific Islands were essentially beneficial. He travelled unceasingly among the various island groups, planting stations and settling native missionaries whom he himself had trained. From the Society Islands he visited the Hawaiian Islands before he discovered, and stayed for a considerable time on, the island of Rarotonga. Most of the inhabitants of the group were converted in a remarkably short time, and Williams's influence over them, as over the people of other groups, was very great. Besides establishing Christianity and civilization among them, he also, at their own request, helped them to draw up a code of laws for civil administration upon the basis of the new religion. While at Rarotonga he, with the help of the natives, built himself a 60-ft. ship, "The Messenger of Peace," within about four months; with this he returned to Raiaetea, and made voyages among other island groups, including Samoa and the neighbouring islands. Williams returned to England in 1834 (having previously visited New South Wales in 1821); and during his four years' stay at home he had the New Testament, which he had translated into Rarotongan, printed. Returning in 1838 to the Pacific, he visited the stations already established by him, as well as several fresh groups. He went as far west as the New Hebrides, and, while visiting Eromanga, one of the group, for the first time, was murdered by cannibal natives on the 20th of November 1839.

Williams, consistently counselled moderation and compromise between the unqualified assertion of the royal prerogative and the puritan views of popular liberties which were now coming to the front. He warned Buckingham and Prince Charles of the perils of their project for the Spanish marriage, and after their return from Madrid he encountered their resentment by opposing war with Spain. The lord keeper's counsel of moderation was less pleasing to Charles I. than it had been to his father. The new king was offended by Williams's advice to proceed with caution in dealing with the parliament, with the result that within a few months of Charles's accession the Great Seal was taken from his hands. In the question between the king and Parliament over the petition of right, Williams took the popular side in condemning arbitrary imprisonment by the sovereign. In the matter of ecclesiastical administration he similarly followed a middle course; but he had now to contend against the growing influence of Laud and the extreme high church party. A case was preferred against him in the Star Chamber of revealing state secrets, to which was added in 1635 a charge of subornation of perjury, of which he had undoubtedly been guilty and for which he was condemned in 1639 to pay a fine of £10,000, to be deprived of the two revenues which benefited the bishopric of Rochester at the king's pleasure. He was sent to the Tower. In 1639 he was again condemned by the Star Chamber for libelling Laud, a further heavy fine being imposed for this offence. In 1641 he recovered his liberty on the demand of the House of Lords, who maintained that as a peer he was entitled to be summoned to parliament. When the Long Parliament met, Williams was made chairman of a committee of inquiry into innovations in the church; and he was one of the bishops consulted by Charles as to whether he should veto the bill for the attainder of Strafford. In December 1641 the king, anxious to conciliate public opinion, appointed Williams archbishop of York. In the same month he was one of the twelve bishops impeached by the Commons for high treason and committed to the Tower. Released on an undertaking not to go to Yorkshire, a promise which he did not observe, the archbishop was enthroned in York Minster in June 1642. On the outbreak of the Civil War, after visiting Conway in the Royalist interest, he joined the king at Oxford; he then returned to Wales, and finding that Sir John Owen, acting on Charles's orders, had seized certain property in Conway Castle that had been deposited with the archbishop for safe-keeping, he sent over to the Parliamentary side and assisted in the recapture of Conway Castle in November 1646. Williams, who was a generous benefactor of St John's College, Cambridge, died on the 25th of March 1650.

WILLIAMS, ROGER (c. 1604–1684), founder of the colony of Rhode Island in America and pioneer of religious liberty, son of a merchant tailor, was born (probably) about 1604 in London. It seems reasonably certain that he was educated, under the patronage of Sir Edward Coke, at the Charter House and at Pembroke College, Cambridge, where he received his degree in 1626. According to tradition (probably untrue), he studied law under Sir Edward Coke; he formed a study of ecclesiastical history and was chaplain to Sir William Masham of Othes, in the parish of High Laver, Essex, but from conscientious scruples, in view of the condition of ecclesiastical affairs in England at the time, refused prebend. He soon decided to emigrate to New England, and, with his wife Mary, arrived at Boston early in February 1631. In April he became teacher of the church at Salem, Mass., as assistant to the Reverend Samuel Skelton. Owing to the opposition of the ecclesiastical authorities at Boston, with whose views his own were not in accord, he returned to Plymouth in the summer, and there remained for two years as assistant pastor. In August 1633 he again became assistant teacher at Salem, and in the following year succeeded Skelton as teacher. Here he incurred the hostility of the authorities of the Massachusetts Bay Colony by asserting, among other things, that the civil power of a state could properly have no jurisdiction over the consciences of men, that the King's patent conveyed no just title to the land of the colonists, which should be bought from its rightful owners, the Indians, and that a magistrate should not tender an oath to an unregenerate man, an opinion he maintained in reality; for the expression of these opinions he was formally tried in July 1635 by the Massachusetts General Court, and at the next meeting of the General Court in October, he not having taken advantage of the opportunity given to him to recant, a sentence of banishment was passed upon him, and he was ordered to leave the jurisdiction of Massachusetts within six weeks. The time was subsequently extended, conditionally, but in January 1636 an attempt was made to seize him and transport him to England, and he, forewarned, escaped from his home at Salem and proceeded alone to Manton's Neck on the east bank of the Seekonk river. At the instance of the authorities at Plymouth, within whose jurisdiction Manton's Neck was included, Williams, with four companions, who had joined him, founded, in June 1636 the first settlement in Rhode Island, to which, in remembrance of "God's merciful providence to him in his distress," he gave the name Providence. He immediately established friendly relations with the Indians in the vicinity, whose language he had learned, and, in accordance with his principles, bought the land upon which he had settled from the sachems Canonicus (c. 1657–1647) and Miantonomo, of the Narragansetts, in 1639, and stayed with the Indians, getting their implicit confidence in him, enabled him in 1636, soon after arriving at Providence, to induce the Narragansetts to ally themselves with the Massachusetts colonists at the time of the Pequot War, and thus to render a most effective service to those who had driven him from their community. Williams and his companions founded their new settlement upon the basis of complete religious toleration, with a view to its becoming "a shelter for persons distressed for conscience" (see RHODE ISLAND). Many settlers came from Massachusetts and elsewhere.
among others some Anabaptists, by one of whom in 1630 Williams was baptized, he baptizing others in turn and thus establishing what has been considered the first Baptist church in America. Williams, however, maintained his connexion with this church for only three or four months, and then became what was known as a "Seeker," or Independent, though he continued to preach. In June 1643 he went to England, and there in the following year obtained a charter for Providence, Newport and Portsmouth, under the title "The Providence Plantations in the Narragansett Bay." He returned to Providence in the autumn of 1644, and soon afterwards was instrumental in averting an attack by the Narragansets upon the United Colonies of New England by the removal of the Old Colony from Providence to a place now known as Wickford, R.I. He was at various times a member of the general assembly of the colony, acted as deputy president for a short time in 1649, was president, or governor, from September 1654 to May 1657, and was an assistant in 1664, 1667 and 1670. In 1651, with John Clarke (1609-1676), he went to England to secure the annulment of a commission which had been obtained by William Coddington for the government of Rhode Island (Newport and Portsmouth) and Connecticut, and the issue of a new and more explicit charter, and the following year succeeded in having the Coddington commission vacated. He returned to the colony the following summer, having enjoyed the friendship of Cromwell, Milton and other prominent Puritans; but Clarke remained in England and in 1663 obtained from Charles II. a new charter for "Rhode Island and Providence Plantations." Williams died at Providence in March or April 1684; the exact date is unknown.

Though headstrong, opinionative and rigid in his theological views, he was uniformly tolerant, and he occupies a high place among those who have striven for complete liberty of conscience. He was the foremost exponent in America of the theory of the absolute freedom of the individual in matters of religion; and Rhode Island, of which he was pre-eminent the founder, was the first colony consistently to apply this principle in practice.

Williams was a vigorous controversialist, and published, chiefly during his two visits to England, besides A Key into the Language of the Indians of America (written at sea on his first voyage to England (1643); reprinted in vol. i. of the Collections of the Rhode Island Historical Society (1827), and in series i. vol. iii. of the Massachusetts Historical Society Collections); Mr Cotton's Letter Examined and Answered (1646); and the first edition of A Vindication from the Cause of Conscience (1644); Queries of Highest Consideration (1645); The Bloody Tenent yet more Bloody (1652); The Hitting Ministry none of Christ's (1652); Experiments of Spiritual Life and Health (1655); and A Hymn to the Holy Spirit (1676).

His writings have been republished in the Publications of the Narragansett Club (6 vols., Providence, 1866-1874), the last volume containing his extant letters, written between 1632 and 1684. The best biographies are those by Oscar Straus (New York, 1894) and E. J. Carpenter (ibid. 1910). Also see J. D. Knowles, Memoir of Roger Williams (Boston, 1834), and Elton, Life of Roger Williams (London, 1852; Providence, 1853); New England Hist. and Gen. Register, July and October 1889, and January 1890; and M. C. Tyler, History of American Literature, 1607-1705 (New York, 1878). For the best apology for the expulsion from Massachusetts, see Henry M. Dexter's As to Roger Williams and his "Banishment" from the Massachusetts Plantation (Boston, 1876), an unsuccessful attempt to prevent Massachusetts from revoking the order of banishment.

WILLIAMS, ROWLAND (1817-1870), English divine and scholar, was born at Halkyn, Flint, the son of Rowland Williams (d. 1834), canon of St Asaph, and educated at Eton and Cambridge. He was elected fellow of King's College, Cambridge, in 1839, and took orders in 1842. During the next few years he acted as tutor at Eton, and chaplain of St Asaph and Bangor. In 1850 he became vice-principal and Hebrew master at St David's College, Lampeter, where he introduced much-needed educational and financial reforms. He was appointed select preacher of Cambridge University in 1854, and preached a sermon on inspiration, afterwards published in his Rational Goodness after the Mind of Christ and the Written Voices of the Church (London, 1853). He was charged with heresy, and Alfred Ollivant (1798-1883), bishop of Llandaff, required him to resign his chaplaincy, but he remained at the college in spite of these difficulties. His views were further defined in Christianity and Hinduism (Cambridge, 1856), an expansion of the Muir prize essay which he had won in 1848. He became vicar in 1858 of Brondbyeholm with Rossehav and Alvedstorff in Wilshire. As a result of his favourable review of Bunyan's "Biblical Review" contributed to Essays and Reviews (1860) he was prosecuted for heterodoxy. An unfavourable judgment was given by the Canterbury Court of Arches in 1862, but reversed by the Privy Council in 1864. Williams died on the 18th of January 1870.

Besides the above works his most important production was a translation of the Hebrew Prophets with commentary (pt. i. 1866; pt. ii. edited by Mrs Williams 1871; pt. iii. is never written). See Life and Letters, edited by Mrs Williams (2 vols., 1874); and T. K. Cheyne, Founders of Old Testament Criticism (1893).

WILLIAMS, SIR WILLIAM PENWICK, Bart. (1800-1883), British general, second son of Commissary-General Thomas Williams, barrack-master at Halifax, Nova Scotia, was born at return from Nova Scotia, on the 4th of December 1800. He entered the Royal Artillery as second lieutenant in 1825. His services were lent to Turkey in 1841, and he was employed as a captain in the arsenal at Constantinople. He was British commissioner in the conferences preceding the treaty of Erzerum in 1847, and again in the settlement of the Turko-Persian boundary in 1848 (brevet majority and lieutenant-colonel and C.B.). Promoted colonel, he was British commissioner with the Turkish army in Anatolia in the Russian War of 1854-56, and, having been made a ferris (lieutenant-general) and a pasha, he practically commanded the Turks during the heroic defense of Kars, repulsing the Russian attack and severely defeating the Russian general Muraviev in the battle of Kars on 29th September 1855. Cold, cholera, famine and hopelessness of succour from without, however, compelled Williams to make an honourable capitulation on the 28th of November following. A baronetcy with pension for life, the K.C.B., the grand cross of the Legion of Honour and of the Turkish Medjidie, the freedom of the City of London with a sword of honour, and the honorary degree of D.C.L. of Oxford University, were the distinctions conferred upon him for his valour. Promoted major-general in November 1855 on his return from captivity in Russia, he held the Woolwich command, and represented the United Kingdom at the Paris exhibition in 1855. He was made G.C.B. in 1857, and Constable of the Tower of London in 1881. He died in London on the 26th of July 1883.

WILLIAMSBURG, a city and the county-seat of James City county, Virginia, U.S.A., on a peninsula between the York and James rivers, 48 m. by rail E.S.E. of Richmond. Pop. (1900) 20,044; (1910) 2714. Williamsburg is served by the Chesapeake & Ohio railway. It is the seat of the Williamsburg Female Institute (Presbyterian), and of the College of Williams and Mary, chartered by the Crown in 1693 and the second oldest college in the United States. Besides the main building and the president's house, the College of Williams and Mary has a science hall, a gymnasium, a library building, an infirmary and dormitories; in front of the main building is a statue by Richard Hayward of Norborne Berkeley, Lord Botetourt (1717-1770), the most popular royal governor of Virginia. The college offers a classical course and a scientific course, two-thirds of the work in each being prescribed, and in connexion with the local department of the Matthew Whaley Model and Practice School. In 1909 there were 22 instructors and 228 students in the college, 6 instructors and 140 pupils in the model school, and 20,000 volumes, many of them rare, in the library. Since 1892 the college has published the Williams and Mary College Quarterly, an historical magazine.

Here in December 1776 was established the Phi Beta Kappa Society, the first American college "Greek Letter" Society, now an inter-collegiate honorary fraternity. The college suffered heavy losses during the War of Independence and in the Civil War. In June 1781 Lord Cornwallis made the president's house his headquarters, and the institution was closed for a few
months of that year. It was closed in 1861 because of the Civil War, and the main building was occupied in turn by Confederate troops and by Federal troops until some of the latter burned it in 1862. After it was reoccupied in 1866, the college was closed again from 1891 to 1888 because of the low state of its finances. In 1888 it was reorganized under an act of the state legislature which provided for the addition of a normal course and an annual appropriation towards its maintenance. The last day of Congress indemnifying it some measure for its loss during the Civil War; and in 1906 its endowment was increased to more than $500,000 and it was made a state college, governed by a board (appointed by the governor) and receiving $55,000 annually from the state. Peyton Randolph, Edmund Randolph, Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe, John Tyler, Chief Justice John Marshall and General Winfield Scott were graduates of the college.

Bruton Parish Church, completed in 1717 and enlarged in 1752 is the second church of a parish dating from 1674. It contains a Bible given by King Edward VII., a lectern given by President Roosevelt, and some old relics. The church itself has been restored (1905-1907) so far as practicable to its original form and appearance. The Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities has preserved a powder magazine, erected in 1714, from which the last 17th governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, removed the powder on the day after the encounter at Lexington, Massachusetts, and thus occasioned the first armed uprising of the Virginia patriots. The County and City Court House was erected in 1769. The Eastern State Hospital for the Insane was opened here in 1773, but its original building was burned in 1885. Among several colonial residences are the George Wythe House, which was the headquarters of Washington during the siege of Yorktown in 1781, and the Peyton Randolph House.

The principal industries are the manufacture of men's winter underwear, rubber and ice, and the shipment of lumber and farm and garden produce.

Williamsburg, originally named Middle Plantation from its position midway between the York and James rivers, was founded in 1632. It was immediately walled in and for several years it served as a refuge from Indian attacks. On the 3rd of August 1676 Nathaniel Bacon held here his "rebels" assembly of the leading men of the province, and in January 1677 two of the "rebels" were hanged here. In 1685 Middle Plantation was made the provincial capital; and in 1699 the present name was adopted in honour of William III. Williamsburg was chartered as a city in 1722. In 1756 the Virginia Gazette, the oldest newspaper in the South, was established here. In the capitol here Patrick Henry, on the 30th of May 1765, presented his historic resolutions and made his famous speech against the Stamp Act. On the 15th of May 1776, the Virginia Convention in session here passed resolutions urging the Continental Congress to declare for Independence. In 1779 Richmond became the seat of the state government, and in 1832 fire destroyed the last of the old capitol at Williamsburg with the exception of the foundations, which since 1867 have been cared for by the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities.

In the Peninsula campaign of the Civil War the Battle of Williamsburg was fought on the 5th of May 1862 on the south-eastern outskirts of the city. The Confederate army under General J. E. Johnston was retreating from Yorktown toward Richmond and a part of it under General James Longstreet waited here to check the pursuit of the advance portion of the Union army under General E. V. Sumner. A Union division under General J. D. Hooker began a spirited attack at 7.30 A.M., but they failed from lack of co-operation to rout the Confederates and a fight the latter continued their retreat. The Union loss in killed, wounded and missing was 2,228; the Confederate about 1,560.

See L. G. Tyler, Williamsburg, the Old Colonial Capital (Richmond, 1917), and his "Williamburg, the Ancient Capital," in L. P. Powell's Historic Towns of the Southern States (New York, 1900).

WILLIAMSON, ALEXANDER WILLIAM (1824-1864), English chemist, was born at Wandsworth, London, on the 1st of May 1824. After working under Liebig and Bunsen from 1840 and 1843-1855, he spent three years in Paris studying the higher mathematics under Comte. In 1849 he was appointed professor of practical chemistry at University College, London, and from 1855 until his retirement in 1887 he also held the professorship of chemistry. He had the credit of being the first to explain the process of etherification and to elucidate the formation of ether by the interaction of sulphuric acid and alcohol. Ether and alcohol he regarded as substances analogous to and built up on the same type as water, and he further introduced the water-type as a widely applicable basis for the classification of chemical compounds. The method of stating the rational constitution of bodies by comparison with water he believed capable of wide extension, and that on this type, he thought, would suffice for all inorganic compounds, as well as for the best-known organic ones, the formula of water being taken in certain cases as doubled or tripled. So far back as 1850 he also suggested a view which, in a modified form, is of fundamental importance in the modern theory of ionic dissociation, for, in a paper on the theory of the formation of ether, he urged that in an aggregate of molecules of any compound there is an exchange constantly going on between the elements which are contained in it; for instance, in hydrochloric acid each atom of hydrogen does not remain quietly in juxtaposition with the atom of chlorine with which it is united, but changes places with other atoms of hydrogen.

A somewhat similar hypothesis was put forward by R. E. Clausius about the same time. For his work on etherification Williamson in 1862 received a Royal medal from the Royal Society, of which he became a fellow in 1855, and which he served as foreign secretary from 1873 to 1889. He was twice president of the London Chemical Society, in 1863-1865, and again in 1865-1871. His death occurred on the 6th of May 1894, at Hindhead, Surrey, England.

WILLIAMSON, SIR JOSEPH (1653-1701). English politician, was born at Bridkirk, near Cockerham, his father, Joseph Williamson, being vicar of this place. He was educated at St Bees, at Westminster school and at Queen's College, Oxford, of which he became a fellow, and in 1660 he entered the service of the secretary of state, Sir Edward Nicholas, retaining his position under the succeeding secretary, Sir Henry Bennet, afterwards earl of Arlington. For his connexion with the foundation of the London Gazette in 1665 see NEWSPAPERS. He entered parliament in 1669, and in 1672 was made one of the clerks of the council and a knight. In 1673 and 1674 he represented his country at the congress of Cologne, and in the latter year he became secretary of state, having practically purchased this position from Arlington for £6000, a sum which he required from his successor when he left office in 1679. Just before his removal he had been arrested on a charge of sharing in the popish plots, but he had been at once released by order of Charles II. After a period of comparative inactivity Sir Joseph represented England at the congress of Nijmegen in 1667, and in 1668 he signed the first treaty for the partition of the Spanish monarchy. He died at Cobham, Kent, on the 3rd of October 1701. Williamson was the second president of the Royal Society, but his main interests, after politics, were rather in antiquarian than in scientific matters. Taking advantage of the many opportunities of making money which his official position gave him, he became very rich. He left £6000 and his library to Queen's College, Oxford; £5000 to found a school at Rochester; and £2000 to Thetford.

A great number of Williamson's letters, despatches, memoranda, &c., are among the English state papers.

WILLIAMSON, WILLIAM CRAWFORD (1816-1895), English naturalist, was born at Scarborough on the 24th of November 1816. His father, John Williamson, after beginning life as a gardener, became a well-known local naturalist, who, in conjunction with William Bean, first explored the rich fossiliferous beds of the Yorkshire coast. He was for many years curator of the Scarborough natural history museum, and the younger Williamson was thus from the first brought up among scientific surroundings and in association with scientific people. William Crawford Williamson, the "father of English geology," lived for twenty years in the Williamson family. Williamson's maternal grandfather was a lapidary, and from him he learnt the art of cutting stones, an accomplishment which he found of great use.
in later years, when he undertook his work on the structure of fossil plants. Williamson very early made a beginning as an original contributor to science. When little more than sixteen he published a paper on the rare birds of Yorkshire, and a little later (1834) presented to the Geological Society of London his first memoir on the Mesozoic Palaeotropical Tertiary geology, and he was assisted Lindley and Hutton in the preparation of their well-known Flora of Great Britain. On entering the medical profession he still found time to carry on his scientific work during his student days, and for three years acted as curator of the Natural History Society's museum at Manchester. After completing his medical studies at University College, London, in 1841, he returned to Manchester to practise his profession, in which he met with much success. When Owens College at Manchester was founded in 1851 he became professor of natural history there, was appointed a professor of teaching geology, zoology and botany. A very necessary division of labour took place as additional professors were appointed, but he retained the chair of botany down to 1892. Shortly afterwards he removed to Clapham, where he died on the 23rd of June 1895. Williamson's teaching work was not confined to his university classes, for he was also a successful popular lecturer, especially for the Gilchrist Trustees. His scientific work, pursued with remarkable energy throughout life in the midst of official and professional duties, had a wide scope. In geology, his early work on the zones of distribution of fossils and on the part played by microscopic organisms in the formation of marine deposits (1845), was of fundamental importance. In zoology, his investigations of the development of the teeth and bones of fishes (1842–1851), and on recent Foraminifera, a group on which he wrote a monograph for the Ray Society in 1857, were of less value. In botany, in addition to a remarkable memoir on the minute structure of Voluta (1852), his work on the structure of fossil plants established British palaeobotany on a scientific basis; on the ground of these researches Williamson may rank with A. T. Brongniart as one of the founders of this branch of science. His contributions to fossil botany began in the earliest days of his career, and he returned to the subject from time to time during the period of his geological and zoological activity. His investigation of the Mesozoic cycadoid fossil Zamia (now Williamsia) gigas was the chief palaeobotanical work of this intermediate period. His long course of researches on the structure of Carboniferous plants belongs mainly to the latter part of his life, and his results are chiefly, though not wholly, embodied in a series of nineteen memoirs, ranging in date from 1871 to 1875, in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London (S. of O.), and in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society. The works in this series (notably the monograph on Stigmatisoideae, Palaeontographical Society, 1886, published elsewhere, Williamson elucidated the structure of every group of Palaeozoic vascular plants. Among the chief results of his researches may be mentioned the discovery of plants intermediate between ferns and cycads, the description of the true structure of the fructification in the extinct cryptogamic family Sphenophyllaceae, and the demonstration of the cryptogamic nature of the dominant Palaeozoic orders Calamariae, Lepidodendreae and Sigillariae, plants which on account of the growth of their stem and roots in a vertical plane and the absence of leaves were regarded as phanerogams by Brongniart and his followers. After a long controversy the truth of Williamson's views has been fully established, and it is now known that the mode of growth, characteristic in present times, of dicotyledons and gymnosperms prevailed in Palaeozoic ages in every family of vascular cryptogams. Thus, as Count Solms-Laubach has pointed out, palaeobotany for the first time spoke the decisive word in an important question of general botany. Williamson's work in fossil botany was scarcely appreciated at the time as it deserved, for its great merits were somewhat obscured by the author's want of familiarity with the modern technicalities of the science. Since, however, the subject has been seriously taken up by botanists of a newer school, the soundness of the foundation he laid has become fully recognized. It may be added that he was a skilled draughtsman, illustrating all his works by his own drawings, and practising water-colour painting as his favourite recreation.

A full account of Williamson's career will be found in his autobiography, entitled Reminiscences of a Yorkshire Naturalist, edited by his wife (London, 1869). Among obituary notices may be mentioned that by Count Solms-Laubach, Nature (5th September 1893), and one by D. H. Scott in Proc. R. Sc. vol. ix. (1897).

WILLIAMSPORT, a city and the county-seat of Lycoming county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., on the north bank of the west branch of the Susquehanna river, about 70 m. N. by W. of Harrisburg. Pop. (1890) 27,132; (1900) 28,757, of whom 1144 were negroes and 2228 were foreign-born, including 1689 Germans; (1910 census), 31,860. Area, about 7 sq. m. Williamson is served by the New York Central & Hudson River, the Penn- sylvania, the Susquehanna & W. New York; and the Philadelphia & Reading railways, and by electric lines connecting with the neighbouring towns of Montoursville (pop. in 1900, 1665), South Williamson (pop. in 1900, 3328), on the S. bank of the river, and Du Boistown (pop. in 1900, 650). The city has an attractive site, on a high plain, nearly surrounded by hills. It has five parks, Brandon (44 acres) within the city limits, and Vallamont, Starr Island, Sylvan Dell and Nippono in its suburbs. Williamson is the seat of Williamson Dickinson Seminary (Methodist Episcopal, co-educational, 1848), a secondary school. Among the principal buildings are the county court house, the city hall, the United States Government building, the Scottish Rite Cathedral, the Masonic Temple, a Y.M.C.A. building, and the James V. Brown Memorial Library (1907). In the city are a Boys' Industrial Home (1898), a Girls' Training School (1895), a Florence Crittendon Home (1893), a Home for Aged Coloured Women (1898), a Home for the Friendless (1872), and Williamson Hospital (1873). There are practically no tenement houses. The value of factory products in 1905 was $1,738,473, 26.7% more than in 1900. Williamson has the largest lumber market in Pennsylvania, lumbars are the most important of its manufactures, and Williamson was styled the "sawdust city." The decreasing importance of the industry is due to the virtual extinction of standing timber in the neighbourhood. Lumber and timber products were valued at $1,310,365 in 1905, and lumber and planing mill products at $796,067. Among other manufactures are silk and silk goods, valued at $1,191,273 in 1905; foundry and machine shop products, $1,164,737; rubber and leather boots and shoes, furniture, &c. The city has a large trade with the surrounding country. The water supply is derived from mound reservoirs on the S. side of the river, and at the back of the city. The water was taken from the river; in which year Williamson was founded and became the county-seat, after a bitter contest with Jaysburg, which was then a village of only some half a dozen houses and which subsequently ceased to exist. Williamson was incorporated as a borough in 1866, and was chartered as a city in 1866.

WILLIAMSTOWN, a town of Bourke county, Victoria, Australia, 9 m. by rail S.W. of Melbourne. Pop. (1901) 14,683. Shipping is the chief business of the place, there being commodious piers, breakwater, also provision for the repair of vessels, patent slips and shipbuilding yards, with a dockyard. The town, which was established in 1795, in which year Williamson was founded and became the county-seat, after a bitter contest with Jaysburg, which was then a village of only some half a dozen houses and which subsequently ceased to exist. Williamson was incorporated as a borough in 1866, and was chartered as a city in 1866.

WILLIAMSTOWN, a township of Berkshire county, Massa- chusetts, U.S.A., on the Hoosick and Green rivers, in the N.W. corner of the state, and about 20 m. N. of Pittsfield. Pop. (1890) 4217; (1900) 5013, of whom 929 were foreign-born and 138 were negroes; (1910 census), 3708. Williamson is served by the Boston & Maine railway and by an interurban electric line to North Adams. It covers an area of about 49 sq. m. and contains five villages. Williamson, the principal village, is a pleasant residential centre on the Green river; it is sur- rounded by beautiful scenery and its streets are shaded by some fine old trees. Mission Park (10 acres) here is adorned by native
and foreign shrubs and by maples, elms, pines and arbor vitae, and "Haystack Monument" in this park marks the place where Samuel John Mills (1753-1818), in 1806, held the prayer meeting which was the forerunner of the American foreign missionary movement. Williams-town village is the seat of Williams College, chartered in 1793 as a successor to a "free school" in Williamstown (chartered in 1783 and endowed by a bequest of Colonel Ephraim Williams). Besides recreation and residence halls, it has the Lawrence Hall Library (1846), containing (1016) 65,000 volumes, the Thompson Memorial Chapel (1904), the Lasell Gymnasium (1886), an infirmary (1853), the Hopkins Observatory (1857) and the Field Memorial Observatory (1882), the Thompson Chemical Laboratory (1882), the Thompson Biological Laboratory (1893) and the Thompson Physical Laboratory (1893). In 1910 the college had 55 instructors and 537 students. The fourth president of the college was Mark Hopkins (q.v.), and one of its most distinguished alumni was James A. Garfield, president of the United States, whose son, Harry Augustus Garfield (b. 1861), became president of the college in 1908.

The principal manufactures of the township are cotton and woolen goods (especially corduroy), and market gardening is an important industry. The limits of the town, originally called West Hoosac, were determined by a committee of the General Court of Massachusetts in 1740, and two or three years later the village was laid out. Two of the lots were immediately purchased by Captain Ephraim Williams (1715-1755), who was at the time commander of Fort Massachusetts in the vicinity; several other lots were bought by soldiers under him; and in 1753 the proprietors organized a township government. Williams was killed in the battle of Lake George on the 8th of September 1755, but while in camp in Albany, New York, a few days before the battle, he drew a will containing a bequest for a free school at West Hoosac on condition that the township when incorporated should be called Williams-town. The township was incorporated with that name in 1765.

See A. L. Perry, Origins in Williams-town (New York, 1891; 3rd ed. 1900); and Williamstown and Williams College (Norwood, Mass., 1899).

WILLIAMS-WYNNE, SIR WATKIN, Bart. (1562-1749), Welsh politician, was the eldest son and heir of Sir William Williams, Bart., of Llanfora near Oswestry; his mother, Jane Thelwall, was descended from the anti-Barefoot family of John Wynn of Gwydir, Carnarvonshire. Educated at Jesus College, Oxford, Williams succeeded to Wynn's near Ruabon and the estates of the Wynn on the death of a later Sir John Wynn in 1719, and took the name of Williams-Wynn. He was member of parliament for Denbighshire from 1716 to 1741, and was prominent among the opponents of Sir Robert Walpole; as a leading and influential Jacobite he was in communication with the supporters of Prince Charles Edward before the rising of 1745, but his definite offer of help did not reach the prince until the retreat to Scotland had begun. He died on the 26th of September 1749. His first wife, Ann Vaughan (d. 1748), was the heroine of extensive estates in Montgomeryshire which still belong to the family. His son and heir, Sir Watkin Williams-Wynn, Bart. (1749-1789), was the father of another Sir Watkin (1772-1842), the 7th baronet. Two other sons attained some measure of distinction: Charles (1775-1850), a prominent Tory politician, and Sir Henry (1783-1869), a diplomatist. A daughter, Frances Williams-Wynn (d. 1857), was the author of "Diaries of a Lady of Quality, 1767-1844," which were edited with notes by Abraham Hayward in 1864.

See Askew Roberts, Wynn, and the Wynn (Oswestry, 1874).

WILLIBRORD (or Willibrord), St (d. 739), English missionary, "the apostle of the Frisians," was born about 657. His father, Wiligis, an Angle or, as Alcuin styles him, a Saxon, of Northumbria, withdrew from the world and constructed for himself a little oratory dedicated to St Andrew. The king and nobles of the district endowed him with estates till he was at last able to build a church, over which Alcuin afterwards ruled. Willibrord, almost as soon as he was weaned, was sent to be brought up at Ripon, where he must doubtless have come under the influence of Wilfrid. About the age of twenty the desire of increasing his stock of knowledge (c. 675) drew him to Ireland, which had so long been the headquarters of learning in western Europe. Here he stayed for twelve years, enjoying the society of Egbert and Winchbret, was converted to the Church, and to South Germany received by his commission to missionary work among the North-German tribes. In his thirty-third year (c. 690) he started with twelve companions for the mouth of the Rhine. These districts were then occupied by the Frisians under their king, Rathbod, who gave allegiance to Pippin of Herstal. Pippin befriended him and sent him to Rome, where he was consecrated archbishop (with the name Clemens) by Pope Sergius on St Cecilia's Day 696. He tells us that when he returned to Frisia his see was fixed in Ultrasound (Utrecht). He spent several years in foundling churches and evangelizing, till his success tempted him to pass into other districts. From Denmark he carried away thirty boys to be brought up among the Franks. On his return he was wrecked on the holy island of Fosite (Heligoland), where his disregard of the pagan superstition nearly cost him his life. When Pippin died, Willibrord found a supporter in his son Charles Martel. He was assisted for three years in his missionary work by St Boniface (719-722), who, however, was not willing to become his successor. He was still living when Bede wrote in 731. A passage in one of Bede's letters to Stephen III. speaks of his preaching to the Frisians for fifty years, apparently reckoning from the time of his consecration. This would fix the date of his death in 728; and, as Alcuin tells us he was eighty-one years old when he died, it may be inferred that he was born in 657—a theory on which all the dates given above are based, though it must be added that they are substantially confirmed by the incidental notices of Bede. The day of his death was the 6th of November, and his body was buried in the monastery of Echternach, near Trier, which he had himself founded. Even in Alcuin's time miracles were reported to be still wrought at his tomb.

The chief authorities for Willibrord's life are Alcuin's Vita Willibrordi, both in prose and verse, and Bede's Hist. Eccl. v. cc. 9-11. See also Edidius's Vita Willfridi, and J. Mabillon, Annales ordinis sancti Benedicti, lib. xviii.

WILLIMANTIC, a city of Windham county, Connecticut, U.S.A., in the township of Windham, at the junction of the Willimantic and Natchaug rivers to form the Shetucket, in the E. part of the state, about 16 m. N.W. of Norwich. Pop. (1890) 8463; (1900) 9357, of whom 2491 were foreign-born; (1910) census, 11,230. It is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford and the Central Vermont railways, and by electric railway to Baltic, N.W., and Northampton. It is the seat of a State Normal Training School, and has a public library and Dunham Hall Library (1878). The Willimantic river provides great power-water, and there are various manufactures. The total value of the factory product in 1905 was $4,002,447. The township of Windham was incorporated in 1692. Willimantic was settled in 1823, incorporated as a borough in 1833, and chartered as a city in 1893. The name is from an Indian word meaning "good look-out" or "good cedar swamps."

WILLIS, NATHANIEL PARKER (1806-1867), American author, was the eldest son of Nathaniel Willis, described as a "Puritan of considerable distinction," who arrived in New England about 1630 and settled in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Nathaniel Parker was the eldest son and second child of Nathaniel Willis, a newspaper proprietor in Boston, and was born in Portland, Maine, on the 26th of January 1806. After attending Boston grammar school and the academy at Andover, he entered Yale College in October 1823. Although he did not specially distinguish himself as a student, university life had considerable influence in the development of his character, and furnished him much of his literary material. Immediately after leaving Yale he published in 1827 a volume of poetical Sketches, which attracted some attention, although the critics found in his verses more to blame than to praise. It was followed by Fugitive Poetry (1829) and another volume of verse (1831). He also

1 He had been consecrated bishop, also by Sergius, on a previous visit in 692.

Williams-Wynn—Williams, N. P.
contributed frequently to magazines and periodicals. In 1829 he started the American Monthly Magazine, which was continued from April of that year to August 1831, but failed to achieve success. On its discontinuance he went to Europe as foreign editor and correspondent of the New York Mirror. To this journal he contributed a series of letters, which, under the title Penkillings by the Way, were published in London in 1835 (3 vols.; Philadelphia, 1836, 2 vols.; and first complete edition, New York, 1841). Their vivid and rapid sketches of scenes and modes of life in the old world at once gained them a wide popularity; but he was censured by some critics for indiscernment in reporting conversations in private gatherings. Notwithstanding, however, his letters brought him new appointments and footholds which were his besetting weaknesses as a man as well as an author, the grace, ease and artistic finish of his style won general recognition. His "Slingsby Papers," a series of magazine articles descriptive of American life and adventure, republished in 1836 under the title Inklings of Adventure, were as successful in England as were his Penkillings by the Way in America. He also published while in England Melodies and other Poems (London, 1835; New York, 1837), which was introduced by a preface by Barry Cornwall (Procter). After his marriage to Mary Stace, daughter of Colonel William Stace of Woodville, Wiltshire, he was apprenticed to his friend Simon Willson, and settled at a small estate on Oswego Creek, just above its junction with the Susquehanna. Here he lived off and on from 1837 to 1842, and wrote Letters from under a Bridge (London, 1840; first complete edition, New York, 1844), the most charming of all his works. During a short visit to England in 1839-1840 he published Two Ways of Dying for a Husband. Returning to New York, he established, along with George P. Morris, a newspaper entitled the Evening Mirror. On the death of his wife in 1845 he again visited England. Returning to America in the spring of 1846, he married Cornelia Grimmel, and established the New York Press, afterwards named the Home Journal. In 1845 he published Dashes at Life with a Free Pencil, in 1846 a collected edition of his Prose and Poetical Works, in 1849 Rural Letters, and in 1850 Life Here and There. In that year he settled at Idlewild on the Hudson river, and on account of failing health spent the remainder of his life chiefly in retirement. Among his later works were Hurry-Graphs (1851), Outdoors at Idlewild (1854), Ragbag (1855), Paul Fane (1856), and the Consoladent (1859), but he had survived his great reputation. He died on the 20th of January 1867, and was buried in Mount Auburn, Boston.

The best edition of his verse writings is The Poems, Sacred, Passionate and Humorous, of N. P. Willis (New York, 1868); 13 volumes of his prose, Complete Prose Works, were published at New York in 1879. A posthumous edition of his Poems, first edited by Henry A. Beers (New York, 1885). His Life, by Henry A. Beers, appeared in the series of "American Men of Letters" the same year. See also E. F. Whipple, Essays and Reviews (vol. i., 1848); M. A. de Wolfe Howe, American Bookmen (New York, 1898).

WILLIS, THOMAS (1621-1673), English anatomist and physician, was born at Great Bedwin, Wiltshire, on the 27th of January 1621. He studied at Christ Church, Oxford; and when that city was garrisoned for the king he bore arms for the Royalists. He took the degree of bachelor of medicine in 1646, and applied himself to the practice of his profession. In 1649, shortly after the Restoration, he became Sociellian professor of natural philosophy in place of Dr Joshua Cross, who was ejected, and the same year he took the degree of doctor of physic. In 1664 he discovered the medicinal spring at Astrop, near Brackley in Northamptonshire. He was one of the first members of the Royal Society, and was elected an honorary fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in 1664. In 1666, after the fire of London, he took a house in St Martin's Lane, and there rapidly acquired an extensive practice, his reputation and skill marking him out as one of the first physicians of his time. He died in St Martin's Lane on the 11th of November 1675 and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Wills was admired for his piety and charity, for his deep insight into natural and experimental philosophy, anatomy and chemistry, and for the elegance and purity of his Latin style. Among his writings were Cerberi anatoe nervorumque descriptio et usus (1664), in which he described what is still known, in the anatomy of the brain, as the circle of Willis, and Pharmacire rationalis (1674), in which he characterized diabetes mellitus. He wrote in English A Discovery of a Curious and Easy Method for Teaching those that are Weak from the Infection of the Plague, and for Curing such as are Infected. His Latin works were printed in two vols. at Geneva in 1676, and at Amsterdam in 1682. Browne Willis (1685-1760), the antiquarian, author of the three volumes of Surveys of the cathedrals of England, was his grandson.


WILLIS, JAMES TIBBITS (1800-1863), English line engraver, was born at Bristnall's End, Handsworth, near Birmingham, on the 19th of September 1800. At the age of fourteen he was apprenticed to William Radcliffe, a Birmingham engraver, and in 1823 he went to London and was employed for three years by Charles Heath. He was afterwards engaged upon the plates of Brockden's Passages of the Alps and Turner's England and Wales. He engraved after Chalon, Leitch, Stanfield, Landseer, Eastlake, Creswick and Ansell, and especially after Turner, from whose "Alnwick Castle by Moonlight," "The Old Temeraire," "Mercury and Argus," "Ancient Rome," and the subjects of the Rivers of France, he executed many admirable plates. He was elected an associate engraver of the Royal Academy in 1843. He died on the 12th of March 1863.

WILLIBO (or WILLOGHY), HENRY (1575-1606), the supposed author of a poem called Willibob his Avisa, which derives interest from its possible connexion with Shakespeare's personal history. Henry Williboughy was the second son of a Wiltshire gentleman of the same name, and matriculated from St John's College, Oxford, in December 1591, at the age of sixteen. He is probably identical with the Henry Williboughy who graduated B.A. from Exeter College early in 1595, and after the 3rd of June 1596, when to a note of this date the poem Hadrian Dorrell added an "Apologie" in defence of his friend the author "now of late gone to God," and another poem in praise of chastity written by Henry's brother, Thomas Williboughy. Willibob his Avisa was licensed for the press on the 3rd of September 1594, four months after the entry of Shakespeare's Rape of Lucrece, and printed by John Windet. It is preceded by two commendatory poems, the second of which, signed "Contraria Contrariis; Vigilantius; Dormitana," contains the earliest known printed allusion to Shakespeare by name:

"Yet Tarquuyne pluckt his glittering grape, And Shakespeare paints poor Lucrece rape."

In the poem itself, Avisa, whose name is explained in Dorrell's "Epistle to the Reader" as Avisus Uxor Invidiosa Semper Amanda, takes up the parable alternately with her suitors, one of whom is introduced to the reader in a prose interlude signed by the author H. W., as Henrico Willobegho Italo Hispanisalis. This passage contains a reference which may fairly be applied to the sonnets of Shakespeare. It runs:

"H. W. being suddenly infect with the contagion of a fantastical fit, did at the first sight of Avisa bewray the secret of his disease unto his familiar friend W. S. who not long before had tried the curtesy of the like passion, and was now newly recover'd...he and the said poet, set to a happier end for this new actor, then it did for the old player."

Then follows a dialogue between H. W. and W. S., in which W. S., "the old player," a phrase susceptible of a double sense, gives somewhat commonplace advice to the disconsolate woer.

Dorrell alleges that he found the MS. of Willibob his Avisa among his friend's papers left in his charge when Williboughy departed from Oxford on her majesty's service. There is no trace of any Hadrian Dorrell, and the name is probably fictitious; there is, indeed, good reason to think that the pseudonym, if such it is, covers the personality of the real author of the work. Willibob his Avisa proved extremely popular, and passed through numerous editions, and Peter Colse produced in 1596 an imitation named Penelope's Complaint.

WILLOCK (or WILLOCKS), JOHN (c. 1515-1582), Scottish reformer, was a native of Ayrshire and was educated at the university of Glasgow. After being a monk for a short time he embraced the reformed religion and went to London, where, about 1542, he became chaplain to Henry Grey, afterwards duke of Suffolk, the father of Lady Jane Grey. On the accession of Mary to the English throne in 1553 he went to Emden in Friesland, where he practised as a physician, varying this profession with visits to Scotland. He was associated with the leading Scottish reformers in their opposition to the queen regent, Mary of Lorraine, and the Roman Catholic religion, and in 1558 he returned definitely to his native land. Willock now began to preach and in 1559 was outlawed. Popular sympathy, however, rendered this sentence fruitless, and in the same year, being Knox's deputy as minister of St Giles' cathedral, Edinburgh, he frustrated the efforts of the regent to restore the Roman Catholic religion, and administered the communion for the first time in accordance with the ideas of the reformers. He was one of the four ministers chosen by the convention of October 1559 to seats on the council of government, and was one of those appointed to compile the first book of discipline. About 1562 he became rector of Loughborough in Leicestershire, but he retained his connexion with the Scottish church and was moderator of the general assembly in 1562, and again in 1564, in 1565 and in 1568. He died at Loughborough on the 4th of December 1585.

WILLOWBY, the name of an English family long settled in Nottinghamshire, and now represented by Baron Middleton. Having exchanged his name of Bugge for that of Willoughby, Richard de Willoughby became a judge during the reign of Edward II, and purchased the manors of Wollaton in Nottinghamshire and of Risley in Derbyshire. His son, Richard de Willoughby (d. 1362), was justice of the common pleas under Edward III. Richard's descendant, Dorothy, who became the heiress of the family estates, married Robert Willoughby of Bore Place, Kent, and their descendant, Sir Thomas Willoughby, Bart. (c. 1670-1729), of Wollaton, was created Baron Middleton in 1712. In 1757 his descendant, Digby Wentworth Bayard Willoughby (b. 1844), became the 9th baron. This title must be distinguished from that of Viscount Middleton, borne by the Brodrick family.

Sir Hugh Willoughby, the seaman, was a member of this family. He was a son of Sir Henry Willoughby (d. 1528), and a grandson of Sir Hugh Willoughby of Wollaton. His early services were as a soldier on the Scottish borders, but he soon turned his thoughts to the sea, and was appointed captain of a fleet of three ships which set out in 1553 with the object of discovering a north-eastern passage to Cathay and India. Two of the three ships reached the coast of Lapland, where it was proposed to winter, and here Willoughby and his companions died of cold and starvation soon after January 1554. A few years later their remains were found, and with them Willoughby's Journal, which is printed in vol. i. of R. Hakluyt's Principal Navigations.

Another famous member of this family was Sir Nesbit Josiah Willoughby (1777-1849), who entered the British navy in 1790 and was present at the battle of Copenhagen. In 1800, however, he was dismissed from the service by the sentence of a court-martial for his insolent conduct towards a superior officer, a previous offence of this kind having been punished less severely. In 1803, on the renewal of war, as a volunteer he joined an English squadron bound for the West Indies, and was soon admitted again to the navy; his courage and promptness at Cape François were responsible for saving 900 lives, and he distinguished himself on other occasions, being soon restored to his former rank in the service. After further services in the West Indies, during which he displayed marked gallantry on several occasions, Willoughby was tried by court-martial at Cape Town in 1808 on charges of cruelty; he seems to have taken a great delight in inflicting punishment, but he was acquitted with the advice to be more moderate in future in his language. Again in the West Indies, where he commanded the Néréide, he was responsible for the heroic defence made by his ship against a much stronger French force at Port Louis, Mauritius, in August 1810, when 222 out of his crew of 281 men were disabled before he surrendered. Undeterred by the severe wounds which he had received, and seeing no prospect of active service with the British fleet, Willoughby offered his services in 1812 to the Russian government, and while serving with the Russian army he was captured by the French. He was taken to France, whence he escaped to England. Having seen a little more service in the navy, he was knighted in 1827, was made a rear-admiral in 1847, and died unmarried in London on the 19th of May 1849.

WILLOW (Salix), a very well-marked genus of plants constituting, with the poplar (Populus), the order Salicaceae. Willows are trees or shrubs, varying in stature from a few inches, like the small British S. herbacea and arctic species generally, to 100 ft., and occurring most abundantly in cold or temperate climates in both hemispheres, and generally in moist situations; a few species occur in the tropical and sub-tropical portions of the three great continents. Their leaves are deciduous, alternate, simple, and generally much longer than broad, whence the term willow-leaved has become proverbial. At their base they are provided with stipules, which are also modified to form the scales investing the winter buds. The flowers are borne in catkins (fig. 1), which are on one tree male (staminate) only, on another female (pistillate). Each male flower consists of a small scale or bract, in the axil of which are usually two, sometimes three, rarely five stamens, and still more rarely a larger number. In addition there is a small glandular disk, which assumes different shapes in different species. The female flowers are equally simple, consisting of a bract, from whose axil arises usually a very short stalk, surmounted by two carpels adherent one to the other for their whole length, except that the upper ends of the styles are separated into two stigmas. When ripe the two carpels separate in the form of two valves and liberate a large number of seeds, each provided at the base with a tuft of silky hairs, and containing a straight embryo without any investing albumen. The flowers appear generally before the leaves and are thus rendered more conspicuous, while passage of pollen by the wind is facilitated. Fertilization is effected by insects, especially by bees, which are directed in their search by the colour and fragrance of the
flowers; but some pollen must also be transported by the wind to the female flowers, especially in arctic species which, in spite of the poverty of insect life, set abundant fruit. The tuft of hairs at the base facilitates rapid dispersion of the seed, early germination of which is rendered desirable owing to its tenacity. Although the limitations of the genus are well marked, and its recognition in consequence easy, it is otherwise with regard to the species. The greatest difference of opinion exists among botanists as to their number and the bounds to be assigned to each; and the cross-fertilization that takes place between the species intensifies the difficulty. Andersen, a Swede, spent nearly a quarter of a century in their investigation, and ultimately published a monograph which is the standard authority on the subject. He admits about a hundred species. Professor C. S. Sargent (Silvics of North America) suggests 160 to 170 as the number of distinguishable species. Some botanists have enumerated 80 species from Great Britain alone, while others count only 12 or 15. Dr Buchanan White, who made a special study of the British willows, grouped them under 17 species with numerous varieties and hybrids. To illustrate the great perplexity surrounding the subject, we may mention that to one species, _S. nigricans_, one hundred and twenty synonyms have been attached. Some of these are doubtless such as no botanist, with adequate material for forming an opinion, would accept; but, after making the necessary deductions for actual mistakes and misstatements, there still remains a large number upon which legitimate differences of opinion prevail. Andersen says that he has rarely seen two specimens of this species which were alike in the collective characters offered by the stature, foliage, and cattins. Not better example could be found of the almost limitless variation in so-called species.

Few genera have greater claims to notice from an economic point of view. As timber trees many of the species are valuable from their rapidity of growth and for the production of light durable wood, serviceable for many purposes. Among the best trees of this kind are _S. fragilis_, the crack willow (fig. 2), especially the variety known as _S. fragilis_, var. _Russelliana_, and _S. alba_, the white or Huntington willow. These trees are usually found growing by rivers' banks or in other moist situations, and are generally pollarded for the purpose of securing a crop of straight poles. This plan is, however, objectionable, as inducing decay in the centre of the trunk. Where poles are required, it is better to cut them when young, as near the soil. The wood of _S. fragilis_ is used for cricket-bats; there is a great difference in the value for this purpose of timber from different soils; and wood of the female tree is said to be preferable. Some of _S. caprea_ (fig. 1), a hedgerow tree, generally grows in drier situations. It is a useful timber tree, and its wood, like that of _S. alba_, is prized in the manufacture of charcoal. Its catkins are collected in England in August and to a certain extent the bright-coloured flowers being available in early spring when other decorations of the kind are scarce. Certain sorts of willow are largely used for basket-making and paper work, especially the _S. caprea_. The _S. repens_ and other dwarf kinds are useful for binding heathy or sandy soil. In addition to their use for timber or basket-making, willows contain a large quantity of tannin in their bark. A valuable medicinal glucoside named calicin is often found in the bark. The wood, especially of _S. alba_, is used for paper pulp. As ornamental trees some willows also take a high rank. The white willow is a great favourite, while the drooping habitat of the weeping willow renders it very attractive. _S. babylonica_, which is only a native of China, from which it has been widely spread by man; the willow of the Euphrates (Ps. cxxvii.) is in all probability _Populus euphratica_. _S. babonica_ is sometimes spoken of as Pope's willow, having been cultivated by that poet, or as Napoleon's willow, because his tomb at St Helena is overshadowed by a tree of this species, from which many offsets exist or are reputed to exist in modern gardens. _S. regalis_, however, has very white wood, and _S. rosmarinfolia_ is remarkable for its very narrow leaves—purplish above, silvery beneath.

The larvae of several nocturnal Lepidoptera feed upon the leaves of the willows, and the trunk of the willow is often injured by the perforations of the lunar hornet sphinx (_Trochilium crabroniforme_).

**WILLOW-HERB, in botany, the popular name for the species of _Epilobium_, a genus of often tall herbaceous plants, several of which are natives of Britain. The slender stems bear narrow leaves and pink or purple flowers, which in the rose-bay (_E. angustifolium_), found by moist river-sides and in copses, are 1 in. in diameter and form showy spikes. _E. hirsutum_, found by sides of ditches and rivers, a tall plant with many large rose-purple flowers, is known popularly as codlins-and-cream._

**WILLIAM GORMAN WILLIS, William Gilman Wills (1828-1894), Irish dramatist, was born at Kilmurry, Ireland, on the 28th of January 1828, the son of James Wills (1790-1868), author of _Lives of Illustrious and Distinguished Irishmen_ (1839-1847). The son was educated at Waterford Grammar School and Trinity College, Dublin. After several years of journalistic and literary work in Dublin, he settled in London, where he wrote stories for the magazines. In 1868 he determined that he could make a better living at portrait-painting, for which, though his art education had been meagre, he had always had talent. He soon made a fair income, though in the long run he was not financially successful. His most persistent absent-mindedness, lost him many sitters. Meanwhile he had begun to write for the stage. His first original work was the _Man o' Artie_, produced at the Princess's theatre, London, in 1867. Early in 1872 he was engaged by Colonel Bateman as "dramatist to the Lyceum" at an annual salary. Under the terms of his agreement he wrote _Medea in Corinth, Charles I._ and _Eugene Aram_, all of which were produced at the Lyceum in 1872-1873. With _Charles I._, in which Mr (afterwards Sir Henry) Irving confirmed the reputation he had earned by his performance in _The Bell_, Wills made a popular success, which he repeated in _Olivia_ (adapted from Goldsmith's _Vicar of Wakefield_) in 1873. From this date onwards Wills wrote continuously, and till 1887 his name was practically never absent from the bill of some London theatre. His work never, however, quite came up to the expectations which were based on his genuine ability,
and much of it is of an inferior quality. In Claudian (Princess’s Theatre, 1883) and Faust (Lyceum Theatre, 1883) he merely supplied the text to a variety of dramatic situations. In 1887 his mother, whom he had supported for many years, died, and after her death he seemed to have less incentive for work. Wills was a painter by choice, and never put his whole heart into his dramatic work. He had some skill in hallad-writing, shown in the well-known “I’ll sing thee songs of Araby.” He died on the 13th of December 1891.

WILLOUGHBY, FRANCIS (1663–1672), English ornithologist, and ichthyologist, son of Sir Francis Willughby, was born at New Waltham, near Grimsby, in Lincolnshire, in 1663. He is memorable as the pupil, friend and patron as well as the active and original co-worker of John Ray (q.v.) and, hence to be reckoned as one of the most important predecessors of Linnaeus. His connexion with Ray dated from his studies at Trinity College, Cambridge (1653–1659); and, after concluding his academic life by a brief sojourn at Oxford, and acquiring considerable experience of travel in England, he made an extensive Continental tour in his company. The specimens, figures and notes thus accumulated were in great part elaborated on his return into his Ornithologia, which, however, he did not live to publish, having injured a naturally delicate constitution by alternate exposure and over-study. This work was published in 1676, and translated by Ray as the Ornithology of Sir Willughby (London, 1678, fol.); the same friend published his Historia Piscium (1686, fol.). Willughby died at Middleton Hall on the 3rd of July 1672.

In Ray’s preface to the former work he gives Willughby much of the credit usually assigned to himself, both as critic and systematist. Thus, while founding on Gesner and Aldrovandus, he omitted their irrelevances, being careful to exclude “hieroglyphics, emblems, morals, fables, presages or outh else pertaining to divinity, ethics, grammar, or any sort of humane learning, and present him [the reader] with what properly belongs only to natural history.” And he not only devised artificial keys to his species and genera, but, “that he might clear up all these obscurities [of former writers] and render the knowledge and distinction of species facile, he bent his endeavours muchly to find out certain characteristic notes of each kind,” while, finally, in apologizing for his engravings, he yet not unjustly claims that “they are best and truest of any hitherto graven in brass.” (See also Ornithology.)

WILMINGTON, a city, a port of entry and the county-seat of New Castle county, Delaware, U.S.A., in the N. part of the state, near the Delaware river, at the mouth of Brandywine and Christiana creeks. Pop. (1800) 61,431; (1900) 76,928, of whom 10,478 were foreign-born (1820 Irish, 1762 German, 908 English) and 9736 were negroes; (1910 census) 87,411. Area, 10-18 sq. m. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Philadelphia, Baltimore & Washington (Pennsylvania) and the Philadelphia & Reading railways, and by several steamship lines. Wilmington Harbor includes Christiana Creek for 4 m. above its mouth and the navigable part (2 m.) of the Brandywine, which enters the Christiana about 1-2 m. above its mouth. By 1881 the channel depth had been increased from 8 to 15 ft., in 1896–1906 it was increased to 21 ft. in the lower part of the harbour, and in 1908 the upper part was dredged to 18 or 19 ft. for widths of 100, 200 and 250 ft. Between 1836 and 1900 $994,404 was expended on the improvement of the harbour. Most of the streets which run from E. to W. are numbered; those which run from N. to S. are named, often in honour of prominent American statesmen. The public parks and squares have a total area of 381 acres; the most important parks are Brandywine and Rockford, which lie along and near Brandywine creek, in the northern part of the city. Among the buildings of interest are the City Hall (1798); Holy Trinity (Old Swedes) Church (1698), probably the oldest church in the United States which has been in continuous use; the building occupied by the Historical Society of Delaware (organized in 1864), which was the old First Presbyterian Meeting House, built in 1740; the County Court House; and the Federal building. In Wilmington, besides other educational institutions, is the Wilmington Friends’ School (1748), the oldest preparatory school in the state. The Wilmington Institute Free Library (69,000 volumes in 1901) was founded in 1878, but was not made free to the public until 1894. Wilmington is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and of a Protestant Episcopal bishop.

The favourable situation, railway facilities and proximity to the coal-fields of Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Virginia, to the sources of supply of raw materials, and the water-power furnished by the Brandywine, combined with the enterprise of its citizens, have made Wilmington the most important manufacturing centre of Delaware. In 1905 the value of the factory products of the city, $60,399,699, was 73.5% of the total product value of the state. The principal manufactures are tann'd, (except $432,180), paper and wood pulp ($8,904,556), &c. Shipbuilding ($7,870,904 in 1905) was established as early as 1739, and in 1836 the first iron shipyard and in 1854 the first iron sailing-boat built in the United States were built here. On the Brandywine, near the city, are the works of the Du Pont Powder Company, which extend over nearly 1000 acres, the largest powder plant in the world. The company was founded in 1802 by the French refugee, Eleuthère Irénée du Pont de Nemours (1711–1844), who had learned from his father, Henri du Pont (1698), the art of powder-making, and he introduced them into the United States. Wilmington is the port of entry of the customs district of Delaware, with branch offices at New Castle and Lewes. In 1909 the imports of the district were valued at $463,902.

The city is governed under a charter of 1886, amended in 1893, by a mayor, who is chosen biennially and who appoints the board of water commissioners and the board of directors of the street and sewer departments, and by a unicameral legislature, the twelve members of which are elected by wards (except the president of the council, who is elected at large, and is acting mayor in the absence of the mayor). The council appoints the auditor, the clerk of council who acts as city clerk and various inspectors, &c. The police commission is appointed by the resident associate judge of New Castle county court. A board of education (two members from each ward), the city attorney and the city treasurer are elected by popular vote.

The site of Wilmington was settled in 1638 on behalf of the South Company of Sweden by Swedish and Dutch colonists, under the leadership of Peter Minuit. The fort which they built was called Christiana, and the settlement that grew up around it, Christinham, in honor of Queen Christina, the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus. The fort was captured, without bloodshed, by Governor Peter Stuyvesant of New Netherland in 1655, but very few of the Swedes left Christinham. The Swedish language and Swedish customs persisted, and the religion of the Swedes was tolerated. After the English conquest in 1664, especially after the annexation of the Delaware counties to Pennsylvania in 1682, Swedish influence declined. In 1731 a large part of the territory now included in the city was owned by Thomas Willing, named it Willingtown. About eight years later a borough charter granted by William Penn, this name was changed to Wilmington, in honour of Spencer Compton, Earl of Wilmington (c. 1673–1743). During the War of Independence the battle of Brandywine was fought 13 m. N.W. of Wilmington. In the first half of the 19th century Wilmington was the centre of a strong anti-slavery sentiment and was a “station” of the “Underground Railroad.” In 1809 the borough was enlarged by a new charter; in 1832 Wilmington was chartered as a city. In 1900 the city contained 41.4% of the total population of the state and, under the state constitution of 1897, it elects five of the thirty-five representatives and two of the seventeen senators in the state legislature.

See Records of Holy Trinity—(Old Swedes) Church (Wilmington, 1891); Benjamin Ferris, History of the Original Settlements on the Delaware, part ii. (Wilmington, 1846); and Elizabeth Montgomery, Reminiscences of Wilmington (Philadelphia, 1851).

WILMINGTON, a city, a port of entry and the county-seat of New Hanover county, North Carolina, U.S.A., on the Cape Fear river, about 30 m. from its mouth, 10 m. in direct line from the ocean, and about 145 m. S.S.E. of Raleigh. Pop. (1890) 26,658; (1900) 26,976, of whom 10,407 were negroes and 467
were foreign-born; (1910 census) 25,748. It is the largest city and
the chief seaport of the state. Wilmington is served by the
Atlantic Coast Line and the Seaboard Air Line railways,
and by steamboat lines to New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore
and to ports on the Cape Fear and Black rivers, and is connected
by an electric line with Wrightsville Beach, a pleasure resort
12 m. distant on the Atlantic Ocean. Below Wilmington the
channel of the Cape Fear river is 20 ft. deep throughout and in
some parts 22 and 24 ft. deep; the width of the channel is to
be made 270 ft. under Federal projects on which, up to the 30th
of June 1909, there had been expended $4,344,029. Above Wil-
mington the Cape Fear river is navigable for 115 m. to Fayetteville.
The city lies on an elevated sand ridge and extends along the river front for about 23 m. Among
its prominent buildings are the United States Government Building, the United States marine hospital, the city and county
hospital, the county court house, the city hall (which houses the
public library) and the masonic temple. The city is the seat of
Cape Fear Academy (1872) for boys, of the Academy of the
Incarnation (Roman Catholic) and of the Gregory Normal School
(for negroes). The city is the site of a Protestant Episcopalian
bishops' residence. There are deposits of Oolite (white marble),
large quantities of cotton, lumber, naval stores, rice, market-
garden produce and turpentine; in 1909 the value of its exports
was $23,319,070 and the value of its imports $1,282,724. The
total value of the factory product in 1905 was $3,155,458, of which
$893,715 was the value of lumber and timber products.
A settlement was established here in 1730 and was named
New Liverpool; about 1732 the name was changed to New
town; in 1739 the town was incorporated, was made the
county-seat and was renamed, this time in honour of Spencer
Compton, Earl of Wilmington (c. 1673-1743). In 1760 it was
incorporated as borough and in 1806 was chartered as a city.
Some of Wilmington's citizens were among the first to offer
armed resistance to the carrying out of the Stamp Act, compelling
the stamp-master to take an oath that he would distribute no
stamps. During most of 1781 the borough was occupied by the
British, and Lord Cornwallis had his headquarters here.
Although blockaded by the Union fleet, Wilmington was during
the Civil War the centre of an important intercourse between the
Confederacy and foreign countries by means of blockade
runners, and was the last important port open to the Confederates.
It was defended by Fort Fisher, a heavy earthwork on the
peninsula between the ocean and Cape Fear river, manned by
1,300 men under Colonel William Lamb. A federal expedition of
150 vessels under Admiral D. D. Porter and land forces (about
3000) under General B. F. Butler approached the fort on the
20th of December 1864; on the 24th the "Louisiana," loaded
with 215 tons of powder, was exploded 400 yds. from the fort
without doing any damage; on the 24th and 25th there was
a terrific naval bombardment, which General Butler decided had
not sufficiently injured the fort to make an assault by land
possible; on the 13th and 14th of January there was another
bombardment, and on the 15th a combined naval and land
attack, in which General A. H. Terry, who had succeeded General
Butler in command, stormed the fort with the help of the
marines and sailors, and took 2000 prisoners and 100 guns.
The Union losses were 266 killed, 57 missing and 198 wounded.
A magazine explosion on the morning of the 16th killed about
100 men in each army. The city was evacuated immediately
afterwards.

WILMOT, DAVID (1814-1868), American political leader,
was born at Bethany, Pennsylvania, on the 29th of January 1814.
He was admitted to the bar in 1834 and practised law in town. He
entered politics as a Democrat, served in the National House of
Representatives from 1845 to 1851, and although he favoured
the Walker Tariff, the Mexican War and other party measures,
opposed the extension of slavery. On the 8th of August 1856,
when a bill was introduced appropriating $2,000,000 to be used
by the government in negotiating a treaty of peace with Mexico,
Wilmot immediately offered the following amendment: "Pro-
vided, That, as an express and fundamental condition to the
acquisition of any territory from the Republic of Mexico by
the United States, by virtue of any treaty which may be negotiated
between them, and to the use of the Executive of the
moneys herein appropriated, neither slavery nor involuntary
servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory except
for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted." The
amendment, famous in American history as the "Wilmot Proviso," was adopted by the House, but was defeated, with
the original bill, by the Senate's adjournment. A similar
measure was brought forward at the next session, the appropriation,
however, being increased to $3,000,000, and the amendment
was again rejected by the Senate, which might have been adopted
by the United States; in this form it passed the House by a
vote of 115 to 105; but the Senate refused to concur, passed
a bill of its own without the amendment; and the House,
owing largely to the influence of General Lewis Cass, in March
1847, receded from its position. The amendment was never
actually adopted by Congress, and was in fact expressly repudiated
in the Compromise of 1850, and its content declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case.
Although known as the Wilmot Proviso it really originated with
the New York Congressman Joseph D. Dix. The idea of the
extension of slavery was never presented to the public by the
party standing which was more regular. The extension of the principle to territory other than that to be acquired from Mexico was probably due to Preston King (1806-
1869) of New York. Wilmot supported Van Buren in 1848 and
entered the Republican party at the time of its formation, and
was a delegate to the national conventions of 1856 and 1860.
He was president judge of the 13th Judicial District of Penn-
sylvania in 1853-1851, United States senator in 1851-1863 and
Judge of the United States Court of Claims in 1863-1868.
He died at Towanda, Pennsylvania, on the 16th of March 1868.
See G. P. Garrison, Westward Extension (New York and London,
1906).

WILSON, ALEXANDER (1766-1813), American ornithologist,
was born in Paisley, Scotland, on the 6th of July 1766. His
father, a handloom weaver, soon removed to the country, and
there combined weaving with agriculture, distilling and smuggling
—conditions which no doubt helped to develop in the boy
love of rural pursuits and adventure which was to determine
his career. At first he was placed with a tutor and destined
for the church, but afterwards he was apprenticed as a weaver.
Then he became a peddler and spent a year or two in travelling
throughout Scotland, recording in his journal every matter of
natural history or antiquarian interest. Having incurred a
short imprisonment for lampooning the master-weavers in a
trade dispute, he emigrated to America in 1794. After a few
years of weaving, peddling and desultory observation, he
became a village schoolmaster, and in 1802 obtained an appoint-
ment near Philadelphia, where he formed the acquaintance of
William Bartram the naturalist. Under his influence Wilson
began to draw birds, having conceived the idea of illustrating
the ornithology of the United States; and thenceforward he
steadily accumulated materials and made many expeditions.
In 1806 he obtained the assistant-editorship of the American
edition of Ree's Encyclopaedia, and thus acquired more means
and leisure for his great work. American Ornithology, the first
volume of which appeared in the autumn of 1817, after which
he spent the winter in a journey "in search of birds and sub-
scribers." By the spring of 1815 seven volumes had appeared;
but the arduous expedition of this ten-year search of
maritime waterfowl to which the remaining volume was to be
devoted, gave a shock to his already impaired health, and he
suffered to dysentery at Philadelphia on the 23rd of August
1813.

Of his poems, not excepting the Forestier (Philadelphia, 1805),
nothing need now be said, save that they no doubt served to develop
his inventive powers. The eighth and ninth volumes of the
American Ornithology were edited after his decease by his friend
George Ord, and the work was continued by Lucien Bonaparte
a vol., Philadelphia, 1823). The tenth volume was published several times, and his Miscellaneous Prose Works and
Poems was edited with a memoir by the Rev. A. B. Grosart (Paisley,
1876). A statue was erected to him at Paisley in 1876.
WILSON, SIR DANIEL (1816–1892), archaeologist and Canadian educational reformer, was born in Edinburgh on the 5th of January 1816, the son of Archibald Wilson, a wine-merchant, and Janet Aitken. After studying at the High School and the University of Edinburgh, he spent the next ten years in journalism and in other forms of literary work (London 1837–1842, Edinburgh 1842–1847). In 1845 he became secretary to the Scottish Society of Antiquaries, and in 1848 published Memorials of Edinburgh in the Olden Time, of which the chief value lies in the numerous illustrations, done by himself. In 1851 appeared his most important work, Prehistoric Annals of Scotland, which placed him in the front rank of archaeologists.

In 1853 he became professor of History and English Literature in the University of Toronto, where his practical ability and energy soon made him the most important member of the staff. While writing extensively on the archaeology and anthropology of Canada, and giving an impetus to the study, he produced nothing of lasting importance. His main work lay in asserting the claims of the University of Toronto, and of University College, the teaching body in connexion with it, against the sectarian universities of the province which denounced the provincial university as godless, and against the private medical schools in Toronto. Largely owing to Wilson's energy in fighting for what he called "the maintenance of a national system of university education in opposition to sectarian or denominational colleges," the provincial university gained the chief position in the intellectual life of Ontario. Two of the sectarian universities, the Methodists and the Anglican, have now been united to the province university, but the Presbyterian (see KINGSTON) still retain a vigorous existence. He was equally successful in his struggle against the rival medical schools in Toronto, the chief of which is now incorporated with Toronto university. In his efforts to escape the control of local politicians he was less successful, and in some cases appointments to the provincial university were made for political rather than for academic reasons. Though seeing that in a young and democratic country the Scotch-American model must be followed rather than the English, and though resisting attempts to follow the practice of Oxford or Cambridge, Wilson was a believer in the merits of a modified form of the residential system.

He was one of the first in Canada to cast aside the classical tradition, and as early as 1836 had the courage to say: "It is just because . . . German and French are now the keys of so much modern philosophy and science that all wise University reformers are learning to give to modern languages the place they justly claim in a liberal education." In 1881 he was made president of Toronto university; and in 1885 president of the literature section of the Canadian Royal Society; in 1888 he was knighted, and in 1891 given the title of Baron of Toronto, of the city of Edinburgh. He died at Toronto on the 6th of August 1892.


WILSON, HENRY (1821–1879), vice-president of the United States from 1873 to 1875, was born at Farmington, New Hampshire, on the 16th of February 1821. His name originally was Jeremiah J. Colbath. His father was a day-labourer and very poor. At ten years of age the son went to work as a farm-labourer. He was fond of reading, and during his apprenticeship had read more than a thousand volumes. At the age of twenty-one, for some unstatable reason, he had his name changed by Act of the Legislature to that of Henry Wilson. At Natick, Massachusetts, whither he travelled on foot, he learned the trade of shoemaker, and during his leisure hours studied much and read with avidity. For short periods, also, he studied in the academies of Strafford, N.H., Wolfeborough, N.H., and Concord, N.H. After successfully establishing himself as a shoe manufacturer, he attracted attention as a public speaker in support of William Henry Harrison in the presidential campaign of 1840. He was in the state House of Representatives in 1841-42, 1846 and 1850, and in the Senate in 1844-45 and 1851-52. In 1848 he left the Whig party and became one of the chief leaders of the Free Soil party, serving as presiding officer of that party's national convention in 1852, acting as chairman of the Free Soil national committee and editing from 1858 to 1851 the Boston Republican, which he made the chief Free Soil organ. The Free Soil party nominated him for governor of the state in 1853, but he was defeated. For a short time (1858) he identified himself with the American or Know Nothing party, and afterwards acted with the Republican party.

In 1857 he was elected to the United States Senate and remained there by re-elections until 1873. His uncompromising opposition to the institution of slavery furnished the keynote of his earlier senatorial career, and he soon took rank as one of the ablest and most effective anti-slavery orators in the United States.

He had been deeply interested from 1840 until 1850 in the militia of his state, and had risen through its grades of service to that of brigadier-general. Upon the outbreak of the Civil War he was made chairman of the military committee of the Senate, and in this position performed most laborious and important work for the four years of the war. The Republicans nominated Wilson for the vice-presidency in 1872, and he was elected; but he died on the 22nd of November 1875 before completing his term of office.

He published, besides many orations, a History of the Anti-Slavery Measures of the Thirty-Seventh and Thirty-Eighth United States Congresses (1865); Military Measures of the United States Congresses of 1859 and 1860, containing History of the Thirty-Fifth and Forty-Third Congresses (1868) and a History of the Rise and Fall of the State Power in America (3 vols., 1872-1873), his most important works.

The best biography is that by Elias Nason and Thomas Russell, The Life and Public Services of Henry Wilson (Boston, 1876).

WILSON, HORACE HAYMAN (1786–1860), English orientalist, was born in London on the 26th of September 1786. He studied medicine at St. Thomas's Hospital, and went out to India in 1808 as assistant-surgeon on the Bengal establishment of the East India Company. His knowledge of metallurgy caused him to be attached to the mint at Calcutta, where he was for a time associated with John Leyden. He became deeply interested in the ancient language and literature of India, and by the recommendation of Henry T. Colebrooke, he was in 1811 appointed secretary to the Asiatic Society of Bengal. In 1813 he published the Sanskrit text— with a graceful, if somewhat free, translation in English rhymed verse—of Kâlidâsa's charming lyrical poem, the Megkodâta, or Cloud-Messenger. He prepared the first Sanskrit-English Dictionary (1819) from materials compiled by native scholars, supplemented by his own researches. This work was only superseded by the Sanskritwörterbuch (1853-1876) of R. von Roth and Otto Böhtlingk, who expressed their obligations to Wilson in the preface to their great work. Wilson published six Select Sketches of the Theatre of India (1816), which contained a very full survey of the Indian drama, translations of six complete plays and short accounts of twenty-three others. His Macensske Collection (1828) is a descriptive catalogue of the extensive collection of Oriental, especially South Indian, MSS. and antiquities made by Colonel Colin Mackenzie, now deposited partly in the India Office, London, and partly at Madras. He also wrote a Historical Sketch of the First Burmese War, with Documents, Political and Geographical (1827), a Review of the External Commerce of Bengal from 1813 to 1828 (1830) and a History of British India from 1805 to 1835, in which his name, under that of Mill's History (1844-1848). He acted for many years as secretary to the committee of public instruction, and superintended the studies of the Sanskrit College in Calcutta. He was one of the staunchest opponents of the proposal that English should be made the sole medium of instruction in native schools, and became for a time the object of bitter attacks. In 1832 the university of Oxford selected Dr Wilson to be the first occupant of the newly founded Boden chair of Sanskrit, and in 1836 he was appointed librarian to the East India Company. He was an original member of the Royal Asiatic Society, of which he was director from 1837 up to the time of his death, which took place in London on the 8th of May 1860.
A full list of Wilson's works may be found in an Annual Report of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1860. A considerable number of Sanskrit MSS. (540 vols.) collected by Wilson in India are now in the Bodleian Library.

WILSON, JAMES (1742-1798), American statesman and jurist, was born in or near St Andrews, Scotland, on the 14th of September 1742. He matriculated at the University of St Andrews in 1753 and was subsequently a student at the universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh. In 1765 he emigrated to America. Landing at New York in June, he went to Philadelphia in the following year and in 1766-1767 was instructor in Latin in the college of Philadelphia, later the university of Pennsylvania. Meanwhile he studied law in the office of John Dickinson and was admitted to the bar in 1767, removed first to Reading and soon afterward to Carlisle, and rapidly rose to prominence. In August 1774 he published a pamphlet Considerations on the Nature and Extent of the Legislative Authority of the British Parliament, in which he argued that parliament had no constitutional power to legislate for the colonies; this pamphlet strongly influenced members of the Continental Congress which met in September. Wilson was a delegate to the Pennsylvania provincial convention in January 1775, and he sustained there the right of Massachusetts to resist the change in its charter, declaring that as the force of goven tm ent was exercising to compel obedience was "force unwaranted by any act of parliament, unsupported by any principle of the common law, unauthorized by any commission from the crown," resistance was justified "both the letter and the spirit of the British constitution"; he also, by his speech, led the colonies in shifting the burden of responsibility from parliament to the king's ministers to the king himself. In May 1775 Wilson became a member of the Continental Congress. When a declaration of independence was first proposed in that body he expressed the belief that a majority of the people of Pennsylvania were in favor of it, but as the instructions of the delegates from Pennsylvania and some of the other colonies opposed such a declaration, he urged postponement of action for the purpose of giving the constituents in those colonies an opportunity of removing such instructions. When independence was finally declared the unanimity of all the colonies except New York had been obtained. Receiving a commission as colonel in May 1775, Wilson raised a battalion of troops in his county of Cumberland, and for a short time in 1776 he took part in the New Jersey campaign, but his principal labors in 1776 and 1777 were in Congress. In 1776 he was appointed a member of a committee to prepare an address to the colonies, and the address was written by him; he served on a similar committee in May 1777, and wrote the address To the Inhabitants of the United States, urging their firm support of the cause of Independence; he drafted the plan of treaty with France together with instructions for negotiating it; he was a member of the Board of War from its establishment in June 1776 until his retirement from Congress in September 1777; from January to September 1777 he was chairman of the Committee on Appeals, to hear and determine appeals for the cause of adversity in the several states, and he was a member of many other important committees. In September 1777 the political faction in his state which had opposed Independence again came into power, and Wilson was kept out of Congress until the close of the war; he was back again, however, in 1781, and 1785-1786, and, advocating a sound currency, laboured in co-operation with Robert Morris to direct the financial policy of the Confederation.

Soon after leaving Congress in 1777 Wilson removed to Annapolis, Maryland, to practice law; he returned to Philadelphia the following year. In 1779 he was commissioned Advocate-General for France, and in this capacity he represented Louis XVI. in all claims arising out of the French alliance until the close of the war. In 1781-1782 he was the principal counselor for Pennsylvania in the Wyoming Valley dispute with Connecticut, which was decided in favor of Pennsylvania in December 1782 by an arbitration court appointed by Congress. Wilson was closely associated with Robert Morris in organizing the Bank of North America, and in the Act of Congress incorporating it (December 31, 1781) he was made one of the directors. In 1790 the legislature of Pennsylvania granted him his son's, this bank, but three years later it passed an act to repeal it. Wilson responded with a famous constitutional argument in which he sustained the constitutionality of the bank on the basis of the implied powers of Congress.

As a constructive statesman Wilson had no superior in the Federal Convention of 1787. He favoured the independence of the executive, legislative and judicial departments, the supremacy of the Federal government over the state governments, and the election of senators as well as representatives by the people, and he opposed the election of the President or the judges by Congress. His political philosophy was based upon implicit confidence in the people, and he strove for such provisions as he thought would best guarantee a government by the people. When the constitution had been framed Wilson pronounced it "the best form of government which has ever been offered to the world," and he, at least, among the framers regarded it not as a compact but as an ordinance to be established by the people. During the struggle for ratification he made a speech before a mass meeting in Philadelphia which has been characterized as "one of the best speeches of the whole subject." In the Pennsylvania ratification convention (November 10 to December 15, 1787) he was the constitution's principal defender. Having been appointed professor of law in the university of Pennsylvania in 1790, he delivered at that institution in 1790-1791 a course of lectures on public and private law; some of these lectures, together with his speeches in the Federal convention, before the mass meeting in Philadelphia, and in the Pennsylvania ratification convention, are among the most valuable commentaries on the constitution.

Wilson was a delegate to the state constitutional convention of 1789-1790, and a member of the committee which drafted the new constitution. In 1798 Washington appointed him an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, and in 1793 he wrote the important decision in the case of Chisolm v. Georgia, the purport of which was that the people of the United States constituted a sovereign nation and that the United States were not a mere confederacy of sovereign states. He continued to serve as associate justice until his death, near Edenton, North Carolina, on the 28th of August 1798.


WILSON, JAMES (1815-1908), American administrator, was born in Ayrshire, Scotland, on the 16th of August 1835. In 1851 he was taken by his parents to America, where they originally settled in Connecticut, but in 1855 removed to Tama county Iowa. He studied at Iowa College, and in 1861 became a farmer. He was a Republican member of the state House of Representatives in 1868-1873, and was its speaker in 1872-1873, and he was a member of the National House of Representatives from 1873 to 1877 and again in 1883-1885. From 1870 to 1874 he was a regent of the State University of Iowa; in 1877-1881 he was a member of the Iowa State Railway Commission, and from 1890 to 1897 was professor of agriculture at the Iowa Agricultural College, at Ames, and director of the State Agricultural Experimental Station. In March 1897 he became Secretary of Agriculture in President McKinley's Cabinet and served into President Taft's administration, holding office longer than any other cabinet officer since the organization of the government.
Wilson, John (1627-1696). English playwright, son of Aaron Wilson, a royalist divine, was born in London in 1627. He matriculated from Exeter College, Oxford, in 1644, and entered Lincoln's Inn two years later, being called to the bar in 1649. His unsparing support of the royal pretensions recommended him to James, duke of York, through whose influence he became Recorder of Londonerry about 1681.

*His Discourse of Monarchy* (1684), a tract in favour of the succession of the duke of York, was followed (1689) by a "Pindarique" on his coronation. In 1688 he wrote *Julius Caesar*, a learned defence of James's action in dispensing with the oath of succession. He died in obscurity; due perhaps to his political opinions, in 1696. Wilson was the author of four plays, showing a vigorous and learned wit, and a power of character-drawing that places him rather among the followers of Ben Jonson than with the Restoration dramatists.

*The Chess* (written in 1662, printed 1664, 1671, &c.) was played with great success in 1663. John Lacy found one of his best parts in Scruple, a caricature of a Presbyterian minister of accommodating morality. *Andronicus Comnenus* (1664), a blank verse tragedy, is based on the story of Andronicus Comnenus as told by Peter Heylin in his *Cosmography*. It contains a scene on the Scotch border where the Duke of Aleskia, which follows very closely Shakespeare's treatment of a parallel situation in *Richard III*. *The Projectors* (1665), a popular comedy of London life, is, like Molière's *Lesavelengths* and *Les Avarees*, an attack on society, but there is no evidence that Wilson was acquainted with the French play. *Belphegor*, or the *Marriage of the Devil; A Tragi-comedy* (1669), treats of a theme familiar to Elizabethan drama, but Wilson took the subject from the Bible. *Euphues* and *The Plaister of Paris* (1670) are also by him. He also translated into English Erasmus's *Encomium Moriae* (1668).


Wilson, John (1758-1854). Scottish writer, the Christopher North of Blackwood's Magazine, was born at Paisley on the 8th of May 1758, the son of a wealthy gauze manufacturer who died when John was eleven years old. He was the fourth child, but the eldest son, and he had nine brothers and sisters.1 He was only twelve when he was first entered at the university of Glasgow, and he continued to attend various classes in that university for six years, being for the most part under the tutorage of Professor George Jardine, with whose family he lived. In these six years Wilson "made himself" in all ways, acquiring not inconsiderable scholarship, perfecting himself in all sports and exercises, and falling in love with a certain "Margaret," who was the object of his affections for several years.

In 1803 Wilson was entered as a gentleman commoner at Magdalen College, Oxford. Few men have felt more than he the charm of Oxford, and in much of his later work, notably in the essay called "Old North and Young North," he has expressed his feeling. But it does not appear that his Magdalen days were altogether happy, though he perfected himself in "brushing," pedestrianism and other sports, and read so as to obtain a brilliant first class. His love affairs did not go happily, and he seems to have made no intimate friends at his own college and few in the university. He took his degree in 1807, and found himself at twenty-two his own master, with a good income, no father or guardian to control him, and apparently not under any of the influences which in similar circumstances generally make it necessary for a young man to adopt some profession, if only in name. His profession was an estate on Windermere career, which he did not take; with his colleagues, he built, boated, wrestled, shot, fished, walked and otherwise diverted himself for four years, besides composing or collecting from previous compositions a considerable volume of poems, published in 1812 as the *Isle of Palms*. Here he became intimate with Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey and De Quincey.

1 His youngest brother was James Wilson "of Woodville" (1795-1896), the zoologist. He purchased, on behalf of Edinburgh University, in Paris, the Dufresne collection of birds, and arranged them in the University Museum. He contributed to *Blackwood's Magazine* and to the *North British Quarterly Review*, and wrote many of the articles on natural history in the seventh edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*.

He married in 1811 Jane Penn, a Liverpool lady of good family, and four years of happy married life at Elleray succeeded; then came the event which made a working man of letters of Wilson, and without which he would probably have produced a few volumes of verse and nothing more. The major part of his fortune was lost by the dishonest speculation of an uncle, in whose hands Wilson had carelessly left it. But this hard fate was by no means unqualified. His mother had a house in Edinburgh, in which she was able and willing to receive her son and his family; nor had he even to give up Elleray, though the house was, as he was not able constantly to reside in it. He read law and was called to the Scottish bar, in 1815, still taking many a sporting and pedestrian excursion, and publishing in 1816 a second volume of poems, *The City of the Plague*. In 1817, soon after the founding of *Blackwood's Magazine*, Wilson began his connexion with that great Tory monthly by joining with J. G. Lockhart in the November number, in a satire called the *Chaldee Manuscript*, in the form of a biblical parody, on the rival *Edinburgh Review*, its publisher and his contributors. From this time he was the principal writer for *Blackwood's*, though without official editor, the publisher retaining a certain supervision even over Lockhart's and "Christopher North's" contributions, which were the making of the magazine. In 1822 began the series of *Nectes Ambrosianae*, after 1825 mostly Wilson's work. These are discussions in the form of convivial table-talk, giving occasion to wonderfully various digressions of criticism, description and miscellaneous writing. From their origin it necessarily followed that there was much ephemeral, a certain amount purely local, and something wholly trivial in them. But their dramatic force, their incessant flashes of happy thought and happy expression, their almost incomparable fulness of life, and their magnificent humour give them all but the highest place among genial and reproductive literature. "The Ettrick Shepherd," an idealized portrait of James Hogg, one of the talkers, is a most delightful creation. Before this, Wilson had contributed to *Blackwood's* prose tales and sketches, and novels, some of which were afterwards published separately in *Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life* (1822), *The Trials of Margaret Lyndsay* (1823) and *The Foresters* (1825); later appeared essays on Spenser, Homer and all sorts of modern subjects and authors.

The best result of his new occupation on Wilson's general mode of life was that he left his mother's house and established himself (1830) in Ann Street, Edinburgh, with his wife and family of four children. The second was much more looked for, his election to the chair of moral philosophy in the university of Edinburgh (1820). His qualifications for the post were by no means obvious, even if the fact that the best qualified man in Great Britain, Sir William Hamilton, was also a candidate, be left out of the question. But the matter was made a political one; the Tories still had a majority in the town council; Wilson was powerfully backed by friends, Sir Walter Scott at their head; and his adversaries played into his hands by attacking his moral character, which was not open to any fair reproach. Wilson made a very excellent professor, never perhaps attaining to any great scientific knowledge in his subject or power of expounding it, but acting on generation after generation of students with a stimulating force that is far more valuable than the most exhaustive knowledge of a particular topic. His duties left him plenty of time for magazine work, and for many years his contributions to *Blackwood's* were extraordinarily numerous, in one year (1834) amounting to over fifty separate articles. Most of the best and best known of them appeared between 1825 and 1835.

The domestic events of Wilson's life in the last thirty years of it may be briefly told. He oscillated between Edinburgh and Elleray, with excursions and summer residences elsewhere, a sea trip on board the Experimental Squadron in the Channel during the summer of 1832, and a few other unimportant diversions. The death of his wife in 1837 was an exceedingly severe blow to him, especially as it followed within three years that of his friend Blackwood. For many years after, his literary work...
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was intermittent, and, with some exceptions, not up to the level of his earlier years. Late in 1850 his health showed definite signs of breaking up; and in the next year he resigned his professorship, and a Civil List pension of £30 a year was conferred on him. He died at Edinburgh on the 3rd of April 1854.

Only a very small part of Wilson's extensive work was published in a collected and generally accessible form during his lifetime, the chief and almost sole exceptions being the two volumes of poems referred to above. The best collection is Life and Creations of Christopher North (1842), a selection from his magazine articles. These volumes, with a selected edition of the Notes and Anti-Notes, are now in various hands, but not so imaginatively, also in four volumes, were collected and issued uniformly after his death by his son-in-law, Professor J. F. Ferrier. The collection is very far from exhaustive; and, though it undoubtedly contains most of his best work and comparatively little that is not good, it has been complained with some justice, that the characteristic, if rather immature, productions of his first eight years on Blackwood are almost entirely omitted, that the Notes are given but in part, if in their best part, and that at least three long, important and interesting series of papers, less desultory than his wont, on "Spenser," on "British Critics" and the set called "Diderot's Letters," have been left out altogether. These omissions, however, uniform enough, and the standard edition exhibits them sufficiently, if not exhaustively. His poems may be dismissed at once as little more than interesting. They would probably have been written and not highly esteemed by any man in the time of the full flood of the Lake school influence. His prose tales have in some estimates stood higher, but will hardly survive the tests of universal criticism. It is as an essayist and critic of the most astounding genius, if not of great, of acute, of extraordinary eloquence and of a fervid and manifold sympathy, in which he has hardly an equal, that Christopher North will live. His defects lay in the directions of measure and of taste properly so called, that is to say, of the modification of capricious likes and dislikes by reason and principle. He is constantlyaggerated, boisterous, wanting in refinement. But these are the almost necessary defects of his natural genius, egotism, eloquence, genuine feeling. The well-known adaptation of phrase in which he did not recant but made up for numerous earlier attacks on Leigh Hunt, the Annalistics are mortal, but the Humanities live for ever; and however as a critic he may have been but not without a little characteristic touch of grandiosity and emphasis. As a literary critic, as a sportsman, as a lover of nature and as a convivial humorist, he is not to be shown at equal advantage in miniature; but almost any volume of his miscellaneous works will exhibit him at full length in one of these capacities, if not in all.

See Christopher North, by Mrs Mary Gordon, his daughter (1862); and Notes and Anti-Notes, ed. by A. D. William Blackwood and his Sons (1897).

Jackson, W. Wilson (1837–1905), American cavalry soldier, was born at Shawneetown, Illinois, in 1837 and entered West Point military academy in 1855, graduating in 1860. He was appointed to the engineer branch of the United States army, served in the Port Royal and Fort Pulaski operations, being brevetted major for his gallant conduct at Pulaski, was on McLellan's staff at Antietam as a lieutenant-colonel in 1862, and as a topographical engineer on the headquarters staff of the Army of the Tennessee during the Vicksburg and Chattanooga campaigns. His services in the naval operations before Vicksburg were rewarded by promotion to brigadier-general U.S.V. In 1864 he was appointed to command a division in Sheridan's cavalry corps, and played a distinguishing part in the cavalry operations of the 4th to 6th of May during the battle of the Wilderness (for which he was brevetted colonel U.S.A.), the so-called Richmond Raid, the operations on the Totopotomoy, &c. Later in 1864 he commanded the cavalry of Thomas's army in Tennessee. During the closing operations of the war he led a cavalry expedition on a grand scale through the South-West to New Orleans, styling Selma, Montgomery, and Macon, and capturing at different times more than 7000 prisoners, including President Davis. He was promoted major-general of volunteers and brevetted major-general U.S.A. shortly before the end of the war. Returning to duty in the regular army as a lieutenant-colonel of infantry for some years, he resigned in 1870 and engaged in engineering and railway construction. In 1895, during the Spanish-American War, he was appointed a major-general in the new volunteer army, and took part in the operations in Porto Rico. He served in the China expedition of 1900 as a brigadier-general and in 1901 was placed on the retired list as a brigadier-general U.S.A.

Wilson, Richard (1714–1782), English landscape painter, was born at Penegoes, Montgomeryshire, where his father was a clergyman, on the 1st of August 1714. His early taste for art was observed by a relative of his mother, Sir George Wyne, who in 1729 sent him to London to study under Thomas Wright, a little-known portrait painter of the time, by whom he was instructed for six years. He then started on his own account, and was soon in a good practice. Among his commissions was a full-length of the prince of Wales as a youth, painted for his father, the bishop of Norwich. Examples of his portrait may be studied in Greenwich Hospital, in the Garrick Club, and in various private collections. In 1740 Wilson visited Italy, where he spent six years. He had previously executed some landscapes, but it was now that the advice of Zucarrelli and Joseph Vernet decided him to adopt this department of art exclusively. He studied Claude and Poussin, but retained his own individuality, and produced some admirable views of Rome and the Campagna. In 1755 he returned to England, and became one of the first of English landscape painters. "Niebuhr" one of his powerful works, was exhibited at the exhibition of Artists in 1760. On the establishment of the Royal Academy in 1768 he was appointed one of the original members, and he was a regular contributor to its exhibitions till 1780. He frequently executed replicas of his more important subjects, repeating some of them several times; in the figures which he introduced in his landscapes he was occasionally assisted by Mortimer and Hayman. During his lifetime his landscapes were never widely popular; his temper was consequently embittered by neglect, and so impoverished was he that he was obliged to decline himself in an obscure, half-furnished room in Tottenham Court Road, London. In 1776, however, he obtained the post of librarian to the Academy; and by the death of a brother he acquired a small property near Llanfarris, Denbighshire, to which he retired to spend his last days, and where he died suddenly in May 1782. After his death his fame increased, and in 1814 about seventy of his works were exhibited in the British Institution. The National Gallery, London, contains nine of his landscapes.

The works of Wilson are skilful and learned compositions rather than direct transcripts from nature. His landscapes are beautiful, but great breaches in the composition were occasioned which occasionally led to a disregard of detail. They are full of classical feeling and poetic sentiment; they possess noble qualities of colour, and of delicate silver tone; and their handling is vigorous and easy, the work of a painter who was thoroughly master of his materials.


Wilson, Robert (d. 1660), English actor and playwright, was a comedian in the earl of Leicester's company, beginning with its establishment in 1574, and from 1583 to 1588 in the Queen's and afterwards in Lord Strange's company. He wrote several morality plays. In his Three Ladies of London (1584) he has the episode of the attempt of the Jew to recover his debt, afterwards adapted by Shakespeare in The Merchant of Venice. Another Robert Wilson (1570–1610), probably his son, was one of Henslowe's dramatic back-writers. Wilson, Sir Robert Thomas (1777–1849), British general, was the son of the painter Benjamin Wilson (1721–1878), and obtained a commission in the 13th light dragoons in 1794, taking part in the famous charge at Villers-en-Cauchies. He was one of eight officers who received the emperor's commemoration medal (of which only nine were struck), the order of Maria Theresa and the dignity of Freiherr of the Empire. In the campaigns of Tourcoing and Tourney and in the retreat through Holland, Wilson repeatedly distinguished himself. In 1796 he became captain by purchase, in 1798 he served as a
brigade-major during the suppression of the Irish Rebellion, and in 1799 was with the 11th in the Heldef expedition. Having in 1800 purchased a majority in a regiment serving in the Mediterranean he was sent on a military expedition to Vienna in that year, but returned to take part in the battle of Alexandria. In 1802 he published an account of the expedition to Egypt, which was shortly afterwards translated into French, and created a considerable impression by its strictures upon French officers' baton-patry. Wilson shortly afterwards produced a translation of General Regnier's work on the same campaign, with comments. Shortly afterwards Wilson published a work on the defects of the British army system which is remembered as the first protest against flogging. In 1804 he bought the colonelcy of the 19th light dragoons, in 1805 exchanged into the 20th, and in 1806 served with the 20th in the Cape of Good Hope expedition. In 1807 he was employed as military attaché to a mission to the king of Prussia, and so was present at Eylau, Heilsberg and Friedland, of which battles he published an account in 1810. Returning to England with despatches from St Petersburg he reached London before the Russian declaration of war and so gave the admiralty twenty-four hours' start in the operation at sea. In the early part of the Peninsular War Wilson raised and commanded the Lusitanian Legion, an irregular Portuguese corps which did good service in 1808 and 1809 and formed the starting-point of the new Portuguese army organized by Beresford in 1810. His services were rewarded by knighthood, a colonelcy in the British army and the Portuguese order of the Tower and Sword. In 1811, with the rank of brigadier-general, he went to Turkey, and in 1812 he travelled thence to Russia, where he was attached to Kutuzov's headquarters during the pursuit of the retreating French, being present at Malo-Jaroslavietz, Vyazma and Krasnoye. His account of the campaign, published in 1816, is one of the most valuable works on these events. He continued to serve with the Russian army during 1813 and distinguished himself at Lützen and Bautzen, the emperor Alexander decorating him with the knighthood of the St George order on the battlefield. He was promoted major-general in the British army about the same time. He was at Dresden, Kulm and Leipâig, and distinguished himself at the last great battle so much that Schwarzenberg writing to the British ambassador at Vienna attributed to Wilson's skill a large part in the successful issue of the battle. But his services in the councils of the Allies were still more important on account of the confidence reposed in him personally by the allied sovereigns. But Castlereagh, treating Wilson as a political opponent, removed him to the minor theatre of Italy, in spite of the protests of the British ambassador. With the Austrian Army of Italy he served through the campaign of 1814. In 1816 after Waterloo he contrived the escape of many of Bonaparte's supporters, including himself, from the Restoration government, and was imprisoned for three months with his comrade in this adventure, Captain Hely-Hutchinson (3rd earl of Donoughmore), and censured by the commander-in-chief in a general order. In 1817 he published The Military and Political Power of Russia, in 1818 he became member of parliament for Southwark and in 1821 he interposed between the mob and the troops on the occasion of Queen Caroline's funeral, for which his political opponents secured his dismissal from the army, without compensation for the price of his commissions. He took an active part in politics on the opposition side, and also spent some time in Spain during the wars of 1822–23. On the accession of William IV., his political services in the formation of the Canning ministry of 1827 were rewarded by reinstallation in the army with the rank of lieutenant-general. But, disapproving of the Reform bill, he resigned his place in the Commons. He was promoted general in 1841 and appointed governor of Gibraltar in 1842. He died in London on the 9th of May 1849.

Besides the works mentioned above, Wilson left a diary of his travels and experiences in 1812–1814, published in 1861, and an incomplete autobiography, published two years later.

WILSON, THOMAS (c. 1525-1581), English statesman and critic, the son of Thomas Wilson of Strubby, in Lincolnshire, was born about 1525. He was educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, where he joined the school of Hellenists to which Cheke, Thomas Smith, Walter Haddon and others belonged. He graduated B.A. in 1546 and M.A. in 1549. In 1551 he produced, in conjunction with Walter Haddon, a Latin life of Henry and Charles Brandon, dukes of Suffolk. His earliest work of importance was The Rule of Reason, containing the Arte of Logique set forth in Englishis (1552), which was frequently reprinted. It has been maintained that the book on which Wilson's fame mainly rests, The Arte of Rhetorique, was printed about the same time, but this is probably an error: the first edition extant is dated January 1553. It is the earliest systematic work of literary criticism existing in the English language. Wilson threw in his lot with the Dudley family, and when they fell, he fled to the Continent. He was with Sir John Cheke in Padua in 1555–1557, and afterwards at Rome, whither in 1558 Queen Mary wrote, ordering him to return to England to stand his trial as a heretic. He refused to come, but was arrested by the Roman Inquisition and tortured. He escaped, and fled to Ferrara, but in 1560 he was once more in London. Wilson became Master of St Katherine's Hospital in the Tower, and entered parliament in January 1563. In 1570 he published a translation, the first attempted in English, of the Olymphiacs and Philippics of Demosthenes, on which he had been engaged since 1556. His Discourse upon Usury appeared in 1572. From 1574 to 1577, Wilson, who had now become a prominent person in the diplomatic world, was principally engaged on embassies to the Low Countries, and on his return to England he was made a privy counselor and sworn secretary of state; Wakley was his colleague. In 1588, although he was not in holy orders, Queen Elizabeth made Wilson dean of Durham. He died at St Katherine's Hospital on the 16th of June 1581, and was buried next day, "without charge or pomp," at his express wish. The Arte of Rhetorique gives Wilson a high place among the earliest artificers of English style; and it is interesting to see that he was opposed to pedantry of phrase, and above all to a revival of uncouth medieval forms of speech, and encouraged a simpler manner of prose writing than was generally appreciated in the middle of the 16th century.

WILSON, THOMAS (1663-1755), English bishop, was born at Burton, Cheshire, and educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He was ordained in 1686, and became curate at Newchurch Kenyon, Lancashire. In 1692 he was appointed chaplain to the 9th earl of Derby, who in 1697 offered him the bishopric of Sodor and Man. He was consecrated bishop in 1698. His episcopate was marked by a number of reforms in the Isle of Man. New churches were built, libraries founded and books were printed in Manx, his Principles and Duties of Christianity (1717) being the first book published in the language. He also encouraged farming, and set the example of planting fruit and forest trees. In order to restore discipline in the island he drew up in 1704 his well-known Ecclesiastical Constitutions. The judgments of his courts often brought him into conflict with the governors of the island, and in 1722 he was even imprisoned for a time in Castle Rushen. In 1737, however, the jurisdiction of the civil and spiritual courts was better defined by new statutes, the lordship of the island having passed in 1736 to James Murray, 2nd duke of Atholl, with whom Wilson had no personal difficulties. In 1749 on Zinzendorf's invitation he accepted the title of Antistes—a synonym for bishop—in the Moravian Church.

A life of Wilson, by John Keble, was published with his Works (Oxford, 1847-1863). The Sodor and Man Theological School in the Isle of Man is called in his memory the Bishop Wilson School.

WILSON, SIR WILLIAM JAMES ERASMUS, generally known as Sir Erasmus Wilson (1809-1884), British surgeon and philanthropist, was born in London on the 25th of November 1809, studied at St Bartholomew's Hospital in London, and at Aberdeen, and early in life became known as a skilful operator and dissector. It was under a sympathy with the poor of London and a suggestion from Thomas Wakley of the Lancet, of which Wilson acted for a time as sub-editor, which first led him to take
up skin diseases as a special study. The horrible cases of scrofula, anaemia and blood-poisoning which he saw made him set to work to alleviate the sufferings of persons so afflicted, and he quickly established a reputation for treating this class of patient. It was said that he cured the rich by ordering them to give up luxuries; the poor, by prescribing for them proper nourishment, and often at his expense.

In the opinion of one of his biographers, we owe to Wilson in great measure the habit of the daily bath, and he helped very much to bring the Turkish bath into use in Great Britain. He wrote much upon the diseases which specially occupied his attention, and his books, *A Healthy Skin and Student's Book of Diseases of the Skin*, though they were not received without criticism at the time of their appearance, long remained textbooks of their subject. He visited the East in order to study leprosy, Switzerland that he might investigate the causes of goitre, and Italy with the purpose of adding to his knowledge of the skin diseases affecting an ill-nourished peasantry. He made a large fortune by his successful practice and by skilful investments, and, since he had no family, he devoted a great deal of his money to charitable and educational purposes. He founded in 1869 the chair and museum of dermatology in the Royal College of Surgeons, of which he was chosen president in 1881, and which just before his death awarded him its honorary gold medal, founded in 1880 and only six times previously awarded. He also founded a professorship of pathology at Aberdeen University. After the death of his wife he sold his property, and in 1884 became president of the Royal College of Surgeons. In 1878 he earned the thanks of the nation, upon different grounds, by defraying the expense of bringing the Egyptian obelisk called Cleopatra's Needle from Alexandria to London, where it was erected on the Thames Embankment. The British government had not thought it worth the expense of transportation. He was knighted by Queen Victoria in 1881, and died at Westgate-on-Sea on the 7th of August 1884.

**WILSON, WOODROW** (1856— ), American educationist, was born in Staunton, Virginia, on the 26th of December 1856. He graduated at Princeton University at 1872, and was given his law degree by the University of Virginia in 1879–1880, practised law in Atlanta in 1882–1883, and received the degree of Ph.D. at Johns Hopkins University in 1886, his thesis being on *Congressional Government* (1885; and often reprinted). He was associate professor of history and political economy at Bryn Mawr in 1885–1888 and at Wesleyan University in 1888–1890; professor of jurisprudence and political economy at Princeton in 1890–1895; of jurisprudence in 1895–1897, and subsequently of jurisprudence and politics; and in 1902 he became president of Princeton University, a post which he held until his death on the 1st of November 1910, and was elected Democratic governor of New Jersey. His administration of the University was marked by the introduction of the "preceptorial" system, by the provision of dormitories and college eating-halls for members of the lower classes, and by the development of the graduate school.

He wrote: *The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics, Sketch of Institutional History and Administration* (1880); *The State and Federal Government of the United States* (1891); *Division and Reunion, 1829–1889* (1893) in the "Epochs of American History" series; *An Old Master and Other Political Essays* (1893); *More Literature and Other Essays* (1893); *George Washington* (1896), an excellent biography; the popular *History of the American People* (1902); *Constitutional Government in the United States* (1908), being Columbia University Lectures; and in the seventh volume of the *Cambridge Modern History* the chapter on "State Rights, 1850–1860".

**WILTON**, a market town and municipal borough in the Wilton parliamentary division of Wiltshire, England, 86 m. W. by S. of London, on the London & South-Western and Great Western railways. Pop. (1901) 2293. It lies among the pastures beside the rivers Nadder and Wyley. The church of St Mary and St Nicholas was built in 1684 by Lord Herbert of Lea, in a Romanesque style, richly adorned with medieval windows. The central entrance is upheld by twisted columns based upon stone lions. The belfry is detached. Wilton House, a little to the south, was founded by William Herbert, first earl of Pembroke by the second creation, on the estates of the dissolved convent, which were granted him by Henry VIII.

Tradition says that Shakespeare and his company played here before James I. in 1603, and it was the residence of Philip Sidney, the poet and soldier, of the artists Holbein and Vandyck, of the dramatists Jonson and Massinger, whose father was steward here, and of Inigo Jones the architect. The first folio edition of Shakespeare was dedicated to it. Seven years after the poet's death, to the third earl and his brother. In style Wilton House is Italian of the 16th century, with a porch added by Holbein. The garden front was rebuilt and other changes made by the advice of Charles l., and a frequent visitor; and many subsequent alterations were made. The art collections include the marbles gathered together by the eighth earl.

Carpet-making forms the main industry of Wilton; the most famous fabrics being those known as Wilton carpets; Saxon carpets made of short-staple wool; and the rich and durable Axminsters, long woven by hand at Axminster in Devonshire. It is also an important Centre for the sale of sheep. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 1915 acres.

A chantry was founded here about A.D. 800, afterwards changed into a priory of Benedictine sisters, and refounded by Alfred. In 968 Wulftrude, a mistress of King Edgar, became abbess; and the same office was declined by her daughter Edith, who died at twenty-three. Miracles, it was said, were worked by Edith's remains, and she became patron saint of the convent, which afterwards gave shelter to many noble ladies and survived until the Dissolution; its abbess was a baronetess of England. Antiquarians have seen in Wilton the core of a British kingdom. It was certainly the chief town of the Wilsaetas, or men of Wils, whom Cynric the Saxon leader crushed in 536. It afterwards became a residence of the Wessex kings; and here, in 871, Alfred was severely defeated by the Danes. Wilton was burned in 1063 by Sweyn, the Danish king. After the Conquest it ranked among the richest of royal boroughs. In 1141 Queen Matilda celebrated Easter here with great pomp, and two years later Stephen, who came to found a castle, was driven off by her adherents. The prosperity of Wilton began to fall when Icknield Street, the great highway of commerce, was diverted to pass through Salisbury in 1224; and its decline was hastened by the plague, by which a third of the townsfolk were swept away in 1349.

Wilton (Wilton, Wilthun) was a seat of the West Saxons and a prosperous town until the removal thence in 1075 of the seat of the bishop of Sherborne to Sarum. The excessive number of markets held at the latter town in the 13th century caused its further decline into a poor and unimportant place. Sweyn burnt and sacked it in 1093, consequently under Edward the Confessor the town was restored, and it was granted to him as a valuable royal borough held in farm by the burgesses for 50. From 1264 onwards Wilton figures in various grants. Richard, earl of Cornwall, obtained it from Henry III., and William, earl of Pembroke, finally from Elizabeth. The first charter given by Henry I. (probably in 1101) granted franchises to the burgesses of the merchant gild and company of Wilton as enjoyed by London and Winchester, and was confirmed by succeeding monarchs from Henry II. to Henry VI. The corporation consisted in 1350 of a mayor, recorder, 5 aldermen, 3 capital burgesses, 17 common burgesses and other officers, one of whom being the returning officer. Two members were returned to parliament from 1293 to 1832 and one from 1832 to 1885, at which date Wilton lost its separate representation. In 1414 Henry V. granted a fair on July 21 and 22. This was cancelled in 1416 and another substituted on July 22 and the three preceding days. Two yearly fairs were obtained by the burgesses from Henry VII. for four days from April 23 and September 1. In 1792 the fair days were November 13, September 12 and May 4; the two latter are still held, that in September being one of the largest sheep fairs in the west of England. Henry III. granted three weekly fairs by on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, and Henry VI., in 1433, one on Wednesday. The latter was still held in 1825, but had ceased in 1888.
WILTSHIRE [Wilt], a south-western county of England, bounded N.W. and N. by Gloucestershire, N.E. and E. by Berkshire, S.E. by Hampshire, S.W. and S. by Devonshire, and W. by Somerset. The area is 1,374 sq. m. A great upland covers two-thirds of the county, comprising, in the north-east, Marlborough Downs, with Savernake Forest; in the centre, the broad undulating sweep of Salisbury Plain; and in the south, the more varied hills and dales of the Nadder watershed, the vale of Chalk and Cranborne Chase. Large tracts of the Chalk are over 600 ft. above the sea, rising in many parts into steep and picturesque escarpments. Several peaks attain an altitude of 900 ft., and Inkpen Beacon, on the borders of Berkshire, Wiltshire and Hampshire, reaches over 1,000 ft. Sutton Poyntz and Avedon Hill are the two highest points in the county. Tertiary clays, called sarsen stones or grey wothers, which were used by the primitive builders of Stonehenge and Avebury. The underlying Greensand is exposed in the deeper valleys of the Chalk, such as the vale of Pewsey, dividing Salisbury Plain from Marlborough Downs, and the vale of Chalk, dividing the Nadder westward from the heights of Cranborne Chase. One of the most charming features of the county is its fertile and well-wooded valleys. Three ancient forests remain: Cranborne Chase, which extends into Dorset; was a royal deer-park as early as the reign of Henry II.; Forest of Dean, which contains no less than 100,000 acres of oak and beeches. The main part of the New Forest belongs to Hampshire; but No Man's Land and Hampshire Common, its outlying heaths and coppices, encroach upon the south-eastern corner of Wilt. Bentley Wood, 5 m. E. of Salisbury, and the Great Ridge and Grovely Woods between the Nadder and Wyle, are fine uplands parks. There is no great sheet of water, but the reservoir near Swindon, and the lakes of Longleat, Stourton and Fonthill in the south-west of Earl Stoke near Westbury, and of Bowood, Corsham and Seagry near Chippenham, have reserve mention for the beauty of their surroundings. The upper reaches of the Thames skirt the north-eastern border, and three other considerable rivers drain the Wiltshire Downs. The Kennet, rising west of Marlborough, winds eastward into Berkshire and meets the Thames at Reading. The Lower or Bristol Avon flows from its source among the Cotteswolds in southern Gloucestershire, past Malmsbury, Chippenham, Melksham and Bradford, where it curves north-eastward into Somerset, finally falling into the Bristol Channel. Besides many lesser tributaries it receives from the south the Frome, which flows for about 15 m. the boundary between Wilt and Somerset. The East or Christchurch Avon, which rises near Bishops Cannings in the centre of the county, flows east and south into Hampshire, and enters the sea at Christchurch. Close to Salisbury it is joined by the united streams of the Nadder and the Wyley; by the Ebbe, which drains the vale of Chalk; and by the Bourne, which flows south by west from its head near Ludgershall.

Geology. — As has been said, about two-thirds of the surface of Wilt is occupied by a great Chalk upland. Cropping out from beneath the Chalk is a fringe of the Selbornian—Upper Greensand and Gault—the former is well exposed in the vale of Pewsey, west of Devizes, and along the margins of the vale of Wardour; it forms a broad, bumpy tract from the Kennet to the Avon. The Gault Clay runs regularly at the foot of the Upper Greensand: it is excavated in several places for brick-making. The Lower Greensand, which oversteps the underlying formations, appears from beneath the Gault at Poulshot and follows the same line of outcrop northwards: a small outlier at Seend is worked for the iron it contains. About one-third of the county lying on the north-west side of the Chalk downs, including a portion of the vale of the White Horse, is occupied by Jurassic rocks. The Upper Lias—the oldest formation in the county—forms the floor of the valley near Box; it is followed by the overlying Inferior Oolite and Fuller's Earth, and by the Greensands, the rocks which furnish the famous building-stones of Bath, quarried at Winsley Down, near Bradford, and at Box, Corsham Down and other places in the neigh- bourhood. Above these are the Greensands, and above the Greensands the London Clay, with the well-known fossil Apcriorius or par-eoncrinite, followed by the Forest Marble limestones and clays. The rubby Combragh crops at Westwood, Trowbridge, and Melksham. Further east lies the outcrop of Oxfordian strata, comprising the sandy Kellaways beds and overlying Oxford Clay, together forming a broad low-lying tract in which stand Trowbridge, Melksham, Chippenham and Cricklade. Rising up from the eastern margin of the Oxfordian vale is the irregular scarps formed by the Corinian oolitic limestones and marls. The iron ores of Westbury are obtained in this formation. Another clay-bottomed vale lies on the eastern side of the Bradford-on-Avon hills, between the Great and Little Malms; and is worked for bricks. It appears also between Seend, Coulston and West- bury; also between Mere and Semley. About the former place it is brought into apposition with Cretaceous rocks through the great east-west fault. At Tisbury and near Poulton the small outcrops of Portlandian rocks which yield the familiar building-stones of Tisbury and Chilkham. Limestone clays of Purbeck age lie in the vale of Wardour about Tettif Vennis. At Dinton in the north-east of the county the Great Beds crop out. In the south-eastern corner of the county there are tracts of Tertiary Reading Beds and London Clay east of Downton and on the Vale of Pewsey, south and east of Marlborough, and south-east of Salisbury. Looking northwards, the name of the Cretaceous rocks which formerly covered the district. Here and there drift gravels and brick earths, besides low-level river gravels, rest upon the older rocks.

Manufactures. — A majority of the hands employed in factories and workshops are occupied in the locomotive works of the Great Western railway at Swindon. There are also large engineering works at Devizes. Cloth is still woven, though in greatly diminished quantities, at Trowbridge, Melksham, Chippenham and other places where water-power is available. Carpets are woven at Warminster, and cloths and coarse flax at Melksham, silk at Malmes- bury, and Mere and Wilmarton. Portland and Bath stone are quarried for building purposes, while iron ore from mines near Westbury is smelted in that town.

Communications. — Three great railway lines traverse Wiltshire from E. to W., throwing out a number of branch lines to the larger towns. In the N. the Great Western main line passes through Swindon on its way from London to Bath. A second line of the same system runs also to Bath from Hungerford, by way of Devizes. South of Salisbury Plain the South-Western main line goes through Salisbury and the southern quarter of Wilt's way into Somerset. The chief branch line is that between Salisbury and Westbury on the Great Western. The Midland & South-Western Junction railway runs north from Andover by Swindon, Cricklade and Cirencester. Swindon, Salisbury and Westbury are the three centres of the county by the large railway system. The goods brought and goods are carried on the Thames & Severn Canal in the N.E., and on the Kennet & Avon Canal across Salisbury Plain. These waterways were formerly connected by a branch of the Berks & Wilts Union Canal, which passed through Berkshire, through Swindon and Melksham, but was closed in 1899.

The area of the ancient county is 879,943 acres, with a population in 1891 of 264,997 and in 1910 of 273,869. The area of the administrative county is 864,105 acres. The county contains 29 hundreds. The municipal boroughs are—Calne (pop. 3,457), Chippenham (5,074), Devizes (6,532), Malmsbury (2,854), Marlborough (3,887), Salisbury, a city and the county town (17,117), Trowbridge (2,872), Wilton (3,008), and Warminster (4,489). Other small towns are Cricklade (1,517), Downton (1,786), Highworth (2,047), Mere (1,077), Pewsey (1,722), Wootton Bassett (2,258). The county is in the western circuit, and assizes are held at Salisbury and Devizes. It has one county court of sessions, and is divided into 16 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Devizes and Salisbury have separate courts of quarter sessions and commissions of the peace, and the borough of Marlborough has a separate coronet of sessions. There are 23 civil parishes. Wiltshire is mainly in the diocese of Salisbury, but a considerable part is in that of Bristol, and small parts in those of Gloucester, Oxford and Winchester. It contains 322 ecclesiastical parishes or districts, wholly or in part. The county is divided into five parliamentary divisions, each returning one member—North or Cricklade, North-western or Chippenham, Western or West-
WILTSHIRE

bury, Eastern or Devises and Southern or Wilton. It also contains the parliamentary borough of Salisbury, returning one member.

History.—The English conquest of the district now known as Wiltshire began in 552 with the victory of Cynric at Old Sarum, by which the way was opened to Salisbury Plain. Four years later, pushing his way through the vale of Pewsey, Cynric extended the limits of the West Saxon kingdom to the Marlborough Downs by a victory at Barbury Hill. At this period the district south of the Avon and the Nadder was occupied by dense woodland, the relics of which survive in Cranborne Chase, and the first wave of West Saxon colonization was chiefly concentrated in the Avon and the Wylye, the little township of Wilton which arose in the latter giving the name of Wilsetan to the new settlers. By the 6th century the district had acquired a definite administrative and territorial organization, Walstan, eldestborn of the Wilsetan, being mentioned as early as 800 as repelling an attempted invasion of the Mercians. Moreover, "Wiltunscrei" is mentioned by Asser in 878, in which year the Danes established their headquarters at Chippenham and remained there a year, plundering the surrounding country. In the time of Ethelstan mints existed in Downton, Marlborough, and Wilt;战争是的

At a skirmish at Swanborough in 951, the Earl of Devon in battle, and in 1116 Sarum, at the time of the Domesday Survey, and the office remained hereditary in his family, descending to William Longespee by his marriage with Ela, great-granddaughter of Edward. In the 13th century the assizes were held at Wilton, Malmesbury and New Sarum.

On the division of the West Saxon see in 703 Wiltshire was included in the diocese of Sherborne, but in 905 a separate diocese of Wilton was founded, the see being fixed alternately at Ramsbury, Wilton and Sunning in Berkshire. Shortly after, at the Conquest, the See of Wilton was restored to the See of Sherborne, and the bishopric of Dorchester was made a separate diocese, and by the synod of 1075-1076 the see was transferred to Salisbury. The archdeaconry of Wilts and Salisbury is mentioned in 1180; in 1213 the former included the deaneries of Avebury, Malmesbury, Marlborough and Cricklade within this county, and the latter the deaneries of Amesbury, Poterne, Wilton, Chalke and Wylye. In 1355 the archdeaconry of Salisbury included the additional deanery of Salisbury, while Poterne deanery had been transferred to the archdeaconry of Wiltshire. The deaneries of the archdeaconry of Salisbury have been extensive, and of the archdeaconry now includes the deaneries of Avebury, Marlborough and Poterne, and the deaneries of Chippenham, Cricklade and Malmesbury form part of the archdeaconry and diocese of Bristol.

The inhabitants of Wiltshire have always been addicted to industrial rather than warlike pursuits, and the political history of the county is not remarkable. In 1586, after the completion of the Domesday Survey, Salisbury was the scene of a great council, in which all the landholders took oaths of allegiance to the king, and a council for the same purpose assembled at Salisbury in 1116. At Clarendon in 1166 was drawn up the great Code which remedied the provincial administration of justice. Parliaments were held at Marlborough in 1267, and at Salisbury in 1328 and 1384. During the wars of Stephen's reign Salisbury, Devizes and Malmesbury were garrisoned by Roger, bishop of Salisbury, for the empress, but in 1138 Stephen seized the bishop and captured Devizes Castle. In 1213 Marlborough Castle was surrendered to Louis by Hugh de Neville. Hubert de Burgh escaped in 1263 from Devizes Castle, where he had been imprisoned in the previous year. In the Civil War of the 17th century Wiltshire actively supported the parlia-

mentary cause, displaying a characteristic worth to which and the efforts of the marchers of Hertford and of Lord Seymour to raise a party for the king met with vigorous resistance from the inhabitants. The Royalists, however, made some progress in the early stage of the struggle, Marlborough being captured for the king in 1642, while in 1643 the forces of the earl of Essex were routed by Charles I. and Prince Rupert at Aldbourne, and in the same year Waller, after failing to capture Devizes, was defeated in a skirmish at Roundway Down. The year 1645 saw the rise of the "Clubmen" of Dorset and Wiltshire, whose sole object was peace; they systematically punished any member of either party discovered in acts of plunder. Devizes, the last stronghold of the Royalists, was captured by Cromwell in 1645. In 1653 a rising organized on behalf of the king at Salisbury was dispersed in the same year.

At the time of the Domesday Survey the industrial pursuits of Wiltshire were almost exclusively agricultural; 300 mills are mentioned, and vineyards at Tollard and Lacock. In the succeeding centuries sheep-farming was vigorously pursued, and the Cistercian monasteries of Kingswood and Stanlegh exported wool, while the Extensive and Fisherton markets in the 13th and 14th centuries. Wiltshire at this time was already renowned among the chief of the clothing counties, the principal towns being Bradford, Malmesbury, Trowbridge, Devizes and Chippenham. In the 16th century Devizes was noted for its blankets, Warminster had a famous corn-market, and cheese was extensively made in north Wiltshire. Amesbury was famous for its tobacco pipes in the 16th century. The clothing trade went through a period of great depression in the

Warminster, near South Leigh Wood. The shire court for Wiltshire was held at Wilton, and until 1446 the shrievalty was enjoyed by of the castellans of Old Sarum. Edward, the sheriff of Wiltshire was sheriff at the time of the Domesday Survey, and the office remained hereditary in his family, descending to William Longespee by his marriage with Ela, great-granddaughter of Edward. In the 13th century the assizes were held at Wilton, Malmesbury and New Sarum.

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17th century, partly owing to the constant outbreaks of plague. Linen, cotton, gloves and cutlery were also manufactured in the county, silk at Malmsbury and carpets at Wilton.

In 1295 Wiltshire was represented by no less than twenty-eight members in parliament, the shire returning two knights, and the boroughs of Bedwyn, Bradford, Calne, Chippenham, Cricklade, Devizes, Down, Lurgashall, Malmesbury, Marlborough, Old Sarum, Salisbury and Wilton, two burgesses each, but the boroughs for the most part made very irregular returns. Hindon, Heytesbury and Wootton Bassett were disfranchised in the sixteenth century. Act 1 and 2 Henry I of 1533, the county with sixteen boroughs returned a total of thirty members. Under the latter Act Great Bedwin, Downon, Heytesbury, Hindon, Lurgashall, Old Sarum and Wootton Bassett were disfranchised, and Calne, Malmesbury, Westbury and Wilton lost one member each. Under the act of 1868 the county returned two members in two divisions, and Chippenham, Devizes and Marlborough lost one member each. Under the act of 1858 the county returned five members in five divisions; Cricklade, Calne, Chippenham, Devizes, Malmesbury, Marlborough, Westbury, and Wilton were disfranchised; and Salisbury lost one member.

**Antiquities.**—Wiltshire is extraordinarily rich in prehistoric antiquities. The stone age is represented by a number of flint stone implements, preserved in the unsurpassed collection at Salisbury Museum, and by the remains of large stone circles, with avenues of monoliths leading to a central stone circle; and the stone circle, surrounded by an earthwork, and enclosing two lesser circles, are the largest and most famous megalithic works in England. A valley near Avebury is filled with immense sarsen blocks, resembling a river of stone, and perhaps laid there by prehistoric architects. There are also menhirs, dolmens and cromlechs. Surrounding the woods of forests and marshy hollows, it is clear that the downs were densely peopled at a very early period. Circular enclosures, formed by a ditch within a bank, are common, as are grave-mounds or barrows. These have been classified according to their shape as cremation barrows; round barrows, or barrows enclosing cemeteries of stone circles; and barrows; tools, weapons and ornaments have been dug up from such mounds, many of which contain kistvans or chambers of men. The 'lynches' or terraces which score some of the hillsides are said to be the work of primitive agriculturists. Ancient strongholds and manor-houses are also numerous; and there are vestiges of others on Salisbury Plain and Marlborough Downs.

There are many signs of the Roman rule. Wans Dyke or Woden's Dyke, a most remarkable earthwork, runs westward from near Devizes, 60 m. from a point east of Savernake, nearly as far as the Bristol Channel, and is almost unaltered for several miles along the Marlborough Downs. Its date is uncertain; but the work has been proved, wherever excavated, to be Roman or Roman-British. It consists of a bank, with a trench on the north side, and was clearly meant for defence, not as a boundary. Forts strengthened it at intervals. Bokerly Dyke, which forms a part of the boundary between Wilts and Dorset, is the largest among several similar entrenchments, and has also a ditch north of the rampart.

Chief among the few monastic buildings of which any vestiges remain are the abbeys of Malmesbury, Downon and of the Priory of Melksham. There are some traces of the hospital for leprous women afterwards converted into an Austin priory at Maiden Bradley. Monkton Farleigh, farther north along the Somerset border, had its Cistercian priory with a chapter house and cloisters, represented by some outbuildings of the manor-house. A college for a dean and 12 prebendaries, afterwards a monastery of Bon-hausen, was transferred from Bad Langensalza, in 1465, and, and Perpendicular, resembles a cathedral in size and stately beauty. The 14th century buildings of Bradenstoke Priory or Clock Abbey, founded near Chippenham for Austin canons, are incorporated in a farmhouse. The finest churches of the 15th century, Perpendicular, were built in the districts where good stone could be obtained, while the architecture is more simple in the Chalk region, where flint was used. Steeples and pyramidal bell-turrets are not uncommon; and the churches have a nave, 31 m. N.W. of Swindon, and Wansboro, 3 m. S.E., have each two steeples, one in the centre, one at the west end. St Lawrence's church at Bradford-on-Avon is one of the most perfect Saxon ecclesiastical buildings in England; and elsewhere there are fragments of Saxon work imbedded in later buildings. There are three arches in the nave of Britford church, within a mile of Salisbury; the east end of the chancel at Burcombe, near Wilton; and parts of several churches at Byford, Bradford, and Bruce or Brooke in the vale of Pewsey. St John's at Devizes is on the site of a Norman tower and has Norman masonry in its chancel; while the chancel of St Mary's, in the same town, is also Norman, and the populous character of the early churches at Chiswell, near Marlborough, Dittoner and Ditchidge, near Southrop, and Nether Avon, near Amesbury, preserve sundry Norman features.

Wimbledon (Wibbandune) is suggested to have been the scene of a battle in 566 between Cæwin, king of Wessex, and Æthelberht, king of Kent, in which Æthelberht was defeated, and an earthwork which existed on the Common may have marked the site. At
Coombes's Hill and elsewhere British relics have been found. At Domesday Wimbledon formed part of the manor of Mortlake, held by the archbishops of Canterbury. Afterwards the name was sometimes used interchangeably with Mortlake, and in 1341 it is described as a grange or farm belonging to Mortlake. On the impeachment of Arundel, archbishop of Canterbury, in 1348, it was confiscated. In the reign of Henry VIII. Cromwell, earl of Essex, held the manor of Wimbledon, with Bristow Park as an appanage. On the confiscation of Cromwell's estates in 1540 it again fell to the crown, and by Henry VIII. it was settled on Catherine Parr for life. By Queen Mary it was granted to Cardinal Pole. In 1574 Elizabeth bestowed the manor-house, while retaining the manor, on Sir Christopher Hatton, who sold it the same year to Sir Thomas Cecil. In 1588 Elizabeth transferred the manor to her son Sir Edward Cecil, in exchange for an estate in Lincolnshire. At the time of the Civil War the manor was sold to Adam Baynes, a Yorkshireman, who shortly afterwards sold it to General Lambert; and at the Restoration it was granted to the queen dowager, Henrietta Maria, who sold it in 1661 to George Digby, earl of Bristol. On his death in 1676 it was sold by his widow to the lord-treasurer Danby. Some years after Danby's death it was purchased by Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, who bequeathed it to her grandson, John Spencer. It was sold by the fifth Earl Spencer in 1877. Wimborne was bought by Sir Henry John Spencer, 1st baronet, and replaced by another building in 1735 by the duchess of Marlborough; this was destroyed by fire in 1785, and a new house, called Wimledon Park House, was erected about 1801. Wimbledon was incorporated in 1905.

WIMBORNE (Wimborne Minster), a market town, in the eastern parliamentary division of Dorsetshire, England, 1113 m. S.W. by W. of London from the London & Southern railway; served also by the Somerset and Dorset railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 3636. It is situated on a gentle slope about 400 ft. S.W. of the Minster. The church or minster of St Cuthberga is a fine cruciform structure of various styles from Early Norman to Perpendicular, and consists of a central lantern tower, nave and choir with aisles, transepts without aisles, western or bell tower, north and south porches, crypt and vestry or sacristy, with the library over it. It contains a large number of interesting monuments, including a brass with the date 873 (supposed to mark the resting-place of King Æthelred I.), a lunar ory of the 14th century and an octagonal Norman font of Purbeck marble. There is a church dedicated to St John the Evangelist. The manor house, occupied in occasion of the visits of the Elizabethan sovereigns. Near Wimborne is Canford Manor, the seat of Lord Wimborne, a mansion in the Tudor style, built by Blore in 1586, and improved from designs of Sir Charles Barry. The town depends chiefly on agriculture; but the manufacture of hose is carried on to a small extent, and there are also coachbuilding works.

Although Wimborne (Wim'burn) has been identified with the Vindoladis of the Antonine Itinerary, the first undisputed evidence of settlement is the entry of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, under the date 718, that Cuthhur, sister of King Ine, founded the abbey here and became the first abbess; the house is also mentioned in a somewhat doubtful epistle of St Aldhelm in 705. The importance of the foundation made it the burial-place of King Æthelred in 871, and of King Siffterth in 862. Æthelwulf seized and fortified Wimborne in his revolt in 891 against Edward the Elder. The early abbey was probably destroyed by the Danes in the reign of Æthelred the Unready (978-1013), for in 1043 Edward the Confessor founded here a college of secular canons. The college remained unaltered until 1496, when Margaret, countess of Richmond, obtained letters patent from her son, Henry VII., to found a chantry in connexion with which she established a school. The continuance of this was recommended by the commissioners of 1547, and in 1562 Elizabeth vested a great part of the property of the former college in a school corporation of twelve governors, who had charge of the church. New charters for the school were obtained from James I. in 1582 and from Charles I. At the conquest Wimborne was a royal borough, ancient demesne of the crown, and part of the manor of Kingston Lacy, which Henry I. gave to Robert Mellent, earl of Leicester. From him it descended by marriage to the earls of Lincoln, and, then passing by marriage to Earl Thomas of Lancaster, became the seat of the duchy of Lancaster; an inquisition of 1352 found that Henry, duke of Lancaster, had 735. 3d. rent of assize in the borough of Wimborne. The borough is again mentioned in 1487-1488, when John Plecy held six messuages in free burgage of the king as of his borough of Wimborne, but it seems to have been entirely prescriptive, and was never a parliamentary borough. The town was governed until the 16th century by two bailiffs, chosen annually at a court leet of the royal manor of Wimborne borough, part of the manor of Kingston Lacy. The market held here on Friday of each week is not mentioned in Domesday Book, but seems to be of early origin. Wimborne carried on considerable manufactures of linen and woollen goods until the time of Charles II., when they declined, their place being taken by the stocking-knitting industry of the 18th century. See John Hutchins, The History and Antiquities of the County of Dorset (3rd edition, Westminster, 1861); Anon., History of Wimborne (London, S.0.).

WIMPPffen, EMMANUEL FELIX DE (1811-1884), French soldier. Entering the army from the military school of St Cyr, he saw considerable service in Algeria, and in 1840 became captain, in 1847 chef de bataillon. He first earned marked distinction in the Crimean War as colonel of a Turco regiment, and his conduct at the storm of the Mamelon won him the grade of general of brigade. In the campaign of 1859 he was with General MacMahon at Magenta at the head of a brigade of Guard Infantry, and again won promotion on the field of battle. Between this campaign and that of 1870 he was mainly employed in Algeria, and was not at first given a command in the ill-fated "Army of the Rhine." But when the earlier battles revealed incapacity in the commander of the 5th corps, De Wimpffen was ordered to take it over, and was given a dormant command appointing him to command the Army of Châlons in case of Marshal MacMahon's disablement. He only arrived at the front in time to rally the fugitives of the 5th corps, beaten at Beaumont, and to march them to Sedan. In the disastrous battle of the 1st of September, MacMahon was soon wounded, and the senior officer, General Ducrot, assumed the command. Ducrot was beginning to withdraw the troops when Wimpffen produced his commission and countermanded the order. In consequence it fell to him to negotiate the surrender of the whole French army. After his release from captivity, he lived in retirement at Algiers, and died at Paris in 1884. His later years were occupied with polemical discussions on the surrender of Sedan, the responsibility for which was laid upon him.

WINDBORN, amongst other works, Sedan (1876) La Situation de la France, et les réformes nécessaires (1873) and La Nation armée (1875).

WINBURG, a town in the Orange Free State, 90 m. N.E. by rail of Bloemfontein. Pop. (1904) 2762, of whom 1003 were whites. It is built by the banks of a tributary of the Vet affluent of the Vaal, and is a trading centre for a large grain and pastoral district. It is joined to the trunk line from Pretoria to the Transvaal by a branch line from Smalldeel, 28 m. N.W. The town was founded in 1837 by Commandant H. Potgieter, one of the voortrekkers, and was named by him in commemoration of a victory gained over the Matabele chief Mosilikatze. It became the capital of a quasi-independent Boer state, which included considerable areas north of the Vaal. In 1848 the town and district were annexed to Great Britain and thereafter followed the fortunes of the Orange river sovereignty (see ORANGE FREE STATE). In the Boer War of 1899-1902 Winburg was one of the Boer centres in the guerrilla fighting which followed the fall of Pretoria.

WINCHCOMB, a market town in the northern parliamentary division of Gloucestershire, England, 7 m. N.E. of Cheltenham. Pop. (1901) 2864. It is picturesquely situated among the Coteswold Hills, in the narrow valley of the Isbourne stream. The Perpendicular church of St Peter, cruciform, with a central
tor, is a good example of its period. In the vicinity is Sudeley Castle, originally built by Thomas Boteler, Lord Sudeley (d. 1398). By gift of Edward VI. it came into the hands of Sir Thomas Seymour, fourth husband of Catherine Parr; this queen died here and was buried in the chapel. The castle suffered severely at the hands of the parliamentarians in 1644, and remained ruinous until 1837, when a careful restoration was begun. There are a tower of the 14th century, and considerable remains of the 15th, the inhabited portion being mainly of Tudor date. There are four mills, paper-works and tanneries at Winchcombe.

Excavations prove that there were both British and Roman settlements at Winchcombe (Winchelcumbe, Winchelcume). It owed its growth to the foundation of religious houses by Offa and Coenwulf of Mercia in the 8th century. It became a borough in Saxon times, was the chief town of a shire to which it gave its name, and was the seat of government of the Mercian kings. Witenagemots were held here in 771 and 942. Harold, earl of Wessex, was the first overlord. It had become a royal borough by 1087, and was granted by charter of 1224 to the abbots of St Mary's to be held of the king by a rent of 250. Winchcombe never received a charter, and was not incorporated, but as a borough by prescription it was governed by 2 bailiffs and 10 chief burgesses until the corporate body was dissolved by act of parliament in 1883. It was never represented in parliament except by its mitred abbots before the dissolution of the monasteries. There is no trace of the original grant of a fair on July 17 (now held on July 28), but it is mentioned as already existing in a charter of 1223, which changed the market day from Sunday to Saturday. Elizabeth granted another fair on April 25 by charter in 1575. A Tuesday market was also granted under this charter, but the Saturday market only is now held. Both the modern fairs are horse and cattle fairs, but in the middle ages they were centres of the cloth manufacture. Tanning has been a local industry since the beginning of the 19th century, and paper and silk factories were introduced about 1830. Winchcombe took the site of the king in the Civil War and was twice plundered.

See Victoria County History, Gloucestershire: Emma Dent, Annals of Winchcombe (1877); David Royce, Winchcombe Cartulary (1892).

WINCHELSEA, ANNE FINCH, COUNTESS OF (1661–1720), English author, daughter of Sir William Kingsmill of Sidnonton, near Southampton, was born in April 1661. Five months later her father died, and her mother married in 1662 Sir Thomas Ogle. Lady Ogle died in 1664, and nothing is heard of her daughter Anne until 1683, when she is mentioned as one of the maids of honour of Mary of Modena, duchess of York. She married in May 1684 Colonel Henecage Finch, who was attached to the duke of York's household. To him she addressed poems and versified epistles, in which he figures as Daphnis and she as Ardea. At the Revolution Heneage Finch refused the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, and he and his wife had no fixed home until they were invited in 1666 to Eastwell Park, Kent, by Finch's nephew Charles, 4th earl of Winchelsea, on whose death in 1712 Heneage Finch succeeded to the carldom. The countess of Winchelsea died in London on the 5th of August 1720, leaving no issue, her husband surviving until 1726.

Lady Winchelsea's poems contain many copies of verse addressed to her friends and contemporaries. She was to some extent a follower of the "matchless Orinda" in the fervour of her friendships. During her lifetime she published her poem "The Spleen" in Gildon's Miscellany (1701) and a volume of Poems in 1713 which included a tragedy called Aristomenes. With Alexander Pope she was on friendly terms, and one of the seven commendatory poems printed with the 1717 edition of his works was by her. But in the farce Three Hours after Marriage (1717) attributed to Gay, but really the work of Pope, Arbuthnot and Gay, she is ridiculed as the learned lady, Phoebe Clinket, a character assigned to Pope's hand. Lady Winchelsea's poems were almost forgotten when Wordsworth in the "Essay, supplementary to the Preface" of his Poems (1821), drew attention to her nature-poetry, asserting that with the exception of Pope's "Windsor Forest" and her "Nocturnal Reverie," English poetry between Paradise Lost and Thomson's Seasons did not present "a single new image of external nature." Wordsworth sent at Christmas 1819 a MS. of extracts from Lady Winchelsea and other writers to Lady Mary Bowther, and her correspondence with Alexander Dyce contains some minute criticism and appreciation of her poetry.

Mr Edmund Goss wrote a notice of her poems for T. H. Ward's English Poets (vol. iii., 1880), and in 1884 came into possession of a volume of her early poems, some of which he printed in The Poems of Anne, Countess of Winchelsea, was edited by Myra Reynolds (Chicago, 1903) with an exhaustive essay. See also E. Goss, "Edmund Goss and the Winchescians," in E. and E. D. Hoey, Modern and Elizabethan. Wordsworth's anthology for Lady Mary Lister was first printed in 1905 (Oxford). Some of her work remains in MS. in the possession of Professor Dowden.

WINCHELSEA, ROBERT (d. 1313), archbishop of Canterbury, was probably born at Old Winchelsea. He studied and then taught at the universities of Paris and Oxford, where he attained celebrity as a scholar, and became rector of the former, and subsequently chancellor of the latter university. He held several positions in the cathedrals of Lincoln and Canterbury, and was made archdeacon of Essex about 1283. In December 1292 John Peckham, archbishop of Canterbury, died, and early in the following year Winchelsea was elected as his successor. His consecration, which took place at Aquila in September 1294, was delayed owing to the vacancy in the papacy, but he found no difficulty in obtaining the temporalities of the see from King Edward I. Winchelsea is chiefly renowned as a strenuous upholder of the privileges of the clergy and the authority of the pope, and as a fearless opponent of Edward I. Strengthened by the issue of the papal bull Claritas laevis in 1296, he stimulated the clergy to refuse pecuniary assistance to Edward in 1297; but after the king had pronounced sentence of outlawry against the delinquents he instructed each clerk to decide this question for himself. Personally the archbishop still declined to make any contribution towards the expenses of the French war, and his lands were seized and held by Edward until July 1297, when a somewhat ostentatious reconciliation between king and prelate took place at Westminster. He took some part in the movement which led to the confirmation of the charters by royal assent in 1298, but in the struggle with the king he did not exhaust his energies. He asserted his authority over his suffragans to the full; quarrelled with Pope Boniface VIII. over the presentation to a Sussex living, and was excommunicated by one of the pope's minions; and vigorously contested the claim of the archbishop of York to carry his cross erect in the province of Canterbury. Before these events, however, the quarrel with Edward had been renewed, although Winchelsea officiated in 1299 at the king's marriage with Margaret, daughter of Philip III., king of France. Joining the barons in demanding certain reforms from Edward at the parliament of Lincoln in 1301, he compelled the king to give way on the main issues; but the indignation which followed the claim of Pope Boniface to be the protector of Scotland, a claim which was supported by Winchelsea, led to the rupture of this alliance. It is probable that one of the reasons which led the archbishop to join in these proceedings was his hostility to Edward's adviser, Walter Langton, bishop of Lichfield, whom he sought to disgrace both in England and at Rome. The king cherished his indignation until his friend Clement V. became pope in 1305, when he made his fierce move against Winchelsea, listening to Edward's agents, Langton and Henry Lacy, earl of Lincoln, Clement suspended the archbishop, who, after vainly imploring the intercession of the king, left England and journeyed to the papal court at Bordeaux, remaining in exile until Edward's death in July 1307. The new king, Edward II., requested Clement to allow Winchelsea to return to his see. The pope assented, but soon after his return to England early in 1306 the archbishop joined the king's enemies; even demanded the release from prison of his old enemy, Langton, and was one of the "ordinaries" appointed in 1310. He assisted the barons in their struggle
WINCHELSEA—WINCHESTER, EARLS AND MARQUESSES OF

with Edward II. by a frequent use of spiritual weapons, and took part in the proceedings against the Templars. He died at Otford on the 11th of May 1313. Miracles were said to have been worked at his tomb in Canterbury cathedral, but efforts to procure his canonization were unavailing. Although a secular priest Winchel- sen was somewhat ascetic, and his private life was distinguished for sanctity and generosity. As an ecclesiastic, however, he was haughty and fond of power; and he has been not inappropriately described as "the greatest churchman of the time."


WINCHELSEA, a village in the Rye parliamentary division of Sussex, England, 9 m. N.E. by E. from Hastings by the South Eastern and Chatham railways. Pop. (1901) 670. It stands on an abrupt hill-spur rising above flat lowlands which form a southward continuation of Romney marsh. This was within historic times a great inlet of the English Channel, and Winchelsea was a famous seaport until the 15th century. Two gates, one of the time of Edward I., the other erected early in the 15th century, overlooked the marshes; a third stands at a considerable distance west of the town, its position pointing the contrast between the extent of the ancient town and that of the shrunken village of to-day. The town walls were laid out during the reign of Edward I., and streets were intersecting at right angles; the form is preserved, and in a picturesque open space in the centre stands the church of St Thomas à Becket. This comprises only the chancel and aisles of a building which, if entire, would rank as one of the finest parish churches in England. As it stands it is of the highest interest, showing remarkable Decorated work, with windows of beautiful and unusual design, and a magnificent series of canopied tombs. In the grounds of the residence called the Friars stands the shell of the apsidal choir of a Decorated chapel which belonged to a Franciscan house. Of a Dominican convent and other religious foundations and churchyards remains.

The town of which the relics have been described was not the first of its name. On a site supposed to be about 3 m. S.E., and now therefore about 1½ m. out in the English Channel, a seaport had grown up on a low peninsula. In 1236 and at various subsequent dates in the same century this town suffered severely from encroachments of the sea, and in 1266 it paid the penalty for its adherence to the cause of Simon de Montfort. The waves finally obliterated the site in 1288, and Edward I. thereafter planted the new town in a safe position. In the 14th and 15th centuries Winchelsea was frequented by the French, and in Edward III. defeated the Spanish in a naval action close by.

In the time of the Confessor Winchelsea (Winchesel, Winchelze, Wynclese) was included in Rameslie which was granted by him to the abbey of Fécamp. The town remained under the lordship of the abbey until it was resumed by Henry III. Its early importance was due to its harbour, and by 1266 it was probably already a port of some consequence. By the reign of Henry II., if not before, Winchelsea was practically added to the Cinque Ports and the jurisdiction of their liberties extended over the town; New Winchelsea, a walled town, flourished for about a hundred years and provided a large proportion of the ships furnished by the Cinque Ports to the crown; but the ravages of the French destroyed it, its walls were broken down, and the decay of the harbour, owing to the recession of the sea, prevented any later return of its prosperity. The corporation, which in 1298 included a mayor, barons and bailiffs, was dissolved by an act of 1883.

Winchelsea as a Cinque Port was summoned to parliament in 1264-1266 and returned two members from 1356 till 1382, when it was disfranchised. The abbé of Fécamp seems to have originally held a market. In 1792 a market was held on Saturdays and a fair on the 14th of May, but this market or fair now exists. In 1660 building and fishing were carried on in the 14th and 15th centuries. In later years Winchelsea became a great resort for smugglers, and the vaults originally constructed for the Gascon wine trade were used for storing contraband goods.

WINCHESTER, EARLS AND MARQUESSES OF. The title of earl of Winchester was first borne by Saier, or Seer, de Quincy, who was endowed by King John on the 13th of March 1207, with the earldom of Winchester, or the county of Southampton. Saier de Quincy was one of the twenty-five barons named to enforce the observance of the Great Chancery, master of the swords at the siege of Damietta in 1219, and died soon afterwards, probably on the 3rd of November of that year. His second son Roger de Quincy (c. 1195-1264), who is said to have usurped the earldom during the absence of his elder brother Robert in the Holy Land, took part in the struggle between Henry III. and the barons. He died without male issue in April 1264, and the earldom reverted to the crown. It was revived in 1322 in favour of Hugh le Despenser, favourite of King Edward II., and was forfeited when he was put to death by the barons as a traitor in 1326. In 1472 the title, together with a pension of £500 a year from the customs of Southampton, but not the right of sitting in parliament, was given by King Edward IV. to a Burgundian, Louis de Bruges, lord of Gruthuse and prince of Stenhuysen, as a reward for services rendered to himself while an exile on the continent. Louis de Bruges surrendered his patent to Henry VII. in 1499.

The marquessate of Winchester was created in 1551 in favour of William Pawlet, or Pawlel, K.G., a successful courtier during four reigns, who died on the 10th of March 1572. It has descended in the male line of his family to the sixteenth possessor. John Pawlet, 2nd marquess (1557-1576), was created earl of Winchester and viscount Hinton at the death of his father, with the life of his father, a distinction which was shared by his three immediate successors—William Pawlet (c. 1555-1599), William Pawlel (c. 1600-1628) and John Pawlel (c. 1598-1674). Charles Pawlet, son and heir of John Pawlel, the eighth marquess, was created duke of Bolton, on the 9th of April 1689, and the marquessate of Bolton remained in connexion with the duchy of Bolton (q.v.) till the death of Harry Pawlel, sixth duke and eleventh marquess, without male issue in December 1794. There being no male representative of the dukes of Bolton this title passed, on the death of Lord Hinton Pawlel, created Marquess of Winchester and always confined to the younger branches of the family, to Sir Henry Paulet, of Long House, Shillingford, near Chesham, Buckinghamshire, 6th or 7th son of the fourth marquess. He married in 1740 Caroline, daughter of Sir John Hinton, of Long House, in the county of Buckingham, and with his wife resided at Long House, Buckinghamshire, where he died in 1808. Lord Hinton Pawlel, 7th marquess, was the eldest son of the fourth marquess, by his first marriage with Alice Viscountess Latimer, daughter of Edward Viscount Latimer, and younger daughter of Lord Latimer, of Long, Sussex, who died in 1777.

Three of the marquesses of Winchester were men of note. It is recorded of the founder of the family, William Pawlel, that when asked how he had contrived to live through a long period of troubled times during four reigns, he replied that he came of the willow and not of the oak, ortus sum e salice non ex quercu. This saying, repeated by Sir Robert Naunton in his Fragmenta regalia, may possibly not have been due to the marquess himself, but if not it was well invented and lived through many dangers and always contrived to keep, or to place himself in the good graces of his king, who always followed in the passage by his brother, Henry William Montague Pawlel (b. 1862).

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co-operated with the king in carrying out the separation of the Church from Rome between 1520 and 1536. He served on the courts which tried Sir Thomas More and Anne Boleyn, and he was employed to tell Catherine of Aragon that she and her daughter were degraded from their rank. It is characteristic of the type of man that he did his work gently, and with a constant recollection of the changes of fortune. His personal kindness to Anne Boleyn, which she acknowledged, no doubt stood him in good stead on the accession of her daughter Queen Elizabeth. In 1538 he was created Lord St John, and he was enriched by a grant of the lands of Netley Abbey, near Southampton. He was appointed lord steward of the household, and lord chamberlain, and became a knight of the garter in 1543. Henry VIII, named him one of the council, and gave his approval, for it was his wise rule to show just as much independence as enhanced the merit of his obedience. He was lord treasurer under Mary, and kept his place under Elizabeth, to whose ecclesiastical policy he gave his usual discreet opposition and final obedience. Winchester died at his house of Basing on the 10th of March 1572. He had built it on so grand a scale that his descendants are said to have found it necessary to pull down a part. He married, first Elizabeth, daughter of Sir William Capel, Lord Mayor of London, by whom he had four sons and four daughters, and then Winifred, daughter of Sir John Bruges, alderman of London, and widow of Sir Richard Scaxville, by whom he had no children. It is said that one hundred and three of his descendants were alive at the date of his death.

His grandson, William Paulet, third marquess (c. 1535–1598) was one of the judges of Mary, queen of Scots, and author of a book called The Lord Marquesses Idleness which contains a Latin acrostic of extreme ingenuity on the words Regina nostra Angliae.

The fifth marquess, John Paulet (1628–1674), was a Roman Catholic. He lived much in retirement in order to be able to pay off debts left by his father. He is remembered by the arbour and sincerity of his loyalty to King Charles I. It is said that he caused the words "Aimez Loyauté" to be engraved on every pane of glass in his house of Basing. During the first Civil War it was fortified for the king, and stood a succession of sieges by the parliamentary forces between 1643 and 1645. On the 14th of October 1645, it was stormed by Oliver Cromwell. The marquess, who fought valiantly, told Hugh Peters, chaplain of the New Model Army of the parliament, who had the vulgarity to crow over him, "That if the king had no more ground in England but Basing House, he would adventure as he did, and so maintain it to the utmost," for "that Basing House was called Loyalty." The house caught fire during the storm and was burnt down, the very ruins being carried away by order of the parliament. The marquess was imprisoned in the Tower of London, but was finally allowed to compound for his estate; after the restoration of King Charles II. he was promised compensation for his losses, but nothing was given to him. He died in Englefield Park on the 4th of March 1674, unmarried, first to Jane, daughter of Viscount Savage, by whom he had one son; then to Honora de Burgh, daughter of Richard, earl of St Albans and Clancaride, by whom he had four sons; and then to Isabel Howard, daughter of Viscount Stafford.

the most notable are the monuments of Bishops Edington, Wykeham, Waynflete, Cardinal Beaufort, Langton and Fox. The door of iron grills, of beautiful design, now in the north nave aisle, is considered to be the oldest work of its character in England; its date is placed in the 12th Early English style. The mortuary chests in the presbytery contain the bones of Saxon kings who were buried here. The remains were collected in this manner by Bishop Henry de Blois (1120–1171), and again after they had been scattered by the soldiers of Cromwell. The choir stalls furnish a magnificent example of Decorated woodwork, and much stained glass of the Decorated and Perpendicular periods remains in fragmentary form. The library contains a Vulgate of the 12th century, a finely ornamented MS. on vellum.

In 1905 serious signs of weakness were manifested in the fabric of the cathedral, and it was found that a large part of the foundation was insecure, being laid on piles, or tree-trunks set flat, in soft and watery soil. Extensive works of restoration, including the underpinning of the foundations with cement concrete (which necessitated the employment of divers), were undertaken under the direction of Mr T. G. Jackson.

Relics of the monastic buildings are slight, and there are Early English arches and Perpendicular work in the deanery. Other old houses in the Close are very picturesque. Here formerly stood the house which Charles II. desired of Ken for Nell Gwyn. Ken refused it, but the king bore no malice, setting Nell Gwyn in another house near by, and afterwards raising Ken to the bishopric of Bath and Wells.

King Alfred founded a minster immediately north of the present site of the cathedral, and here he and other Saxon kings were buried. The house, known as Hyde Abbey, was removed (as was Alfred’s body) to a point outside the walls considerably north of the cathedral, during the reign of Henry I. Here foundations may be traced, and a gateway remains. To the east of the cathedral are ruins of Wolvesey Castle, a foundation of Henry de Blois, where the bishops resided. On the southern outskirts of the city, in a pleasant meadow by the Itchen, is the Hospital of St Cross. This also was founded by Henry de Blois, in 1156, whose wish was to provide board and lodging for 13 poor men and a daily dinner for 100 others. It was reformed by William of Wykeham, and enlarged and mostly rebuilt by Cardinal Beaufort (1403-1447). The buildings form three sides of a quadrangle, with a lawn and sun-dial in its midst; while the fourth side is partly open, and partly formed by the magnificent cruciform church. The earliest parts of this building are late or transitional Norman, but other parts are Early English or Decorated. The work throughout is very rich and massive. St Cross is a unique example of a medieval almshouse, and its picturesque is enhanced by the curious costume of its inmates. It is still customary to provide a dole of bread and beer to all who desire it. The parish churches of Winchester are not of special interest, but the church of St Swithin is curious as occupying the upper part of the King’s Gate. This gate and the West Gate alone remain of the gates in the walls which formerly surrounded the city. The West Gate is a fine structure of the 13th century. In the High Street stands the graceful Perpendicular city cross. The county hall embodies remains of the Norman castle, and in it is preserved the so-called King Arthur’s round table. This is supposed to date actually from the time of King Stephen, but the painted designs upon it are of the Tudor period.

Winchester is famous as an educational centre, and in addition to Winchester College there are several modern preparatory schools here. The College of St Mary, lying to the south of the cathedral close, is one of the greatest of English public schools. While a monastic school was in existence here from very early times, the college was originated in 1387 by William of Wykeham, whose famous scheme of education embraced this foundation and that of New College, Oxford. The members on the foundation consisted of a warden, 10 fellows, 3 chaplains, 70 scholars and 16 choristers. The buildings were completed about 1395. The quadrangles, with the fine chapel, tower, hall and cloister are noteworthy, and there are extensive modern buildings.

The principal public buildings of the city are the gild-hall, public library and art school, museum, market house, mechanics’ institute, and barracks. The parliamentary borough returns one member and falls within the Andover division of the county. The corporation consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 1931 acres.

History.—The history of the earliest Winchester (Winton, Wyntun) is lost in legend; tradition ascribes its foundation to Ludor Rous Hudibras and dates it ninety-nine years before the first building of Rome; earthworks and relics show that the Itchen valley was occupied by Celts, and it is certain from its position at the centre of six Roman roads and from the Roman name that Winchester must have been a Roman town. The name is under the name of Venta Belgarum, an important Roman-British country town. Hardly any traces of this survive, but mosaic pavements, coins, &c., have been discovered on the south side of High Street. The name of Winchester is indissolubly linked with that of King Arthur and his knights, but its historical greatness begins when, after the conquest of the present Hampshire by the Gewissas, it became the capital of Wessex. Its importance was increased by the introduction of Christianity, although it was not at first the seat of a bishop, because, according to the later Winchester Bishop, Cynegils wished to build a wealthy church in the city, and the Archbishop of Canterbury is said to have built the old minster. When the kings of Wessex became kings of all England, Winchester became, in a sense, the capital of England, though it always had a formidable rival in London, which was more central in position and possessed greater commercial advantages. The parallel position of the two cities in Anglo-Saxon times is illustrated by the law of Edgar, ordaining that the standard of weights and measures for the whole kingdom should be "such as is observed at London and at Winchester." Under Alfred it became a centre of learning and education, to which distinguished strangers, such as St. Grimbald and Asser the Welshman, resorted. It was the seat of Caunter’s government; many of the kings, including Egbert, Alfred, Edward the Elder and Canute, were buried there, and, in 1043, Edward the Confessor was crowned in the old minster. The city was sometimes granted as part of the dowry of a queen consort, and it was the home of Emma, the wife of Ethelred the Unready and of Canute, and later of Edith, the wife of the Confessor.

Winchester was very prosperous in the years succeeding the Conquest, and its eminence, together with London, from Domesday Book is probably an indication of its peculiar position and importance; its proximity to the New Forest commended it to the Norman kings, and Southampton, only 12 m. distant, was one of the chief ports for the continent. The Conqueror wore his crown in state at Winchester every Easter, as he wore it at Westminster at Whitsuntide and at Gloucester at Christmas. The royal treasure continued to be stored there as it had been in Anglo-Saxon times, and was there seized by William Rufus, who, after his father’s death, "rode to Winchester and opened the Treasure House." In the reign of Stephen and again in the reign of Henry II. the Court of Exchequer was held at Winchester, and the charter of John promises that the exchequer and the mint shall ever remain in the city; the mint was an important one, and when in 1125 all the coiners of England were tried for false coining those of Winchester alone were acquitted with honour.

Under the Norman kings Winchester was of great commercial importance; it was one of the earliest seats of the woolen trade, which in its different branches was the chief industry of the town, although the evidence furnished by the Liber Winton (temp. Henry I. and Stephen) indicates also a varied industrial life. As early as the reign of Henry I. the gild of weavers is mentioned, and the millers at the same date render their account to the exchequer.

The gild merchant of Winchester claims an Anglo-Saxon origin, but the first authentic reference to it is in one of the
WINCHESTER

charters granted to the city by Henry II. The Liber Vinson speaks of a "eniths' gild," which certainly existed in the time of the Confessor. The prosperity of Winchester was increased by the St. Giles's Fair, originally granted by Rufus to Bishop Walkelin. It was held on St. Giles's Hill up to the 19th century, and in the middle ages was one of the chief commercial events of the year. While it lasted St. Giles's Hill was covered by a busy town, and no trade was permitted to be done outside the fair within seven leagues, or at Southampton; the jurisdiction of the mayor and bailiffs of the city was in abeyance, that of the bishop's officials taking its place.

From the time of the Conqueror until their expulsion by Edward I., Winchester was the site of a large colony of Jews, whose quarter in the city is marked to the present day by Jewry Street; Winchester is called by Richard of Devizes "the Jerusalem of England" on account of its kind treatment of its Jews, and there alone no anti-Jewish riots broke out after the coronation of Richard I. The corporation of Winchester claims to be one of the oldest in England, but the earliest existing charters are two given by Henry II., one merely granting to "my citizens of Winchester, who are of the gild merchant with their goods, freedom from toll, passage and custom," the other conferring upon them all liberties and customs which they enjoyed in the time of Henry I.; further charters, amplifying and confirming, were issued by succeeding sovereigns, were granted by Richard I. and John. The governing charter till 1835 was that of 1587, incorporating the city under the title of the "Mayor, Bailiffs and Commonalty of the City of Winchester"; this is the first charter which mentions a mayor, but it says that such an officer had "existed out of mind," and as early as 807 the town was governed by a wicerga, by name Beornwull, whose death is recorded in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. There is a doubtful reference to a mayor in 1194, and the office certainly existed early in the 12th century; but until 1292 the liberty of the sole encircling the city on almost every side was outside the jurisdiction of the city magistrates, being under the seigniory of the bishop of Winchester.

Winchester seems to have reached its zenith of prosperity at the beginning of the 12th century; the first check was given during the civil wars of Stephen's reign, when the city was burned. However, the last entry concerning it in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle says that Henry Plantagenet, after the treaty of Wallingford, was received with "great worship" in Winchester and London, and recognizing the equality of the two cities, but the latter was rising at Winchester's expense, and at the second coronation of Richard I. (1904) the citizens of Winchester had the significant mortification of seeing in their own city the citizens of London take their place as cupbearers to the king. The loss of Normandy further favoured the rise of London by depriving Winchester of the advantages it had enjoyed from its convenient position with regard to the continent. Moreover, it suffered severely at the hands of Simon de Montfort the Younger (1263), although it still continued to be an occasional royal residence, and the Statute of Winchester (1285) was passed in a council held there. Meanwhile the wool trade had drifted in great measure to the east of England; and an attempt made to revive the prosperity of Winchester in the 14th century by making it one of the staple towns proved unsuccessful. The wine trade, which had been considerable, was ruined by the sack of Southampton (1338); a few years later the city was devastated by the black death, and the charter of Elizabeth speaks of "our city of Winchester now fallen into great ruin, decay and poverty." During the Civil War the city suffered much from loyalty to Charles I., and lost its ancient castle founded by William I. After the Restoration a scheme was started to restore trade by making the Itchen navigable to Southampton, but neither then nor when revived in the 19th century was it successful. Charles II., intending to make Winchester again a royal residence, began a palace there, which by being unfinished at his death was used eventually as barracks. It was burnt down in 1804 and rebuilt in 1901. Northgate and Southgate were pulled down in 1781, Eastgate ten years later.

Westgate still stands at the top of the High Street. The guard-room was formerly used as a debtors' prison, now as a museum. The two weekly markets, still held in the Corn Exchange of Wednesday and Saturday, were confirmed by Elizabeth's charter; the latter dates from a grant of Henry VI. abolishing the Sunday market, which had existed from early times. The same grant established three fairs—one on October 13 (the day of the translation of St. Edward, king and confessor), one on the Monday and Tuesday of the first week in Lent, and another on St. Swithin's day; the former two are still held. Winchester sent two members to parliament from 1295 to 1885, when the representation was reduced to one.

Winchester, a town and the county-seat of Clark county, Kentucky, U.S.A., in the e. part of the Blue Grass region of the state, about 18 m. E. by S. of Lexington. Pop. (1890) 45105 (1900) 5064, including 3128 negroes; (1910) 7156. It is served by the Louisville & Nashville, the Chesapeake & Ohio and the Lexington & Eastern railways, the last being a short road (from Lexington to Jackson) extending into the mineral and timber region of Eastern Kentucky. The town is the seat of the Kentucky Wesleyan College (co-educational; Methodist Episcopal, South), opened in 1866, and of the Winchester Trades and Industrial School (1900). Winchester is in an agricultural, tobacco-growing, sleeping-town and resort region, and has various manufactures. It was first incorporated in 1792.

Winchester, a township of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., about 8 m. W. of Boston at the head of Mystic Pond, one of the sources of the Mystic river. Pop. (1900) 7248, of whom 1906 were foreign-born and 140 were negroes; (1910) 9350. Area, 6 sq. m. Winchester is served by the southern division of the Boston & Maine railway, and is connected with Boston, Arlington, Medford, Stoneham and Woburn by electric lines. It is chiefly a residential suburb of Boston. During the period of the substitution of freight for passenger traffic, which emptied into Mystic Pond, in Winchester township, both favourite resorts for canoeing, &c. Wedge Pond and Winter Pond, in the centre of the township, are clear and beautiful sheets of water. The streets of Winchester are heavily shaded, the view as presented from the neighbouring hills being that of a continuous forest stretching from the beautiful Mystic Valley parkway (of the Metropolitan park system), of which more than one-half (50-2 acres) is in the southern part of the township, to the Middlesex Fells Reservation (another Metropolitan park), of which 261.9 acres are in the eastern part; and there are a large number of centres of recreation, of which the Hain Pond Mountain and Indian Hill are about 320 ft. above sea-level. One of the pleasantest residential districts is Rangeley, a restricted private park. The town-hall and library building is a fine structure; the library contains about 20,000 volumes, and the museum and collections of the Winchester Historical and Genealogical Society. The principal manufactures are leather and felt goods. Winchester was originally within the limits of Charlestown.

In 1638 allotments of land between the Mystic Pond and the present Woburn were made to various Charlestown settlers, including John Harvard and Increase Nowell (1590-1653), secretary of the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1644-1649, and the new settlement was called Waterfield. Most of this territory in 1642 was incorporated in Woburn and was called South Woburn. In 1830 Winchester was separately incorporated, parts of Arlington (then West Cambridge) and Medford going to make it up its area, and was named in honour of Colonel W. P. Winchester of Watertown, who left to the township a legacy for municipal works.

Winchester, an independent city and the county-seat of Frederick county, Virginia, U.S.A., 87 m. by rail. W.N.W. of Washington. Pop. (1890) 5165; (1900) 5161, including 1105 negroes; (1910) 5864. Winchester is served by the Baltimore & Ohio and the Cumberland Valley railways. It is pleasantly situated in the fertile Shenandoah Valley about 720 ft. above sea-level. Fort Loudoun Seminary for girls occupies the site of old Fort Loudoun, and in the city is the Shenandoah Valley Academy, a military school for boys. The Handley library
(1910), a memorial to John Handley, a part of whose estate was bequeathed to establish industrial schools for the poor of Winchester, and an auditorium are owned by the municipality. The United States National Military Cemetery at Winchester contains the graves of 4,480 Union soldiers, 2,382 of them unknown, and adjoining it is the Confederate Stonewall Cemetery, with about 8,000 graves. The manufacture of gloves is the leading industry; among the other manufactures are woollen and knit goods, flour, leather, lumber, paper and bricks. Electricity, generated at the Shenandoah river, is used for power in many of the factories.

A settlement was established in this vicinity as early as 1732. In 1752 the present name was adopted and the town was established by act of the colonial legislature. In 1756, during the Seven Years' War, George Washington, in command of the provincial troops of Virginia, established his headquarters here and built Fort Loudoun. The town was incorporated in 1779. The Virginia Gazette and Winchester Advertiser, the first newspaper published in the Shenandoah Valley, was established here in 1787. In the Civil War, Winchester, because of its position in the lower Shenandoah Valley, played a great part, and was several times the scene of engagements between the Union and Confederate forces—in 1862, Jackson's actions of Kernstown, and in 1863, when General Sigel captured the position of a Union garrison by Ewell (14-15 June 1863); and in Sheridan's campaign of 1864 the battle of Winchester or Opequon (Sept. 19, 1864), for all of which see SHENANDOAH VALLEY CAMPAIGNS. Winchester was chartered as a city in 1852 and in 1906 the corporate limits were enlarged.

See J. E. Norris (ed.), History of the Lower Shenandoah Valley (Chicago, 1890), and T. K. Cartmell, Shenandoah Valley Pioneers (Winchester, 1909).

WINCKELMANN, JOHANN JOACHIM (1717-1768), German archaeologist, was born at Stendal in Brandenburg on the 9th of December 1717, the son of a poor shoemaker. He attended a gymnasium at Berlin and the school at Salzwedel, and in 1738 was induced to go as a student of theology to Halle. But he was no theologian, and he soon devoted himself with enthusiasm to Greek art and literature. With the intention of becoming a physician he attended medical classes at Jena; but means were insufficient and he was obliged to accept a tutorship near Magdeburg. From 1743 to 1748 he was associate-rector of a school at Seethausen in the Altmark. He then went to Nöthnitz near Dresden, to Cardinal Antoneto, the Bishop of Meissen, and while in the study of the Holy Roman empire he collected materials. The treasures in the Dresden gallery awakened an intense interest in art, which was deepened by association with various artists, and especially with A. F. Oester, who afterwards exercised so powerful an influence over Goethe. Winckelmann's study of ancient literature had inspired him with a desire to visit Rome, and he became librarian to Cardinal Passieno in 1754. This compelled him reluctantly to join the Roman Catholic Church.

In 1755, before leaving for Rome, Winckelmann published his Gedanken über die Nachahmung der griechischen Werke in Malerei und Bildhauerkunst ("Thoughts on the Imitation of Greek Works in Painting and Sculpture"), followed by a pretended attack on the work, and a defence of its principles, nominally by an impartial critic. The Gedanken contains the first statement of the doctrines he afterwards developed, and was warmly admired not only for the ideas it contained but for its style. Augustus III., elector of Saxony and king of Poland, granted him a pension of 200 thalers, that he might prosecute his studies in Rome. He arrived in Rome in November 1755, became a member of Cardinal Albani's household, and received much kindness from Cardinal Passieno. After their death in 1761 he was received as librarian and as a friend into the house of Cardinal Albani, who was forming his magnificent collection at Porta Salara. In 1763, while retaining this position, Winckelmann was made prefect of antiquities.

He devoted himself earnestly, at first with the aid of his friend A. R. Mengs, to the study of Roman antiquities, and gradually acquired an unrivalled knowledge of ancient art. In 1760 appeared his Description des pierres gravées du feu Baron de Stossich; in 1762 his Anmerkungen über die Baukunst der Allen ("Observations on the Architecture of the Ancients"), including an account of the temples at Paestum. In 1758 and 1762 he visited Naples, and from his Schilderungen der herculanischen Entdeckungen (1762) and his Nachricht von den neuesten herculanischen Entdeckungen (1764) scholars obtained their first real information about the treasures excavated at Pompeii and Herculanum. Winckelmann again visited Naples in 1765 and 1767, and wrote for the use of the electoral prince and princess of Saxony his Briefe an Bianconi, which were published, eleven years after his death, in the Anistologia romana. His masterpiece is the Geschichte der Alten Künstler ("History of Ancient Art"), issued in 1764, which, without recognizing the importance of a permanent contribution to European literature. In this work Winckelmann sets forth both the history of Greek art and the principles on which it seemed to him to be based. He also presents a glowing picture of the conditions, political, social and intellectual, which tended to foster creative activity in ancient Greece. The fundamental idea of his theory is that the end of art is beauty, and that this end can be attained only when individual and characteristic features are strictly subordinated to the general end of art. The true artist, selecting from nature the phenomena fitted for his purpose, and combining them through the imagination, creates an ideal type marked in action by "noble simplicity and calm greatness"—an ideal type in which normal proportions are maintained, particular parts, such as muscles and veins, not being permitted to break the harmony of the general outlines. In the historical portion he used not only the works of art he himself had studied but the scattered notices on the subject to be found in ancient writers; and his wide knowledge and active imagination enabled him to give fruitful suggestions as to periods about which he had little direct information. Many of his conclusions were based on the inadequate evidence of Roman copies have been modified or reversed by subsequent research, but the fine enthusiasm of the work, its strong and yet graceful style, and its vivid descriptions of works of art give it enduring value and interest. It marked an epoch by indicating the spirit in which the study of Greek art should be approached, and the methods by which investigators might hope to attain to solid results. To Winckelmann's contemporaries it came as a revelation, and exercised a profound influence on the best minds of the age. It was read widely by Goethe, and Winckelmann is known as the earliest of Winckelmann's works the starting-point for his later works.

Winckelmann contributed various admirable essays to the Bibliothek der schönen Wissenschaften; and in 1766 he published his Versuch einer Allegorie, which, although containing the results of much thought and reading, is not conceived in a thoroughly critical spirit. Of far greater importance was the splendid work entitled Monumenti antichi inediti (1767-1768), prefaced by a Trattato preliminare, presenting a general sketch of the history of art. The plates in this work are representations of objects which had either been falsely explained or not explained at all. Winckelmann's explanations were of the highest service to archaeology, by showing that in the case of many works of art supposed to be connected with Roman history the ultimate sources of inspiration were to be found in Homer.

In 1768 Winckelmann went to Vienna, where he was received with honour by Maria Theresa. At Trieste on his way back he was murdered in an hotel by a man named Arcangelli to whom he had shown some coins presented by Maria Theresa (June 8th. 1768). He was buried in the churchyard of the cathedral of St Giusto at Trieste.

An edition of his works was begun by Fernow in 1808 and completed by Meyer and Schulze (1868-1820). There are admirable studies of his character and work in Goethe's Winckelmann und sein Jahrhundert (1805), to which contributions were made by Meyer and Wolf, and in Walter Pater's Renaissance (1902). The best biography of Winckelmann is by Just, Winckelmann und seine Zeitgenossen (2nd ed., 3 vols., Leipzig, 1898). A collection of letters, Briefe an seine Züricher Freunde, was published by Blümner (Freiburg, 1882). (J. St.; J. M. M.)
WIND—WINDHAM

WIND (a common Teut. word, cognate with Skt. vasus, Lat. ventus, cf. “weather,” to be of course distinguished from to “wind,” to coil or twist, O.Eng. winidan, cf. “wander,” “wend,” &c.), a natural motion of the air, a current of air coming from any particular direction or with any degree of velocity. For the general account of winds, their causes, &c., see METEOROLOGY. Winds may be classified according to the strength or velocity with which they blow, varying from a calm, a breeze to a gale, storm or hurricane; for the varying scale of velocity per hour of these see BEAUFORT SCALE, and for the measurement ANEMOMETER.

Another classification divides them into “regular” or “constant” winds, such as the “trade winds” (q.v.) and “periodic” winds, such as the “monsoon” (q.v.). There are many special winds, such as the “Föhn,” “chinook,” “mistral,” “harmattan,” “sirocco,” which are treated under their individual names. For the group of musical instruments known by the generic name of WIND INSTRUMENTS see that heading.

WINDAU (Russian Windara, Lettish Wendelis), a seaport and sea-bathing resort of western Russia, in the government of Courland, at the mouth of the Windau, on the Baltic Sea, 114 mi. N.E. of Riga. Pop. (1907), 7432. It was first built in 1290. The harbour, 24 and 25 ft. deep, is free from ice all the year round. Timber, grain and other commodities are exported to the annual value of two to three millions sterling; the imports range between three-quarters and one million sterling.

WIND BRACES, in architecture, diagonal braces to tie the rafters of a roof together and prevent “racking.” In the better sort of medieval roofs they are arched, and run from the principal rafters to catch the purline.

WINDBANK, SIR FRANCIS (1563-1646), English secretary of state, was the only son of Sir Thomas Windbank of Hougham, Lincs., who owed his advancement to the Cecil family. Francis entered St John’s College, Oxford, in 1589, coming there under the influence of Laud. After a few years’ continental travel (1605-1608), he was employed for many years in minor public offices, and became clerk of the council. In June 1632 he was appointed by Charles I. secretary of state in succession to Lord Dorchester, his senior colleague being Sir John Coke, and he was knighted. His appointment was mainly due to his Spanish and Roman Catholic sympathies. The first earl of Portland, Francis de Grey, Lord Woresingham, and Windbank formed an inner group in the council, and with their aid the king carried on various secret negotiations, especially with Spain. In December 1634 Windbank was appointed to discuss with the papal agent Gregorio Panzani the possibility of a union between the Anglican and Roman Catholic Churches, and expressed the opinion that the Puritan and Roman Churches might be crippled by sending their leaders to the war in the Netherlands. Windbank’s efforts as treasury commissioner in 1633 to shield some of those guilty of corruption led to a breach with Archbishop Laud, and the next year he was for a time disgraced for issuing an order for the conveyance of Spanish money to pay the Spanish troops in the Netherlands. In July 1638 he urged upon the king instant war with the Scots, and in 1640, when tumults were breaking out in England, he sent an appeal from the queen to the pope for money and men. He was elected in March 1640 member of the Short Parliament for Oxford University, and he entered the Long Parliament in October as member for Corfe. In December the House learnt that he had signed letters of grace to recusant priests and Jesuits, and summoned him to answer the charge, but with the king’s consent he fled to France. From Calais he wrote to the first Lord Hatton, defending his integrity, and affirming his belief that the church of England was the purest and nearest the primitive Church. He remained in Paris until his death on the 1st of September 1646, shortly after he had been received into the Roman communion.

WINDERMERE, the largest lake in England, in the south-eastern part of the Lake District (q.v.). It is in the county of Westmorland, the boundary with Lancashire running from the head southwards along the western shore, round the foot and northward along about one-third of the eastern shore. It forms a narrow trough with a slightly curved axis of 103 m. The width at right angles to the axis never reaches 1 m. The area is 5.69 sq. m. The shores are generally steep, beautifully wooded and fretted with numerous little sheltered bays. The hills immediately surrounding the lake rarely reach 1000 ft., but the distant views of the mountains to the north and west contrast finely with the sylvan beauty of the lake itself. The middle of the lake, immediately opposite Bowness, is especially beautiful, for here a group of islands (Belle Isle, Thompson’s Holme, the Lilies and others) divide the lake into two bays, each with a width of about 1000 ft. The lake is about 300 ft. in depth. On the other hand, the greatest depth south of Bowness is 219 ft., and in the southern 134. The lake receives the Rothay and Brathay streams at the head; Trout Beck also flows into the north basin, and Conusy Beck from Esthwaite into the south. The lake is drained by the Leven. Steamers belonging to the Furness Railway Company ply regularly on Windermere, the chief stations being Lakeside, the terminus of a branch railway, beautifully situated at the foot, Ferry on the west shore below the islands, Bowness on the east and Waterhead, at the head, on Conusy Beck. The lake contains perch, pike, trout and char; there are several large hotels at Bowness and elsewhere on its shores.

The town of Windermere, above the eastern shore adjacent to Bowness (q.v.), is in the Appleby parliamentary division of Westmorland, and is the terminus of a branch line railway, beautifully situated at the foot, Ferry on the west shore below the islands, Bowness on the east and Waterhead, at the head, on Conusy Beck. The lake contains perch, pike, trout and char; there are several large hotels at Bowness and elsewhere on its shores.

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WINDHAM, WILLIAM (1750-1816), English politician, came from an ancient family long resident at Felbrigg, near Cromer in Norfolk. His father, Colonel William Windham (1717-1761), was an adventurous soldier with a taste for languages, both ancient and modern; his son was born in Golden Square, London, on the 3rd of May 1750. He went to Eton, which he quitted in 1766 for the university of Glasgow, where he acquired the taste for mathematics which always distinguished him. In 1767 he matriculated as gentleman commoner at University College, Oxford, and Windham here remained until 1771. He never took the degree of B.A., but qualified as M.A. on the 7th of October 1782, and received the degree of D.C.L. on the 3rd of July 1793. He made a tour in Norway in 1773 and visited Switzerland and Italy between 1778 and 1780. His maiden speech on the political platform was delivered at Norwich on the 28th of January 1778, when he vehemently opposed the prosecution of the American war. His entrance into public life took place in April 1783, when he went to Ireland as chief secretary to Lord Northington, the lord-lieutenant in the coalition ministry of Fox and Lord North. Windham was his own keenest critic, his distrust in his own powers and his disappointment at his own achievements being conspicuous on every page of his Diary. Sickness compelled his return to England early in July 1783, and he resigned his position in August; but change of scene and constant exercise restored him to health before the end of that year. In April 1784 he was returned to parliament as member for Norwich by a majority of 64 votes, thus scoring one of the few triumphs attained by the adherents of the coalition cabinet. This seat he retained until 1827, when he was beaten on account of his hostility to the peace of that year.

Though he strenuously opposed all proposals for parliamentary reform, to which most of the Whigs were deeply committed, Windham remained in alliance with that party until after the outbreak of the French Revolution, when he and several of his chief allies joined Pitt. The place of secretary-at-war was conferred upon him in July 1794, and he was at the same time created a privy councillor and admitted to a seat in the cabinet. Windham discharged the duties of his office with unfagging zeal, his efforts being particularly directed towards ameliorating the condition of the inferior grades of the army. In the autumn of
1794 he was despatched to the duke of York's camp in Flanders with the views of his ministerial colleagues, but their advice could not counteract the military incapacity of the royal duke. When Pitt was frustrated in his intention for forcing the Roman Catholics from their political disabilities, Windham, who in religious matters always inclined to liberal opinions, was one of the ministers who retired from office in February 1801. He was a constant opponent of all negotiations for peace with France, preferring to prosecute the campaign at whatever cost until some decisive victory had been gained, and the temporary peace of Amiens, which was carried through under Addington's administration, did not meet with his approval. When he was ousted from the representation of Norwich in June 1802, a seat for the county of Norfolk was granted to him. He declined a place in Pitt's new cabinet (May 1804) on the ground that the exclusion of Fox prevented the formation of an administration sufficiently strong in parliament and the country to cope with the dangers which threatened the safety of the nation, and he offered a general opposition to the measures which the prime minister proposed. On Pitt's death in January 1806 the ministry of "All the Talents" was formed under the leadership of Lord Grenville, and Windham accepted the seals as secretary of state for war and the colonies. Fox's death negered the quality of a new sentence was proposed for Windham, but he declined the proffered honour and remained in office as long as the ministry existed. A general election took place in November 1806 and Windham was elected for the county of Norfolk; but the election was declared void on petition, and he was compelled to sit for the borough of New Romney, for which he had also been elected. In 1807, when parliament was dissolved under the influence of the "No Popery" cry of Spencer Perceval, a seat was found for Windham at Higham Ferrers. Liberty of religious opinion he uniformly supported at all periods of his life, and with equal consistency he opposed all outbreaks of religious fanaticism; hence with these convictions in his mind few of the domestic measures of the new ministers met with his approbation. Moreover, he disapproved of the expedition to the Scheldt, and thought the charges brought against the Duke of York, as commander-in-chief, required his retirement from office. At the same time he actively opposed the bill of Sir Samuel Romilly, his colleague on most political questions, for reducing the number of offences visited with the punishment of death. In July 1808 he received a blow on the hip whilst rendering assistance at a fire, which he thought little of; but it stopped him for a period, and a surgeon's opinion was taken on the point and an operation became necessary. This brought on a fever, and Windham rapidly sank. He died on the 4th of June 1810, and was buried in the family vault at Felbrig.

His speeches were published in three volumes in 1806, with a memoir by Thomas Amyot, his private secretary while he was in office in 1806, and his Diary was edited by Mrs Henry Baring in 1866. The passages in the latter work relative to Dr Johnson's declining days have been of considerable use to the later editors of Boswell.

**WIND INSTRUMENTS** (Fr. instruments à vent, Ger. Blasinstrummtc, Ital. strumenti di fusto), a numerous and powerful section of the orchestra classified according to the acoustic properties of the instruments and to certain intrinsic structural features. The first great natural subdivision is that of (A) mouth blown, and (B) mechanically blown, instruments. **Section A** falls into the classes of (1) wood wind, (2) brass wind, with their numerous subdivisions.

1. (a) Wood Wind.—Pipes without embouchure or mouthpiece, such as the ancient Egyptian one, a long flute with narrow bore and obliquely, and the syrinx or pan-pipes, both of which are blown by direct pressure on the lips. The oboe is a pipe added endwise, which it impinges against the sharp edge of the rim. (b) Pipes with embouchure but no mouthpiece, such as the transverse flute, piccolo and serpent, the latter a pipe with an embouchure and a circular bore, but no mouthpiece.

2. The Brass Wind consists of the following classes: (a) Tubes of fixed length, such as the natural trumpet and French horn, all medieval horns and trumpets, including the busine, the tuba, the oboe, the hunting horn and the bugle, music pipes, cornets, cornets, lictus and tuba. The compass of all these was restricted to the few notes of the harmonic series obtained by overblowing. (b) Tubes of which the length is varied by a slide, such as the sackbut family, the slide trombone and slide trumpet. When the slide is drawn out the column of air is lengthened and the pitch proportionally lowered. Each position or shift of the slide enables the performer to obtain the next lower harmonic of which the length is varied by lateral holes and keys. To this class belong the keyed bugle and its bass the ophicleide, the oboe and the clarinet (Bassoons) and all brass and Russian bassoon, which immediately preceded the cornets. The cornets and sarrusophones might also be classed with these (see above, 1d).

(c) Tubes of which the length is varied by valves or pistons. This class includes most modern instruments. The valve was invented in 1815, which revolutionized the technique and scoring for brass instruments. A rational subdivision of valve instruments is made in Germany into whole and half instruments (see BOMBARDE and VALVES), according to whether the whole length of tubing comes into practical use or only half, or from the performer's point of view whether the fundamental note of the harmonic series can be produced, or whether the series begins with the second, member, an occurrence which is not infrequent in the first, in which case the end is obviously that half the tubing has no practical value. The principal piston instruments are: the whole instruments—contrabass and bass tubas, bombardons or tuba, euphonium, and such乐器 as the cornets, tenors, basset horns, Flügelhorns, tenor horns, cornets, the valve trombone, valve trumpet and valve horn (French horn), and the Wagner tubas, which are really the basses of the French horn and are played with four more valves. The mouthpieces and pipes are constructed according to the shape of the mouthpiece used. (a) With funnel-shaped mouthpiece, such as the French horn, tenor horn and Wagner tubas: (b) with bell-mouthpiece, and some of the other brass wind instruments except the bugle, of which the mouthpiece is a hybrid, neither true funnel nor true cup.

**Section B:** Mechanically Blown Instruments.—This section consists mainly of instruments having the air supply fed by means of bellows; it comprises the two classes: (1) with keyboard, (2) without keyboard.

1. This includes all kinds of organs: the ancient hydraulic organ or hydraulis, differing from the pneumatic only in that water pressure was used to compress the air supply instead of the bellows
being weighted by means of the foot and body of the performer at first and later by means of weights; the reed organ, consisting of pipes furnished with beating reeds, known also as the reed work when incorporated with the large church organ; the harmonium, upon them the power of dynamic expression denied to all organs fitted with flue pipes or pipes having beating reeds. The complex instruments known as organ pipes also come within this category.

2. This comprises the bagpipes known as musette, and the Union or Irish and the Border bagpipes having a wind supply fed by bellows instead of by the insufflation pipe proper to the bagpipes. Upon the barrel organ having instead of a keyboard a barrel studded with nails, which lift the valves admitting air to the flue pipes generally hidden within the case.

WINDISCHGRATZ, PRINCE ALFRED (1787-1862), Austrian field-marshall, entered the Austrian army in 1804, participated in all the wars against Napoleon and fought with distinction at Leipzig and in the campaign of 1814. In the following years of peace he held successive commands in Prague, being appointed head of the army in Bohemia in 1840. Having gained a reputation as a champion of energetic measures against revolution he was called upon to suppress the insurrection of March 1848 in Vienna, but finding himself ill-supported by the ministers he speedily threw up his post. Having returned to Prague he there showed firmness in quelling an armed outbreak of the Czech separatists (June 1848). Upon the recrudescence of revolt in Vienna he was summoned at the head of a large army and reduced the city by a formal siege (Oct. 20-29). Appointed to the chief command against the Hungarians he gained some early successes and reoccupied Budapest (Jan. 1849), but by his slowness in pursuit he allowed the enemy to rally in superior numbers and to prevent an effective concentration of the Austrian forces. In April 1849 he was relieved of his command and henceforth rarely appeared again in public life.


WINDMILL, a term used, in the widest sense, for a machine by which the energy of the wind is applied to useful purposes.

Windmills were certainly used as early as the 12th century and are still largely employed in Holland in draining the polders and grinding trass. They are somewhat extensively used in America for pumping and driving agricultural machinery. In spite of the competition of more powerful and tractable motors, they are serviceable, especially in new countries, where fuel is scarce and where work can be done intermittently. An inquiry was made in India in 1870 as to the possibility of using windmills for irrigation (Professional Papers on Irrigation Engineering, July 1879) with the result that it was concluded their usefulness would be very limited.

A windmill is not in any case a very powerful or efficient motor, and its work is variable and intermittent. In favourable positions, it will run on an average for eight hours out of the twenty-four. For pumping on a small scale, the intermittent action is least an objection, because there is generally a tank or storage reservoir regulating the delivery of the water. For driving dynamos windmills are least suitable, on account of the variation of speed, though some attempts to generate electricity by wind power have been made, special arrangements being adopted for automatically regulating the speed or power.

European Windmills.—In all the older windmills a shaft, called the wind shaft, carried four to six arms or whips on which long rectangular narrow sails were spread. The wind shaft was placed at an inclination of 10° or 15° with the horizontal, to enable the sails to clear the lower part of the mill. The whip carrying the sail was often 30 to 40 ft. in length, so that the tips of the sails described a circle 60 to 80 ft. in diameter. The sails were rectangular, 5 to 6 ft. wide, and occupying five-sixths of the length of the whip. A triangular leading sail was sometimes added, the tip of which was sometimes made of a sail-cloth spread on a framework; at other times narrow boards were used. The oldest mill was no doubt the post mill, the whole structure being carried on a post; to bring the sails to face the wind, the structure was turned round by a long lever. The post mill was succeeded by the tower, smock or frock mill, in which the mill itself consisted of a stationary tower, and the wind shaft and sails were carried in a revolving cap rotating on the top of the tower. Andrew Meikle introduced in 1730 an auxiliary rotating fan at right angles to the principal sails, which came into wind whenever the wind was against the sails, and automatically veering the sails or placing them normal to the wind. For safety, the sails must be reeded in high winds. In 1807, Sir W. Cubitt introduced automatic reeding arrangements. The sails were made of thin boards held up to the wind by weights. If the force of the wind exceeded a certain value the boards were pressed back and exposed little surface.

American Windmills.—These generally have the sails, 18 or more in number, arranged in an annulus or disk. The sails consist of narrow boards or slats arranged radially, each board having a constant or variable inclination to the wind's direction. An American mill presents a larger surface for a given length of sail than the older type, and consequently the construction is lighter. To turn the mill face to the wind a rudder is sometimes used projecting backward in a plane at right angles to the plane of rotation of the sails. Various arrangements are adopted for reeding the sails automatically. (a) In some an action equivalent to reeding is obtained by turning the sail disk oblique to the wind. The pressure on a side vane in the plane of rotation, controlled by a weight, turns the sail disk edgeways to the wind if the pressure exceeds a safe amount. (b) In centrifugal governor mills the slats forming the sails are connected in sets of six or eight, each set being fixed to a bar at the middle of its length. By rotating this bar the slats are brought end on to the wind, the action being analogous to shutting an umbrella. The slats are held up to the wind by a weight. A centrifugal governor lifts the weight if the speed becomes excessive and the sails are partially or completely furled. Many of the veering and reeding arrangements are very ingenious and too complicated to be described without detailed drawings. A description of some of these arrangements will be found in a paper by J. A. Griffiths (Proc. Inst. C. Eng., 110, p. 321) and a "Report on Trials of Wind Pumping Engines at Park Royal in 1903" (Journ. Roy. Agric. Soc., 64, p. 174).

Warner's Annular Sails Windmills.—Messrs Warner of London make a windmill somewhat similar to American mills. The vanes consist of a frame covered with canvas, and these are pivoted between two angle-iron rings so as to form an annular sail. The vanes are connected with spiral springs, which keep them up to the best at the height of weather for light to strong winds. As the wind increases, the vanes give to the wind, forcing back the springs, and thus the area on which the wind acts diminishes. In addition, there is a striking lever and toggle for setting the vanes edgeways to the wind when the mill is stopped or a storm is expected. The
wheel is kept face to the wind by a rudder in small mills; in large mills a subsidiary fan and gear are used. Fig. 2 shows a large mill of this kind, erected in a similar manner to a tower mill. The tower is a framework of iron, and carries a revolving cap, on which the wind shaft is fixed. Behind is the subsidiary fan with its gearing acting on a toothed wheel fixed to the cap.

It is important that a wind-mill should control itself so that it works efficiently in moderately strong winds and at the same time runs in very light winds, which are much more prevalent. It should also, by reeling or otherwise, secure safety in storms.

Table I gives the mean velocity of the wind in miles per hour for an inland station, Kew, and a very exposed station, Scilly, for each month during the period 1890-1899. The pressure of the wind on a plane normal to its direction, composed partly of an excess front pressure and negative back pressure, is given by the relation

\[ p = 0.003 \nu^2 \]

where \( p \) is in pounds per square foot and \( \nu \) the velocity of the wind in miles per hour.

Table I

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kew</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scilly</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kew</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scilly</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the sail is rotating in a plane at right angles to the wind direction the conditions are more complicated. In Fig. 4 let XX be the plane of rotation of the vane and YY the direction of the wind. Let \( \theta \) be the angle between the normal to the vane, \( \theta \) being the weather of the vane. Let \( \Omega = \nu \) be the velocity of the wind, \( \Omega = \nu \) the velocity of the vane. Completing the parallelogram, \( \Omega = \nu \), is the velocity and direction of the wind relative to the vane.

\[ v = \sqrt{\nu^2 + \Omega^2} \]

and the angle between the relative direction of wind and normal to the vane is \( \theta + \phi \). It is clear that \( \theta + \phi \) cannot be greater than \( 90^\circ \), or the vane would press on the wind instead of the wind on the vane. Substituting these values in the equations already given, the normal pressure on the oblique moving vane is

\[ n = 0.003 \nu^2 \sin (\theta + \phi) \frac{2 \sin (\theta + \phi)}{1 + \cos (\theta + \phi)} \]

The component of this pressure in the direction of motion of the vane is

\[ t = 0.003 \nu^2 \sin (\theta + \phi) \frac{2 \sin (\theta + \phi) \cos (\theta + \phi)}{1 + \cos (\theta + \phi)} \]

and the work done in driving the vane is

\[ t \nu = \frac{2 \sin (\theta + \phi) \cos (\theta + \phi)}{1 + \cos (\theta + \phi)} \]

foot lb per sq. ft. of vane per sec., where \( \nu \) is taken in miles per hour. For such angles and velocities as are usual in windmills this would give for a square foot of vane, near the tip of a \( 0.003 \nu^2 \) ft. lb per sec. But parts of the vane or sail nearer the axis of rotation are less effective, and there are mechanical friction and other causes of inefficiency. An old rule based on experiments by Coulomb on mills of the European type gave the average effective work in foot lb per sec. per sq. ft. of sail

\[ W = 0.001 \nu^2 \]

Table I.—In 150 Working Hours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Revolutions of wheel</td>
<td>208,000</td>
<td>308,000</td>
<td>264,000</td>
<td>322,000</td>
<td>222,000</td>
<td>202,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double strokes of pump</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>122,000</td>
<td>264,000</td>
<td>160,000</td>
<td>78,000</td>
<td>48,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallons lifted</td>
<td>78,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>46,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>48,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average effective horse-power</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some data given by Wolff on mills of the American type gave for the same quantity

\[ W = 0.000455^2. \]

From some of the data of experiments by Griffiths on mills of the American type used in pumping, the effective work in pumping when the mill was working in the best conditions amounted to 0.0005 to 0.0008 ft. lb. per sec. per sq. ft.

In 1903 trials of wind-pumping engines were carried out at Park Royal by the Royal Agricultural Society (Journ. Roy. Agric. Soc. Ixiv. 174). The results on six of the best mills used are given in Table II.

A valuable paper by J. A. Griffiths (Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng. cxxix. 321) contains details of a number of windmills of American type used for pumping and the results of a series of trials. Table III contains an abstract of the results of his observations on six types of windmills used for pumping:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diameter of wheel, feet</th>
<th>Sill area, square feet</th>
<th>Weather angle, outer ends</th>
<th>Pitch of vanes, outer ends, feet</th>
<th>Pitch of vanes, inner ends, feet</th>
<th>Height of lift, feet</th>
<th>Velocity of wind at maximum efficiency, miles per hour</th>
<th>Ratio of velocity of tips of vanes to velocity of wind</th>
<th>Revolutions of mill, per minute</th>
<th>Actual horse-power</th>
<th>Quantity of water lifted, gallons per hour in a calm locality</th>
<th>Quantity of water lifted, gallons per hour in a windy locality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Although the employment of tracery continued long after the classic revival, the examples generally are poor in design, and even in their picturesque (as of the period of Henry II, in the church at Le Grand Andely, the incrustation of circular fanlights in the ordinary and rose windows was of too capricious a character to make them worthy of much attention. The early Renaissance architect Ercole Ravenshaw in the apse of St Pierre at Caen (1520), seemed to feel that the stained glass was too much cut up by the tracery and mullions, and omitted them altogether, trusting to the iron stanchions and cross-bars to carry the weight. The window in question was one of the semi-circular headed window of Roman times, retaining only the moulings of the flat Flamboyant period for the jambs and arch-moulds. Windows of the Flamboyant type, the chief ornament of place in domestic architecture, so that the mullion window was retained with two or three transoms, all moulded and with square heads; in the Tudor period cusping was introduced in the upper lights and occasionally in those below, and this custom lingered for a long time in the collegiate buildings of Oxford and Cambridge and in various houses throughout England. In France, square-headed windows were almost always employed, owing to the earlier introduction there of the Renaissance style, when the decoration of the murals, generally consisting of classic pilasters, required some kind of architrave, frieze and cornice, to render the order complete; eventually the mullion and transom disappeared, and in the earlier work of the Louvre the windows are simple rectangular openings, fitted with wooden framework, and, like those in Rome, Milan and Genoa, depend for their architectural effect on the moulded classic jambs, and the lintel, frieze and cornice, so that the whole effect was one of grace. In the windows of St Mark's in Venice, where a parclose was required, with small semicircular or pilasters carrying the usual entablature, with small pediments sometimes angular and sometimes semicircular, repeating in fact an ancient Roman design, of which almost nothing was retained in the blank retaining space of niches and niches which decorated some of the enclosure walls of the Roman thermae. In Florence and Siena the early windows of the Renaissance style are and are coupled together, there being two lights to the window divided by shafts, thus continuing the tradition of those of the earlier Tuscan palaces; the same tradition was followed in Venice, Verona and other towns in the northeast, where the Gothic influence of the Low Countries created a transition; thus the moulings of the windows of the Vendramini and Corner Spinelli palaces follow closely those of the Ducal. In other words, these are semicircular instead of being either pointed or ogee in form. Another type peculiar to Venice is a lofty window with semicircular head enclosed in a rectangular panel and crowned with a small entablature and pediment. The only new combination of the 16th century in Italy, which was largely adopted in England by Inigo Jones and his followers in the 17th and 18th centuries, is the so-called Venetian or Palladian window, the finest example of which is that found in the Sala della Signoria, the Senate Room of the Doge's palace, at Venice, it is true, but it was copied by Palladio to light an open gallery, but the composition was so generally approved that it led to its constant adoption for a window of greater or less importance. It is distinct from the ordinary simple rectangular form. It consists of a central light, either round or oval, or in an octagon, carried on an impost consisting of a small entablature, under which, and enclosing two other lights, one on each side, are pilasters. In the window which Inigo Jones installed in the Palladian window was introduced by Inigo Jones in the centre of the facade front at Wren, by Lord Burlington in the centres of the wings of the Royal Academy, and good examples exist in Holkham House, Norfolk, by Kent, and in Worcester College, Oxford. There do not seem to be any examples in either Germany, France or Spain. Circular and oval lights, lighting a mezzanine on the upper part of a hall, are found in Italy, France and England, and occasional rectangular windows when the main front is decorated with semidetached columns as at Hampton Court Palace.

R. P. S.

**WINDOW CORNICE**.—An ornamental framework of wood or composition to which window curtains are attached by rods with rings or hooks. Cornices are of various kinds of elaborate design, but they are less fashionable in the 20th century than before it was discovered that elaborate draperies harbour dust and microbes. Like other pieces of furniture, they have reflected taste as it passed, and many of the carefully constructed examples of the latter part of the 18th century are still in use in the rooms for which they were made. Chipperdale provided a famous series still in situ for the gallery at Harewood House, the valances of which are, like the cornices themselves, of carved and gilded wood. Cornices are fitted to outside windows, and are found in the windows of many houses, except in the Venetian heads of French work.

**WINDOW SEAT**.—A miniature sofa without a back, intended to fill the recess of a window. In the latter part of the 18th century, when tall narrow sash windows were almost universal, the window seat was in high favour, and was no doubt in keeping with the formalism of Georgian interiors. It differed much in decorative detail, but little in form. It stood as high from the floor as a chair; the two ends were identical, with a roll-over curve, more or less pronounced. The seats and ends were usually upholstered in rich fabrics which in many cases have remained intact. The legs followed the fashion in chairs and were square and tapered, or, somewhat later, round and reeded. Hepplewhite and the brothers Adam designed many graceful window seats, but they were produced by all the cabinet-makers of the period.

**WINDY TAC**.—A tax first levied in England in the year 1657 for the purpose of defraying the expenses and making up the deficiency arising from clipped and defaced coin in the reign of silver during the reign of William III. It was an assessed tax on the rental value of the house, levied according to the number of windows and openings on houses having more than six windows and worth more than £5 per annum. Owing to the method of assessment the tax fell with peculiar hardship on the middle classes, and to this day traces of the endeavour to lighten its burden may be seen in numerous bricked-up windows.

The revenue derived from the tax in the first year of its levy amounted to £1,200,000. The tax was increased no fewer than six times between 1747 and 1808, but was reduced in 1823. There was a strong agitation in favour of the abolition of the tax during the reign of George III (1760-1815), and it was accordingly repealed on the 24th of July 1815, and a tax on inhabited houses substituted. The tax contributed £1,856,000 to the imperial revenue the year before its abolition. There were in England in the year 1814 about 275,000 houses having fifty windows and upwards; about 275,000 houses having forty windows and upwards, and about 725,000 having seven windows or less.

In France there is still a tax on doors and windows, and this forms an appreciable amount of the revenue.

**WINDPIPE**.—The trachea. (Gr. tracheia, sc. apriymbia, literally, rough artery), the air tube which leads from the larynx to the bronchi and lungs (see **RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**).

**WINDSOR**, a city and port of entry of Essex county, Ontario, Canada, on the left bank of the Detroit River, opposite the city of Detroit, Pop. (1905) 12,155. It is on the Grand Trunk, Canadian Pacific, Pere Marquette and Michigan Central railways, which connect at this point with the railways of the United States by means of large and powerful car-ferries. It is the centre of an important agricultural and fruit-growing district, in which tobacco is also produced. Salt works, flour mills, canning factories, and the manufacture of type-setting machines are the principal industries. During the season of navigation it is the centre of a large coasting trade on the Great Lakes.

**WINDSOR**, a township of Hartford county, Connecticut, U.S.A., on the Connecticut and Farmington rivers, adjoining the City of Hartford (1859) 2954; (1900) 3514, 596 being foreign-born; (1910) 4178. Among the buildings served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroad and by electric lines to Hartford and to Springfield, Massachusetts. Among the buildings are the Congregational Church, built in 1704 (the church itself was organized in 1630 in England), the Protestant Episcopal Church (1864) and the Roger Ludlow School. In Windsor are the Campbell School (for girls) and a public library (1888). The Loomis Institute (incorporated 1874 and 1905) for the gratuitous education of persons between 12 and 17 years of age has about 600 pupils, and the gifts of the Loomis family. Tobacco and market vegetables are raised in Windsor, and among its manufactures are paper, canned goods, knit and woollen goods, cigars and electrical supplies.

In 1635 Captain William Holmes, of the Plymouth Colony, established near the mouth of the Farmington river a trading post, the first settlement by Englishmen in Connecticut; a more important and a permanent settlement (until 1637 called New Dorchester) was made in 1635 by immigrants from Dorchester, Massachusetts, led by the Rev. John Warehouse, Roger Ludlow and others in England by the tract of ten-necticut Colony. Among the original land-holders were Matthew Grant and Thomas Dewey, ancestors respectively of General

1 In the township of Windsor Locks (pop. 1910, 3715), immediately north, cotton yarn and thread, silk, paper, steel and machinery are manufactured.
WINDSOR

U. S. Grant and Admiral George Dewey; and Captain John Mason (1600-1672), the friend of Miles Standysh, was one of its early citizens. It was the birthplace of Roger Wolcott, of the older Oliver Wolcott (1726-1707), of Oliver Ellsworth (whose home is now a historical museum), and of Edward Rowland Hill. Windsor has been called "The Mother of Towns"; it originally included the territory now constituting the present township, and the townships of East Windsor (1768), Ellington (1756), South Windsor (1843), Simsbury (1760), Granby (1760), East Granby (1858), Bloomfield (1853) and Windsor Locks (1854).


WINDSOR (properly NEW WINDSOR), a municipal borough of Berkshire, England, and a parliamentary borough extending into Buckinghamshire. Pop. (1901) 14,130. The town, which is famous for its royal castle, lies on the west (right) bank of the Thames, 214 m. W. of London by the Great Western railway, which serves it with a branch line from Slough. It is also the terminus of a branch of the London & South-Western railway. Here the Thames, from an easterly course, sweeps first nearly northward and then south-eastward.

The castle lies at the north-eastern edge of the town, on a slight but commanding eminence, while the massive round tower in the centre, on its artificial mound, is conspicuous from far over the flat land to the east, north and west. The site of the castle is an irregular parallelogram measuring about 650 yds. by 185 yds. On the west the walls enclosing the "tower ward," with the Chapel, Garter, St. George's, and Henry III. towers, overlook Thames Street and High Street, from which the "hundred steps" give access to the ward on the north, and the Henry VIII. gateway, opening from Castle Hill, on the south. This ward contains St George's Chapel in the centre, with the Albert Memorial Chapel on the east and the Shoeshoes Cloisters on the west. To the north are the deanery and the canons' residences, for the foundation attached to the royal chapel has the privileges of a "royal peculiar," the dean being exempt from episcopal jurisdiction. To the south are the guard-room and the houses of the military knights, or pensioners.

The round tower occupies the "middle ward"; on its flag-turret the Union Jack or the Royal Standard is hoisted according as the sovereign is absent or present. The buildings in the "upper ward," cast of this, form three sides of a square; the state apartments on the north, the private apartments on the east and the visitors' apartments on the south. Along the north side of the castle extends the north terrace, commanding, from its position above a steep slope, splendid views across the river to Eton on the Buckinghamshire side, and far over the valley of the Thames, which here is deeply incised in the chalk. Under the parapet of the castle are theRoyal Gardens, containing in front of the private apartments, and the south terrace continues farther, as far as the George IV. gateway. The Home Park lies adjacent to the castle on the south, east and north. The Great Park extends south of Windsor, where the land, rising gently, is magnificently timbered with the remnants of the old royal forest. The village of Old Windsor (in distinction from which the name of New Windsor is given to the borough) lies by the river, south of the Home Park. To the west of Windsor itself the village of Clewer has become a suburb of the town.

As early as the time of the Heptarchy a stronghold of some importance existed at Windsor, the great mound, which is moated, circular and about 125 ft. in diameter, being a remnant of this period. William the Conqueror was attracted by the forest as a hunting preserve, and obtained the land by exchange from Westminster Abbey, to which Edward the Confessor had given it. Thereafter the castle became what it remains, the chief residence of the English sovereigns. The Conqueror replaced the primitive wooden enclosure by a stone circuit-wall, and the first complete round tower was built by Henry III. about 1272, but Edward III. wholly reconstructed it on a more massive scale, about 1344, to form a meeting-place for his newly established order of Knights of the Garter. He selected this spot because, according to a legend quoted by the chronicler Froissart, it was on the summit of the mound that King Arthur used to sit surrounded by his Knights of the Round Table. The bulk of the existing round tower is of Edward's time, but its walls were heightened and the tall flag-turret added by the court architect, Sir Jeffrey Wyatville, in the reign of George IV. In addition to the Round Tower, Henry III. had constructed long lines of circuit-walls, crowned at intervals with smaller towers. He also built a great hall (the present chapter library) and other apartments, together with his chapel, whose spires afterwards yielded down to make room for the chapel of St George. The beautiful little dean's cloister preserves a portion of Henry's work in the south wall, a contemporary portrait of the king appearing in dis-temper on one of the arches. Another chapel was built by him and dedicated to his favourite saint, Edward the Confessor. This graceful building, with an eastern apse, is now called the Albert Memorial Chapel; some of Henry III.'s work still exists in the lower part of its walls, but the upper part was rebuilt 1460-1503 by Henry VII., who intended it as a burial-place for himself and his line, before he began the chapel which bears his name and contains his tomb at Westminster Abbey. Some years later the unfinished chapel was given by Henry VIII. to Cardinal Wolsey, and for long after it was known as "Wolsey's tomb-house." Wolsey engaged a Florentine sculptor named Benedetto, probably a son or nephew of Benedetto da Maiano (d. 1497), also a Florentine artist, to make him a costly tomb of marble and gilt bronze, with a recumbent effigy at the top, no doubt similar in design to Torrigiano's tomb of Henry VII. at Westminster. The rich bronze work of Wolsey's tomb has been torn off and melted by order of the Commonwealth, and the metal was sold for the then large sum of £600. In 1505 the black marble sarcophagus, stripped of its bronze ornaments, was moved from Windsor and used as a monument over Nelson's grave in the crypt of St Paul's. Though Wolsey's tomb-house was roofed in and used for mass by James I., the stone vaulting was not completed until the whole chapel was fitted by Sir Gilbert Scott as a memorial to Albert, Prince Consort. Its internal walls were then lined with rich marbles, and decorated with reliefs by Baron Triqueti. The cenotaph of the Prince Consort stands alone on the altar, with the tombs of Prince Leopold, duke of Albany, and the duke of Clarence; the last erected by King Edward VII., who was himself buried here in May 1910. In a vault beneath the chapel George III. and members of his family are buried.

The castle of St George is one of the finest examples of Perpendicular architecture in England, comparable with two other royal chapels, that of King's College at Cambridge and that of Henry VII. at Westminster, which are a little later in date. The building was begun by Edward IV., who in 1473 pulled down the old chapel, which had been erected north, west and south of the building of Edward III., and filled with stained glass by Edward III. in 1355. The nave of St George's was vaulted about the year 1490, but the choir groining was not finished till 1507; the hanging pendants from the fan vaulting of the choir mark a later development of style, which contrasts strongly with the simpler lines of the earlier nave vault. In 1516 the lantern and the roof-screen were completed, but the stalls and other fittings were not finished till 1519. The chapel ranks next to Westminster Abbey as a royal mausoleum, though no king was buried there before Edward IV., who left directions in his will that his body should be placed beside that of Jane Seymour, in a magnificent bronze and marble tomb. The tomb was never completed, and what existed of its metal-work was probably melted down by the Commonwealth. No trace of it remains. Charles I. was buried here without service in 1649. Above the dark oak stalls hang the historic insignia of the Knights of the Garter, their swords, helmets and banners. On the stalls themselves appear a remarkable series of enamelled brass plates commemorating knights of the order. Many tombs and memorials are seen in the chantry chapels.

WINDSOR CASTLE.
The deanery, adjoining the dean's cloister, is dated 1500, but the Winchester tower to the north-east of it is the work of the famous prelate and architect William of Wykeham, who was employed by Edward III. on the greater part of this extension and alteration of Henry III.'s work. The Horseshoe cloisters were restored in Tudor style by Sir Gilbert Scott. The Norman gate on the north side of the round tower was rebuilt by Wykeham.

The site of the upper ward was built upon by Henry II., and, to a greater extent, by Edward III., but only in the foundations and lowest storey are remains of so early a period to be found. The buildings were wanting in homogeneity until their reconstruction was undertaken by Sir Jeffrey Wyattville under the direction of George IV., for Charles II. was unable to carry out a similar intention, perhaps fortunately, as Sir Christopher Wren proposed drastic alterations. Charles, however, completed the so-called Star Building, named from the representation of the star of the Order of the Garter on the north front. Here the state apartments are situated. They include the throne room, St. George's Hall, where mounted by the Order of the Garter are held, the audience and presence chambers, and the grand reception room, adorned with Gobelins tapestries, and the guard-room with armour. All these chambers contain also splendid pictures and other objects of art; but more notable in this connexion are the picture gallery, the Rubens room or king's drawing-room, and the magnificent Van Dyck room. The ceilings of several of the chambers were decorated by Antonio Verrio, under the direction of Charles II. In the royal library, which is included among the private apartments, is a fine collection of drawings by the old masters, including three volumes from the hand of Leonardo da Vinci. Here is also a magnificent series of eighty-seven portraits by Holbein, highly finished in sepia and chalk, representing the chief personages of the court of Henry VIII. There are, moreover, examples by Michangelo and Raphael, though the series attributed to these masters are not accepted as genuine in their entirety.

South of the castle, beside the Home Park, is the Royal Mews. Within the bounds of the park is Frogmore (q.v.), with the Royal Mews.

The parks.

Windsor town.

The parks.

The park is divided into two distinct parts, the home park and the Windsor Great Park, which is the larger. The home park is about 500 acres, and contains some fine examples of Grinling Gibbons' wood-carving. There are statues of King George III. and Queen Victoria, unveiled in the Jubilee year 1887, and of Prince Albert (1890). The town hall was built in 1686 by Sir Christopher Wren, who represented the borough in parliament. The town was formerly celebrated for the number of its inns, of which there were seventy in 1650. The most famous were the "Garter" and the "White Hart," the first of which was the favourite of Shakespeare's Sir John Falstaff, and is frequently mentioned in The Merry Wives of Windsor. The borough is under a mayor, 6 aldermen and 18 councillors. Area, 2717 acres.

History.—Windsor (Wyndeshour, Wyndese, Windlesore) was probably the site of a Roman settlement, two Roman tombs having been discovered at Tyle-Place Farm in 1865, while a Roman camp and various antiquities were unearthed at St. Leonard's Hill in 1765. The early history of Windsor centres round the now unimportant village of Old Windsor, which was a royal residence under Edward the Confessor; and Robert of Gloucester relates that it was at a fair feast which the king held there in 1053 that Earl Godwin met with his tragic end. By the 12th century it was an important town and market, and was recovered in exchange for two other manors by William I., who erected the castle about 2 m. north-west of the village and within the manor of Clewer, round which the later important town of New Windsor was to grow up. The earliest existing charter of New Windsor is that from Edward I. in 1277, which was confirmed by Edward II. in 1315-1316 and by Edward III. in 1328. This constituted it a free borough and granted to it a guild merchant and other privileges. The same king later leased it as feoff to the burgesses on condition that they "did justice to merchants, citizens and alien and to the poor." The town does not seem to have become prosperous and its extent was reduced by several succeeding sovereigns. In 1439 extensive privileges were accorded the burgesses by Henry VI., and Edward IV. in 1467 granted a charter of incorporation under the title of the "mayor, bailiffs and burgesses." Further confirmations of existing privileges were granted by Edward IV. in 1477, by Henry VII. in 1499, by Henry VIII. in 1515 and by Edward VI. in 1549. A fresh charter was granted by James I. in 1603, and the renewal of this by Charles II. in 1664 incorporating the town under the title of the "mayor, bailiffs and burgesses of the borough of Windsor," retained the governing charter until 1855. By the charter of Edward I. the county gaol was fixed at Windsor, but on the petition of the men of Berkshire it was removed thence to a more central town in the reign of Edward II. New Windsor sent two members to parliament from 1302 to 1335 and again from 1446 to 1865, omitting the parliaments of 1654 and 1666; by the act of 1867 it lost one member. The market is of ancient date, and in 1273 the abbess of Burnham is said to hold markets at Burnham and Beaconsfield to the prejudice of the market at Windsor. Edward IV. in 1467 granted a fair on the feast of St. Edward the Confessor, and the charter of 1603 mentions a Saturday market and two fairs. No fairs are now held, but the Saturday market is still maintained. Windsor bridge is mentioned in the reign of Edward I.; the present structure dates from 1822. The town has never had an important industry, but has depended almost entirely upon the castle and court.

The political history of Windsor centres round the castle, at which the Norman kings held their courts and assembled their witan. Robert Mowbray was imprisoned in its dungeons in 1095, and at the Christmas court celebrated at Windsor in 1127 David of Scotland swore allegiance to the empress Maud. In 1175 it was the scene of the ratification of the treaty of Windsor. The castle was bestowed by Richard I. on Hugh, bishop of Durham, but in the next year was treacherously seized by Prince John and only surrendered after a siege. In 1217 Inglram de Ache with a garrison of sixty men gallantly held the fortress against a French force under the count de Nevers. It was a centre of activity in the Barons' War, and the meeting-place of the parliament summoned by Henry in 1261 in rivalry to that of the barons at St. Albans; two years later, however, it surrendered to Simon de Montfort. The appeal of high treason against Thomas Mowbray, duke of Norfolk, was heard by Richard II. in Windsor Castle in 1368. During the Civil War of the 17th century the castle was garrisoned for the parliament, and in 1648 became the prison of Charles, who spent his last Christmas within its walls.

See J. E. Tighe, Annals of Windsor (1858); Victoria County History: Berkshire.

WINDTHORST, LUDWIG (1812-1891), German politician, was born on the 17th of January 1812 at Kaldenhof, a country house near Osnabrück. He sprang from a Roman Catholic
family which for some generations had held important posts in the Hanoverian civil service. He was educated at the Carolinum, an endowed school at Osnabrück, and studied at the universities of Göttingen and Heidelberg. In 1836 he settled down as an advocate in Osnabrück; his abilities soon procured him a considerable practice, and he was appointed principal of the Catholic Consistorium. In 1848 he received an appointment at the supreme court of appeal for the kingdom of Hanover, which sat at Celle. In the next year the revolution opened for him, as for so many of his contemporaries, the way to public life, and he was elected as representative for his native district in the second chamber of the reformed Hanoverian parliament. He belonged to what was called the Great German party, and opposed the project of reconstituting Germany under the leadership of Prussia; he defended the government against the liberal and democratic opposition, at this time he began the struggle against the secularization of schools, which continued throughout his life. In 1851 he was elected president of the chamber, and in the same year minister of justice, being the first Catholic who had held so high an office in Hanover. As minister he carried through an important judicial reform which had been prepared by his predecessor, but had to retire from office because he was opposed to the reactionary measures for restoring the influence and privileges of the nobility. Though he was always an enemy to liberalism, his natural independence of character prevented him from acquiescing in the reactionary measures. In 1856 he resigned his office, and though he was appointed minister, but with others of his colleagues he resigned when the king refused his assent to a measure for extending the franchise. Windthorst took no part in the critical events of 1866; contrary to the opinion of many of his friends, after the annexation of Hanover by Prussia he accepted the post of governor-in-chief, took the oath of allegiance, and was elected a member both of the Prussian parliament and of the North German diet. At Berlin he found a wider field for his abilities. He acted as representative of his exiled king in the negotiations with the Prussian government concerning his private property and opposed the sequestration, thus for the first time being placed in a position of hostility to Bismarck. He was recognized as the leader of the Hanoverians and of all those who opposed the "revolution from above." He took a leading part in the formation of the party of the Centre in 1870, but he did not become a member of it, fearing that his reputation as a follower of the king of Hanover would injure the party, until he was formally requested to join them by the leaders.

After the death of Hermann von Mallinckrodt (1821-1874) in 1875, Windthorst became leader of the party, and maintained that position till his death. It was chiefly owing to his skill and courage as a parliamentary debater and his tact as a leader that the party held its own and constantly increased in numbers during the great struggle with the Prussian government. He was especially exposed to the attacks of Bismarck, who attempted personally to discredit him and to separate him from the rest of the party. And he was far the ablest and most dangerous critic of Bismarck's policy. The change of policy in 1879 led to a great alteration in his position: he was reconciled to Bismarck, and was made a member of the Prussian government. But, however, was his position so difficult as during the negotiations which led to a repeal of the May laws. In 1887 Bismarck appealed to the pope to use his authority to order the Centre to support the military proposals of the government. Windthorst took the responsibility of keeping the papal instructions secret from the rest of his party and of disobeying them. In a great meeting at Cologne in March 1887 he defended and justified his action, and claimed for the Centre full independence of action in all purely political questions. In the social reform he supported Bismarck, and as the undisputed leader of the largest party in the Reichstag he was able to exercise influence over the action of the government after Bismarck's retirement. His relations with the emperor William II. became very cordial, and in 1891 he achieved a great parliamentary triumph by defeating the School bill and compelling Gossler to resign. A few days afterwards he died, on the 14th of March 1891, at Berlin. He was buried in the Marienkirche in Hanover, which had been erected from the money subscribed as a testimonial to himself. His funeral was a most remarkable display of public esteem, in which nearly all the ruling princes of Germany joined, and was a striking sign of the position to which, after twenty years of incessant struggle, he had raised his party. Windthorst was undoubtedly one of the greatest of German parliamentary leaders: no one equalled him in his readiness as a debater, his distinctive eyesight compelling him to defend entirely upon his memory. It was his misfortune that nearly all his life was spent in opposition, and he had no opportunity of showing his abilities as an administrator. He enjoyed unbounded popularity and confidence among the German Catholics, but he was in no way an ecclesiastical: he was at first opposed to the Vatican decrees of 1870, but quickly accepted them after they had been proclaimed. He was a very agreeable companion and a thorough man of the world, singularly free from arrogance and pomposity; owing to his small stature, he was often known as "die kleine Excellenz." He married in 1839. Of his three children, two died before him; his wife survived him only a few months.

Windthorst's Ausgewählte Reden were published in three volumes (Osnabrück, 1901-1902). See also J. N. Knopp, Ludwig Windthorst: ein Lebensbild (Dresden, 1898); and Häusgen, Ludwig Windthorst (Cologne, 1907).

WINDWARD ISLANDS, a group and colony in the West Indies. They consist of the British island of St Lucia, St Vincent and Grenada, with a chain of small islands, the Grenadines, between the two latter islands. They are not a single colony, but a confederation of three separate colonies with a common governor-in-chief, who resides at St George's, Grenada. Each island retains its own institutions, and they have neither legislature, laws, revenue nor tariff in common. There is, however, a common court of appeal for the group as well as for Barbados, composed of the chief justices of the respective islands, and there is also a common audit system, while the islands unite in maintaining certain institutions of general utility. The Windward Islands, which, as a geographical division, probably include Barbados, derive their name from the fact that they are the most exposed of the Lesser Antilles to the N.E. Trade, the prevailing wind through the West Indies.

WINE (Lat. vinum, Gr. oinos), a term which when used in its modern sense without qualification designates the fermented product of grape juice. The fermented juices of other fruits or plants, such as the date, ginger, plum, &c., are also termed wine, but the material from which the wine is derived is in such a case denoted by the article used. The present article deals solely with wine derived from the grape (see Vinæ).

Historical.—The art of viticulture or wine-making is a very ancient one. In the East it dates back almost as far as we have historical records of any kind. In Egypt and in Greece the introduction of wine was ascribed to gods; in Greece to Dionysus; in Egypt to Osiris. The Hebrews ascribed the art of wine-making to Noah. It is probable that the discovery that an intoxicating and pleasant beverage could be made from grape juice was purely accidental, and that it arose from observations made in connexion with crushed or bruised wild grapes, much as the mastication of beer, or in its earliest form, mead, may be traced back to the accidental fermentation of wild honey. In ancient times the cultivation of the vine indicated a relatively settled and stable form of civilization, inasmuch as the vine requires a considerable maturation period. It is probable, therefore, that viticulture was introduced subsequent to the raising of cereal crops. The Nabataeans were forbidden to cultivate the vine, the object being to prevent any departure from their traditional nomadic habits. The earliest examples of specific wines of which we have any record are the Chalybou wine, produced near Damascus, in which the Phoenicians traded in the time of Ezekiel (xxvii. 18), and which at a later date was much appreciated by the Persian kings; and the wines from the Greek islands (Chios, Lesbos, Cos). With regard to the introduction of the vine into other parts of Europe, it appears that it was brought to Spain
WINE

by the Phoenicians, and to Italy and southern Gaul from Greece. In the earliest Roman times the vine was very little cultivated in Italy, but gradually Rome and Italy generally became a great wine-producing country. At a later date the republic sought to stimulate its home industry by prohibiting the importation of wine, and by restricting its cultivation in the colonies, thus preserving the latter as a useful market for Italian wines. According to Pliny, Spanish, Gallic and Greek wines were all consumed in Rome during the 1st century of the Christian era, but in Gaul the production of wine appears to have been limited to certain districts on the Rhone and Gironde. The cultivation of the vine in more northern parts (i.e. on the Seine and Moselle) was not commenced until after the death of Probus. Owing to no doubt to the difficulties of transportation, wine was, in the middle ages, made in the south of England, and in parts of Germany, where it is now no longer produced (cf. Hchn., Culturepflanzen, &c., and Mommsen, Römische Geschichte, v. 98 et seq.).

WINE-MAKING

The dwarf form of cultivation now common in northern Europe does not appear to have obtained to any extent. It seems likely that the quality of the wine produced in ancient times was as scarce as that of the modern product, inasmuch as the addition of resin, salts and spices to wine was a common practice. With regard to the actual making of the wine, this does not appear to have differed very much in principle from the methods obtaining at the present day. Plastering appears to have been known at an early date, and when the juice of the grapes was too thin for the production of a good wine, it was occasionally boiled down with a view to concentration. The first wine receptacles were made of skins or hides, treated with oil or resin to make them impervious. Later, earthenware vessels were employed, but the wooden cask—perhaps the first—that came into use, the glass bottle—was not generally known until a much later period.

Production.—The total wine production of the world, which, of course, fluctuates considerably from year to year, amounts to roughly 3000 million gallons. France and Italy are the chief wine-producing countries, the former generally producing rather more than the latter. During the phylloxera period Italy in some years had the greater output (e.g. 1886-1888 and 1890-1892). The average production of the chief wine-producing countries will be gathered from the following table:

Wine Production. Average Annual Production in Millions of Gallons for Quinquennial Periods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1891-1895</th>
<th>1896-1900</th>
<th>1901-1905</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>1126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The United States produces roughly 50, Bulgaria and Rumania each 40 and Servia 10 million gallons. The United Kingdom produces no wine, but the Cape and the Australian Commonwealth each produce some 5 million gallons.

The variation from year to year in the quantity of wine produced in individual countries is, of course, far greater than that observed in the case of beer or spirits. Thus, owing to purely climatic vagaries, the Italian production in 1895 was 69 million gallons, whereas in 1896 it amounted to 111 million. Similarly the French production, which was 587 million gallons in 1895, amounted to no less than 1482 million in 1900. In the same way the Italian production has varied between 583 million gallons (1895) and 793 millions (1901), and the Spanish between 331 million gallons in 1896 and 656 millions in 1892.

Consumption.—It is only natural that the consumption of wine should be greatest in the countries where it is produced on the largest scale, but the discrepancy between the consumption of different countries is little short of astonishing. Thus, at the present time, the consumption per head in France is practically a hundred times that of the United Kingdom and twenty times that of Germany—the latter it must be remembered, being itself an important wine-producing area.

The following table will give some idea of the relative consumption of wine in different countries:

Average Consumption of Wine per Head of Population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1891-1895</th>
<th>1896-1900</th>
<th>1901-1905</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>23-0</td>
<td>28-8</td>
<td>30-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>20-6</td>
<td>20-0</td>
<td>25-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>21-1</td>
<td>16-4</td>
<td>18-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>11-0</td>
<td>20-3</td>
<td>17-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>2-9</td>
<td>3-2</td>
<td>4-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1-19</td>
<td>1-38</td>
<td>1-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>0-32</td>
<td>0-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Empire</td>
<td>0-37</td>
<td>0-40</td>
<td>0-32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>1-09</td>
<td>1-12</td>
<td>1-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Has varied between 1-9 and 3-7.

The wine of the wine consumed in the United Kingdom is imported. On the average somewhat more than one-third of the wine imported is derived from France, and about a quarter from Spain and Portugal respectively.

Wines imported into the United Kingdom in 1906.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>Nature of Wines</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Claret, burgundy</td>
<td>4,105,302</td>
<td>£2,221,423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Claret, port</td>
<td>3,597,371</td>
<td>1,099,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Sherry, tarragona &amp;c.</td>
<td>2,808,751</td>
<td>397,840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Hock, Moselle</td>
<td>1,268,662</td>
<td>729,002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td></td>
<td>243,747</td>
<td>42,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total for foreign countries</td>
<td></td>
<td>12,356,425</td>
<td>4,094,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td>622,836</td>
<td>100,161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total British possessions</td>
<td></td>
<td>777,689</td>
<td>123,891</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The quantity of port received was exceptionally large. The average quantity is rather under 3 million gallons and the value about £800,000.
2 A considerable proportion of the German wines come to the United Kingdom via the Netherlands.

Of the wines imported from France, about one-quarter was Champagne and Saumur, the remainder consisting almost entirely of still wines, such as claret and burgundy.

VITICULTURE AND WINE-MAKING

General Considerations.—Although the wine is cultivated in practically every part of the world possessing an appropriate climate and soil, from California in the West to Persia in the East, and from Germany in the North to the Cape of Good Hope and some of the South American republics in the South, yet, as is the case also with the cereal crops and many fruits and vegetables, the wines produced in countries possessing temperate climates are—when the vintage is successful—finer than those made in hot or semi-tropical regions. Although, for instance, the wines of Italy, Greece, the Cape, &c., possess great body and strength, they cannot compare as regards elegance of flavour and bouquet with the wines of France and Germany. On the other hand, of course, the vintages of the temperate climate of northern Europe frequently lead to a partial or complete failure of the vintage, whereas the wines produced in relatively hot countries, although they undoubtedly vary in quality from year to year, are rarely, if ever, total failures. The character of a wine depends mainly (a) on the nature of the soil; (b) on the general type of the climate; (c) on the variety of vine cultivated. The quality, as distinct from general character, depends almost entirely on
the vintage, i.e. on the weather conditions preceding and during the gathering of the grapes and the subsequent fermentation. Of all these factors, that of the nature of the soil on which the vine is grown is perhaps the most important. The same vine, exposed to practically identical conditions of climate, will produce markedly different wines if planted in different soils. On the other hand, different varieties of the vine, provided they are otherwise not unsuitable, may, if planted in the same soil, after a time produce wines which may not differ seriously in character. Thus the planting of French and German vines in other countries (e.g. Australia, the Cape) has not led to the production of dis- comparable wines, although there may at first have been some general resemblance in character. On the other hand, the replanting of some of the French vineyards (after the ravages due to the phylloxera) with American vines, or, as was more generally the case, the grafting of the old French stock on the hardy American roots, resulted, after a time, in many cases, in the production of wines practically indistinguishable from those formerly made.

Wine-making.--The art of wine-making is, compared with the manufacture of beer or spirits, both in principle and in practice, a relatively simple operation. When the grapes have attained to maturity they are collected by hand and then transferred in baskets or carts to the press house. After the staves have been removed either by hand or by a simple apparatus the juice is expressed either—as is still the case in many quarters—by trampling under foot or by means of a simple lever or screw press or by rollers. In the case of red wines the skins are not removed, inasmuch as it is from the latter that the colour of the wine is derived. The must, as the expressed juice of the grape is termed, is now exposed to the process of fermentation, which consists essentially in the conversion of the sugar of the must into alcohol and various subsidiary products. The fermenting operations in wine-making differ radically from those obtaining in the case of beer or of spirits in that (if we except certain special cases) no yeast is added from without. Fermentation is induced spontaneously by the yeast cells which are always present in large numbers in the grape itself. The result is that—as compared with beer or spirits—the fermentation at first is relatively slow, but it rapidly increases in intensity and continues until practically the whole of the sugar is converted. In the case of the production of certain sweet wines (such as the sweet Sauternes, Port and Tokay) the fermentation only proceeds up to a certain extent. It then either stops naturally, owing to the fact that the yeast cells will not work rapidly in a liquid containing more than a certain percentage of alcohol, or it is stopped artificially either by the addition of spirit or by other means which will be referred to below. As the character of a wine depends to a considerable extent on the nature of the yeast (see Fermentation), many attempts have been made of late years to improve the character of inferior wines by adding to the unfermented must a pure culture of yeast derived from a superior wine. If pure yeast is added in this manner in relatively large quantities, it will tend to predominate, inasmuch as the number of yeast cells derived from the grapes is at the commencement of fermentation relatively small. In this way, by making pure cultures derived from some of the finest French and German wines it has been possible to lend something of their character to the inferior growths of, for instance, California and Australia. It is not possible, however, by this method to entirely reproduce the character of the wine from which the yeast was derived inasmuch as this depends on other factors as well, particularly the constitution of the grape juice, conditions of climate, &c. The other micro-organisms naturally present in the must which is pitchèd with the pure culture are not without their influence on the result. If it were possible to sterilize the must prior to pitching with pure yeast no doubt better results might be obtained, but this appears to be out of the question inasmuch as the heating of the must which sterilization involves is not a practicable operation. After the main fermentation the wine is stored in tanks or casks. The general method followed is to fill the casks to the bung-hole and to keep them full by an occasional addition of wine. The secondary fermentation proceeds slowly and the carbonic acid formed is allowed to escape by way of the bung-hole, which in order to prevent undue access of air is kept lightly covered or is fitted with a water seal, which permits gas to pass out of the cask, but prevents any return flow of air. During this secondary fermentation the wine gradually throws down a deposit which forms a coherent crust, known as argol or lees. This consists chiefly of cream of tartar (bitartrate of potash), tartrate of lime, yeast cells and of alluminous and colouring matters. At the end of some four to five months this primary deposition is practically finished and the wine more or less clear and bright. At this stage it receives its first racking. Racking consists merely in separating the bright wine from the deposit. The wine is racked into clean casks, and this operation is repeated at intervals of some months, in all three to four times. As a general rule, it is not possible by racking alone to obtain the wine in an absolutely bright condition. In order to bring about this, a further operation, namely that of fining, is necessary. This consists, in most cases, in adding to the wine proteid matter in a finely divided state. For this purpose isinglass, gelatin or, in the case of high-class red wines, which is itself in many cases included in the grape, is used. This is a part of the tannin in the wine, forming an insoluble tannate, and this gradually subsides to the bottom of the cask, dragging with it the mechanically suspended matters which are the main cause of the wine’s turbidity. In some cases purely mechanical means such as the use of Spanish clay or filtration are employed for fining purposes. Some wines, particularly those which lack acid or tannin, are very difficult to fine. The greatest care is necessary to ensure the cleanliness and asepticity of the casks in which wine is stored or into which it is racked. The most common method of ensuring cask cleanliness is the operation known as “sulphuring.” This consists in burning a portion of a sulphur “match” (i.e. a flat wick which has been steeped in melted sulphur, or simply a stick of melted sulphur) in the interior of the cask. The sulphurous acid evolved destroys such micro-organisms as may be in the cask, and in addition, as it reduces the supply of oxygen, renders the wine less prone to acridulous fermentation. Sweet wines, which are liable to fret, are more highly and frequently sulphured than dry wines. After the wine has been sufficiently racked and fined, and when it has reached a certain stage of maturation—varying according to the type of wine from, as a rule, two to four years—the wine is ready for bottling. Certain wines, however, such as some of the varieties of port, are not bottled, but are kept in the wood, at any rate for a considerable number of years. Wines so preserved, however, develop an entirely different character from those placed in bottle.

Chemistry of Wine

Maturation of the Grapes.—The processes which take place in the grape during its growth and maturation are of considerable interest. E. Mach has made some interesting observations on this point. At first—i.e. at the beginning of July when the berries have attained to an appreciable size—the specific gravity of the juice is very low; it contains very little sugar, but a good deal of acid, chiefly free tartaric acid and malic acid. The juice at this period contains an appreciable amount of tannin. As the amount of sugar gradually increases, and the same up to a certain point applies to the acidity. The character of the acidity, however, changes, the free tartaric acid gradually disappearing, the acid of potash and being otherwise broken up. On the other hand, the free malic acid increases and the tannin decreases. When the grape is ripe, the sugar has attained to a maximum and the acidity is very much reduced; the tannin has entirely disappeared.

The following figures obtained by Mach afford an interesting illustration of these processes:

At first the sugar in the juice consists entirely of dextrose, but later sucrose (lascvulose) is formed. The sugar in ripe grape juice is practically invert sugar, i.e. consists of practically equal parts of dextrose and fructose. The proportion of sugar present in the juice of ripe grapes varies considerably according to the variety,

In temperate climates it varies as a rule between 15 and 20%, but in the case of hot climates or where the grapes are treated in a special manner, it may rise as high as 35% and in some cases more.

Fermentation.—The fermentation of grape juice, i.e. the must, is, as we have seen, a relatively simple operation, consisting as it does in exposing it to the spontaneous action of the micro-organisms contained in it. The main products formed are, as in all cases of
alcoholic fermentation, ethyl alcohol, water and carbonic acid. At the beginning of alcoholic products such as glycerin, succinic acid, small quantities of hydrochloric acid and apparent "greenness." It has been found by experience also that wines which are normally constituted as regards the relative proportions of their various constituents, whether the grapes of which they are composed do not fall below certain limits, are likely to develop well, whereas wines which, although perfectly sound, show an abnormal constitution, will rarely turn out successful. The bouquet of young wines depends principally on compound esters which in a proportion of the stages will turn out well. On the contrary, it is frequently the case that the most successful wines in after years are those which at first show very little bouquet. The maturation of wine, whether it be in bottle or in cask, is an exceedingly interesting operation. The wines which remain for a long period in cask gradually lose alcohol and water by evaporation, and therefore become in time extremely low in regard to solid and relatively non-volatile matters contained in them. As a rule, it is nowadays held that a wine in cask become very dry, and the loss of alcohol by evaporation—particularly in the case of light wines—has as a result the production of glycol or ethylene glycol. These processes are of such a nature that absolutely a very large quantity of acid, they may not appear acid to the palate inasmuch as the other constituents, particularly the glycerin and gummy matters, will have likewise increased in relative quantity. The results of the maturation process in the cask of some of the vintage wines is the mellowning of the somewhat hard taste associated with new wine and the development of the special characteristic of each vintage. The mellowning effect of age is due to the deposition of a part of the tannin and some of the colouring matter. The mechanism of the development of the secondary bouquet appears to be dependent first on the moulds which grow on the surface of the wine, and secondly on the life activity of certain micro-organisms. L. Pasteur filled glass tubes entirely with new wine and then sealed them up. It was found that wine so treated remained unchanged in all of its properties. On the contrary, the temperature rise above 15° fermentation is liable to be too rapid, too much alcohol is formed at a relatively early stage, and the result is that the fermentation process before the whole of the sugar has been transformed. Wines which have received a check of this description during the main fermentation are very liable to bacterial troubles and frets. In the case of wines made in more southerly latitudes temperatures between 25° and 30° C. are not excessive, but temperatures appreciably over 30° frequently lead to mischief. The young wine immediately after the cessation of the main fermentation is very differently constituted from the must from which it was derived. The sugar, as we have seen, has been transformed, and alcohol and carbonic acid have been produced. At the same time the acidity is markedly reduced. This reduction of acidity is partly due to the deposition of various salts of tartaric acid and is soluble in a dilute alcoholic solution much less in medium than in water, and partly to the activity of micro-organisms. Young wines differ very widely in their composition according to class and vintage. The alcohol in naturally fermented wines may vary between 7 and 16%, although there are exceptions to this general statement. The acidity may vary between 0.3 and 1% according to circumstances. The normal proportion of glycerin varies between 7 and 14 parts for every 100 parts of alcohol in the wine, but even these limits are frequently reached or exceeded. The total solid matters of "extract," as it is called, will vary between 1.5 and 3.5% for dry wines, and the mineral matter or ash generally amounts to about one tenth of the extract. The tannin in young red wines may amount to as much as 0.4 or 0.5% but in white wines it is much less. The amount of volatile acid should be very small, and, except in special cases, a percentage of volatile acid of o.1 to 0.15% according to the class of wine, will indicate that an abnormal or undesirable fermentation has taken place. As the wine matures the most noticeable feature in the first instance is the reduction in the alcohol, which is mainly due to a deposition of tannar, and the disappearance of tannin and colouring matter, due to fining and the action of oxygen. The taste and bouquet of wines in the earlier stages of their development is in many instances due to constituents derived from the grape, either directly or as a result of the main fermentation. In the case of dry wines, the quality which is known as "body" (palate-fullness) is dependent on the solid constituents. These comprise gumminess and albuminous matters, acid, salts, glycerin and other matters of which we have so far little knowledge. The appearance of bouquet in the wine, however, is not merely dependent upon the quantity of solid—constituents, but is influenced also by the relative proportions in which the various constituents exist. For instance, a wine which under favorable conditions would seem full and round may appear harsh or rough, merely owing to the fact that it contains a small quantity of ethyl alcohol, whereas a wine which is perfect in every respect but is acid and apparently "greenness." It has been found by experience that wines which are normally constituted as regards the relative proportions of their various constituents, whether the grapes of which they are composed do not fall below certain limits, are likely to develop well, whereas wines which, although perfectly sound, show an abnormal constitution, will rarely turn out successful. The bouquet of young wines depends principally on the compound esters which in a proportion of the stages will turn out well. On the contrary, it is frequently the case that the most successful wines in after years are those which at first show very little bouquet. The maturation of wine, whether it be in bottle or in cask, is an exceedingly interesting operation. The wines which remain for a long period in cask gradually lose alcohol and water by evaporation, and therefore become in time extremely low in regard to solid and relatively non-volatile matters contained in them. 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another. The great epidemic in the French vineyards in the years 1882 to 1885 led to a reduction of the yield of about 50%. Many remedies have been suggested, but none have been successful. The submersion of the vineyards, the use of carbon bisulphide for spraying, and of copper salts, but there appears to be little doubt that a really serious epidemic can only be dealt with by systemic destruc-
tion. But this may result in the loss of the grape crop. The prevent-
ion of bad weather, a feasible method, is almost impossible. This,
of course, naturally leads to the production of a wine somewhat
different in character to that produced before the epidemic, but this
difficulty may possibly have been reduced if the grape crop was in time
grafted ancient stock on the roots of new and resistant vines.

Oidium or mildew is only second in importance to the
phyloxera. It is caused by a species of mould which lives on the
green fruits of the vine, from which the leaves, blossoms, and the
grapes that are formed also shrivel and die. The most
effective cure, short of destruction and replantation, appears to be
spraying with finely divided sulphur. Another evil, which
can cause a more serious damage, is the flowering, known as
colour, which is, or a later period the young fruit, to fall off the growing plant in large
numbers.

Diseases of Wine.—These are numerous, and may be derived either
directly from the vine, from an abnormal constitution of the grape
juice, or to subsequent infection. Thus the disease known as tourne
or case is generally caused by the wine having been made or partly
made from grapes affected by mildew. The micro-organism giving
rise to this disease generally appears in the form of small jointed rods
and is termed the micro-organism of the wine. It is known that this
by this disease loses its colour and flavour. The colour in the case
of red wines is first altered from red to brown, and in bad cases
disappears altogether, leaving an almost colourless solution. This
disease is caused by the wine and by the residual acids, and to the
presence of the excess of aluminous matters. The most
common disease to which wine is subject by infection is that caused
by a micro-organism termed muscoidina vinet (French fleurs de vin).
This micro-organism, which resembles ordinary yeast cells in appear-
ance, forms a pellicle on the surface of the wine, particularly when the
latter is exposed to the air more than it should be, and its develop-
ment is favoured by lack of alcohol. The micro-organism itself
fermentation, differs from the disease caused by M. vini that the
alcohol is transformed into acetic acid. It is caused by a micro-
organism termed aceto-Bouil, and wine in small
grooves and chambers of round cells. It is principally due to a lack of
alcohol in the wine or to lack of acidity in the must. The
micro-organism which causes the disease of bitterness (acer) forms longish
branched filaments in the wine. Hand in hand with the development of a
disagreeable bitter taste there is a precipitation of colouring
matter and the formation of certain disagreeable secondary con-
stituents. This disease is generally caused by infection and is
favoured by lack of alcohol, acidity, and a temperature which generally occurs only in white wines is that which converts
the wine into a thick stringy liquid. It is the viscous or praire
disease, the cause of disease is due to the presence of tartaric
more frequent occurrence in white wines). The mannitie
disease, which is due to high temperatures during fermentation and lack of
acid in the must, is rarely of serious consequence in temperature
countries. A similar organism supplies mannite, in varying
forming mannitol and different acids, particularly volatile acid.
The wine becomes turbid and acquires a peculiarly bitter sweet
taste, and if the disease goes further becomes quite undrinkable.
It would appear from the researches of the author and others that the
mannitol ferment is more generally present in wines than is
supposed to be the case. Thus the author found in very old and
two wines very appreciable quantities of mannitol. In most
cases the mannitic fermentation had obviously not developed to any
extent, and small quantities of mannitol appear to exercise no
nuiseful effect on flavour.

Pasteurization.—It was found by Pasteur that by heating
wine out of contact with air to about 66° C. the various germs
causing wine maladies could be checked in their action or destroyed.
The one disadvantage of this method is that unless very carefully
applied the normal development of the wine may be seriously
retarded. In the case of cheap wines or of wines which are already
more or less mature, this is not a matter of any great importance, but
the delicacy and sweetness of the best wines is serious if this
Pasteurizing alone, however, will only avail in cases where the disease
has not gone beyond the initial stages, inasmuch as it cannot restore
colour, taste or aroma where these have already been lost.
In such cases it is also useless where the disease is not
applicable, some direct treatment with a view to eliminating or adding con-
stituents which are in excess or lacking is indicated. In this regard it
is of the greatest importance to draw the inference that there is a
rational and scientific method for preventing waste of good material and
sophistication pure and simple. It appears to the author, how-
never, that where such methods are employed merely with a view to
overcoming a specific malady and there is no intention of increasing
the quantity of the wine for purposes of gain, or of giving a fictitious
appearance of quality, these operations are perfectly justifiable and
may be practised without any reproach. But if they are
based upon the brewer or distiller who has to deal with somewhat abnormal
raw material. It has been found, for instance, that in the case of the
mannitic disease the action of the micro-organism may be
neutralized or prevented by raising the temperature of the
wine up to a certain level by the addition of a small quantity of tartaric
acid. Again, it is well known that in the case of the viscous
disease the latter can be prevented by spraying the
wine with a solution of tannin. In the same way the disease caused by the mildew
organism may be counteracted by a slight addition of alcohol and tartaric
acid. One method of assisting nature in wine-making, which is,
in consideration of the prevalence of the plant disease
is sold as wine or in such a manner as to indicate that it is natural
wine, is the process termed "gallicizing," so called from its inventor
H. L. L. Gall, which has been largely practised, particularly on the
Rhine. The process of Gall consists in that shortly after the
flowering, it is scarcely necessary to say that the indiscriminate addition
of alcohol and water, or of either must or to wine, must be regarded as
an inefficient operation.

Plastering.—In some countries, particularly in Italy, Spain and
Portugal, it has been and still is a common practice to add a small
quantity of gypsum to the fermenting must or to dust it over the
grapes prior to pressing. It is said that wines treated in this
wine, and their maturity more quickly, and that they are more stable and of better
colour. It certainly appears to be the case that musts which are
plastered rather suffer from abnormal fermentation, and that the
wines which result very rarely turn acid. The main result of
plastering is that the soluble tartrates in the wine are decomposed,
forming insoluble tartrate of lime and soluble sulphate of potash.
It is also stated that it is generally more successful the latter is undertake on wine, and
unless the quantity appreciably exceeds two grams per litre, no
reasonable objection can be raised.

Wines in Air.—Wines which are made not from fresh grape juice
but from raisins or concentrated must, or similar material, are gener-
tically termed basis wines. They are prepared by adding water to the
concentrated saccharine matter and subsequently pitching with
wine yeast at an appropriate temperature. Frequently alcohol,
tannin, glycerin, and similar wine constituents are also added. If
carefully prepared there is no objection to these basis wines from a
hygienic point of view, although they have not the delicate qualities
of wines made from fresh grapes. Another objection to these wines is that
these wines have in the past been vended on a large scale in a manner
calculated to deceive the consumer as to their real nature, but
without any measurable operation.

Wines of France.—It may be safely said that there is no other country in which
the general conditions are so favourable for the production of
wine of high quality and on a large scale as is the case in France.
The climate is essentially of a moderate character; the winters
are rarely very cold, and the summers are seldom of the intensely
hot and dry nature which is characteristic of most southerly
wine countries. There are large tracts of gently undulating or
relatively flat country which is, inasmuch as it ensures effective
exposure of the vines to the sun, of a type particularly suited
to viticulture. There is almost everywhere an efficient supply of
water, and rarely the character of the soil is in many parts an ideal
one for the production of wine of high quality and abundance in
quantity. It may here be stated that a rich soil such as is suitable
for the growth of cereal crops or vegetables is not, as a rule, an
ideal one for the production of fine wines. The ideal soil for vine-
growing is that which possesses a sufficiency, but not an excess, of
nutriment for the plant, and which is so constituted that it will
afford good drainage. The most important qualification, however,
is that it should be so constituted as to preserve and store up
during the relatively cold weather the heat which it has derived
from the summer sun. To this end the famous Bordeaux or Gironde district is, perhaps, more fortunate
than any other part of the world. The thirsty and methodical
habits of the French peasantry, and also the system of small holdings which prevails in France, have, there is little doubt, done much to raise the French wine industry to the pre-eminent position which it holds. There is perhaps no branch of agriculture which requires more minute attention or for which a system of small holdings is more suitable than wine culture. At the present day, wine is produced in no less than 77 départements in France, the average total yield during the past ten years being roughly 1000 million gallons. This is considerably more than the average produced previous to the phylloxera period (1882-1897). The highest production on record was in the year 1900, when over 1840 million gallons were produced. In the heart of France produces such enormous quantities of wine it is a remarkable fact that more wine is imported into France than is exported from that country. The average imports are in the neighbourhood of 120 million gallons, of which rather more than one-half comes from Algeria. The exports amount to roughly 40 million gallons. Of recent years (1896-1907) the only vintages which have been deficient as regards quantity are those of 1897, 1898, 1902 and 1903, but even in the most unfavourable of these years (1898) the quantity exceeded 700 million gallons. The greatest yield ever recorded over the entire country was in 1900, when over 1840 million gallons were produced. The number of different varieties of wines produced in France is remarkable. The red wines include the elegant and delicate (though not unstable) wines of the Gironde, and again the full, though not coarse, wines of the Burgundian district. Among the white wines we have the full sweet Sauternes, the relatively dry and elegant Graves and Chablis, and the light white wines which produce champagne and brandy.

Gironde (Bordeaux) Wines.—If France is the wine-growing country, par excellence, the Bordeaux district may be regarded as the hub and centre of the French wine industry. Although other parts of France produce excellent wines, the Gironde is easily first if high and stable character, elegance and delicacy, variety and quality are considered together. The total area of the departments of the Gironde is about 23 million acres, and roughly one-fifth of this is under the vine. It forms a tract of country some 90 m. long by 60 m. broad, in which the chief vineyards are those of the Garonne, Dordogne, and their confluent the Gironde. The soil varies very considerably in its character, and it is due to these variations that so many different types of wine are produced in this district. It generally consists of limestone, or of mixed limestone and clay, or of sand and clay, or of gravel, with here and there flint and rolled quartz. The subsoil is either of clay, of limestone, or mixed sand and clay, gravel, or of a peculiar kind of pudding stone which exists in a hard and varied, or gravel, or fine gravel or a formation of sand or infiltrated oxide of iron. This stone is known locally under the name of ailles. It is generally found at a depth of about 2 ft. under the better soils of the Médoc and Graves. The subsoils of the other districts (Côtes and St Emilion) contain much stone in the shape of flint and quartz. The finest wines of the Médoc and Graves are largely grown on a mixture of gravel, quartz and sand with a subsoil of ailles or clay. The Gironde viticultural region is divided into six main districts, namely Médoc, Sauternes, Graves, Côtes, Entre-deux-Mers and Palus. Although properly belonging to the Côtes, the St Emilion district is sometimes classified separately, as indeed, having regard to the excellence and variety of its wines, it has a right to be.

Médoc.—The most important subdivision of the Gironde district is that of the Médoc. It is here that the wine which is known to us as claret is produced in greatest excellence and variety. The Médoc consists of a tongue of land to the north of Bordeaux, bounded by the Garonne and Gironde on the east, and by the sea on the west and north-west. It is roughly, 93 m. broad, and the soil varies considerably in nature, but consists mostly of gravel, quartz, limestone and sand on the surface, and of clay and ailles beneath. The principal vines grown in the Médoc are the Cabernet-Sauvignon, which is the most important, the Gros-Cabernet, the Merlot, the Carménère, the Malbec, and the Verdot. All these produce red wines. Very little white wine is made in the Médoc proper. The method of wine cultivation is peculiar and characteristic. The vines are kept very low, and as a rule only two branches or arms, which are trained at right angles to the stem, are permitted to form. This dwarf system of culture gives the Médoc wines at a distance the appearance of a sea of small bush, thereby producing an effect entirely different from, for instance, that seen on the Rhine with its high basket-shaped plants. The methods of making the wine in the Médoc are the site of the simple description. The vintage generally takes place towards the end of September or the beginning of October. The grapes from which the stalks are partly or wholly (and occasionally not at all) removed are crushed by treading or some other simple method, but sometimes even this is omitted, the juice being expressed by the weight of the grapes themselves, or by the pressure caused by incipient fermentation. Presses are not used in the case of red wines until after fermentation, when they are employed in order to separate the wine from the must. As a rule the fermentation occupies from 6 to 10 days; by this time the must has practically lost the whole of its sugar, and the young wine is drawn off and filled into hogsheads. The vinification proper is generally finished at the end of about six weeks to two months, and the first racking takes place, as a rule, in February or March. Subsequent rackings are made about June and November of the same year, but in the following years, until bottling, two rackings a year suffice. The Médoc is divided into a number of communes (such as St Julien, Margaux, Paulliac, &c.), and in these communes are situated the different vineyards from which the actual wine of the wine is derived. Unlike the products of the different vineyards of most other districts, which are purchased by the merchants and vatted to supply a general wine for commerce, the yield of the principal estates of the Médoc are kept distinct and reach the consumer as the products of a particular growth and of a particular year. This practice is almost without exception resorted to with what are known as the "classeed growths" and the superior "bourgeois" wines, whilst in seasons in which the wines are of good quality it is continued down to the lower grades. This classification of the Médoc growths became necessary owing to the great variety of qualities produced and the highly characteristic excellence of the individual vintages. There are four main classes or crus (literally growths, but more correctly types or qualities), namely, the "grand cru classés" or "classees," and the bourgeois, artisan and peasant growths. The "classeed growths," which include all the most famous wines of the Médoc, are themselves subdivided into five sections or growths. This general classification, which was made by a conference of wine brokers in 1855, as a result of many years of observation dating back to the 18th century, is still very fairly descriptive of the average merit of the wines classified. The following is a list of the clareided red wines of the Médoc (i.e. claret) together with the names of the communes in which they are situated.

### Clasped Growth of the Médoc (Claret)

#### First Growths.

- Château Lafite, Paulliac.
- * Margaux, Margaux.
- * Latour, Paulliac.

#### Second Growths.

- Château Mouton-Rothschild, Paulliac.
- * Rauzan-Ségla, Margaux.
- * Rauzan-Gassies, Margaux.
- * Léoville-Lascases, St Julien.
- * Léoville-Peyraguey, St Julien.
- * Léoville-Barton, St Julien.
- * Durfort-Vivens, Margaux.
- * Lamarque, St Emilion.
- * Gruaud-Larose-Sarget, St Julien.
- * Gruaud Larose, St Julien.
- * Brane-Cantenac, Cantenac.
- * Pichon-Longueville, Pauillac.
- * Ducru-Beaucaillou, St Julien.

#### Third Growths.

- * Cos d'Estournel, St Estèphe.
- * Château Montrose, St Estèphe.

#### Fourth Growths.

- * Château Kirwan, Cantenac.
- * D'Issan, Cantenac.
- * Lagrange, St Julien.
- * Langoa, St Julien.
- * Giscours, Lalarde.
- * Malescot, Margaux.
- * Mouton, Margaux.
- * Le Lagune, Laronde.
- * Desmirail, Margaux.
- * Calon-Ségur, St Estèphe.
- * Fleurie, Margaux.
- * Becker, Margaux.

### Fifth Growths.

- Château Saint-Pierre, St Julien.
- * Branaire-Ducru, St Julien.
- * Talbot, St Julien.
- * Duhart-Milon, Paulliac.
- * Pouget, Cantenac.
- * La Tour Carnet, St Laurent.
- * Rodet, St Julien.
- * Beychevelle, St Julien.

Le Prieuré, Cantenac.

Marquis de Termes, Margaux.
The quality of the Médoc red wines (and this applies also to some of the finer growths of the other Bordeaux districts) is radically different from that of wines similar in type grown in other parts of the world. The Gironde red wines have sufficient body and alcohol to ensure stability without being heavy or fiery. At the same time, their acidity is very low and their bouquet characteristically delicate and elegant. It is to this relatively large amount of body and absence of an excess of acid and of tannin that the peculiarly soft effect of the Bordeaux wines on the palate is due. It has been said that chemistry is of little avail in determining the value of a wine, and this is undoubtedly true as regards the bouquet and flavour, but there is no gainsaying the fact that many hundreds of analyses of the wines of the Gironde have shown that they are, as a class, distinctly different in the particulars referred to from wines of the claret type produced, for instance, in Spain, Australia or the Cape. The quality of the wine varies considerably with the vintage; but it is almost invariably the case that the wines of successful vintages will contain practically the same relative proportions of their various constituents, although the absolute amounts present of these constituents may differ widely. It is the author's experience also that where a wine displays some abnormality as regards one or more constituents, that although it may be sound, it is rarely a wine of the highest class. The tables below will give a fair idea of the variations which occur in the same wine as a result of different vintages, and the variations due to differences of "growth" in the same vintage. These figures are selected from among a number published by the author in the Journal of the Institute of Brewing, April 1907.

![WINE][WINES OF FRANCE]

**Fifth Growths.**

Château Pontet-Canet, Pauillac. 30
Batailley, Pauillac. 30
Grand-Puy-Lacoste, Pauillac. 29
Ducasse-Grand-Puy, Pauillac. 30
Château Lynch-Bages, Pauillac. 30
Lynch-Moussas, Pauillac. 30
Ducasse, Labarde. 30
Mouton-d'Armailhaucq, Pauillac. 30
Le Tertre, Arsac. 30
Haut-Bages, Pauillac. 30
Pédesclaux, Pauillac. 30
Belgrave, St. Laurent. 30
Carmesac, St. Laurent. 30
Cos-Labory, St. Estèphe. 30
Château Clerc-Milon, Pauillac. 30
Croizet-Bages, Pauillac. 30
Cantemerle, Macau. 30

**Analyses of Château Lafite of Different Vintages.**

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<td>3.67</td>
<td>26.92</td>
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<td>3.51</td>
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<td>2.68</td>
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<td>2.42</td>
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**Analyses of Different Clarets of the Same Vintage.**

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<td>2.71</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
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Results (excepting alcohol) are expressed in grams per litre, i.e., roughly parts per thousand.

The annual output of the Gironde during the last few years has been roughly 70 to 100 million gallons. In the decade 1876 to 1886 the average amount was barely 30 million gallons owing to the small yields of the years 1881 to 1885. In the years 1874 and 1875 the yield exceeded 100 million gallons. The output of the classified growths varies considerably according to the vintage, but it is on the average, owing to the care exercised in the vineyards, greatly than that of the lower-grade areas. Thus within recent years the output of the Château Lafite was at a minimum in 1903 when only 229 hogsheads (the hogshead of claret = 46 gallons) were produced, and at a maximum in 1907, when close on 1000 hogsheads were obtained. Similarly, the Château Margaux, which yielded 1120 hogsheads in 1900, produced 290 hogsheads in 1903. The prices of the wines also are subject to great fluctuation, but in fair years will vary, according to class and quality, from £10 to £30 per hogshead for future growth.
The sparkling wine known to us as champagne takes its name from the Champaigne province which was now replaced by the département of Marne, Haute-Marne, Aube and Ardennes. The best wines, however, are grown almost exclusively in the Marne district. The cultivation of the vine in the Champagne is of very ancient date. The first white wines were produced there in the reign of the Roman emperor, Probus (in the 3rd century A.D.), and according to Victor Rendu the *groseille* which had already existed in the vineyards of the Canal de la Marne, had, in 1691, attained to the value of 1000 livres. It was at about the latter date that sparkling or effervescing wine was first made, for, according to M. Perrier, a publication of the year 1718 refers to the fact that wine of this description had then been known for some twenty years. The actual discovery of this type of wine is ascribed to Dom Pépinion, a monk who managed the cellars of the abbey of Haut Villers from 1691 to 1715. It appears also that it was this Dom Pépinion who first used small bottles for closing wine bottles. Up till then such primitive means as pads of hemp or cloth steeped in oil had been employed. It is very likely that the invention of effervescing wine, the most plausible explanation being that Dom Pépinion closed some bottles filled with partially fermented wine, with the new material, and on opening them later observed the effects produced by the confined carbonic acid gas. The art of making the wine was kept secret for some time, and many mysterious fables were circulated concerning it; inter alia it was believed that the monks had a hitherto secret process. It is true that he appears, however, to have become popular or consumed on a large scale until the end of the 18th century.

The district producing the finest champagne is divided into two distinct regions, popularly known as the river and the marne, respectively. The former consists of the vineyards situated on or in the neighbourhood of the banks of the Marne. The principal vineyards in the valley, on the right bank of the river, are those at Ay, Dix, Hautvillers and Mareuil; on the left bank, on the slopes of Epernay and parallel with the river, those at Piéry and Moussey; in the district towards the south-east, on the slopes of Avize, those of Avize, Verzenay, Vaucelles, Vertus. The "mountain" district are at Verzy, Verzenay, Silly, Rilly and Bouzy.

The soil in the champagne district consists on the slopes largely of chalk, and on the plain, a sort of clay or alluvial soil. It is interspersed with gravel and sand. The chief red wines of the champagne district are the Plant-doré, Franc-Bleu and the Plant vert doré. The Plant gris, or Meunier, yields grapes of a somewhat inferior quality. The chief white wine is the Chardonnay, also known as Vergers. The two qualities of wine are made almost exclusively from the black grapes. For this reason it is necessary that the process of collection, separation and pressing should proceed as quickly as possible at vintage time in order that the juice may not, through incipient fermentation, dissolve any of the colouring matter from the skins. For the same reason the grapes are collected in baskets in order to avoid excessive pressure. They are transported to the presses in these to the press house, where, after being heated to a temperature of 7 to 8 atmospheres or more. Formerly the loss through breakage was very great, but the art of making and selecting these bottles has greatly improved, and the loss now amounts to less than 1 per cent. This is regarded as an uncommon figure. In the spring-time, shortly after bottling, the rise in temperature produces a secondary fermentation, and this converts the sugar into alcohol and carbonic acid. This fermentation continues for a period of months, a sediment which adheres to the side of the bottle is gradually formed. The bottles, which up till now have been in a horizontal position, are then turned upside down in order to discharge the sediment that known as disgorging, placed in a slanting position, neck downwards, and are daily shaken very slightly, so that by degrees the sediment works its way on to the cork. This process, which takes place in the month of February or March, is carried on without the knowledge of the worker. When the whole of the sediment is on the cork, the iron clip, with which the latter is kept in position, is removed for a moment, and the force of the wine ejects the sediment and cork. The latter is then replaced and the cork sealed in order to avoid an excessive escape of wine. An ingenious modification has of modern times been introduced, which consists in freezing part of the wine in the neck of the cork and so preventing it from being lost.

The production of the Sauternes vineyards is, as a rule, smaller than that of the chief red growths, and in consequence of this, and that the district is a relatively small one, the prices of the finer growths are very high.

The Côtes district consists of the slopes rising from the lower marshy regions to the east of the Gironde and the Dordogne. The best of the Côtes wines are grown in the St Emilion region. This region consists of the commune of St Emilion, which forms a district of more than 3000 acres, producing wines of a decidedly bigger type than those of the Médoc, and is frequently called the Burgundy of the Bordeaux district. The classification of the St Emilion wines is very complicated, but in principle is similar to that of the Médoc, among the better known wines of the first growths are the following: Château Ausone, Château Belair, Château Clos Fourtet, Château Pavie, Château Coutet, Château Chevaleau, and a few others. They are generally employed for local consumption and blending.
Wine

[WINES OF FRANCE]

After the sediment has been removed the wine is subjected to dosage, or liqueuring. It is by this process that the degree of sweetness required to suit the particular class of wine being made is attained. For wines destined for England, a little liqueur is added to the case of some wines, known as Brud or Nature, none at all is added. Wines intended for consumption in France receive a moderate quantity of liqueur, but those for the Russian and South American markets receive more. For the latter the liqueur is made of fine wine, brandy and candied sugar. The liqueuring is nowadays generally carried out by means of a machine which regulates the quantity to a nicety. In Champagne it is now considered that the same vineyard, with the classified growths of the Gironde, the product of a single vineyard. The bulk of the wine is made in vineyards belonging to small peasant proprietors, who sell their produce to the commercial houses. To ensure the desired quality of the wine coming from the various proprietors, and the chief aim in this blending is to maintain the character of the wine which is sold under a particular trade mark or brand. Similarly, it has been said that, strictly speaking, there is no such thing as vintage champagne, for, in fact, the vintages produced in that part of the wine of a certain "vintage" will actually have been made in the year indicated. It is not unusual in the case of champagne to add some sugar to the must in the years in which the latter is deficient in this respect, and to make a legitimate objection to be raised to the fact inasmuch as champagne in any case must be regarded in the light of a manufactured article rather than as a natural product. The principal centres of the champagne trade are in the Marne, Epernay, Ay and Avize. The total output of the Marne district has for the past three years averaged about 9 million gallons, but it occasionally runs as high as 20 million gallons. A great part of this wine, however, is not suitable for making high-class champagne. As a rule the supply considerably exceeds the demand, and the stock in hand at the present time amounts to roughly four years' consumption of finished wine, but to this must be added the stock existing in cask, which is considerable. For the period 1906-1907 the total number of bottles in stock amounted to over 121 millions, the bottles exported to over 23 millions, and the bottles required for internal commerce in France to something over 10 millions. There is a practice present a total annual consumption of rather over 30 millions of bottles. The chief trade in champagne is with the United Kingdom, to the finest varieties are exported. In the year 1906, of access and of remarkably even temperature, at a very small cost. The method of manufacture is similar to that followed in the Champagne.

In the north of France, not far from the Jura, lies the oldest viticultural district of Europe, namely that of Burgundy. It is still so called, after the old French provinces, Upper and Lower Burgundy. It comprises the departments of the Yonne on the north-west, the Côte d'Or in the centre, and the Saône-et-Loire on the south. In the Yonne are made chiefly the white wines known to Burgundy. The famous villages are Chablis; in the Saône-et-Loire are made the red and white wines of Mâcon, and there is also, stretching into the departments of the Rhône, the district of the Beaujolais. The most important wines, however, the Burgundy wines proper, are made in the centre of this region on the range of low hills running north-east by south-west called the Côte d'Or, or the golden slope. The soil of the Côte d'Or is chiefly limestone, with a little clay and sand. The vineyards producing the best wines are situated about half-way up the slopes, those at the top producing somewhat inferior, and those at the foot and in the plain ordinary growths. Practically all the best vineyards (which are grown on flat terraces on the slopes, and not on the slopes themselves) face south-west and so get the full benefit of the sun's rays. The most important vineyard in fact on the slopes of the Côte d'Or practically the only vineyard is the Pinoeau or Noiron, but in the plain and in the districts of Mâcon and Beaujolais the Gamay is much cultivated. The influence of the soil on one and the same vine is interestingly illustrated by the different character of the wines grown in those districts, the Beaujolais wines having far greater distinction than those of Mâcon. The commune of Beaune must be regarded as the centre of the Burgundy district, and possesses numerous vineyards of the highest class. To the north of Beaune lie the famous vineyards of Chambertin, Clos Vougeot, Romanée, Richebourg, Nuits St Georges and Corton; to the south those of Pommard, Volnay, Montlêché and Meursault with its famous white wines. The vinification of the Burgundy wines takes place in caves of 500 to 2000 gallons capacity, and it has for very many years been the common practice in vintages in which the must is deficient in saccharine to ensure the stability of the wine by the addition of some sugar in the case. The first rackings generally take place in February or March, and about the second July. The practice of sugaring has ensured greater stability and keeping power to the wines, which formerly were frequently irregular in character and difficult to preserve.

There is no official classification of the Burgundy wines, but the following is a list comprising some of the finest growths in geographical order, from north to south, together with the localities in or near which they are situated.

**Analyses of Champagne.**

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</tbody>
</table>

* Results, excepting alcohol, are in grams per litre.

1. Red Wines.

   Localities.          Growth.
   _______________     _______________
   Jessey               Les Arlets.
   Fixin                Clos de la Forêtière.
   Chambertin          Clos de Bize, Clos St Jacques.
   Morey               Clos de Tart, Les Bonnes Mares, Les Larrets.
   Chambolle            Les Musigny.
   Volnay              Les Vougeot.
   Fleurie              Les Grandes Eschezeaux.
   Volnay              Romanée-Conti, Les Richebourgs, La Tache, Romanée la Tache.
   Savigny              Les Delices.
   Pommard             Les Arlets, Les Rujignies.
   Volnay              Les Herraters, Les Chapitoyes.
   Savigny              Les Santenots, Le Clos-Tavannes.

2. White Wines.

   _______________     _______________
   Puligny             Montrachet, Les Chevaliers-Montrachet, Le Batard Montrachet.
WINE

An interesting feature of the Côte d’Or is the Hospice de Beaune, a celebrated charitable institution and hospital, the revenues of which are derived from vineyards in Beaune, Corton, Volnay and Pommard. The wines of these vineyards are sold every year by auction early in November, and the prices they may realise are a measure of the quality of the vintage in those and other parts of France.

To the south of Lyons, in the department of the Drôme, are made in the district of Valence the celebrated Hermitage red and white wines. The quality of some of these, particularly of the red, is of such a high order that claret, so-called, is regularly produced in very small quantities. The red wines made at the present time are after the style of Burgundy and possess good keeping qualities.

We except the wines of Midi. In the vine region of that name, in the extreme south of France, the principal principalities are, of course, in France, the count of Barcelona, and the Counts of Provence and Aragon, and it is in these districts that the great viticultural region of France is known as the Midi, comprising the four departments of the Herault, Aude, Gard, and the Pyrenées-Orientales. Thus in 1901 the department of the Herault alone produced nearly 300 million gallons of wine, or approximately a quarter of the whole output of France. The average amount of wine made in the four departments for the past three years has been roughly 300 million gallons. These wines formerly were largely exported as vin de cagaison to South America, the United States, Australia, &c., and were also much employed for local consumption in other parts of France. Owing, however, to the fact that viticulture is now maintained in Australia and particularly in Algeria, and also to the fact that the quality of these Midi wines has fallen off considerably since the phylloxera period, the outlet for them has become much reduced. The Midi wines are for the most part light wines, made by boiling wine down until it attains the consistency of a liqueur. The great bulk of sherry shipped to the United Kingdom is blended. The system of blending sherry in some respects recalls that of the famous “blended whiskies,” which are stored in vats or soleras, and the contents of the soleras are kept as far as possible up to a particular style of colour, flavour and sweetness. Prior to shipment the wines of various soleras are blended according to the nature of the article required.

In addition to the wines described above, there are others of a similar nature grown in the vicinity, such as moscatell (made in Cordova) and muscat (produced on the right bank of the Guadalquivir). The bulk of the sherry imported into the United Kingdom still consists of the heavier, fortified wines, varying in strength from 17 to 21 per cent of absolute alcohol, although the fiscal change introduced in 1886, whereby wines not exceeding 16° proof (less than 21° alcohol) were admitted at a duty of 1s. 3d. as against 3s. for heavier wines, naturally tended to promote the shipment of the lighter dry wines. This edition has been very much assisted by the importation of sherry into the United Kingdom on a considerable scale commenced in the 19th century, and that the wine shipped at that time was of the dry variety. It seems possible that sherry was the first wine known as such in this country, but it is at least doubtful whether this word is, as some contend, derived from seck or sec, i.e. dry. According to Morewood it is more likely to have come from the Japanese sake or sake (see Sake), derived in its turn from the Chinese tsai, the name of the vine.

Chemically the sweet sherry differs from the natural dry light wines in that it contains relatively high proportions of alcohol, saccharine, sugar and small quantities of acid and glicerine. This is well illustrated by the following analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alcohol per vol.</th>
<th>Extract</th>
<th>Total Acid</th>
<th>Ash</th>
<th>Glycerine</th>
<th>Sugar</th>
<th>Sulphates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19-94</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Malaga is a sweet wine produced in the province of that name which is little known in England, but enjoys considerable favour on the Continent. It is made from vino dulce and vino seco, together with varying quantities of vino maestro, vino tierno, arpe and color. The vino maestro must contain at least 12° proof of alcohol, the vino tierno 14°, the arpe 18°, and the color 20° of alcohol, all being blended into a rectangular vessel termed the jarre, the juice, which is so obtained together with that which results from the pressing of the murk, is put into vessels or jars made of paper and roughly modeled from above by about 17 per cent of alcohol. The vino tierno is made by mashing raisins (6 parts) with water (2 parts) pressing, and then adding alcohol, and may be a rule from the Vinci, and to be sold as vino dulce to one-third, and color by concentrating the arpe over a naked fire. Malaga is therefore an interesting example of a composite wine. Besides the sweet variety, a coarse dry wine is also produced.

Another well-known wine district in the south of Spain is that of Rota, where a sweet red wine, known in England as lent (tinto), chiefly used for ecclesiastical purposes, is produced.

Wines of the Central and North.—While the most important Spanish wines are those grown in the southern province of Andalusia, the
WINE

The central and northern districts also produce wine in considerable quantity, and much of this is of very fair quality. Thus in the central district of Val de Peñas and in the Rioja region (situated between Logroño and Logroño—known as the north-east coast of Spain) and the red wines which in regard to vigour, body, and in some other respects resemble the heavier clarets or burgundies of France—although not possessing the delicacy and elegance of the latter. They are shipped in considerable quantities to the United Kingdom and also to Spanish "burgundy." The most important industry, outside the southern districts, is, however, in Catalonia, where, in the neighbourhood of Tarragona, the wines are ... the capital, as "port" is produced. The finest Tarragona wine (from much resembles port) is made in the Priorato region, about 15 m. inland.

Wines of Portugal

In the north-east of Portugal, far from the town of Oporto—from which it takes its name and whence it is exported—it is produced in vineyards, unique in its full-bodied and generous character, known as port.

Port is grown in the Alto Douro district, a rugged tract of land some 30 to 40 m. long by 10 m. wide, which commences at the river Douro some 60 m. above Oporto. The characteristics of the Alto Douro are extremely mountainous and rugged. J. L. W. Thudichum, in his Treatise on Wines, gives a striking and almost poetical description of it as compared with Jerez. He says: "The vineyards of Jerez are so beautiful and peculiar ... From the Alto Douro Undulating hills, easily accessible from all sides, are covered with a luxurious growth of vines. ... Very different is the aspect of the Alto Douro—maize, sorge, anemone, inaccessible mountain, precipice and torrent, while over growing all these rough nature are drawn countless lines of stone walls which man makes or supports the soil in which the vines find their subsistence. ... I thought that, where, for instance, if Jerez was the vineyard of Venus, this Alto vineyard must be termed the vineyard of Hercules." The vineyards, are, in fact, situated on artificially made terraces, supported by walls on the mountain sides. If this were not the case the Alto Douro would not have been planted. The way the Alto Douro is variable. Intense heat in summer is followed by severe cold in winter. The soil is a peculiar clay-schist, on or above granite, with indurated horizons, and it is made of a peculiar clay and soil that port owes its remarkable qualities of colour, body and high flavour. There appears to be no predominant and distinct type of vine, such as is the case in other viticultural districts, but a number of varieties, mostly yielding grapes of a medium size that are common to the Douro vineyards. The method of cultivation is generally that of a rational low culture, and in this respect differs from that employed in other parts of the country, where the vines are either trained on trellis or over trellis-work at some height from the ground.

Vinification.—The process of converting the Alto Douro grapes into wine is different from that employed elsewhere. The grapes are cut and then conveyed in baskets by the Gallegos (as the labourers who come specially from Galicia in Spain for this purpose are termed) to the winery. Here the stalks are removed by means of a machine called the French fork, and the grapes then placed in the lagar. This is a stone vessel of considerable size made to hold up to fifteen pipes (the pipe equals 60 litres). It is placed in a dry room and its depth is 10 to 15 yds. wide. The grapes are first trodden for a period varying from twenty-four hours upwards, and are then allowed to ferment in the lagar itself. When the fermentation has reached a certain point it is generally the custom to again trod the must in order to extract as much colour as possible from the skins. In order to preserve the sweet quality of the wine, fermentation is not permitted to continue beyond this point. When this is reached the wine is drawn from the lagar over a strainer or some similar arrangement into vats yielding from five to thirty pipes. The murk remaining in the lagar is then pressed by means of a lever or beam press with which the village of Núñez is equipped. In order to support the fermenting further and so becoming dry, from 4 to 5 volumes of brandy are added to every 100 volumes of wine in the vats. The alcohol employed for this purpose is as a rule of high quality and made solely from wine. When, after the approach of the cool weather, the fees have dropped, the wines are racked and a further addition of brandy is made. The second racking takes place in March or April, when the wines are placed in pipes and sent in the wind. If it is stored in large over-ground buildings termed lodges. Further addition of brandy is generally added before shipment. The great bulk of the pipe is shipped for many years before shipping, but this does not apply to the commoner varieties, or to the finest wines, which, being the produce of a specific year, are shipped unblended and as a vintage wine. The most famous vintages of recent times were 1847, 1851, 1856, 1861, 1875, 1876, 1877, 1880, 1883, and 1887. A white port is also made in the Alto Douro, and this, although little known in England, is exported in considerable quantities to Germany and Russia. The white port is grown in vineyards which are not quite so favoured as regards position as the red port growths. White port is made from white grapes, and a peculiarity of its manufacture is that the must is frequently fermented in the presence of the skins, which is most unusual in the case of white wines. This gives a certain stringency to white port, which is characteristic of its class.

Distillate.—The Alto Douro has from time to time been sadly ravaged by the oidium and phylloxera. The former first made its appearance in the Alto Douro of the 19th century, and, reached a climax in 1856, when only about 15,000 pipes, that is, about onefifth of the usual quantity, was vintaged. In consequence of this, the exportation of port dropped from over 40,000 pipes in 1856 to about 16,000 pipes in 1858. Since then oidium has reappeared from time to time, but the remedy of spraying with finely divided sulphur, which was discovered at the time of the epidemic, has enabled the wine farmers to keep it under. The phylloxera, which appeared in Alto Douro in about 1868, also ravaged the vineyards. At one time reduced the yield to about one-half of the normal. At one time the position appeared to be desperate, particularly in view of the fact that the farmers refused to believe that the trouble was due to anything other than the continuous drought of successive dry seasons, but at the present time, after much expenditure of energy and capital, the condition of affairs is once more fairly satisfactory.

Port Wine Trade.—The port wine trade is of considerable importance to the United Kingdom not only because the chief trade in this wine is carried on with that country, but also because a very large proportion of the capital invested in the industry is British. It is probable that the English capital locked up in the port industry amounts to some 2 millions sterling. In the period preceding the seventies of the last century, when the prosperity of the whole of the wine exported from Oporto came to Great Britain. Thus in the year 1864 were exported to Great Britain 29,642 pipes and to the rest of the world 507 pipes. The trade with the rest of the world, however, has gradually grown since then, the figures being as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>To Great Britain</th>
<th>To Rest of the World</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>35,753</td>
<td>20,778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1884</td>
<td>30,281</td>
<td>31,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>41,825</td>
<td>65,068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>34,356</td>
<td>80,934</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The growth of the export trade from Oporto with the rest of the world is principally due to the enormous increase in the quantity of wine sent to South America, chiefly Brazil, but only a small proportion of this (probably one-eighth) is port wine proper. The bulk of it consists of wines from the Minho and Beira districts. These facts and others are shown in the table of Imports from Oporto which are much more than the total production of wine in the Alto Douro. At the present time the average production of the Alto Douro is about 50,000 pipes. During the last decade it was at a maximum of 67,000 in 1888. The quantity of white wine sent from Oporto, when only 16,000 pipes were obtained. The value of the port taken by the United Kingdom was in the year 1906 over one million sterling, and is also accounted for by a large amount of port, which is commonly known in the United Kingdom as Bueelas Hock.

As far as the United Kingdom is concerned, the Madeira wine imported with that the middle in the 19th century the vineyards by and is still chiefly in the hands of British merchants.

Madeira.

The shipments to the United Kingdom, however, which reached a maximum in 1820, when over half a million gallons were shipped, has fallen off to one-tenth of that amount, and the consumption in these islands was barely 20,000 gallons in 1906. This falling away in the taste for Madeira is partly ascribable to fashion and partly to the fact that the wine has been long since superseded by the port. The re-establishment of the vineyards and the consequent development of the industry did not, however, lead to a renewal of the trade on the former scale with this country. The output in 1906 amounted to 10,000 pipes (Madeira)
GERMANY: ITALY

WINE

Although the quantity of wine produced in Germany is comparatively small and subject to great variations, the quality of the finer wines is, in successful years, of a very high order. In fact Germany is the only country which produces natural (i.e. unfortified) wines of so high a class as to be comparable with—although of an entirely different character from—the wines of France. The finer wines possess great breed and distinction, coupled with a very fine and pronounced bouquet, and in addition have a very marked and rare quality of stability. The great inequalities observed in the different vintage and the exceptionally fine character of the wines in good years are, generally, due to the same cause, namely, to the geographical position of the vineyards. The wines of the Rhine are grown in the most northerly latitude at which viticulture is successful in Europe, and consequently, when the seasons are not too unpropitious, they display the hardness and distinct characteristics of northern products. During the period 1891-1905 the total production of Germany has averaged round 60,000,000 gallons, containing a maximum of 111 million gallons in 1896 and a minimum of 87 million gallons in 1894. The trade with the United Kingdom is now a very considerable one, amounting in 1906 to roughly 1½ million gallons to the value of three-quarters of a million sterling.

The wines grown in the Rheingau, Rheinhessen and in parts of the Palatinate are generally known by the name of Rhine wines, although many of these are actually produced on tributaries of the Rhine, such as the Neckar, Mosel, etc., which the curious generic term "hock" employed in England for Rhine wines is derived, is made in the vicinity of the little village of that name situated on the Main, a number of miles above the city. The latter vineyards consist of an elevated strip along the northerm bank of the Rhine from Bingen on the west to Mainz on the east. The most important vineyards of the Rhine are those of the Mosel, Rheinhessen, and Rheingau, of which the first two mentioned have a characteristic quality of their own.

The vineyards of the Mosel are the earliest to be planted, the hands of the prince of Orange, but after the battle of Jena, Napoleon deprived him of it and presented it to Marshal Kellermann. On the fall of Napoleon, the emperor of Austria took possession of the vineyard and gave it to Prince Metternich. At the present time the property still belongs to the descendants of the latter. The vineyards of Steinberg belong to the state of Prussia. The vineyards of the Mosel are situated in the state of Rhineland Palatinate, and are formed by the valley of the Mosel, of which several qualities are made in each case, fetch exceedingly high prices. The finest wines are produced in a manner somewhat similar to that employed for making the Sauternes. The grapes are allowed to become over-ripe and are then selected by hand. This process produces the so-called Auslese wines, which frequently fetch as much as 30s. or 40s. a bottle. The other most important wines produced in the Rheingau and its extensions are the Feinherben, those of MarLBrunn, Geisenheim, and especially of Wiltingen, which are produced in the lower part of the Rhine valley near the latter town and have a very marked and high quality of stability. The reason for this is to be sought partly in the unscientific methods of cultivation, and partly, in many districts, in the method of vinification, which consists in the wines being carried for a great extent still on trees or trellis-work, or allowed to grow among the rest of the vegetation in the most casual manner. It must be stated, nevertheless, that of recent years a decided improvement has been set in the Rhine districts to the lively interest which the Italian government has taken in the subject, principally owing to the important export trade to America, Switzerland and other countries. The trade with the United States, which in 1887 amounted to little over 120,000 gallons, has risen to considerably over a million gallons. The exports to the Argentine Republic amount to roughly 2 million gallons, and to Switzerland from 4 to 8 million gallons. The exports to Germany amount to little over a quarter of a million gallons annually, and of a value rather less than £30,000. The total exports of Italy are on the average not far from 40 million gallons. The wines of northern Italy are on the whole of good colour, but somewhat harsh. Among the best-known wines in Piedmont are the Barolos and the wines of Asti, which are made from a species of muscatel grapes. They are of an agreeable flavour, and this especially in the dry variety, and of sparkling wine is manufactured in this district. Among the best-known wines of Lombardy are the Passella wines of Valtolina. In central Italy the best grapes are those of Chianti, especially from the Commune of Greve. This commune produces the greater part of these wines, which are of good but not excessive alcoholic strength, containing as a rule some 10½ to 11½ per cent. Some of the Montepulciano wines have a strong characteristic flavour, which is Pitti, and a great deal of acidity, which is Chianti. The best Italian wines, however, are

Practically all the important wines of Germany are white, although there are a few red growths of some quality, for instance Montepulciano and Montefalco, and the black Burgundy wine, the Pinot. In the Rheingau the predominant wine is the Riesling. This plant appears to be indigenous to Germany, and the finest wines are made exclusively from its grapes. In the hope of reproducing the character of the Rhine wines, the Riesling has been planted in many young wine-producing countries, such as Australia, California and the Cape, and not entirely without success. In the Rheingau the vineyards are planted on mountain slopes freely exposed to the sun, and requires a relatively high temperature to reach perfect maturity. In the lower lands, therefore, it is customary to plant, in addition to the Riesling, wines such as Österreicher and the like, which are less subject to evaporation. In this way, the wines, such as the Orchards and the Traminer, are also found in small quantities in the Rheingau. On the Moselle the Riesling and the Kleinberger are the chief growths. The vine on the Rhine is, in order to permit the grapes to acquire the "robe" of the peculiar character of the wine, generally very late, rarely taking place before the end of October. The process of vinification is peculiar in that fermentation takes place in relatively small tanks, the result being that there are frequently marked differences in the produce of the same growth and variety.

The very great variations which are shown by the same growths of grapes are also shown by the addition of sugar to the must, and this is done to improve the wine, which is in many cases not sufficiently sweet to suit the taste of the consumer. In this way the wines are sweetened, and the resultant product is known as Süsswein, or sweet wine. The sweet wines of Germany are of the highest quality, and are made in many different districts, such as the Mosel, the Rhineland, the Haan, the Hesse, and the Saxe.

The wines of the Moselle are of a somewhat different character to those of the Rhine, and are a rule fairly fully bodied and of marked vinosity, the Moselle wines are mostly light and of a somewhat delicate nature. When the wines are generally improve in bottle for a lengthy period, the Moselles are as a rule the best of the whole, and are delivered in a fresh and paratively fresh. Indeed, many connoisseurs hold that when a Moselle ceases to show signs of the somewhat prolonged secondary fermentation the character of the wine begins to change, and the slight film on the palate (caused by the presence of bubbles of carbonic acid gas in the wine), that it has passed its best. The best-known growths of the Moselle are those of Brauneberg, Bernkastel, Piesport and Zell, in the latter of which the celebrated Stein wine, which is grown at the foot of the city of Zell, and in the grand duchy of Baden the celebrated growths of Affental (red), also known as Pfriek, are grown.

The quality of wine is produced in Alsace-Lorraine, Baden and Württemberg, but the majority of these have little interest, inasmuch as they are used only for home consumption. Among the best Ascan wines, which are grown in a valley the name of which is pronounced "Marlen", are the Franconian growths, amongst which the celebrated Stein wine, which is grown at the foot of the town of Würzburg, and in the grand duchy of Baden the celebrated growths of Affenthal (red), also known as Pfriek, are grown.

The wines of France are divided into three general classes: the red wines, the white wines, and the sparkling or champagne wines. The red wines are made from the juice of red grapes, and are generally dark in colour and strong in wine, such as the Burgundy, and the Rhine. The white wines are made from the juice of green grapes, and are generally light in colour and weak in wine, such as the Moselle, and the Rhine. The sparkling or champagne wines are made from the juice of green grapes, and are generally light in colour and weak in wine, such as the Moselle, and the Rhine.
WINE
AUSTRIA: UNITED STATES

Vesuvius from a vine bearing the same name. It has a fine red colour, and unites delicacy and a high bouquet with a sweet elegant taste. The white muscat wines of Vesuvius are also of good quality, and are considered by many to be one of the best known of Italian wines in the United Kingdom is that produced in the neighbourhood of Marsala in the island of Sicily, which bears the name of the wine, and a spiced version which is exported from there in a quite wine which is grown and made with considerable care. It is somewhat similar in character to the wines of Madeira, but its character also recalls some of the sherry types. It is vatted and bottled in the same way as sherry, and is a marvellous trade in this wine with the United Kingdom. In the neighbourhood of Palermo, Muscat and Malvoisie wines of very fair quality are made. The islets of Sardinia and Elba produce considerable quantities of wine, some of which are<br>

Wines of Austria-Hungary

In point of quantity Austria-Hungary takes the fourth place among the wine-producing nations. The average production for the period 1901-1905 was 175 million gallons. Of this quantity Austria is responsible for roughly three-fifths and Hungary for the remaining two-fifths. The character of the Hungarian wine is, however, much higher than that of the Austrian growths. The quality of the bulk of the Austro-Hungarian wines has been improved of late years, principally owing to the endeavours of the respective governments to introduce scientific and modern methods among the wine-farmers. Since the recovery of the Hungarian vineyards from the phylloxera considerable efforts have been made to develop an export trade, and so far very good results are not as yet obtained. Nevertheless, Hungary produces at least one class of wine which may be considered of international importance, namely, the famous Tokay wine, which is produced in the montagnous Hegyalja region in a district which has the town of Tokay for its centre. The vine from which Tokay is made is the Furmint. The finest varieties of Tokay are made entirely or mainly from Furmint grapes which have been selected and allowed to become corrupted by a micro-organism somewhat similar to that obtaining in the Sauternes districts. In the case of Tokay, however, the transformation of the grape into what is popularly a port, is not brought about by the interaction of any particular micro-organism. The sugar is sufficiently powerful to cause the evaporation of the water in the grape through the skin without any preliminary loosening of the latter by the action of the botrytis cinerea, the so-called “sugar-mold” of Tokay is the so-called essence. This is produced by placing the finest grapes in casks and drawing off the juice which exudes naturally as a result of the weight of the material. The Tokay essence is, even after many years, still partially fermentative, and contains about more than 7% to 9% of alcohol. Indeed, it may be said that the main fermentation rarely, if ever, reaches a climax. Another variety of Tokay is the so-called szamorod. This is produced by pressing a mixture of dried grapes and fully ripe grapes and fermenting the must so obtained. It contains up to about 14% of alcohol and relatively little sugar. The most common kind of Tokay is the so-called furminta, from which it is obtained in quantity to supply the must of ordinary grapes. According to the amount of dried grapes (szibele) employed, the wine is termed 1 to 5 “huttig.” The Ausbruch wine takes from three to four years to ripen, and they must not be sold before ten years. Of the many varieties of Tokay, the most famous is the 150 million lire which is sold with much the same manner as has been the case in California. The red wines of Austria, particularly those of South Austria, some of the Mosel wines, and the whites of the Rhine, are well known in the United States and are regarded as their principal characteristics. There are several types of white wines, some resembling French Sauterns and Chablis and others the wines of the Rhine. It has been recognized, however, that it is impossible to actually reproduce the character of the European wines, and it is now generally held to be desirable to recognize the fact that Austrian and Cape wines represent distinct types, and to sell them as such, without any reference to the European parent types from which they have been derived.

Wines of the United States

The cultivation of the vine has made very rapid strides in the United States during the past century. Whereas in 1860 the production recorded was little more than 200 million dollars, the amount to-day is, in good years, not far short of 50 million dollars. The result has been that the domestic wines have now very largely displaced foreign wines. In 1860, for instance, the proportion of wines, and at the same time, there is no reason to believe that the finer European wines will be entirely displaced, inasmuch as these are characterized by qualities of delicacy and breed which cannot be reproduced at will. In 1860, for instance, there is no reason to believe that the wines produced in the United States is of very fair quality, and this is largely due to the fact that the Americans have been at great pains to introduce the latest scientific methods in regard to the vine and wine-making. Thus in parts of California, where high temperatures are liable to prevail during the vintage, the system—first employed in Algeria—of cooling the must during fermentation to the proper temperature by means of a series of pipes in which iced water circulates has produced excellent results. Indeed, the superiority of the wines from many of the most famous European vineyards has also done much towards improving the quality. In California there are, in fact, over 25,000 vineyards, and the production is almost every European wine-growing centre, and the produce of the state is the Riesling, Hermitage, Sauternes, Chianti, &c., in accordance with the district of origin of the vine. California is the largest wine-producing state, and is surpassed only by France in the number of important wine-producing states. The centre of the wine trade of Ohio is at Sandusky on the shores of Lake Erie. Here, as well as at Cleveland, champagne’s and “claret” and sparkling Catawba’s are the chief wines produced. The latter was first made by Nicolas Longworth of Cincinnati. The Catawba is the chief growth of the Lake Erie district; the other important vines being the Delaware and Concord. New York state, in which wine has been grown for a very considerable period, has some thirty vineyards, and the wines, known also as “claret.” There are about 75,000 acres under the vine in this state, and roughly 5 million gallons are produced annually. The Alto Adige in Italy is another important region. It is a wine of sweet character, resembling in general nature the wines of southern Europe (Italy, Spain, Portugal). In the eastern and middle states the wines produced are of a lighter type and of drier flavour, and are grown in small quantities. The most remarkable fact in regard to the wines of the present time America exports a considerable quantity of wine, and there is some trade in the United Kingdom in California “claret.”

Wines of the British Empire

The production of the British Empire is very small, amounting to roughly 30 million gallons. The Cape of Good Hope and in the Australian Commonwealth. At present the average vintage of the Cape and of Australia is in each case roughly 5 to 6 million gallons. In 1905 New South Wales produced 280,000 gallons, Queensland 75,000 gallons, and the others 280,000 gallons respectively. The trade of Australia with the United Kingdom is now considerable, having increased from 168,188 gallons in 1887 to 622,836 gallons in 1906. It is possible that the trade would grow much more rapidly than it has done if it were practicable to ship the lighter varieties of wines. These, which would be suitable for ordinary beverage purposes, cannot as a rule stand the passage through the Red Sea, and it is therefore only possible to ship the heavier or fortified wines. It is doubtful, therefore, whether the products of the British Empire will ever displace European wines in the United Kingdom on a really large scale, for they cannot stand the pressure of sanitary supervision. New South Wales and South Australia are the only important districts, nor, for the reason stated, with the lighter beverage wines. The quality of the wine produced in the Cape and in Australia has improved very much of recent years, chiefly owing to the introduction of new vines and processes. A Wines of North America. In recent years the wine industry has been widely developed, and some of the wines produced are of great importance, and are now, at any rate in point of quality, quite insignificant. At the present time a great part of the industry is devoted to the cultivation of the currant (Vitis cinerea). The average product from 1901 to 1905 is about 280,000,000 gallons.

Other Countries

Considerable quantities of wine are produced in the Balkan states, but the bulk of this is of a coarse description and only fit for local consumption. The average yield of Bulgaria and Rumania is probably not more than 100 million gallons, and Bulgaria alone it is much larger. Thus in 1896 Rumania produced not less than 101 million gallons and Bulgaria 81 million gallons. The wine industry of Greece, which in ancient times was of great importance, has now become, at any rate in point of quality, quite insignificant. At the present time a great part of the industry is devoted to the cultivation of the currant (Vitis cinerea). The average product from 1901 to 1905 is about 280,000,000 gallons. Several countries have now made a small quantity of wine, principally in the Crimea (P.S.)
WINDBRENNER—WINGATE

WINDBRENNER, JOHN (1797-1860), American clergyman, founder of the "Church of God," was born in Glade Valley, Frederick county, Maryland, on the 23rd of March 1797. He studied at Dickinson College, S. W. Schaeffer, in Pennsylvania, and was ordained in the German Reformed Church in 1820 and became a pastor at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, where his revival preaching and his Revision Hymn Book (1825) brought about a break between his followers and the Reformed Church. In 1830 he founded the Church of God (whose members are commonly called Windabrennerians); he was speaker of its conference and edited its organ, The Church Advocate, until his death in Harrisburg on the 12th of September 1860. He wrote Brief Views of the Church of God (1830); A Treatise on Regeneration (1844); Doctrinal and Practical Sermons (1860); and with I. B. Rupp, The History of all the Religious Denominations in the United States (1844).

The Church of God has three sacraments: baptism (by immersion), feet washing and the Lord's Supper (administered to Christians only, in a sitting posture, and in the evening); it is generally Arminian and pre-millennialist, and in government has local elders and deacons, an annual eldership composed of pastors and lay elders, and, chosen (by and from) the annual eldership, a general eldership with representatives from the denominations in the district. In 1887 number 518 organizations and 24,556 communicants, in the following states: Pennsylvania (11,157), Ohio (2980), Indiana (1999), Illinois (1553), Maryland (1204), Missouri (1853), Iowa, West Virginia, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Michigan, Indiana, Alabama, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kansas, Ohio, Kentucky, West Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kansas, and Ohio. Under the general eldership are: Findlay College, Findlay, Ohio; Fort Scott College, Fort Scott, Kansas; and an academy at Barkeyville, Pennsylvania. Some of the missionary work is done in Bengal.

WINER, GEORG BENEDIKT (1789-1858), German Protestant theologian, was born at Leipzig on the 13th of April 1789. He studied theology at Leipzig, where eventually (1832) he became professor ordinarius. From 1824 to 1830 he edited with J. G. V. Engelhardt the Neues kritisches Journal der theologischen Literatur, and alone from 1832 to 1837 the Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Theologie. He is well known as the author of a Grammatik des neuestenstämmlichen Sprachidioms (1821, 4th ed. revised by P. W. Schmiede, 1894), of which several translations have appeared, the latest being by W. F. Foullon (1879, 3rd ed. 1883). He died on the 12th of May 1858.

His other works include: Komparative Darstellung des Lehrbegriffes der verschiedenen christlichen Kirchenpariêten (1824, 4th ed. by P. Ewald, 1852; Eng. trans., 1873), Biblisches Realwörterbuch (1820; 3rd ed. 1885) and other Bohemian books (1835-1837); Grammatik der altsächsischen und talmudischen Chaldaischen (1824; 3rd ed. by B. Fischer, Chaldische Grammatik für Bibel und Talmud, 2 Bot., 1838), and a useful Handbuch der theologischen Literatur (1820; 3rd ed. 1838-1840, 2 vols.; suppl. 1844, 3rd ed. 1849); Geschetnis Dr. G. B. Winer's, in der Beiträge zur sächsischen Kirchengeschichte.

WINE-TABLE, a late 18th-century device for facilitating after-dinner drinking—the cabinetmakers called it a "Gentleman's Social Table." It was always narrow and of semicircular or horseshoe form, and the guests sat round the outer circumference. In the earlier and simpler shapes metal wells for bottles and ice were sunk in the surface of the table; they were fitted with brass lids. In later and more elaborate examples the tables were fitted with a revolving wine-carriage, bottle-holder or tray, working upon a balanced arm which enabled the bottles to be passed to any guest without shaking. The side opposite the guests was often fitted with a network bag. It has been conjectured that this bag was intended to hold biscuits, but it is much more likely that its function was to prevent glasses and bottles which might be upturned from falling to the floor. That the wine-table might be drawn up to the fire in cold weather without inconvenience from the heat it was fitted with curtains hung upon a brass frame and running upon rings. Sometimes the wine-table was accompanied by a circular bottle-supported on a tripod into which the bottles were deeply sunk to preserve them from the heat of the fire. Yet another form was circular with a socket in the centre for the bottle. Wine-tables followed the fashion of other tables and were often inlaid with wood or brass. They are now exceedingly scarce.

WINFIELD, a city and the county-seat of Cowley county, Kansas, U.S.A., in the S. part of the state, on the Walnut river, about 40 m. S.S.E. of Wichita. Pop. (1890) 5184; (1900) 5354, of whom 293 were foreign born and 282 were negroes; (1905) 7845; (1910) 6700. It is served by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe, the Missouri Pacific, and the St. Louis & San Francisco railways, and is connected by electric line with Arkansas City, Kansas. The city is at St. John's Lutheran College (1893), the South-west Kansas College (Methodist Episcopal, opened in 1886), St. Mary's Hospital and Training School (1888), Winfield Hospital (1900), a Lutheran orphan's home and a State School for Feeble-minded Youth. Island Park (50 acres) is the meeting-place of a summer Chautauqua. Winfield is a supply and distributing point for a rich farming country, in which large quantities of wheat and alfalfa are raised. Limestone is quarried near the city, and natural gas is found in the vicinity and piped in from eastern fields for general use in the city. The municipality owns and operates the waterworks and the electric-lighting plant. Winfield was settled in 1870 and incorporated in 1871.

WINGATE, SIR FRANCIS REGINALD (1861— ), British general and administrator in the Sudan, was born at Broadfield, Renfrewshire, on the 25th of June 1861, being the seventh son of Andrew Wingate of Glasgow and Elizabeth, daughter of Richard Turner of Dublin. He was educated at the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and became a lieutenant in the Royal Artillery in 1881. He served in India and Aden, 1881-1882, and in the last-named year was in charge of its reorganization by Sir Evelyn Wood, and in the Gordon Relief Expedition of 1884-1885 was A.D.C. and military secretary to Sir Evelyn. For his services he received the brevet rank of major. After holding an appointment in England for a brief period he rejoined the Egyptian army in 1886. He took part in the operations on the Sudan frontier in 1889, including the engagement at Toski and in the further operations in 1891, being present at the capture of Tokar. In 1894 he was governor of Suakin. His principal work was in the Intelligence branch of the Sudan, of which he became director in 1896. He was versed in Arabic, his knowledge of the country, the examination of prisoners, refugees and others from the Sudan, and the study of documents captured from the Dervishes enabled him to publish in 1891 Mudhish and the Egyptian Sudan, an authoritative account of the rise of the Mahdi and of subsequent events in the Sudan up to that date. Largely through his instrumentality Father Ohrwalder and two nuns escaped from Omdurman in 1891. Wingate also made the arrangements which led to the escape of Slam Pasha in 1895. The English versions of Father Ohrwalder's narrative, with some of Wingate's own, were published in 1892.

Wingate was the author of a work on the topography of Slam's book (Fire and Sword in the Sudan, 1896) which was from Wingate's pen, being a fresh translation of the original German.

As director of military intelligence he served in the campaigns of 1896-1898 which resulted in the reconquest of the Sudan, including the engagement at Firket, the battles of the Atbara and Omdurman and the expedition to Fashoda. In an interval (March-June 1897) he went to Abyssinia as second in command of the Rennell Rodd mission. For his services he was made colonel, an extra A.D.C. to Queen Victoria, received the thanks of parliament and was created K.C.M.G. Wingate was placed in command of an expeditionary force which in November 1899 defeated the remnant of the Dervish host at Om Debretak, Kordufan, the khilifa being among the slain. For this achievement he was made K.C.B. In December of the same year, on Lord Kitchener being summoned to South Africa, Sir Reginald Wingate succeeded him as governor-general of the Sudan and sirdar of the Egyptian army. His administration of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan was conspicuously successful, the country, after the desolation of the Mahdia, rapidly regaining a measure of prosperity. In 1905 he was raised to the rank of major-general and in 1908 became lieutenant-general. He was also created a pasha and in 1905 received the honorary degree of D.C.L. from Oxford University. In 1909, at the request of the British government, Wingate undertook a special mission to Somaliland to report on the military situation in connexion with the proposed evacuation of the interior of the protectorate.
WINGFIELD, E. M.—WINKELRIED

WINGFIELD, EDWARD MARIA (c. 1560-c. 1614), English colonist in America, was born at Stoneley, Huntingdonshire, about 1560. He served as a soldier both in Ireland and the Low Countries, was one of the patentees of Virginia in 1606, and in 1607 accompanied the first colonists to Jamestown. He was elected president of the Council (15th May 1607), but his arbitrary manners, the fact that he was a Roman Catholic, and the suspicion that he was friendly toward Spain led to his deposition in September. He returned to England in April 1608, and died after 1613.

His amplified diary, entitled "A Discourse of Virginia," was published in *Archaeologia Americana*, vol. iv. (Worcester, 1860), with introduction and notes by Charles Deane.

WINGFIELD, SIR RICHARD (c. 1496-1525), English diplomatist, was one of the twelve or thirteen sons of Sir John Wingfield (d. 1481) of Letheringham, Suffolk. He became a courtier during the reign of Henry VII. and was made a knight of Calais in 1511. With Sir Edward Poyning and others he was sent in 1512 to arrange a holy league between the pope, the English king and other sovereigns, and in 1514 he went to the Netherlands to try and arrange a marriage between the archduke Charles, afterwards the emperor Charles V., and Henry VIII.'s daughter Mary. In the intervals between these and similar errands Wingfield was occupied in discharging his duties at Calais, but in 1516 he resigned his post there and returned to England. In 1520 Sir Richard was appointed ambassador to the French court, and the following year he arranged the marriage of the king's sister, Mary, to Henry VIII. and Francé 1. at the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Twice during 1521 he visited Charles V., his object being to deter him from making war on France, and he was on an errand to Spain when he died at Toledo on the 22nd of July 1525. In 1524 he had been made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. For his services Wingfield received lands in various parts of England, including Kimbolton in Huntingdonshire, where he enlarged the castle.

Sir Richard had two brothers who attained some celebrity: Sir Robert (c. 1464-1539), a diplomatist, and Sir Humphrey (d. 1545), speaker of the House of Commons from 1533 to 1538. An elder brother, Sir John, sheriff of Norfolk and Suffolk in 1483, had a son Sir Anthony (c. 1458-1552), who was present at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, and became a member of the privy council and captain of the guard. One of his godsons, Anthony Wingfield (c. 1550-c. 1615), was public orator in the university of Cambridge, and another was Sir John Wingfield (d. 1596), a soldier who was governor of Gertruydenberg from 1587 and 1589. Another of Sir Anthony's descendants, Sir Anthony Wingfield (d. 1638), was created a baronet in 1627. Another brother of Sir Richard, Ludovic, had a son, Sir Richard Wingfield of Pembroke, who was governor of Portsmouth under Queen Elizabeth. He was the father of another Sir Richard Wingfield (d. 1634), who served in Ireland and was created Viscount Powerscourt in 1618. He died without issue, and his Irish estates passed to a cousin, Sir Edward Wingfield (d. 1638), whose grandson, Folliott Wingfield (d. 1717), was created Viscount Powerscourt in 1665, but the title again became extinct when he died. In 1744 his cousin, Richard Wingfield (1667-1751), was created Viscount Powerscourt, and his descendants have held this title until the present day. Sir Mervyn Wingfield (1856-1906), the 9th Viscount, created a peer of the United Kingdom as Baron Powerscourt in 1885.

1. Evidence of Chronicles.—The earliest known mention of the incident is found in a Zürich chronicle (discovered in 1862 by G. von Wyss), which is a copy, made in 1476, of a chronicle written before 1237, though it is wanting in the 16th-century transcript of another chronicler written in 1466, which up to 1389 closely agrees with the former. It appears in the well-known form, but there is no certainty that the anonymous chronicler discovered the Eidenhozen, no name being given, and it seems clear that his death did not take place at that time. No other mention has been found in any of the numerous Swiss or Austrian chronicles till we come to the book De Helvetiae origine, written in 1362 by Rudolph Gwalther (Zwingli's son-in-law), where the hero is described as "a man of Unterwalden, of the Wingelfield family," this being expanded in the final recession of the chronicle (1476) into "he was sent of Unterwalden as a brave knight," while he is entered (in the same book, on the authority of the "Anniversary Book" of Stans, now lost) on the list of those who fell at Sempach at the head of the Nidwalden (or Stans) men as "a knight of von Winkelried, Ritter," this being in the first draft "Arnold Winckelriet."
WINNIPEG

Winkelried and his deed. This is a long ballad of 67 four-line stanzas, part of which (including the Winkelried section) is found in the additions made between 1531 and 1545 to Etterlin’s chronicle by H. H. Burkli. This is the version of Winkelried, written 1532. It is agreed on all sides that the last stanza, attributing the authorship to Halbsuter of Lucerne, “as he came back from the battle,” is a very late addition. Many authorities regard it as mere nonsense that would have been written after the battle of Winkelried, possibly put together by the younger Halbsuter (citizen of Lucerne in 1435, died between 1470 and 1480), though others consider it as an ancient manuscript, perhaps having been composed after the Reformation began, that is, about 1520 or 1530. Some recent discoveries have proved that certain statements in the song usually regarded as anachronisms are quite authentic, and are corroborated by the Old Swiss chronicle of Stolzinger, which may possibly be meant for Winkelried; while in that of Diebold Schilling of Lucerne (1511), though in the text no allusion is made to Halbsuter, the latter does describe the various uniforms then worn, which has accomplished Winkelried’s feat, but he is dressed in the colours of Lucerne. Then there is an engraving in Stumpf’s chronicle (1548), and, finally, the celebrated one by Hans Rudolf Manuel (1551), which has been preserved in the city of Lucerne.

The story seems to have been first questioned about 1850 by Moritz von Sturler of Bern, but the public discussion of the subject occurred in 1862, which was the anniversary of the battle of Stempach. The 讳 Schweizer B"undde, which he delivered in Vienna on March 21, 1860. This began the lively paper war humorously called "the second war of Stempach," in which the Swiss (with but rare exceptions) maintained the historical character of the feat against various foreigners —Austrians and others.

Most of the arguments against the genuineness of the story have been directly indicated: (1) There is the total silence of all the old Swiss chronicles as to the presence of a knight or of a warrior with the solitary exception of the Zürich chronicle of 1476 (and this while they nearly all describe the battle in more or less detail). The tale, as told in the 1476 chronicle, is clearly an interpolation, for it comes immediately after a distinct statement that "God had helped the Confederates, and that with great labour they had defeated the knights and Duke Leopold," while the passage immediately following joins the story of other events and tells us partly out the whole of the "true man," who is not even called Winkelried. (2) The date of the battle is extremely uncertain, but cannot be placed earlier than a few days before 1385. The battle took place 21 April 1386, but its claims to be regarded as embodying an oral contemporary tradition are of the slightest. (3) Similar feats have been frequently recorded, but in each case they are supported by authentic evidence which is lacking in this instance: the capture of the count of Hapsburg, in a skirmish with the Bernese in 1271; Stürlinger of Ratisbon (Regensburg) in 1322, in the war of the count of Kyburg against the men of Bern and Solothurn; Conrad Roy of Lucerne, at Nantey in 1477; Henri Wolleben, at Frastanz in 1490, in the course of the Swabian War; and a man at the battle of Kappel in 1531. (1) It is argued that the course of the battle was such that there was little or no chance of such an act being performed, or if, performed, of having turned the day. This argument rests on the careful critical narrative of the fight constructed by Herr Kleissner and Herr Hartmann from the contemporary accounts which have come down to our time. The first, at least, of these, the work of Philip of the heat of the July sun, the panic which befell a sudden part of the Austrian army, added to the valour of the Swiss, fully explain the event. (2) It is said that the knights (on foot) had been ranked in serried ranks, there must have been sufficient space left between them to allow them to move their arms, and therefore that no man, however gigantic he might have been, could have seized hold of more than half a dozen spears at once. Herr K. Bürkli (Der wahre Winkelried, die Tabak der alten Urschweizer, Zürich, 1886) has put forth a theory of the battle which allows, opposed to all modern accounts, but entirely agrees, he says, with the contemporary accounts. According to this the fight was not a pitched battle but a surprise, the Austrians not having had time to form up into ranks. Assuming this, and putting down the event, the case that these latter men, without preparation and full of mistakes, and that of the song as not proved to have been in existence before 1531, Herr Bürkli comes to the startling conclusion that the phalanx formation of the Austrians, as well as the natural act of Winkelried, have been transferred to Sempach from the fight of Biocca, near Milan (April 27, 1522), where a real leader of the Swiss mercenaries in the pay of France, Arnold Winkelried, really met his death in very much the way that his namesake perished according to the story. Herr Bürkli confines his criticism to the first struggle, in which alone mention is made of the driving back of the Fötsch, pointing out also that the chronicle of 1476 and other later accounts attribute to the Austrians the manner of attack and the long spears which were the special characteristics of Swiss warriors, and that if Winkelried were a knight (as is asserted by Etterlin), he would have been clad in the defence of the field, or at least had a breastplate, neither of which could have been pierced by hostile lances.

However, this may be thought of this daring theory, it seems clear that, while there is some doubt as to whether such an act as Winkelried’s was possible at Sempach, taking into account the known details of the battle, there can be none as to the utter lack of any supporting evidence for the charge of having performed that act in that battle. It is quite conceivable that such evidence may later come to light; for the present it is wanting.

Authorities.—See in particular Theodor von Liebenau’s Die Schlacht bei Sempach—Gedenckbuch zur fünften Säcularfeier (1862), published at the expense of the government of Lucerne. This contains every mention or description of the battle or of anything relating to it, published or unpublished, in prose or in verse, composed within 300 years after the battle, and is a most marvellous and invaluable collection of original materials, in which all the evidence for Winkelried’s deed has been brought together in a handy form.

In this case, the whole work of a Swiss town, and the history of Winkelried by W. Oechslin in vol. iii. of the Allgemeine Biographie, the following are the most noteworthy publications relating to this controversy. In support of Winkelried’s act: G. v. Ochsenen, Die Schlacht bei Sempach (Bern, 1862); A. Duguet, "La Question de Winkelried," in the Muster Neuchtels (Basel, 1866); W. Oechsl, Zur Sempacher Schlachtfeier (Zürich, 1886); E. Seletzan, Sempach of Winkelried (Lausanne, 1886); and the summary in K. Dindllicht’s Geschichte der Schweiz, i. 550–559 (3rd ed., Zürich, 1893). Against Winkelried’s claims we have the remarkable study of O. Kleissner, Die Quellen zur Sempacher Schlacht und die Winkelriedsage (Göttingen, 1873), O. Hartmann, Die Schlacht bei Sempach (Fribourg, 1886); and the conciseness of summary of the evidence given by M. v. Stürler (the first to suspect the story) in the Anzeiger für Schweiz. Geschichte (1881), 392–393.

WINNIPEG, the capital of Manitoba, and chief city of Western Canada. It is situated at the junction of the Assiniboine and Red rivers in the middle of a wide plain. The river valley, being of exceptional richness, early attracted the traders, and so in the beginning of the 19th century gained the attention of Lord Selkirk, a benevolent Scottish nobleman who sent out in 1811–1815 several hundreds of Highland settlers. On the site at the junction of the two rivers where Verandrey, the first white explorer to visit the Red river, had three-quarters of a century before this made his first landing, Fort Rouge, and where some ten years earlier in the century the "No-Thief." Fort was built by Governor Sitkirk with the aid of Fort Gibraltar, the Hudson’s Bay Company, which at the time Lord Selkirk and his friends controlled, erected Fort Douglas, bearing the family name of the colonizer. After bloodshed between the rival fur companies, and their union in 1821, Fort Garry was erected, as a trading post and settlers’ depot, and with somewhat elaborate structure, with stone walls, bastions and portholes. Fort Garry (2) was erected at a considerable cost in 1835. A short distance north of this fort, about the year 1860, the first house on the plain was erected, and to the hamlet rising there was the name Portage (Cree, Wis, murky, nipit, water). The name referred to the outlet between its water and that of the transparent lakes to the east. For ten years the hamlet grew—though very slowly, it being more than four hundred miles from St Paul, the nearest town in Minnesota, to the south. The fur-traders did not seek to increase its size. When the transfer of Ruperts’s Land took place to Canada in 1870, the governor of Assiniboia had his residence at Fort Garry, and here was the centre of government for the settlers over the area surrounding Fort Garry. Its acquisition by Canada and the influx of settlers from Eastern Canada led to the growth of the new town, which was thus named in 1874.
WINNIPEG—WINONA

free lands in all directions by Canadian settlers, all tended to build up the hamlet of Winnipeg into a considerable town. The following figures of population show the remarkable increase of Winnipeg: (1879) 215; (1874) 1860; (1885) 19,574; (1886) 39,384; (1901) 43,450; (1905) 75,972; (1906) 90,153; (1907) 100,000 (estimated). The rapid growth of the city, the character of the soil, and the high prices of material for street construction have led to a large and expensive civic organization. The city is governed by a mayor, four controllers, and twelve aldermen. The city possesses the public utility of water, but the city street car system, gas, and private electric lighting are in the hands of a private company. The city has decided to introduce electric power from Winnipeg river, at a point some 50 m. distant. The streets are in some cases macadamized and in other cases block paved, and in still others asphalted. The Parks Board is a board appointed by the city council, and has the complete administration of a fixed percentage of the city taxes. The streets were boulevarded, trees planted on them, and both of these kept by the Parks Board. A number of well-kept small parks are found throughout the city, and a large park—the Assiniboine—is being prepared and beautified. The greatest business street is Main Street, on which (north) the Great Canadian Pacific railway station and Royal Alexandra Hotel are situated, and (south) the Union station of the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific railways are found. On or near this street (132 ft. wide) are placed the great financial institutions of the city, including eighteen chartered banks, mutual insurance companies, the Bank of Canada, the life insurance companies, and real estate buildings and offices. The departmental stores and offices of the Hudson's Bay Company and its Fort Garry court, which stand on Main Street South, are worthy of that ancient company. The city hall, with park and volunteers' monument, are on the same street, while the lofty Union Bank, McIntyre, and Bon Accord blocks are here wildernesses of offices of every description. The second great street, Portage Avenue, of the same width as Main Street, runs at right angles to Main Street, and is the mercantile street of the city. On this are the post office, Free Press office, Y.M.C.A. building, Aikins Block, T. Eaton & Co.'s enormous departmental shop, and the Ideal Building, which are worthy of note. The wholesale business street of the city is Princess, running parallel to Main Street; and the two most beautiful residential streets are Broadway and Assiniboine Avenues. All parts of the city are reached by the Winnipeg electric street railway, which runs north for 25 m. on the continuation of Main Street to the town of Selkirk, west along Portage Avenue for 12 m. to St. James, Silver Heights, St. Charles and Headingley, and south through Fort Rouge to River Park. At the north of the city are St. John's episcopal church and St. John's Grammar School. In the central part of the city are the parliament building, governor's residence, barracks, law courts, university, Manitoba College and Wesley College buildings. More than eighty churches, many of them of architectural value, are found scattered over the city, while the General Hospital, Women's Home, Children's Home, Children's Aid Shelter and Deaf and Dumb Institute speak of the benevolence of the citizens. One of the most striking features of Winnipeg is seen in the elaborate system of public schools. The buildings are not exceeded for beauty of design or for completeness of finish by any Canadian city and by few American cities.

The geographical position of Winnipeg is unique for the purposes of trade. Like Chicago it stands on the eastern border of the prairies. All western trade in Canada of the vast provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, must pass through the narrow belt of 100 m., lying between the international boundary line and Lake Winnipeg. Midway in this belt stands Winnipeg. The trade from the wide extent of three-quarters of a million of square miles of prairie and woodland, which are more populous every year, must flow through a narrow spot at Winnipeg; every railway must pass through Winnipeg. In consequence Winnipeg is already a considerable manufacturing centre. Its lumber and flour mills are its largest industries, but the following are found: aerated waters and breweries, tent makers, baking-powder manufactories, box manufacturers, brick makers, broom, brushes and carriage makers, cement blocks, manufacturing chemists, chocolate and cigar manufacturers, confectionery, copper plate, cornice makers, engine builders, gas fitters, ink manufacturers, jewelry makers, lime makers, milliners, opticians, paint makers, glass makers, photographers, pickle makers, planing mills, pork packers, publishers, pump makers, rubber-stamp makers, sash, door and blind factories, upholsterers, ventilating manufactories, vinegar factories, foundries, wire and fence manufactories. The area of the city is 12,700 acres.

WINNIPEG, a lake and river of Canada. The lake is in Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Keewatin, and is situated between 50° 20' and 53° 50' N. and 96° 20' and 99° 15' W. It covers an area of 8,555 sq. m., is at an altitude of 710 ft. above the sea, is 250 m. long, 25 to 60 m. wide, and contains several large islands, including Reindeer (70 sq. m.) and Big Island (60 sq. m.). It is shallow, being nowhere more than 70 ft. in depth, and is consequence extremely stormy and dangerous. It abounds in fish, its white fish being especially celebrated. Its shores are low and on the south extremely marshy. The principal affluent rivers are: Red river, from the south; Winnipeg, Bloodvein, Berens and Poplar from the east; and the Dauphin and Saskatchewan from the west. It receives the surplus waters of lakes Manitoba and Winnipegosis, and discharges by the river Nelson through Lake St. Mary and the Red river, the Waterhen, a tributary on the south, which discharges into Lake Winnipegosis in 48° 47' N. and 89° 57' W., and flows in a westerly direction under the names of Savanne, Seine, and Rainy rivers to the Lake of the Woods; issuing thence as the Winnipeg, it flows N.W. with an exceedingly tortuous and turbulent course to the lake of the same name. It is navigable from the foot of the Lake of the Woods to the head of Rainy lake—with a short portage at Fort Frances falls—a distance of 208 m. Its principal tributary is English river.

WINNIPEGOSIS, a lake of Manitoba and Saskatchewan, Canada, between 51° 34' and 53° 17' N. and 99° 37' and 101° 06' W. Its greatest length is 122 m.; greatest width 17 m.; shore line 570 m.; and area, exclusive of islands, 2000 sq. m. Its greatest ascertained depth is 38 ft., and mean altitude 828 ft. above the sea. Mossy river from the south, draining Lake Dauphin, Swan, and Red Deer rivers are the only considerable streams that fall into it. It drains by the Waterhen river through Waterhen lake into Lake Manitoba, and thence by the Little Saskatchewan into Lake Winnipeg. It was discovered by the chevalier de la Verendrye in 1739.

WINONA, a city and the county-seat of Winona county, Minnesota, U.S.A., about 95 m. S.E. of St. Paul, on the W. bank of the Mississippi river, here crossed by three steel bridges. Pop. (1880) 10,208; (1890) 18,288; (1900) 19,774, of whom 5000 were foreign-born and 30 negroes; (1910 census) 18,383. There are large German and Polish elements in the population, and German and Polish journals, besides two dailies in English, are published here. Winona is served by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago Great Western, the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, the Green Bay & Western, and the Chicago & North Western railways, and by river steamboat lines. It is picturesque and situated on a broad, level terrace, slightly elevated above the river, and surrounded by steep bluffs rising to 400-500 ft. At Winona are the Winona General Hospital (1894), to which is attached a Nurses' Training School; the first State Normal School (opened in 1860), and Winona Seminary (1894) for girls, conducted by the Sisters of Saint Francis. The city has a public library (about 30,000 vols.), with a mural decoration by Kenyon Cox; a Federal building; a Masonic Temple; and several parks; and it owns its own water supply (operated by the Holly system). In 1905 the total value of the factory product was $3,500,256 (30-5% more than in 1900). The site of the city was frequently used as a landing place in the old fur-trading days, but was not permanently settled until about 1853. Winona was first chartered as a city in 1857. A large part of it was destroyed

1 Incorporated in this year as a city.
by fire in 1860. The name Winslow is said to be a six word meaning “first-born daughter.”

**WINSFORD,** an urban district in the Northwich parliamentary division of Cheshire, England, on the river Weaver, 6 m. S. of Northwich, on the London & North-Western railway and the Cheshire lines. Pop. (1901) 10,382. In the town, which is only second to Northwich in this respect, large quantities of salt are raised and conveyed to Liverpool for exportation; being shipped in flats down the Weaver, which has been rendered navigable by an elaborate system of locks. Rock-salt is procured, as well as that obtained from the brine-pools. Boot-building is an important industry in the vicinity. In 1860 more than half a million tons of salt are shipped annually. Owing to the pumping of the brine, large tracts of land have been submerged, and there is thus a constant danger to houses. The iron bridge across the Weaver, which was built in 1856, had to be raised thrice in the following twenty-six years. The town has received much benefit from philanthropists, Sir Joseph Verdin providing a technical school, and Sir John Brunner a guildhall and other buildings.

**WINSWOLD, EDWARD** (1595-1653), one of the founders of the Plymouth colony in America, was born in Drechtwich, Worchester, England, on the 18th of October 1595. In 1617 he was removed to Leiden, united with John Robinson's church there, and in 1620 was one of the “pilgrims” who emigrated to New England on the “Mayflower” and founded the Plymouth colony. His wife, Elizabeth (Barker) Winslow, whom he had married in May 1618 at Leiden, having died soon after their arrival, he married, in May 1621, Mrs Susannah White, the mother of Peregrine White (1620-1704), the first child born in New England. This was the first marriage in the New England colonies. Winslow was delegated by his associates to treat with the Indians in the vicinity and succeeded in winning the friendship of their chief, Massasoit (c. 1580-1661). He was one of the assistants from 1624 to 1647, except in 1633-1634, 1636-1637 and 1644-1645, when he was governor of the colony. He was also, in 1643, one of the commissioners of the United Colonies of New England. On several occasions he was sent to England to look after the interests of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, and defend these colonies from the attacks of such men as John Lyford, Thomas Morton (q.v.) and Samuel Gorton (q.v.). He left on his last mission as the agent of Massachusetts Bay, in October 1647. He is entitled, where he had an office under Cromwell, and in 1654 was made a member of the commission appointed to determine the value of certain English ships destroyed by Denmark. In 1655 he was the chief of the three English commissioners whom Cromwell sent on his expedition against the West Indies to advise with its leaders Admiral Venables and Admiral William Penn, but died near Jamaica on the 8th of May 1655, and was buried at sea. Winslow's portrait, the only authentic likeness of any of the “Mayflower” “pilgrims,” is in the gallery of the Pilgrim Society at Plymouth, Mass.

His writings, though fragmentary, are of the greatest value to the history of the Plymouth colony. They include: Good News from New England, a True Relation of Things very Remarkable at the Plantation of Plimouth in New England (1624); Hypocrisie Unmasked; by a True Relation of the Governor and Company of Massachusetts against Samuel Gorton, a Notorious Disturber of the Peace (1646), to which was added a chapter entitled “A Brief Narration of the True Grounds or Cause of the First Plantation of New England”; “New England's Salamander (1647); and The Glorious Progress of the Gospel amongst the Indians in New England (1649). With William Bradford he is also supposed to have prepared a Journal of the Beginning and Proceeding of the English Plantation settled at Plymouth in New England (1620-1641), which is generally known as “Mourt's Relation,” owing to its preface having been signed by G. Mourt.” Some of his writings may be found reprinted in Alexander Young's Chronicles of the Pilgrims (Boston, 1841). See J. B. Moore's Memoir of American Governors (New York, 1846); David P. and Frances K. Holton's Winslow Memorial (New York, 1877) and J. G. Palfrey's History of New England (3 vols., Boston, 1856-58). Also see a paper “Edward Winslow, Governor Edward Winslow, his Place and Part in Plymouth Colony,” in the Annual Report of the American Historical Association for 1895 (Washington, 1896). 

His son, JOSIAH WINSLOW (1629-1686), was educated at Harvard College. He was elected a deputy to the General Court in 1653, was an “assistant” from 1657 to 1673, and governor from June 1673 until his death. From 1658 to 1672 he was one of the commissioners of the United Colonies of New England, and in 1675, during King Philip's War, he was commander-in-chief of the united forces of New England.

**WINSOR, JUSTIN** (1831-1897), American writer and librarian, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 2nd of January 1831. At the age of nineteen he printed a History of Duxbury, Mass., the home of his ancestors. He left Harvard without taking an academic degree to study in Paris and Heidelberg, but not until he had planned an extended memoir of Garrick and his Contemporaries, the manuscript of which, in ten volumes with a mass of notes, is in the library of Harvard University. In 1866 Winsor was appointed a trustee of the Boston public library, and in 1868 its superintendent. In 1877 he became librarian of Harvard University, a position he retained until his death. He greatly popularized the use of both these great collections of books. While at the Boston public library he edited a most useful catalogue of books in history, biography and travel, and compiled the list of a set of special books. In 1876 he began a series of monumental publications. The first was a Bibliography of the Original Quotations from the Works of Shakespeare with Particular Reference to Copies in America. Unfortunately, all except about a hundred copies of this work were destroyed by fire. A small volume entitled The Reader's Handbook of the American Revolution (1879) is the model of a reasonable bibliography. In 1880 he began the editing of the Memorial History of Boston (4 vols., 4to), with the co-operation of seventy writers. He so manipulated the contributions and supplemented them with notes as to give an air of unity to the whole work, and completed it in twenty-three months. He then set to work on a still larger co-operative book, The Narrative and Critical History of America, which was completed (1889) in eight royal octavo volumes. These great tasks had compelled Winsor to make a careful and systematic study of historical problems with the aid of contemporaneous cartography. Among the early results of this study was the Bibliography of Pidgen's Geography (1884), and the Catalogue of the Kohl Collection of Maps relating to America (1886), published in the Harvard Library Bulletins. His vast knowledge took the final form of The Library of Congress (4 vols., 8to, 1886-94), The Frontenac (1894), The Mississippi Basin (1895), and The Westward Movement (1897). Besides great stores of information hitherto accessible only to the specialist, these contain many strong expressions of dissent from currently received views. Winsor served for many years on the Massachusetts Archives Commission. His careful Report on the Maps of the Orinoco-Essequibo Region was prepared at the request of the Venezuela Boundary Commission. He was one of the founders of both the American Library Association and the American Historical Association, and was president of both—of the former for ten years, 1876-1885, and the latter in 1886-1887. He died in Cambridge on the 22nd of October 1897.


**WINSTED,** a borough in the township of Winchester, Litchfield county, Connecticut, U.S.A., on the Mad and Still rivers, in the N.W. part of the state, about 26 m. N.W. of Hartford. Pop. of the township (1890) 6,183; of the borough (1900) 6,854. The church, built of stone is a great eye-catcher. The borough is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford and the Central New England railways, and by electric railway to Torrington. Among the public institutions are the William L. Gilbert Home for friendless children and the Gilbert free high school, each endowed with more than $600,000 by William L. Gilbert, a prominent citizen; the Beardsley public library (1874), the Convent of Saint Margaret of Cortona, a Franciscan monastery, and the Litchfield County Hospital. In a park in
the central part of the borough there is a tower (60 ft. high) to
the memory of the soldiers of Winsted who fell in the Civil War,
and another park contains a soldiers' monument and a memorial
fountain. Water power is derived from the Mad river and High-
land lake, which is west of the borough and is encircled by the
Wakefield boulevard, a seven-mile drive, along which there are
many summer cottages. The manufactures include cutlery and
dress tools, clocks, silk twist, hosery, leathers &c. Winsted was
settled in 1756 and chartered as a borough in 1838. The name
Winsted was coined from Winchester and Barkhamsted, the
latter being the name of the township immediately east of
Winchester. The township of Winchester was incorporated in
1771.

Winston-Salem, two contiguous cities of Forsyth county,
North Carolina, U.S.A., about 115 m. N.W. of Raleigh. Pop. of
Winston (1880) 2854; (1890) 8018; (1900) 10,005 (5934 negroes);
(1910) 17,167. Pop. of Salem (1880) 2711; (1900) 3642 (488 being
negroes); (1910) 5535. Both cities are served by the Southern,
and the Norfolk & Western railways. Since July 1899, when the
post office in Salem was made a sub-station of that of Winston,
the cities (officially two independent municipalities) have been
known by postal and railway authorities as Winston-Salem.
Winston is the county-seat and a manufacturing centre. Salem
is largely a residential and educational city, with many old-
fashioned dwellings, but there are some important manufactories
here also; it is the seat of the Salem Academy and College
(Moravian) for women, opened as a boarding-school in 1802;
and of the Slater Normal and Industrial School (non-sectarian)
for negroes, founded from the Slater Fund in 1892. The surround-
ing country produces tobacco of a superior quality, and to
the tobacco industry, introduced in 1872, the growth of Winston
is chiefly due; the manufacture of flat plug tobacco here is
especially important. The total value of Winston’s factory
products increased from $4,887,849 in 1900 to $11,532,206 in
1905, or 132.3%.

Salem was founded in 1766 by Friedrich Wilhelm von Marschall
(1721–1802), a friend of Zinzendorf, and the financial manager
of the board controlling the Moravian purchase made in North
Carolina in 1753, consisting of 100,000 acres, and called Wachovia.
The town was to be the centre of this colony, where missionary
work and religious liberty were to be promoted, and it remained
the home of the governing board of the Moravian Church in the
South. In 1849 exclusive Moravian control of Salem’s industries
and trades was abolished; in 1856 land was first sold to others than
Moravians, and in the same year the town was incorporated.
Winston was founded in 1851 as the county-seat and was named in honour of Major Joseph Winston
(1746–1815), a famous Indian fighter, a soldier during the War of
Independence, and a representative in Congress in 1793–1795
and 1803–1807. The growth of the two cities has been rapid
since 1890.

See J. H. Clewell, History of Wachovia in North Carolina (New
York, 1902).

Winter, John Strange, the pen-name of Henrietta
Eliza Vaughan Stannard (1836– ), English novelist, who was
born on the 13th of January 1836, the daughter of Rev. H. V.
Palmer, rector of St Margaret’s, York. She early began to write
novels for different magazines, producing sentimental
stories, chiefly of army life. Two of these, Bouquet’s Baby and
Howpla, which appeared originally in The Graphic in 1885,
established her reputation, and she became a prolific novelist,
producing some sixty other light and amusing books, the best
of which deal with military life. An indefatigable journalist
on matters affecting women, she was the first president of the
Writers’ Club (1892), and presided from 1901 to 1903 over the
Society of Women Journalists. She married in 1884 Arthur
Stannard, a civil engineer.

Winter, Peter (c. 1725–1825), German dramatic composer,
was born at Mannheim about 1725. He received some instruc-
tion from the Abt Vogler, but was practically self-taught.
After playing in the Kapelle of the Elector Karl Theodor, at
Munich, he became in 1776 director of the court theatre. When
Mozart produced his Idomeneo at Munich in 1781, Winter,
annoyed at his success, conceived a violent hatred for him;
yet of more than thirty operas written by Winter between 1778
and 1820 very few were unsuccessful. His most popular work,
Das unterbrochene Opferfest, was produced in 1796 at Vienna,
where in 1797–1798 he composed Die Pyramiden von Babylon
and Das Labyrinth, both written for him by Schikaneder in
addition to the one act opera of Mozart’s Zauberflöte. He returned
to Munich in 1798. Five years later he visited London, where
he produced Calypso in 1803, Prasertina in 1804, and Zobra
in 1805, with great success. His last opera, Sünder und Schneider,
was produced in 1820 at Munich, where he died on the 17th of
October 1825. Besides his dramatic works he composed some
effective sacred music, including twenty-six masses.

Winterfeldt, Hans Karl von (1707–1757), Prussian
general, was born on the 4th of April 1707 at Vanselow in
Pomerania. His education was imperfect, and in later life he
always regretted his want of familiarity with the French language.
He entered the cuirassier regiment of his uncle, Major-General
von Winterfeldt (now the 12th) in 1720, and was promoted
cornet after two years’ service. But he was fortunate enough,
by his stature and soldierly bearing, to attract the notice of
Frederick William I., who transferred him to the so-called great
regiment of grenadiers as a lieutenant. Before long he became
a personal aide-de-camp to the king, and in 1732 he was sent
with a party of selected non-commissioned officers to assist in
the organization of the Russian army. While the guest of
Marshall Münch at St Petersburg, Winterfeldt fell in love with
and married his cousin, Countess Julie von Maltzahn, who was the
King’s stepdaughter and a maid-of-honour to the grand-duchess
Elizabeth. On returning to Prussia he became intimate with the
crown prince, afterwards Frederick the Great, whom he
accompanied in the Rhine campaign of 1734. This intimacy,
in view of his personal relations with the king, made Winter-
feldt’s position very delicate and difficult, for Frederick William
and his son were so far estranged that, as every one knows,
the prince was sent before a court-martial by his father, on the
charge of attempting to desert, and was condemned to death.
Winterfeldt was the prince’s constant friend through all these
troubles, and on Frederick II.’s accession he was promoted
major and appointed aide-de-camp to the new sovereign.

When the first Silesian War broke out Winterfeldt was sent
on a mission to St Petersburg, which, however, failed. He then
commanded a grenadier battalion with great distinction at Moll-
witz, and won further glory in the celebrated minor combat of
Rothschild, where the Prussian Hussars defeated the Austrians
(May 17, 1741). One month from this day Winterfeldt was
made a colonel, as also was Zieten (q.v.), the cavalry leader
who died later on at Vreuzendam. He was subsequently
appointed aide-de-camp to the queen, who was afterwards
the older in years and service, bitterly resented the rapid
promotion of his junior. After this Frederick chiefly employed
Winterfeldt as a confidential staff officer to represent his views
to the generals, a position in which he needed extraordinary
tact and knowledge of men and affairs, and as a matter of course
made many enemies.

In the short peace before the outbreak of the second war he
was constantly in attendance upon the king, who employed him
again, when the war was resumed, in the same capacity as before,
and, after he had been instrumental in winning a series of successful
minor engagements, promoted him (1745) major-general, to date from January 1743.

For his great services at Hohenfriedberg Frederick gave him
the captaincy of Tattiau, which carried with it a salary of 500
thalers a year. At Katholisch-Hennerdorf, where the sudden
and unexpected invasion of the Austro-Saxons was checked by
the vigour of Zieten, Winterfeldt arrived on the field in time to
take a decisive share. Once again the rivals had to share their
lucrative fief, at Raszvatz they broke through the latter, as
the older in years and service, bitterly resented the rapid
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the next great war, Winterfeldt was in constant attendance upon the king, except when employed on confidential missions in the provinces or abroad. In 1756 he was made a lieutenant-general and received the Black Eagle.

In this year he was feverishly active in collecting information as to the coalition that was secretly preparing to crush Prussia, and in preparing for the war. He took a leading part in the discussions which eventuated in Frederick's decision to strike the first blow. He was at Parnawa with the king, and advised him against absorbing the Saxon prisoners into his own army. He accompanied Schwerin in the advance on Prague in 1757 and took a conspicuous part in the battle there. After the defeat of Kolin, however, Winterfeldt, whom Frederick seems to have regarded as the only man of character whom he could trust to conduct the more delicate and difficult operations of the retreat, found himself obliged to work in close contact with the king's brother, Prince William, the duke of Brunswick-Bevern, Zieten and others of his enemies. The operations which followed may be summarized by the phrase "everything went wrong"; after an angry scene with his brother, the prince of Prussia retired from the army, and when Frederick gave Winterfeldt renewed marks of his confidence, the general animosity reached its height. As it chanced, however, Winterfeldt felt a victim to his own bravery in the skirmish of Mopps near Görlitz on the 7th of September. His wound, the first serious wound he had ever received, proved fatal and he died on the 8th. The court eminities provoked by his twenty years' unbroken intimacy and influence with the king, and the denigration of less gifted or less fortunate soldiers, followed him beyond death. Prince William expressed the bitterness of his hatred in almost his last words, and Prince Henry's memoirs give a wholly incredible portrait of Winterfeldt's arrogance, dishonesty, immorality and incapacity. Frederick, however, was not apt to encourage incompetence in his most trusted officers, and as for the rest, Winterfeldt stood first amongst the very few to whom the king gave his friendship and his entire confidence. On hearing of Winterfeldt's death he said, "Einen Winterfeld finde ich nie wieder," and a little later, "Er war ein guter Mensch, ein Seelenmensch, er war mein Freund." Winterfeldt was buried at his estate of Barschau, whence, a hundred years later, his body was transferred to the Invaliden Kirchhof at Berlin. A statue was erected to his memory, which stands in the Wilhelmsplatz there, and another forms part of the memorial to Frederick the Great in Unter den Linden.

WINTERGREEN, known botanically as Gaultheria procumbens, a member of the heath family (Ericaceae), is a small creeping, evergreen shrub with numerous short erect branches bearing in the upper part short-stalked oval, thick, smooth shining leaves with sharp-toothed edge. The flowers are borne singly in the leaf axils and are pendulous, with a pale pink waxy-looking urn-shaped corolla. The bright crimson-red sub-globular, berry-like fruit consists of the much-enlarged fleshy calyx which surrounds the small thin-walled many-seeded capsule.

The plant is a native of shady woods on sandy soil, especially in mountainous districts, in southern Canada and the northern United States; it is quite hardy in England. The leaves are sharply astringent and have a peculiar acrid smell and taste due to a volatile oil known as oil of winter green, used in medicine in the treatment of muscular rheumatism (for the therapeutic action see Salicylic Acid). An infusion of the leaves is used, under the name mountain or Salvador tea, in some parts of North America as a substitute for tea; and the fruits are eaten under the name of partridge or deer berries. Other names for the plant are tea-berry, checker-berry, box-berry, jersey tea, spice-berry and ground holly.

See Bentley and Trimen, Medicinal Plants, t. 164.

WINTER S BARK, the bark of Drimys Wintheri, an evergreen tree belonging to the Magnolia family. It was formerly official in Europe, and is still held in esteem in Brazil and other parts of South America as a popular remedy for scurvy and other diseases. The plant is a native of the mountains and highlands from Mexico to the Straits of Magellan.

WINNER, CHRISTIAN (1796-1876), Danish lyrical poet, was born on the 20th of July 1796 at Fensmark, in the province of Praestø, where his father was priest. He went to the university of Copenhagen in 1815, and studied theology, taking his degree in 1824. He began to publish verses in 1810, but no collected volume appeared until 1828. Meanwhile, from 1824 to 1830, Winter was supporting himself as a tutor, and with so much success that in the latter year he was able to go to Italy on his savings. In 1835 a second volume of lyrics appeared, and in 1838 a third. In 1841 King Christian VIII. appointed Winter to travel to Mecklenburg to instruct the princess Caroline, on the occasion of her betrothal to the Crown Prince of Denmark, in the Danish language. Further collections of lyrics appeared in 1842, 1848, 1850, 1853, 1865 and 1872. When he was past seventy the royal line of Winter disappeared, and in 1851 he received a pension from the state as a poet, and for the next quarter of a century he resided mainly in Paris. Besides the nine or ten volumes of lyrical verse mentioned above, Winter published The Stag's Flight, an epical romance in verse (1855); In the Year of Grace, a novel (1874); and other works in prose. He died in Paris on the 30th December of 1876, but the body was brought to Denmark, and was buried in the heart of the woods. In the verse of
Christian Winthrop the scenery of Denmark, its beechwoods, lakes and meadows, its violet-scented dingles, its hollows perfumed by wild strawberries, found such a loving and masterly painter as they are never likely to find again. He is the most spontaneous of lyrists; his little poems are steeped in the dew and light and odour of a cool, sunshiny morning in May. His melodies are artless, but full of variety and delicate harmony. When he was forty-seven he fell in love, and at that mature age startled his admirers by publishing for the first time a cycle of love-songs, many of which were to be expected from a spirit so unfaded; they still stand alone for ten years a simple sweetness of passion. The technical perfection of Winther's verse, in its extreme simplicity, makes him the first song-writer of Denmark.

(Edward G. C.)

WINTHROP, JOHN (1588-1649), a Puritan leader and governor of Massachusetts, was born in Edwardston, Suffolk, on the 12th of January (O.S.) 1588, the son of Adam Winthrop of Groton Manor, and Anne (Browne) Winthrop. In December 1602 he matriculated at Trinity College, Cambridge, but he did not graduate. The years after his brief course at the university were devoted to the practice of law, in which he achieved considerable success, being appointed, about 1623, an attorney in the Court of Wards and Liveries, and also being engaged in the drafting of parliamentary bills. Though his residence was at Groton Manor, much of his time was spent in London. Meanwhile he passed through the deep spiritual experiences characteristic of Puritanism, and made wide acquaintance among the leaders of the Puritan party. On the 26th of August 1629 he joined in the "Cambridge Agreement," by which he and his associates, pledged themselves to remove to New England, provided the government and patent of the Massachusetts colony should be removed thither. On the 20th of October following he was chosen governor of the "Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England," and sailed in the "Arbella" in March 1630, reaching Salem (Mass.) on the 12th of June (O.S.), accompanied by a large party of Puritan immigrants. After a brief sojourn in Charlestown, Winthrop and many of his immediate associates settled in Boston in the autumn of 1630. He shared in the formation of a church at Charlestown (afterwards the First Church in Boston) on the 30th of July 1630, of which he was the first member. At Boston he erected a large house, and there he lived till his death on the 26th of March (O.S.) 1649.

Winthrop's history in New England was very largely that of the Massachusetts colony, of which he was twelve times chosen governor by annual election, serving in 1629-1634, 1637-1640, in 1642-1644, and in 1646-1649, and dying in office. To the service of the colony he gave not merely unwearied devotion; but in its interests consumed strength and fortune. His own temper of mind was conservative and somewhat aristocratic, but he guided political development, often under circumstances of great difficulty, with singular fairness and conspicuous magnanimity. In 1634-1635 he was a leader in putting the colony in a state of defence against possible coercion by the English government. He opposed the majority of his fellow-townsmen in the so-called "Antinomian controversy" of 1636-1637, taking a strongly conservative attitude towards the questions in dispute. He was the first president of the Commissioners of the United Colonies of New England, organized in 1643. He defended Massachusetts against threatened parliamentary interference once more in 1645-1646. That the colony successfully weathered its early perils was due more to Winthrop's skill and wisdom than to the services of any other of its citizens.

Winthrop was four times married. His first wife, to whom he was united on the 16th of April 1603, was Mary Fort, daughter of John Fort, of Great Stambridge, Essex. She bore him six children, of whom the eldest was John Winthrop, Jr. (q.v.). She was buried in Groton on the 26th of June 1615. On the 6th of December 1615 he married Thomasine Clpton, daughter of William Clopton of Castelnes, near Groton. She died in childbirth about a year later. He married, on the 29th of April 1618, Margaret Tyndal, daughter of Sir John Tyndal, of Great Mapledest, Essex. She followed him to New England in 1631, bore him eight children, and died on the 14th of June 1647. Late in 1647 or early in 1648 he married Mrs Martha Coytmore, widow of Thomas Coytmore, who survived him, and by whom he had one son.

Winthrop's Journal, an invaluable record of early Massachusetts history, was printed in part in Hartford in 1790; the whole in Boston, printed by James Savage, as The History of New England from 1630 to 1649, in 1825-1826, and again in 1853; and in New York, edited by James K. Hosmer, in 1908. His biography has been written by Robert C. Winthrop, Life and Letters of John Winthrop (2 vols., 1847 ed.); and by Joseph H. Twichell, John Winthrop (New York, 1891). See also Mrs Alice M. Earle, Margaret Winthrop (New York, 1895).

WINTHROP, JOHN (1606-1676), generally known as John Winthrop the Younger, son of the preceding, born at Groton, England, on the 12th of February 1606. He was educated at the Bury St Edmunds grammar school and at Trinity College, Dublin, studied law for a short time after 1634 at the Inner Temple, London, accompanied the ill-fated expedition of the duke of Buckingham for the relief of the Protestants of La Rochelle, and then travelled in Italy and the Levant, returning to England in 1629. In 1631 he followed his father to Massachusetts, and was one of the "assistants" in 1635, 1640 and 1641, and from 1644 to 1649. He was the chief founder of Agawam (now Ipswich), Mass., in 1633, went to England in 1634, and in the following year returned as governor, for one year, of Connecticut, under the Saye and Sele patent, sending out a party which built the fort at Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut river. He then lived for a time in Massachusetts, where he devoted himself to the study of science and attempted to interest the settlers in the development of the colony's mineral resources. He was again in England in 1641-1643, and on his return established iron-works at Lynn and Braintree, Mass. In 1645 he obtained a title to lands in south-eastern Connecticut, and founded there in 1645 what is now New London, whither he removed in 1650. He became one of the magistrates of Connecticut in 1651; in 1657-1658 was governor of the colony; and in 1659 again became governor, being annually re-elected until his death. In 1662 he obtained in England the charter by which the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven were united. Besides being governor of Connecticut, he was also in 1675 one of the commissioners of the United Colonies of New England. While in England he was elected to membership in the newly organized Royal Society, to whose Philosophical Transactions he contributed two papers, "Some Natural Curiosities from New England," and "Description, Culture and Use of Maize." He died on the 5th of April 1676 in Boston, whither he had gone to attend a meeting of the commissioners of the United Colonies of New England.

His correspondence with the Royal Society was published in series 1, vol. xvi. of the Massachusetts Historical Society's Proceedings. See T. F. Water's Sketch of the Life of John Winthrop the Younger (Ipswich, Mass., 1899).

Winthrop's son, FITZ-JOHN WINTHROP (1638-1707), was educated at Harvard, though he did not take a degree; served in the parliamentary army in Scotland under Monk, whom he accompanied on his march to London, and returned to Connecticut in 1663. As major-general he commanded the unsuccessful expedition of the New York and Connecticut forces against Canada in 1690; from 1663 to 1667 he was the agent of Connecticut in London; and from 1668 until his death he was governor of Connecticut.

WINTHROP, ROBERT CHARLES (1809-1840), American orator and statesman, a descendant of Governor John Winthrop (1588-1649), was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 12th of May 1809. He graduated at Harvard in 1828, studied law with Daniel Webster and in 1831 was admitted to the bar. He was a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1834-1840—for the last three years as speaker,—and in 1840 was elected to the national House of Representatives as a Whig, serving from December 1840 to 1850 (with a short intermission, April-December 1842). He soon became prominent and was speaker of the Thirtieth Congress (1847-1849), though his
conservatism on slavery and kindred questions displeased extremists, North and South, who prevented his re-election as speaker of the Thirty-first Congress. On the designation of Daniel Webster to become secretary of state, Winthrop was appointed to the Senate (July 1850), but was defeated in the Massachusetts legislature for the short term on Apr. 30, 1851, and for the long one (April 24, 1851) by a coalition of Democrats and Free Soilers and served only until February 1851. In the same year he received a plurality of the votes cast for governor, but as the constitution required a majority vote, the election was thrown into the legislature, where he was defeated by the same coalition. Thereafter, he was never a candidate for political office. With the breaking up of the Whig party he became an independent and supported Millard Fillmore in 1856, John Bell in 1860, and General G. B. McClellan in 1864. He was president of the Massachusetts Historical Society from 1855 to 1885, and for the last twenty-seven years of his life was president of the Peabody Trust for the advancement of education in the Southern States. Among his noteworthy orations of a patriotic character were those delivered at Boston in 1876, at Yorktown in 1881, and in Washington on the completion of the Washington Monument in 1885. He died in Boston on the 16th of November 1894.

Among his publications were: Addresses and Speeches (Boston, 1852-1862); Letters of John Winthrop (2 vols., Boston, 1864-1867); and Washington, Benedict and Franklin (Boston, 1876). See R. C. Winthrop, Jr., Memoir of R. C. Winthrop (Boston, 1898).

Winthrop—Winzet. A township and a summer resort of Suffolk county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., occupying a peninsula jutting out into Massachusetts Bay about 5 m. N.E. of Boston and 3 m. S.E. of Chelsea, and forming part of the northern-eastern boundary of Boston Harbour. Pop. (1900) 6038, of whom 1487 were foreign-born and 43 were negroes; (1910, U.S. census) 10,132. Between May and October the population is estimated to be between 14,000 and 16,000. Area, 1-64 sq. m. Winthrop is served by the Winthrop branch of the Boston, Revere Beach & Lynn railway, and by electric railway from Orient Heights to Revere, Chelsea, Lynn, by a ferry to Boston East Coast Line. The township contains several villages connected by a railway loop; there are nine stations in its 5-3 m. of track. The peninsula has about 8 m. of water front on the ocean and the harbour. The northern part nearest the narrow neck connecting with the mainland is a high bluff, known as Winthrop Highlands, having its northern-eastern terminus in Grover's Cliff, a bold headland which forms the north-easternmost point of the peninsula. On Grover's Cliff is Fort Heath, a battery of three powerful long-range guns. At the western end of the Highlands is Fort Banks (a part of Boston's harbour defence), consisting of a mass ofighthouse, built in 1854 and 1855, each able to drop a 600 lb shell on a ship 6 m. at sea. From Grover's Cliff a fine sandy beach facing the open ocean leads to Great Head, the highest elevation on the peninsula. Winthrop Shore Drive (16-73 acres), one of the reservations of the Metropolitan park system, is a public parkway along the shore. From Great Head, a long sandy spit curves away southward, ending in Point Shirley, a hilltop and flat sandy plain, separated by Shirley Gut, a narrow channel of deep water, from Deer Island, on which are the Boston House of Correction and City Prison. At Point Shirley is the Point Shirley Club house and anchorage; and at Winthrop Center on the west side are the Town Hall, the High School, the Public Library, the Masonic Hall, College Park Yacht Club and Ingliside Park. There are several large summer hotels.

Winthrop, first known as "Pullen Poynt" (Pulling Point) because the tide made hard pulling here for boatsmen, was originally a part of Boston; it was part of Chelsea from 1739 until 1846, when with Rumney Marsh it was separately incorporated as North Chelsea, from which it was set off as a township in 1852 under the present name, in honor of one William Winthrop, who was a son of Governor John Winthrop, the elder, and whose house is still standing. Point Shirley takes its name from Governor William Shirley who helped to establish a cod fishery there in 1753. Before and after the War of Independence Winthrop was a favourite seaside home for Bostonians, many prominent families, including the Gibbons, Hancock, Bartletts, Emersons, Lotings and Lowells, having country-seats here. The community was a secluded rural retreat until the construction of the railway in 1876 converted it into a watering-place.

See C. W. Hall, Historical Winthrop, 1630-1902 (Boston, 1902).

Winwood, Sir Ralph (c. 1563-1617), English politician, was born at Aynhoe in Northamptonshire and educated at St John's College, Oxford. In 1590 he became secretary to Sir Henry Neville (c. 1564-1615), the English ambassador in France, and he succeeded Neville in this position two years later, retaining it until 1603. In this year Winwood was sent to The Hague as agent to the States-General of the United Provinces, and according to custom he became a member of the Dutch council of state. His hearty dislike of Spain coloured all his actions in Holland; he was anxious to see a continuance of the war between Spain and the United Netherlands, and he expressed both his own views and those of the English government at the time when he wrote, "how convenient this war would be for the good of His Majesty's realms, if it might be maintained without his charge." In June 1608 Winwood signed the league between England and the United Provinces, and he was in Holland when the trouble over the succession to the duchies of Jülich and Cleves threatened to cause a European war. In this matter he negotiated with the Protestant princes of Germany on behalf of James I; he returned to England in 1610 and served as speaker of the House of Commons from March 1614 and a member of parliament. In the House of Commons he defended the king's right to levy impositions, and other events of his secretaryship were the inquiry into the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury and the release of Raleigh in 1616. Raleigh was urged by Winwood to attack the Spanish fleet and the Spanish settlements in South America, and the secretary's share in this undertaking was the subject of complaints on the part of the representatives of Spain. In the midst of this he died in London on the 27th of October 1617. It is very doubtful if he himself had lived till the following summer, he would have shared in Raleigh's ruin." One of Winwood's daughters, Anne (d. 1643), married Edward Montagu, 2nd Baron Montagu of Boughton, and their son was Ralph Montagu, 1st Duke of Montague.

Winwood's official correspondence and other papers passed to the duke of Montague, and are now in the possession of the duke of Sutherland. They are divided and arranged in the Historical Manuscripts Commission on the manuscripts of the duke of Buckingham. See the Introduction to this Report (1899); and also S. R. Gardiner, History of England, vols. ii. and iii. (1904-1907).

Winzet, Ninian (1558-1592), Scottish poetical writer, was born in Renfrew, and was educated at the University of Glasgow. He was ordained priest in 1546, and in 1552 was appointed master of the grammar school of Linlithgow, from which town he was later "expelit and schott out" by the partisans of Dean Patrick Kinloch, "preacher" there. He had also enjoyed the office of Provost of the Collegiate Church of St Michael in that town. He retired to Edinburgh, where the return of Queen Mary had given heart to the Catholics. There he took part in the pamphlet war which then raged, and entered into conflict with Knox and other leading reformers. He appears to have had a great deal of time as occasion served. In July 1562, when engaged in the printing of his Lusiad Blast, he narrowly escaped the vengeance of his opponents, who had by that time gained the upper hand in the capital, and he fled, on the 3rd of September, with the nuncio Gouda to Louvain. He reached Paris in 1565 and became a member of the "German Nation" of the university. At Queen Mary's request he joined Bishop Leslie on his embassy to Queen Elizabeth in 1571, and remained with the bishop after his removal by Elizabeth's order to ward at Fenny Stantoun, Huntingdonshire. When further suspicion fell on Leslie and he was committed to the Tower, Winzet was permitted to return to the university; he continued his studies, and in 1574 left for Douai, where in the following year he became a licentiate. He was in residence at Rome from 1575 to 1577, and was then appointed by Pope
WIRE

Gregory XIII, abbot of the Benedictine monastery of St James, Regensburg. There he died on the 21st of September 1592.

Winzet’s work was almost entirely controversial. He justified his literary activity on the side of Catholicism on the double plea of conscience and the inability of the bishops and theologians to supply the necessary arguments (First Tractate, ed. S.T.S., i. p. 10). "We may reason within our own sphere, as we think, referring our judgment to the Holy Catholic Kirk."

In his first work, Critiae Tractates (three in number), printed in 1562, he narrates his fellow clergy for negligence and sin, issues from Spain, regarding his authority as minister and his share in the new ecclesiastical constitution, and protests against the interference with Catholic churches by the magistrates of Edinburgh. The Last Blast, which was interrupted in publication, is an oration against heretics and a falsely ordained clergy. In his Buke of Four S authorities, and other matters, he is dogmatic, rather than polemical. He translated the Commonitorium of Vincentius Lirinensis (1563), and wrote, in Latin, a Flagellum sectariorum and a Verita in Georgiia Buchanania (1582).

Winzet’s vernacular writings have been edited by J. Houson for the S.T.S. (2 vols., 1888, 1890). The Tractates were printed, with a preface by David Laing, by the Mainland Club (1855). For Winzet’s career see sections Introd., ed. 3rd iii., Mackenzie, Lives, iii., and the Introduction to S.T.S., edit. u.s.

WIRE (A.S. wir, a wire; cf. Swed. vire, to twist, M.H.G. wire, a gold ornament, Lat. virae, armlets, ultimately from the root we, to twist, bind), a thin long rod of metal, generally round in section. The uses of wire are multifarious and diverse beyond all enumeration. It forms the raw material of important manufactures, such as the wire-net industry, wire-cloth making and wire-robe spinning, in which it occupies a place analogous to a textile fibre. Wire-cloth of all degrees of strength and fineness of mesh is used for sifting and screening machinery, for draining paper pulp, for window screens, and for many other purposes. Vast quantities of copper and iron wire are employed for telegraph and telephone wires, and as conductors in electric lighting. It is in no less demand for fencing, and much is consumed in the construction of suspension bridges, and cages, &c.

In the manufacture of strung musical instruments and philosophical apparatus wire is again largely used. Among its other sources of consumption it is sufficient to mention pin and hair-pin making, the needle and fish-hook industries, nail, peg and rivet making, and carding machinery; indeed there are few industries into which it does not enter.

The physical properties requisite to make useful wire are possessed by only a limited number of metals and metallic alloys. The metals must in the first place be ductile; and, further, the wire when drawn out must possess a certain amount of tenacity, the quality on which the utility of wire principally depends. The metals suitable for wire, possessing almost equal ductility, are platinum, silver, iron, copper, aluminium and gold; and it is only from these and certain of their alloys with other metals, principally brass and bronze, that wire is prepared.

By careful treatment wire of excessive tenacity can be produced.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diameter</th>
<th>Strain</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lb.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gold</td>
<td>0.012</td>
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<tr>
<td>Platinum</td>
<td>0.016</td>
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<tr>
<td>Silver</td>
<td>0.037</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>0.019</td>
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<tr>
<td>Copper</td>
<td>0.065</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brass</td>
<td>0.095</td>
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<tr>
<td>Steel</td>
<td>0.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phosphor Bronze</td>
<td>0.0650</td>
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</table>

Dr. W. H. Wollaston first succeeded in drawing a platinum wire \( \frac{1}{100} \) inch in diameter by encasing a fine platinum wire within silver to ten times its diameter. The cored wire he then reduced to \( \frac{1}{100} \) inch, and by dissolving away the silver coating the platinum wire \( \frac{1}{100} \) inch thick only remained. By continued treatment in this way wires of platinum for spider-lines of telescopes have been obtained of such extreme tenacity that a mile length of the wire weighs not more than a grain; and it is said that platinum wire has been made which measures not more than \( \frac{1}{100} \) mm., equal to less than the fifty-thousandth part of an inch. The accompanying table shows the comparative tenacity of the wire of several and metallic alloys.

Wire was originally made by beating the metal out into plates, which were then cut into continuous strips, and afterwards rounded by beating. The art of wire-drawing does not appear to have been known in the 14th century, but it was practised in England before the second half of the 17th century. Wire is usually drawn of cylindrical form; but it may be made of any desired section by varying the outline of the holes in the draw-plate through which it is drawn, or by placing different dies in the plates of manufacture. The draw-plate or die is a piece of hard cast-iron or hard steel, or for fine work it may be a diamond or ruby. The object of utilizing precious stones is to enable the dies to be used for a considerable time without wear, and then to keep the die to softening. The form of a die in section is shown by fig. 1; the bell-mouthed opening receives the wire, and when it is pulled through the hole at the end its diameter becomes reduced accordingly.

The action of drawing has the effect of hardening the wire, and also rendering it brittle, so that annealing must be done immediately to soften it. Again for further drawing; the annealing is done in cast-iron pots, holding coils of wire which are raised to a red heat and then allowed to cool. Although the wire is kept air-tight as much as possible, some amount of scaling occurs, and pickling must be done to remove this scale before redrawing.

An important point in wire-drawing is that of lubrication to facilitate the operation and to lessen the wear on the dies. Various materials, such as oil, tallow, soapy water and scale bare are employed. Another method is to immerse the wire in a sulphate of copper solution, so that a film of copper is deposited which forms a good lubricant, easing the drawing. The end of the wire, the left of the copper is left after the final drawing to serve as a preventive of rust.

The wire-drawing machines include means for holding the dies accurately in position and for drawing the wire steadily through the holes. The usual design consists of a cast-iron bench or table having a bracket standing up to hold the die, and a vertical drum which rotates and by causing the wire around its surface pulls it through the hole. The wire may be started or stopped instantly.

The block is also tapered, so that the coil of wire may be easily slipped off upwards when finished. Before the wire can be attached to the block, it must be cut to the length of the die; this is effected by a pair of gripping pincers on the end of a chain which is wound around a revolving drum, so drawing the pincers along, and with the pincers on the wire, until the wire lies against the die to be held in place.

When the wire is on the block the latter is set in motion and the wire is drawn steady through the die; it is very important that the block shall rotate evenly and that it shall run true and pull the wire in an even manner, otherwise the "snatching" which occurs will break the wire, or at least weaken it in spots.

Single-wire machines differ from the single-block machines in having a series of dies through which the wire passes in a continuous manner. The difficulty of feeding between each die is solved by introducing a block between each, so that as the wire issues it coils around the block, and so on through the die, until it lies against the block on the opposite side, and is gathered together for the next die. The speeds of the blocks are increased successively, so that the elongation due to drawing is taken up and slip compensated for. The operation of the machine is that the wire enters the first die, which itself is so arranged that the wire is uncoiled, the amount of reduction effected; rates from 100 ft. up to 900 ft. are possible, the higher speeds being those of continuous machines.

Wires and cables for electrical purposes are made of various insulating materials, such as cotton, silk, jute and paper, wrapped in spiral fashion and further protected with substances such as paraffin, some kind of preservative compound, bitumen or lead sheathing of
steel taping. The stranded or covering machines employed in this work are of a very simple character, but require a constant supply of the wire which is passing through at a rapid rate. Some of the smallest machines for cotton covering have a large drum, which grips the wire and moves it through toothed gears at a definite speed. The wire is then passed over the drum, and finally down a long bed, and the disks carry each a number of bobbins varying from six to twelve or more in different machines. A supply of covering material is wound on each bobbin, and the end is led on to the feed rolls by means of ribbon. In the last machine of the series, the latter being revolved at a suitable speed bodily with their disks. The cotton is consequently served on to the wire, winding in spiral fashion, until the required length of covering is obtained. The various strands of the covering are concentric, the disks being duplicated, so that as many as sixty spools may be carried, the second set of strands being laid over the first. For the heavier cables, used for electric light and power, and submarine cables, bobbins are placed on a great drum. The steel wire is still carried through a hollow shaft, but the bobbins or spools of covering material are set with their spindles at right angles to the axis of the wire, and they lie in a circular cage which rotates on rollers below the frame, and in which a number of wires pass. In this way, the bobbins are kept in line, and each carries a definite number of wires, which pass on to the opposite cage of bobbins. Each cage carries a definite number of wires, and the cages are placed at different points along the axis of the wire, so that the wire passes from one cage to the next, and the various strands coming from the spools at various parts of the circumference of the cage all lead to a disk at the end of the hollow shaft. This disk has perforations through which each of the strands pass, thence being immediately wrapped on the cable, which slides through a bearing at this point. Toothed gears having certain definite ratios are used to cause the winding drum for the cable and the cage for the spools to rotate at suitable relative speeds which make the necessary corresponding movement of the covering material. Starting from a point, each spool of covering material rotates on its own shaft, and is treated with jute yarns or tapes and protected with coatings of compound. Messrs. Johnson & Phillips, Ltd., of Carlton, Kent, make a machine which is in use on the London and Birmingham Railway, and cover the wires with the preservation compound, in one continuous operation. The wire is carried on bobbins in two rotating cages, having twelve bobbins each, and the jute bobbins, seventy-two in number, are mounted on disks, while the compound is supplied from steam-heated tanks, through which the cable is passed by rollers. A machine of this class will turn out as much as 8 or 10 miles of line in 48 hours. When a supply of steel wire has been used up on the next portion of cable, the spools are put aside.

Tapes of paper, rubber or jute are served from bobbins on disks and in some designs from independent bobbins, each mounted on its own shaft, which are each at a suitable angle in a frame, to give the spiral lead. In some instances seventy-two layers of paper are applied to high-tension cables. These cables are subsequently put into steam-heated tanks, hermetically sealed and connected to a vacuum pump, by which the moisture is drawn off as quickly as possible. The cable is thoroughly dry a quantity of compound is admitted to the tank and so permeates the insulation. Lead is put on the outer layers of the wire, which passes through a cascade of wires, and is covered with a uniform coating or tube of lead, forced into the dies and around the cable by hydraulic pressure. The steel tapes are in some cases used to armour cables and protect them from damage. Wire taping is wound in a similar manner to the other materials already described.

Rubber covering of wires and cables is done by passing them through grooved rollers simultaneously with rubber strips above and below, so that the rubber is crushed on to the wires, the latter emerging as a wide band. The separate wires are parted forcibly, each retaining its rubber sheathing. Vulcanizing is afterwards done in steam jackets.

Many auxiliary machines are necessary in connexion with wire and cable-covering, as plant for preparing the rubber and paper, &c., cutting it into strips, winding it, measuring lengths, &c.

Wire Gauges. In commerce, the sizes of wires are estimated by gauges which consist of plates of circular or oblong form having notches of different widths round their edges to receive wire and measure the thicknesses. Each notch is stamped with a number, and the wire or sheet, which just fits a given notch, is stated to be of, say, No. 10, 11, 12, &c., of the wire gauge. But it is always necessary to state what particular gauge is used, since, unfortunately, uniformity is wanting. Holtzapfl the inventor of the subject, and published a valuable collection of facts relating thereto in 1846. A more exhaustive report was published by a committee of the Society of Telegraph Engineers in 1879. Several of these are drawn by special objects. When competition is keen, wire is commonly drawn by one gauge and sold by another; half sizes and quarter sizes are in constant use among the dealers, the wire being sold as whole sizes. Sometimes the gauge does not differ very much from the gauge of the maker, and the wire is sold in which the workmen are paid, and others by which the wire is sold. The whole system is in confusion, and lends itself to those who desire to use fraudulent practices. Thomas Hughes (The England Wire Gauge, London, 1879) stated that, "In

the same town some use Stubs, some the Warrington, some the Yorkshire, some the Birmingham, some the iron wire gauge and some the London and Birmingham Gauge. All maintain the gauge in their own possession to be the correct one."

Gauges may be broadly divided into two groups, the empirical and the rational. The empirical gauge is based on the observation that the number of drawings required for a given wire increases with the size of the wire. The rational gauge is based on the observation that the number of drawings required for a given wire is inversely proportional to the number of millimeters of wire. The origin of the B.W.G. is lost in obscurity. The number of wires were in common use earlier than 1735. It is believed that they originally were based on the same principle as the B.W.G. The B.W.G. is based on the same principle as the B.W.G. The number being based on an averaging of the dimensions collated from a large number of the former in the possession of Peter Stubs of Warrington, having long held the leading position, and are still retained and used under the name of Stubs’s wire gauge. There is no need, therefore, to give an account of the other and less known gauges which have been used by manufacturers. In no case is there any regular increment of dimensions from which a regular curve could be drawn.

The first attempt to adopt a geometrical system was made by Messrs. Brown & Sharpe in 1855. They established a regular progression of thirty-nine steps between the English size, No. 36 (460 miles) and No. 56 (5 miles). Each diameter was multiplied by 0.890522 to give the next lower size. This is now the American gauge, and is used to a considerable extent in the U.S.A. The British Standard Wire Gauge, which is sanctioned by the British Board of Trade, is one that was formulated by J. Latimer Clark. Incidentally, one of its recommendations is that it differs from pre-existing gauges scarcely more than they differ from itself. The divided wire, which is called a mill, no 7/10, the largest size, is 0.50 (500 miles) in diameter, and the smallest, No. 50, is 0.001 in. (1 mil) in diameter, the 0.001 in. length of the smallest size is known, diminished by 1/557 74, and the weight diminishes by 20%.

But the fact remains that a large number of gauges are still in common use, and that gauges of the same name differ and are therefore not authentic. Sheet iron wire gauges differ from Stubs’s steel wire gauge. Gauges for wire and plate differ. Accuracy can only be secured by specifying precisely the name of the gauge intended, or, what is generally better, the dimensions in decimals, which can always be tested with a micrometer. A decimal gauge has been proposed. Tables of decimal equivalents of the wire gauges have been prepared, and are helpful.

Gauges are circular forms, and are generally 3/4 in. in diameter, with thirty-six notches; many have the decimal equivalents of the sizes stamped on the back. Oblong plates are similarly notched. Rolling mill gauges are also oblong in form. The various gauges are made with a wedge-like slot into which the wire is thrust; one edge being graduated, the point at which the movement of the wire is arrested gives its size. The graduations are those of standard wire, or in thousands of an inch. In some cases both inch and millimeter graduations are employed for the sake of systems of measurement. A few gauges are made with holes into which the wire has to be thrust. All gauges are hardened and ground to dimensions.

WIREWORM, a popular name for the slender, hard-skinned grubs or larvae of the click-beetles or Blateridae, a family of the Coleoptera (q.v.). These larvae pass a long life (two or three years) in the soil, feeding on the roots of plants and they often cause much damage to farm crops of all kinds, but especially to cereals. A wireworm may be known by its broad, quadrilateral head and cylindrical or somewhat flattened body, all of whose segments are protected by a firm, chitinous cuticle. The three pairs of legs on the thoracic segments are short and the last abdominal segment is, as is frequently the case in beetle grubs, directed downwards to serve as a terminal proleg. The hinder end of the body is acutely pointed in the larvae of the species of Agriotes (A. obscurus and A. lineatus) that are the best known of the wireworms, but in another common form (the grub of Atheta haemorrhoidalis) the tail is bifid and beset with sharp processes. The subterranean habits of wireworms make it hard to exterminate them when they have once begun to attack a crop, and the most hopeful practice is, by rotation and by proper treatment of the land, to clear it of the insects before the seed be sown. Passing easily through the soil on account of their shape, wireworms travel from plant to plant and thus injure the roots of a large number in a short time. (See Economic Entomology.) Other subterranean creatures—such as the "leather-jacket" grub of crane-flies—which have no legs, and geophilid centipedes, which may have over two hundred, are often confounded with the six-legged wireworms.
WIRKSWORTH, a market town in the western parliamentary division of Derbyshire, England, 14 m. N.N.W. of Derby, on a branch of the Midland railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 3807. It is picturesquely situated at the head of the valley of a small tributary of the Derwent, at an elevation exceeding 950 ft., and is almost enclosed by sharply rising hills. The cruciform church of St. Mary, with a central tower and short spire, is in great part Early English, with Perpendicular additions; but considerable traces of a Norman building were revealed during a modern restoration. There is a manufacture of tape in the town, and lead-mining and stone-quarrying are carried on in the neighbourhood; relics of the Roman working of the lead mines have been discovered. A large brass vessel used as a standard measure for the lead ore, and dating from the time of Henry VIII., is preserved.

WISBECH, a municipal borough, market town, and port in the Wisbech parliamentary division of Cambridgeshire, England, 68 m. N. of Cambridge, on the Great Eastern and the Great Northern and Midland joint railways. It lies in the flat fen country, on the river Nene (mainly on the east bank), 11 m. from its outlet on the Wash. By the Wisbech canal it has communication with the Ouse. The church of St. Peter and St. Paul has a double nave, with aisles, the north arcade being Norman; but the rest of the building is mainly Decorated and Perpendicular. There are remains of a Norman west tower; the churchyard has been extended on the north side of the nave. There contains a valuable library and various collection, including antiquities and objects of art and natural history. Other institutions include a grammar school founded in the middle of the 16th century and provided for by a charter of Edward VI., the Cambridgeshire hospital, a custom-house, a cattle-market, and an important corn-exchange, for Wisbech has a large trade in grain. A Gothic monument commemorates Thomas Clarkson (1760-1846), a powerful opponent of the slave-trade, and a native of the town. The shipping trade is carried on both at the town itself and at Sutton Bridge, 8 m. lower down the river. The chief imports are coal, timber, and iron, and the exports grain and other agricultural products and salt. Foreign trade is chiefly with the Russian Baltic ports. In the neighbourhood large quantities of fruit are grown, including apples, pears, plums, gooseberries, and strawberries. Potatoes, asparagus, and other vegetables are also grown for the London market. The town possesses agricultural implement works, coach-building works, breweries, ropeworks, planing and sawing mills, and corn and oil-cake mills. The borough is under a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 commoners. Area, 6476 acres.

The town is the site of a Roman settlement, i.e. Ossebech, (1200 ft.) a Roman embankment and tumuli. About 940 the manor is said to have been given to the abbey of Ely by Oswy and Leofele; the abbots held it in 1086; and it became attached to the see of Ely with the other possessions of the monastery. The castle is alleged to have been built by William I., and was converted from a fortress in the fens into an episcopal palace between 1471 and 1473. The growth of Wisbech depended on its position and episcopal patronage. In 1190 tenants of Wisbech Barton acquired an exemption from tolls throughout England, confirmed by John, Henry IV., and Henry V. The gift of the Holy Trinity was granted to the bishop of Ely in 1279. The manor still occupies by custom the interval between Lynn mart, of which it is probably an offshoot, and Stamford fair in mid-Lent. A pleasure fair, called the Statute Fair, takes place shortly before Michaelmas. Importance attaches to the horse fair, held in 1827 in the week before Whitsuntide and now on the second Thursday in May and on July 25, and to the cattle fair in the beginning of August. Saturday was market day in 1792; a corn market is now held on Saturday, a cattle market on Thursday and Saturday. In 1086 eels were prolific in Wisbech water. The port was noteworthy until a diversion of the Ouse, and a great outcrop of gravel, made it little accessible. Drainage restored trade before 1634, and the age of the Cut in 1702 was the beginning of prosperity. From 1783 to 1825 agricultural produce was exported and coal imported. Hemp and flax had an importance, lost between 1827 and 1849, but responsible in 1702 for fairs on Saturday and Monday before Palm Sunday. See W. Watson, History of Wisbech (Wisbech, 1827); N. Walker and W. Thomas, History of Wisbech (Wisbech, 1849); History of Wisbech (Wisbech and London, 1833).

WISCONSIN (known as "the Badger" state), one of the North Central states of the United States of America. It is bounded on the E. by Lake Michigan, on the N. by the Upper Peninsula of Michigan and Lake Superior, on the W. by Minnesota and Iowa, and on the S. by Illinois. Its greatest length from N. to S. (42° 30' N. Lat. to 47° 3' N. Lat.) is 350 m., and its greatest breadth (86° 49' W. Long. to 92° 54' W. Long.) is 250 m. The greater part of the western boundary separating the state from Minnesota and Iowa consists of the Mississippi and St. Croix rivers, with two flowing into Lake Superior. The Menominee and Montreal rivers form a considerable part of the boundary line on the N. and E., separating it from the Upper Peninsula of Michigan. The state's lake shore boundary is more than 550 m. long. Included in Wisconsin are the Apostle Islands in Lake Superior, and Washington Island and a group of smaller islands at the entrance to Green Bay on the Lake Michigan side. The state occupies a total area of 65,666 sq. m., 810 of which are water surface. Roughly speaking, it divides the Great Lakes region from the upper valley of the Mississippi.

Physical Features.—Wisconsin forms part of the inner margin of an ancient coastal plain and the oldland of crystalline rocks about which the plain sediments were deposited. The plain and the oldland were well worn down by erosion and then upfolded; were dissected by stream valleys, and were glaciated. The surface is generally rolling and undulating, comprising, with the Upper Peninsula of Michigan, a swelling elevation of land between the three depressions represented by Lakes Michigan and Superior and the Mississippi and the St. Croix rivers. The lowest elevations are in the southern and central portions of the state, where the altitude is less than 500 ft.; but in the northern counties some of the high points in the state are residual masses of relatively resistant rock rising above the erosion surface; such are: Rib Hill (1940 ft.) in Marathon county, in the north-central part, and some of the peaks on the extreme N. margin of the state, which are about 1800 ft. high. From the N. highland two heights of land (1200 to 1600 ft.) extend southward well into the central portions of the state, dividing the greater part of its area into two natural drainage basins. The westernmost of these elevations are the Driftless Areas of the Mississippi, and the St. Croix from that of the Wisconsin river. The eastern elevation is a ridge or cuesta formed by an outcropping hard layer of the ancient coastal plain; and it separates the Wisconsin river basin from the Fox River Valley and the streams flowing into Lake Michigan. Along the Mississippi and the Wisconsin a long line of bluffs varying in height from 200 to 300 ft., and in the E. a rocky limestone ridge or cuesta some 30 m. back from Lake Michigan extends from the Door county peninsula, E. of Lake Winnebago and as far south as the Illinois line. There are no large rivers flowing south from Wisconsin, but nearly all the rivers flow, some of them for a distance of little less than 50 m., from a point some 30 m. S. of the lake all the streams flow in a southerly direction. The Mississippi is the drainage basin for a greater part of the state. The St. Croix river rises in the S.W. part of the Penokee Range and flows W. and S., forming the western boundary of the state for 135 m. before it joins the Mississippi 20 m. below St. Paul. Before it is joined by the Wisconsin, the Mississippi

1 The Badger is not found in the state, and the name probably originated as a nickname for those lead miners N. of the Illinois line, who, having come from Wisconsin, were often known by the side burrows of the Badger, and who did not go home in winter like the miners from southern Illinois and farther south, who were called "Rockers," a name borrowed from the migrating fish in the Rock, Illinois, and other rivers; and the name was applied generally to all the people of Illinois, and the name "badgers" to the people of Wisconsin and "badger state" to the state.

Besides the area as given, the state has jurisdiction over approximately 7500 sq. m. of Lake Michigan and 2378 sq. m. of Lake Superior.
WISCONSIN

receives several rivers of considerable length, the most important of which are the Chippewa and the Black. The Wisconsin river rises on the west side of the state near the border with Minnesota, and joining the Mississippi near Prairie du Chien. It is navigable as far as Portage, some 200 m. from its mouth. The Fox river (more than 260 m. long) rises in the south central portion of the state, flows N. and W. through Wisconsin Rapids and W. to Green Bay, and enters N. into Green Bay, and is the longest and most important stream draining into Lake Michigan. The Wolf river is its most important tributary, joining it near Wausau. Numerous smaller streams drain into the Lake Michigan basin. Among these are the Menominee and Oconto, which flow into Green Bay; an arm of Lake Michigan, and the Sheboygan and Milwaukee rivers, which drain into Lake Michigan. The only considerable lake in the state is drained by several streams flowing across the Illinois boundary and finding their way eventually through other rivers into the Mississippi. The largest of these are the Rock, Des Plaines, Fox (of the Wisconsin), Chicago, Oshkosh, Fond du Lac, Neenah and Menasha, and through it flows the Fox river. In the S. and E. portions of the state the lakes are beautiful clear bodies of water with sandy or gravelly shores, and, as a rule, shallow near the shore, with deep beds. In the Wisconsin state, notably Lake Geneva, Green Lake, the lakes inaukewa county and the famous "four lakes" near Madison.

Flora and Fauna.—Wisconsin was originally the native home of a great variety of wild and animals and found in the other Northern states. Deer were found in large numbers in all sections of the state, bear were common in the central and northern parts, bison were found in the southern parts of the state, wolves and lynxes, and other smaller animals, particularly of fur-bearing varieties. The streams abounded in fish. The abundance of game made the region between the lakes and the Mississippi a favourite hunting ground of the early traders and was an important source of income to the trader. Bear, deer and lynx are still to be found in the less settled forest regions of the N. parts, and the fisheries are still important.

The ant-floral life of Wisconsin is exceedingly varied; C. B. (see 1692), collected 1,268 species in 1890. man and woman, with the flora of the state, and of these probably not less than 350 occur in Wisconsin. The more characteristic and useful birds include many species of the sparrow, such as the song, swamp, Lincoln's chipmunk and field sparrow; the black, barn, cliff, white-beckled and rough-winged swallow, as well as the purple martin and the chimney swift; ten or more species of fly-catchers, including the least, arcadian, phoebe, wood, hermit, king, brownish, grey-necked and the fire; woodpeckers, of which the more common are the downy, hairy, yellow, black and golden-winged (flicker); about thirty species of warblers, including the parula, cerulean, Blackburnian, prothonotary, yellow-throated, chestnut-sided, Cape May and chestnut-breast, siskins and other species of vireos. The song-birds are well represented in the hermit thrush, wood thrush, Wilson's thrush (or veery), brown thrasher, red-winged blackbird, robins, mockingbirds, blue jay, cowbird, and other species. The bobwhite, which has also a considerable number of the game birds are the ruffed grouse (partridge), quail, prairie hen and wild turkey. The birds of prey include the red-shouldered, red-tailed, broad-winged, Cooper's sharp-shinned and sparrow hawk and the bald eagle; the great horned, barred, barn, snow, short-eared and screech owls. The ducks include the mallard, black duck, canvas-back and red-head; the Canadian goose, the snowy goose and the garganey also have a considerable number of the state. The prairie dogs and the gopher are also numerous.

The climate is about that of a temperate climate. Wisconsin was covered with forests, although in the S. and W. there were considerable tracts of rolling prairie lands. In the S. portion of the predominating forests are the white oak and pitch pine; in the W. the white oak, pitch pine, and W., an enormous and unbroken forest of pines, hemlocks and spruce.

Climate.—The climate of the whole state is influenced by the Atlantic Ocean, but the extreme cold is moderated by the Great Lakes. The winters, especially in the central and northern sections, are long and severe, and the weather is usually dry and unhealthy. The summers, especially in the southern sections, are very warm; but the air is so dry that cold and heat are less felt than they are in some humid climates with less extreme temperature. The mean annual temperature for the state is 44° F. July, with an average temperature for the state is 70°, is the warmest month, and February, with an average of 15° is the coldest. During the period of thirty-eight years, from 1870 to 1908, extremes at Milwaukee ranged from 104° to 25°, while at

La Crosse, on the western border and less than 60 m. farther north, they ranged during the same period from 104° to 43°. The greatest extremes were recorded at Milwaukee, where they range from 111° in 1870 to 50° in 1908. Two-thirds of the state has an annual precipitation of over twenty inches, with some parts of the southern portion of the state receiving as much as thirty inches every year. The average annual precipitation of the state is 36 in. in the central section, which is quite evenly distributed through the months of December, January, February and March. In the northern section the heavy snowfall is caused by the cyclonic storms which abound in this section. The amount of snowfall is increased by the storms which ascend the Mississippi Valley. All sections of the state are subject to tornadoes. They occur more frequently in the westward portion than in the eastern portion, but not in the most destructive numbers.

The raising of five-stock, particularly of dairy cows, is an important industry. In 1910, out of a total of 2,187,000 neat cattle, there were 1,566,000 milk cows. The total number of horses in the state was 600,000, valued at $34,000,000, valued at $29,000,000. There were 1,034,000 sheep, and 1,651,000 swine.

Manufactures.—The growth of manufacturing has been rapid in Wisconsin. In 1850 the value of the manufactures was $2,925,668; in 1860, $27,849,167; in 1870, $77,214,526; in 1880, $28,255,480; in 1890, $248,546,164; and in 1900, $360,819,942. The product under the factory system, excluding hand trades and neighbourhood industries, was valued in 1899 at $34,340,000, while in 1905 it had increased to $34,340,000. The most important of the state's manufactures in 1900 and 1905 were lumber and timber products, valued in the latter year at $43,359,766 (Wisconsin being second in rank to the state of Washington); next in order were 60% of the total value of the factories at $15,150,000 of the value of the factories at $15,150,000 in 1905. The raising of five-stock, particularly of dairy cows, is an important industry. In 1910, out of a total of 2,187,000 neat cattle, there were 1,566,000 milk cows. The total number of horses in the state was 600,000, valued at $34,000,000.
furniture in Wisconsin is centralized especially in Sheboygan, where in 1905 was manufactured about one-third of the furniture made in the state.

** Mines and Quarries.**—The lead mines of south-western Wisconsin probably were worked as early as 1679 by the French, while the earliest records of the lead deposits in Iron and Ashland counties are in 1840; in 1855, 1862, 1871, 1897, and 1907 there were respectively 276,017, 277,531, 253,973, 26,196, and 16,000 pounds of lead ore valued at $1,734,307, $2,066,034, $1,906,020, $184,090, and $761,830. The Culmination of mining in the lead industry was in 1902, when 277,531 pounds were taken for a value of $2,449,711, but in 1908 the output was down to 26,196 pounds worth $753,930. The same reduce Golden. 

The output of ore iron in the Gogebic and Menominee ranges on the upper Michigan border is important. Some was worked in Door county in the 1850's but not since. The iron deposits in Florence county were first worked, and in 1882 276,017 tons were shipped from that county; and about 1884 began the development of the Copper deposits in Iron and Ashland counties. The maximum output was in 1890, being 948,665 long tons; in 1902 it was 783,966 long tons (79% from Iron county); and in 1906, 733,993 tons. The output is almost entirely haematite. There are large deposits of stratified clay along the shores of Lake Michigan, from which is made a colour-ned loam, so largely used in Milwaukee that this city has been called the “cement city”; the total value of clay products in 1907 was $1,217,819 and in 1908 $895,618. The output of the value of quartz, granite, and stone, which was valued in 1908 at $8,520,000, including granite ($1,595,781), limestone ($1,102,000) and sandstone ($219,130). In 1908, 2,243,579 long tons of limestone were valued at $340,000, the total output of this mineral was 40% of the total output in 1908, which was valued at $1,102,000, was used for road-making and more than one-sixth in the manufacture of concrete. In 1902, Wisconsin ranked first in the union in producing granite, and had 20,950,000 tons valued at $8,520,000 of the value of limestone quarried. The first limestone quarries were opened at Genesee, Waukesha county, in 1848; at Wauwatosa, near Milwaukee, in 1855; and at Bridgeport in 1856. Freshwater pearls are found at the mouth of the St. Croix river. Wisconsin ranked first among the states in the value of mineral waters sold, with a value of $1,526,703 in 1907 and $1,413,107 in 1908. It is probable that in both years the quantity sold in Wisconsin was less than in Minnesota or in New York. The most famous of these springs are in Waukesha county, whence White Rock, Bethesda, Clysme and other waters are shipped.

In 1890 and in 1900 (when the wooded area was estimated at 31,750 sq. m., or 58% of the total area of the state) Wisconsin was the foremost state in the Union in the production of lumber and timber. In 1905 the value of the lumber and timber products was $106,000,000; but in 1908 it was $67,900,000. Wisconsin was the chief source of the white pine supply. Next to white pine (used largely in shipbuilding) in value in 1908 was red or northern pine for the house building trade (used for lumber and wood pulp) and white spruce, a very valuable lumber tree. In 1908 the area of the state forest reserve lands under a state board of forestry (chiefly in Oneida, Forest, Iron, Price and Vilas counties) was 1,773 acres. Forest fires have been numerous and exceedingly destructive in Wisconsin; the loss of timber and other property from this cause in 1908 was about $9,000,000.

**Fisheries.**—The fisheries of Wisconsin are of considerable importance; the catch in 1908 was valued at $4,067,170, lake trout and herring being the most valuable. There is a state board of commissioners of fisheries (see below, § Government), which distributed in 1908 $149,338,669 eggs, fry and fingerlings, including 112,675,000 walleye, valued at $13,300,000; and about 26,000,000 of lake trout and whitefish. There are state hatcheries at Madison (for brook and rainbow trout), Bayfield (brook and lake trout and whitefish), Oskskosh (lake trout and whitefish), La Crosse (brook and walleye-pike), Minnesota (lake trout and walleye), Delafield (black bass and wall-eye pike) and Wild Rose (brook trout).

**Transportation and Commerce.**—Railway building in Wisconsin began in 1851, when a track was laid from Milwaukee to Waukesha and La Crosse. A railroad from Wisconsin to Michigan was completed in 1857 to the Mississippi at Prairie du Chien. This line was the forerunner of the great Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul system, which now extends from Chicago to the Upper半岛 and has about 2,300 miles of track with two of its lines running north and south, and two running east and west. The Chicago & North-Western and the Chicago, St Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha, Red River, and Western tiy, formerly the Chicago, Milwaukee & Western, and the Northern (built in 1855 and to Fond du Lac in 1858) form a network in the eastern part of the state, affording direct connections with Chicago. The Chicago, St Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha extends into the western part of the state, where it connects with the trans-Mississippi

1 The Fox and Wisconsin rivers are separated by Portage by a distance of only 2 m. 
2 At each preceding census the population was as follows: (1840) 309,495, (1850) 308,391, (1860) 775,881, (1870) 1,064,670. By the census of 1900 it was 2,225,949.
School, Winnebago (1904) under the Wittenberg School and Pota-
watomi (449) not under an agent. The civilized Brotherton and
Stockbridge Indians live principally in Calumet county. Among
religious denominations the Roman Catholics, with 908,264 members
in 1906, had 50.4% of the total communicants or church members
in the state. The Lutheran bodies ranked next with 284,286
members (including 153,690 of the Evangelical church, 49,535 of the
Norwegian Evangelical church, 22,875 of the Norwegian
Evangelical church, 15,471 of the Evangelical Lutheran Church
of Iowa, and 15,220 of the Evangelical Lutheran Synod of Iowa
and 286 of the General Council). Only one other state (Pennsylvania)
had more than half of the total communicants of this denomination.
There were 57,473 Methodists (chiefly of the Methodist Episcopal
Church), 26,163 Congregationalists and 21,716 Baptists.

Government.—The original constitution of the state, adopted
in 1848, and amended in 1869, 1870, 1874, 1877, 1881, 1882,
1903 and 1908, is still in force. An amendment may be proposed
by either house of the legislature, and if passed by two successive
legislatures by a majority of the members elected to each house
must be submitted to the people for ratification by a majority
vote. A constitutional convention may be called on the recom-
mendation of a majority of the Senate and Assembly if this
proposal receives a majority vote at the next election for members
of the legislature. Suffrage was originally granted to every
male twenty-one years of age or upwards resident in the state
for one year preceding any election—if he were a white citizen
of the United States, or a white of foreign birth who had declared
his intention to be naturalized, or an Indian declared by Congress
a citizen of the United States, or a civilized person of Indian
descent who has been domiciled in the state for five years,
providing that the legislature might by law give suffrage to others
than those enumerated if such an act of legislature were approved
by a majority of the popular vote at a general election. By
an amendment of 1882 the word “white” was omitted and by
an amendment of 1908 the term “white of foreign birth” was
omitted, and naturalization in order to become electors must have
dedicated their intentions to become citizens before the 1st of December
1906, and that “the rights hereby granted to such persons
shall cease on the first day of December A.D. 1912.” The amend-
ment of 1908 also permits the legislature to provide for the
registration of electors in incorporated cities and villages.

The official ballot is of the blanket type, with names of candid-
dates in party columns, but with no candidate’s name repeated
on the ballot and with no emblems to mark the party columns.
In 1909 an act was passed permitting county boards to adopt a
“coupon” ballot. Since 1905 there has been a direct nominating
system of primaries for all officers except delegates to national
nominating conventions.

Executive power is vested in a governor and a lieutenant-
governor elected for two years. The governor’s salary (since
1869) is $5000 a year and the lieutenant-governor’s $3000.
Candidates for either office must be citizens of the United States
and qualified electors of the state. The lieutenant-governor is pre-
sident of the Senate with a casting vote only. A bill vetoed by
the governor becomes a law if it is approved by two-thirds
of the members present in each house; and a bill not returned
by the governor within six days (excepting Sunday; before 1908
the constitutional limit was three days) after its presentation
to the governor becomes a law unless the return of the bill is prevented
by the adjournment of the legislature. The governor has power
to grant reprieves, commutations and pardons, except fines—
he may suspend execution of sentence for treason until action
is taken by the legislature—and in cases of impeachment.

The administrative officers, a secretary of state, a treasurer
and an attorney-general, are elected for two years and as
commissioners of public lands. The secretary of state is ex-
efficio auditor; and he acts as governor if the regularly elected
governor and lieutenant-governor die, are removed from office
or are absent from the state. A state superintendent of public
instruction is chosen by popular vote for a four-year term.
Other administrative officers are a commissioner of insurance
(from 1887 to 1878 the secretary of the state was commissioner
of insurance; the office became elective in 1881); a commissioner
of labour and industrial statistics; three railroad commissioners,
who have jurisdiction over all public utilities, including telegraph
and telephone; a commissioner of banking; a dairy and food
commissioner; a state superintendent of public property;
three tax commissioners who act (since 1901) as a state board
of assessment; commissioners of fisheries (established 1874); a
state board of agriculture (1879); and a state board of forestry
(1875). Under the constitution of 1848, the legislature
meets biennially, and when called in special session by the governor
to transact special business indefinitely named in the governor’s
call. The number of assemblymen cannot be less than 54 or
more than 100, and the number of senators must be not more
than one-third or less than one-fourth the number of members
of the Assembly. In 1910 there were 33 senators and 100 assemblymen.
Elections to the Senate and Assembly are biennial and the term
of members of the Assembly is two years, but the senatorial
term is four years and each year one-third of the members are elected
every two years. A candidate for either house must have lived
in the state at least one year, must be a qualified elector in the
district from which he is chosen, and may not be a member
of Congress or hold any military or civil office under the
United States. Since 1852 a state census has been taken every ten
years, and on the basis of these censuses the legislature reapportions
the Senate and Assembly districts. Each member of the legis-
lature receives $300 a year and 10 cents a mile for mileage.
Any bill may originate in either house, and either house may
be passed by the other. Special legislation of several
specified kinds is forbidden, especially by amendments of 1857
and 1862; and the constitution as adopted in 1848 prohibited
the legislature’s authorizing any lottery or granting any divorce.
The Assembly may impeach civil officers by a majority of all
elected members, and the Senate to try impeachments; for
conviction a two-thirds vote of all members present is required.
The judicial power of the state is vested in a supreme
court of seven members (salary $6000 a year; elected for
ten years; the senior justice is chief justice) with
appellate jurisdiction throughout the state, general superintend-
ency of inferior courts, power to issue, hear and determine
writs of habeas corpus, mandamus, injunction, certiorari and other original
and remedial writs; nineteen (only five under the constitution of 1848) circuit
courts, of one judge each except in the second circuit (including Milwaukee)
in which there are four judges, elected (at a spring election, and not at
the general state election) by the voters of the circuit district;
probate judges, one elected (for two years) in each county,
except where the legislature confers probate powers on inferior
courts; and in towns, cities and villages, justices of the peace,
elected for two years.

Local Government.—Wisconsin has the mixed or township-county
system of local government. Each township (or “town,” as it is
commonly called) elects at its annual town meeting on the first
Tuesday in April three supervisors, a clerk, a treasurer, one or
more assessors, two justices of the peace, from one to three constables,
and, if the town has a library, a librarian. Justices of the peace
hold office for two years, other town officers for one year only,
except that in a county having a population of 100,000 or more (Milwaukee
county), town meetings are biennial and all officers are elected
for two years. For other than school purposes rates must not exceed
2% of the assessed valuation of the taxable property in the
The chairmen of the several town boards of supervisors, with the
1 Excepting persons under guardianship, those weak-minded or
inescapable, those convicted (without restoration to civil rights) of treason
or felony, and those who have engaged (directly or indirectly) in a
duel.
2 The coupon ballot was proposed for use throughout the state,
but was defeated by popular vote in 1906. In April 1907 the ticket was made up
of as many coloured sheets as there are party organizations (plus
one for independent nominations), and the name of each candidate
is on a perforated slip, which must be detached if it is to be voted.
3 The office of railroad commissioner was created in 1874, became
elective in 1881 and was replaced under an act of 1905 by a com-
misson of three members, who received jurisdiction over other
public service corporations in 1897.
4 Until 1881 elections to the legislature were held annually, and
the term of assemblymen was one year and of senators two years.
5 Not separately organized until 1853; the judges of the circuit
court acted as justices of the supreme court.
levied on an *ad valorem* basis; but telephone companies are taxed by collecting a percentage of the gross receipts. Insurance companies are subject to a tax based on a percentage of premiums. In addition, the state requires banks to file an annual report with the commissioner of banks, and this information is used to enforce the provisions of the banking statute.

A poll tax was levied for highway purposes in towns and villages, but the general charter law does not provide for the collection of these taxes. In addition, the state constitution forbidding the legislature to charter a bank or pass a general banking law until the people had voted in favor of banks, and providing further that no bank charter or general banking law shall be of any force until the charter or law is examined and approved by the commission in any city of the second, third, or fourth class, which votes for this form of government at an election called by a petition signed by 25% of the voters at the preceding election for mayor.

**Miscellaneous Laws.**—A married woman may manage her separate property as if she were single. A widow is entitled to a dower in one-third of her husband’s real estate, and a widower is entitled to a dower in any real estate of which he died seized and disposed of by his last will, unless she leaves issue by a former husband to whom the estate might descend, in which case her estate passes immediately to such issue. If either husband or wife dies intestate and leaves surviving, or if the surviving spouse is entitled to the real estate of the deceased, both real and personal. The causes for an absolute divorce are adultery, impotency, sentence to imprisonment for more than ten years or more than three years for a capital or an habitual criminal, the cruel or inhuman treatment, habitual drunkenness and voluntary separation for five years. For any other cause than adultery an action for a divorce cannot be brought unless one of the parties has been separated and actually habitually absent for two years immediately preceding the suit. Neither party is permitted to marry a third party until one year after the divorce has been obtained. Adultery is punishable by imprisonment in the state prison for not more than three years or not less than one year, or by a fine not exceeding $1000 or not less than $200. A husband who wilfully abandons his wife, leaving her destitute, or who refuses to support her when he is able to do so, may be punished by imprisonment in a state prison for not more than one year or in the county jail or workhouse not more than six months, nor less than fifteen days, and for ten days, in the discretion of the judge, he may be kept on a bread and water diet. A homestead owned by the husband or the wife of the state and consisting of not more than 40 acres of agricultural land outside the limits of a city or village, or one-fourth of an acre within a city or village, together with the dwelling-house and other appurtenances, is exempt from liability for debts other than laborers’, mechanics’, and pur- chase-money liens, mortgages and taxes. If the homestead is sold the proceeds from the sale, at an amount not exceeding $5000, are likewise exempt for a period of two years for the purpose of procuring another homestead. If the owner is a married man his homestead cannot be sold or mortgaged without his wife’s consent. The employment of children under fourteen years of age for money, work or board, in business, workshops, or on the farm, hunting deer or game, or in a tobacco garden is forbidden, and their employment at any gainful occupation is permitted only during the vacation of the public schools. A child between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years may be employed in a gainful occupation only upon the recommendation of the school principal or clerk of the board of education. No child under sixteen years of age may be employed longer than fifty-five hours in any one week, more than ten hours in any one day, more than six days in any one week, or between 6:00 p.m. and 7:00 a.m. Other radical legislation, especially in regard to railroads, has included: the Porter Law, regulating rates, which was enacted in 1874 during the “Granger Movement,” was modified from time to time, and was displaced by a law of 1905 (in 1908 declared constitutional) so long as stockholders receive a reasonable compensation. rate-making state railroad commission, and the physical valuation of railways on an *ad valorem* basis for taxation; a law (1907) making 2 cents a mile the maximum fare; an anti-tipping law (1909); a law forbidding the sale of cigarettes; an act (1907) regulating the powers and duties of the superintendent of public instruction; which has both parochial and non-parochial business; and an eight-hour labor law in effect on the 1st of January 1908.

Revenue for state purposes is derived principally from taxes on corporations, from an inheritance tax and from departmental and institutional fees and charges; that for counties, towns, villages and cities from a general property tax. The general property tax has long been employed almost wholly for educational purposes only. The state tax on railways and other public service corporations is

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1 The first class comprises cities having a population of 150,000 or more (Milwaukee); the second class those having a population between 40,000 and 150,000; the third class those having a population between 10,000 and 40,000; the fourth class those having a population less than 10,000.
After probably 1887; had been Clara inspection law (1903), chosen in the state was $13,547,574; of this sum $10,604,204 was spent for common schools, high schools and graded schools, $1,001,155 for the university, and $547,661 for normal schools. The total income for schools in 1907–1908 was $1,773,659, of which $1,379,410 was from the seven-tenths-of-a-mill tax, $200,000 was from licence fees and taxes upon corporations (for salaries of rural school inspectors) and $140,249 the income from the common school fund which in that year amounted to $3,845,929.

Educational institutions of collegiate rank are Beloit College (1846; originally Congregational, now denominational) at Beloit; Carroll College (1846, Presbyterian), at Waukesha; Lawrence College (1847; Methodist Episcopal), at Appleton; Concordia College (1881; Lutheran), Marquette University (1884, Roman Catholic), and Milwaukee-Downer College (1895; non-sectarian, for women; an outgrowth of Downer College, Congregational and Presbyterian, founded at Fox Lake in 1853), all at Milwaukee; Milton College (1867; Seventh Day Adventist), at Milton; North-western University (1865; Lutheran) at Watertown; Ripon College (1845; originally under Presbyterian and then under Episcopal control) and five co-educational; and Wayland University (1855; co-educational; Baptist), at Beaver Dam; and the following Roman Catholic schools: St Clara Academy (1847; Dominican) at Sinsinawa, St Francis Seminary (1853) at St Francis, and St Lawrence College (1864, Capuchin) at Mt Calvary. There are also many private academies and trade or technical schools, and six industrial schools for Indians.

Charitable and Penal Institutions.—In the number and equipment of these institutions, Wisconsin is among the most fortunate states, and stands high. These institutions are under the general direction of a state board of control (established in 1905) of five members (one a woman), appointed by the governor for a term of five years. This board has charge of the following institutions: a State Hospital for the Insane (1860) at Mendota; the Northern Hospital for the Insane (1873) at Winnebago, 4 m. N. of Oshkosh; a School for the Deaf (1852) at Delavan, Walworth county, in which the teaching is conducted in an institution of which includes a high-stake school; a School for the Blind (1849; taken over by the state in 1850) at Janesville; an Industrial School for Boys (opened in 1866, as a House of Refuge) at Waupun; a Boys State Prison at Waupun; State Public School for Dependent and Neglected Children (1886) at Sparta, with a farm of 234 acres; Wisconsin Home for Feeble Minded (1896) at Chippewa Falls; Wisconsin State Reformatory (flagstaff) at Milky Lake (Milwaukee county); a Sanatorium (1907) at West, Sauk county. In addition the board has partial control over the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind (1905) at Milwaukee, where there is a willow ware factory, and the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls (1875) also at Milwaukwe. Its powers of inspection extend over 5 semi-state institutions, 33 county insane asylums, 69 gaols, 48 poor-houses, 50 private beneficent institutions and 206 police stations and lockups. The board has also power of visitation and inspection over the Wisconsin Veterans' Home at Waupeaca, founded in 1887 by the state department of the Grand Army of the Republic. In the state there are orphan asylums of which includes a high-stake school for girls, and a school for the county asylums. The labour of convicts in the state prison is leased; until 1878 the state itself supervised manufacturing in the public works; the state is now supervising, instead of manufacturing, in making shoes for a Chicago firm; and since 1903 the state has received 64 cents a day for the labour of each convict, and at least 300 convicts are employed in the manufacture of socks and stockings, from which in 1906–1908 (two years) the income to the state was $156,890. In 1910 a binding twin factory was established in the prison. In the state reformatory the labour of some inmates is leased to tailors, and the others make brooms or bricks, or work in the laundry. In Wisconsin, as in other states, the labour of convicts is used in force for prisoners with a good record at the state prison. By a law of 1909 certain offenders are placed under probation under the supervision of the probation board.

History.—Politically Wisconsin has been under French domination (from 1634 to 1760); under British domination (from 1760, formally 1763, to 1783); and under that of the United States since 1783. But the British influence on the community was negligible, and British rule was never more than nominal and was confined to the military posts. When American troops occupied the posts at Green Bay and Prairie du Chien in 1816, thirty-three years after it had become a part of the territory of the United States, the region was still almost exclusively French in manners, customs and population; and so it remained for nearly two decades, possible it was, in 1837, that the region was still occupied by the French.

The region comprised in the present state of Wisconsin, when first explored by Europeans, was a favourite hunting-ground for the Indians who constantly crossed this region between the Great Lakes and the upper Mississippi. The Indian population of Wisconsin in the first half of the 17th century was probably larger than that of any region of similar size east of the Mississippi. Among the many different tribes were the Sioux, Chippewa, Kickapoo, Menominee, Mascoutin, Potawatomi, Winnebago, and Sauk and Foxes. In the eastern and southern portions of the region there are still numerous mounds, the relics of an earlier Indian civilization. In the lead regions in the S.W., with the help of Pawnee slaves, the Indians worked the lead diggings in a rough way. The whole course of the early history of Wisconsin was profoundly influenced by these racial and geographic considerations. The French adventurers, bent on finding either a "North-west passage" or some land route to the Pacific (which they believed to be no farther west than the Mississippi), naturally went west by the water routes of Wisconsin; as a fine field for their bartering and trading with water-courses by which they could convey their pelts and skins back to Montreal, the region attracted the trappers and traders. The first to arrive were the zealous French Catholic missionaries. The impelling influences on the French settlement of the region were the love of exploration and adventure, the commercial instinct and religious zeal.

Jean Nicolet, an experienced explorer, was sent west by Samuel de Champlain, the governor-general of New France, in the summer of 1634 to investigate mysterious rumours of a people known as "the men of the sea" who were thought by some to be Tartars or Chinese. After a long and difficult journey into a region which he seems to have been the first white man to enter, Nicolet landed on the soil of Wisconsin at a point on Green Bay about 15 m. below the present city of Green Bay. Near what is now known as Red Banks there was a populous village of Winnebago, which welcomed and entertained him. He made a treaty with the Indians, went up the Fox river to a point somewhere near the present city of Berlin (Green Lake county) where he found another large village, and returned to Green Bay and thence to his post on Lake Huron.

Twenty years later Pierre Esprit, Sieur de Radisson, and Medard Chouart, Sieur des Groseilliers, started (1654) from Quebec, crossed Lakes Huron and Michigan, wintered in Wisconsin, ascended the Fox, crossed to the Wisconsin and presumably reached the Mississippi river eighteen years before Jacques Marquette and Louis Joliet. In 1659–1660 they were again in the West, but the opposition of the French authorities prevented their further explorations.

The first of the missionary pioneers was the Jesuit, Father René Ménard, who in 1651 lost his life on the upper Wisconsin river. In 1665 Father Claude Allouez established the first permanent mission in Wisconsin on the shores of Chequamegon Bay, near the first trading post established by Radisson and Groseilliers. In 1675 Father Louis Hennepin was succeeded by Father Jacques Marquette (1637) and went to the Fox River valley; there he established the mission of St Francis Xavier at the first rapids on the Fox river near a populous Indian village. About this mission, one...
of the most successful established by the Jesuits in the West, gathered a group of traders who formed a settlement that for many years existed as a transient post and storehouse for trappers.

Father Marquette, forced in 1671 by Indian wars to abandon his post on Chequamegon Bay, settled with the Huron at the Straits of Mackinac, whence in May 1673 accompanied by Louis Joliet he set out for the Mississippi river. They halted at De Pere, set off down the Fox-Wisconsin route, followed the Wisconsin to its mouth and came out upon the Mississippi near the site of the present city of Prairie du Chien, on July 17th, exactly two months after they left St Ignace mission on Mackinac Island. After descending the Mississippi to the mouth of the Arkansas they returned by way of the Des Plaines portage, paddled along the western shore of Lake Michigan, and arrived at De Pere. In September 1679 Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, and Henri de Tonty entered the mouth of the Fox river in the "Griffin," the first ship to sail the Great Lakes. In the same year Daniel Greysolon Du Luth, a coureur de bois, explored the upper Mississippi and the Wisconsin and Black rivers. In 1680 Father Louis Hennepin, a Recollect Franciscan who had accompanied La Salle, followed the Wisconsin northward from the mouth of the Fox to the vicinity of the St. Croix river, along the western border of Wisconsin to the site of the present city of St. Paul. The same course was followed by the fur-trader, Pierre Charles Le Sueur, in 1683.

In 1671 Simon François Daumont Saint-Lussou at Sault Ste Marie had taken formal possession of the region in the name of the king of France; in 1685 Nicolas Perrot (1644-1700), a trader who had first visited the wilds of Wisconsin probably as early as 1665, was appointed "commandant of the West," and this event closes the period of exploration and begins that of actual occupation. Traders had begun to swarm into the country in increasing numbers, and to protect them from the Indians and to control properly the licensed fur-trade a military force was necessary. Perrot built a chain of forts along the Mississippi and a post (the present Galena, Illinois) near the southern boundary of the state, where he discovered and worked a lead mine. In 1712 the slaughter of a band of Foxes near Detroit was the signal for hostilities which lasted almost continuously until 1740, and in which every tribe in the Wisconsin country was sooner or later involved either in alliance with the Foxes or with the French; the Chippewa, always hostile to the Foxes, the Potawatomi and the Menominee sided with the French. This war seriously interfered with the French plans of trade development and exploitation, and by rendering difficult the maintenance of a chain of settlements which might have connected Canada and Louisiana was a contributing cause of the final overthrow of French dominion. In this period permanent military posts were established at Green Bay and Chequamegon (1718); in 1718 it was reported that traders had settled at Green Bay and De Pere; in 1727 a post was established on Lake Pepin.

Wisconsin was little disturbed by the Seven Years' War. Yet the French and Indians of Wisconsin contributed their quota to the French armies—a force of half-breeds and Indians under a half-breed, Charles Michel de Langlade (1729-1800). After the fall of Montreal (Sept. 1760) Robert Rogers, who had been sent to Detroit to occupy the French posts in the West, dispatched Captain Henry Ballour with a force of British and Colonial troops to garrison Mackinac and the Wisconsin posts which had been dismantled and were almost deserted. He arrived at La Baye (Green Bay) in October 1761, and left there a garrison under Lieut. James Gorrell of the 6th (Royal American Foot) Regiment. The traders who accompanied them were the nucleus of the first English-speaking colony on Wisconsin soil. The French fort was rechristened Fort Edward Augustus. The period of British occupation was brief. On the outbreak of the conspiracy of Pontiac Lieut. Gorrell was compelled (in July 1763) to evacuate the fort, and make his way to Montreal. The conspiracy was crushed in 1766, Wisconsin was reopened for traders, and not only French but American merchants and travellers flocked into the region. Among these were Alexander Henry (1739-1824), who as early as 1760 had visited the site of Milwaukee, and who now obtained a monopoly of the Lake Superior trade, and Jonathan Carver (q.v.), who in 1766 reached Green Bay on his way to the Mississippi.

In 1774 was passed the Quebec Act for the government of the Province of Quebec into which the Wisconsin region was incorporated by this act, but it had little effect on the French trade; the British and French competed there as vigorously as before, and the word "Black Hawk" (for the Illinois) had already become the name of an Indian leader. In 1778 a trader of Prairie du Chien, acting as agent for George Rogers Clark, detached several western tribes from the British adherence, and personally led a band of French settlers to his aid. The close of the war, although it conveyed the region to the sovereignty of the United States, was not followed by American occupation. In this period, however, the fur-trade assumed proportions of greater importance, and trading posts were established by the North-west Company (Canadian). In 1786 a more systematic attempt was made to work the lead mines by Julien Dubuque, who obtained the privilege from the Indians. In 1787 Wisconsin became part of the North-west Territory, but it was not until after the ratification of Jay's treaty that in 1796 the western posts were evacuated by the British. Before the actual military occupation (1816) by the United States, American traders had begun to enter into a sharp rivalry for the Indian trade. In 1800 Wisconsin was included in the newly organized Indian Territory; and in 1809 on the admission of Indiana as a state it was attached to Illinois. During the second war with Great Britain, the Wisconsin Indians and French settlers generally sided with the British, and in 1814 many of them participated in Major William McKay's expedition against Fort Shelby at Prairie du Chien. In 1816 Fort Howard was built at Green Bay; and Fort Crawford at Prairie du Chien. In the same year was confirmed the treaty negotiated in 1804 by William Henry Harrison, by the terms of which the Indian title to the lead region was extinguished. In 1810 the product of lead had been about 400,000 lb., largely mined and smelted by Indians, but the output was now increased enormously by the American miners who introduced new machinery and new methods, and by 1820 there were several thousand miners in the region, including negro slaves who had been brought north by Southern prospectors from Kentucky and Missouri. In 1818 Illinois was admitted to the Union and Wisconsin was incorporated in Michigan Territory, and at that time American civil government in the Wisconsin region was first established on an orderly and permanent basis. Wisconsin then comprised two counties, Brown (east) and Crawford (west), with county seats at Green Bay and Prairie du Chien. Until 1830 the fur-trade, controlled largely by John Jacob Astor's American Fur Company, continued to be the predominating interest in the Wisconsin region, but then the growing lead mining industry began to overshadow the fur-trade, and in the mining region towns and smelting furnaces were rapidly built. Indian miners were soon driven out of business and were nearly crowded out of their homes. Friction between the settlers and the Indians could not long be avoided, and in 1827 Red Bird and his band of Winnebago attacked the whites, but after some bloodshed they were defeated by Major William Whistler (1780-1863) of Fort Howard. Five years later occurred a more serious revolt, the Black Hawk War (see Black Hawk), which also grew out of the dispute over the mineral lands.
The Black Hawk War not merely settled the Indian question so far as Wisconsin was concerned, but made the region better known, and gave an appreciable impetus to its growth. A series of Indian treaties in 1829, 1831, 1832 and 1833 extinguished the Indian titles and opened up to settlement a vast area of new land. The first newspaper, the Green Bay Intelligencer, began publication in 1833. In 1834, two land offices were opened, and by 1836, 878,014 acres of land had been sold to settlers and speculators. A special census showed a population of more than 11,000 in 1836. The new growth started a movement for a separate Territorial organization for that part of Michigan lying west of Lake Michigan, but this was not finally accomplished until 1836, when Michigan entered the Union. The new Territory of Wisconsin comprised not only the area included in the present state, but the present Iowa and Minnesota and a considerable portion of North and South Dakota. Henry Dodge (1782–1867) was appointed its first governor by President Jackson.

The first Territorial Council met in 1836 at Old Belmont, now Leslie, Lafayette county, but in December of that year Madison was selected as the capital, after a contest in which Fond du Lac, Milwaukee, Racine, Green Bay, Portage and other places were considered, and in which James Duane Doty, later governor, owner of the Madison town plat, was charged with bribing legislators with town lots in Madison. In 1838 the Territory of Iowa was erected out of all that part of Wisconsin lying west of the Mississippi. The movement for the admission of Wisconsin to the Union was taken up in earnest soon after 1840, and after several years' agitation, in which Governor Doty took a leading part, on the 10th of August 1846 an Enabling Act introduced in Congress by Morgan L. Martin, the Territorial delegate, received the approval of President Polk. Meanwhile the Territorial legislature had passed favourably on the matter, and in April the act was ratified by a popular vote of 12,334 to 2487.

The first constitution drafted was rejected (5th April 1847) owing to the articles relating to the rights of married women, exemptions, the elective judiciary, &c. A second convention, thought to be more conservative than the first, drafted another constitution, which on the 13th of March 1848 was adopted by 15,799 ayes and 6,004 noes. The constitution was approved by Congress and signed by the president on the 29th of May 1848; the first state election had already been held on the 8th of May, and Governor Nelson Dewey and other state officers were sworn into office on the 7th of June. In the same year the free public school system was established, and the great stream of German immigration set in. Railway construction began in 1851. Wisconsin was a strong anti-slavery state. In 1854 one of the first steps in the organization of the Republican party (q.v.) was taken at Ripon. In the same year a fugitive slave named Glover was seized at Racine and was afterward rescued by an anti-slavery mob from Milwaukee; the State Supreme Court rendered a decision which declared the Fugitive Slave Law to be null and void in Wisconsin.

In 1856 a contested election for the governorship between Governor William A. Barstow (1813–1865), a candidate for re-election, and his Republican opponent, Coles Bashford (1816–1878), threatened to result in civil war. But the courts threw out "supplementary returns" (possibly forged by the canvassers) and decided in favour of Bashford, who was the first Republican to hold an office; with two exceptions Wisconsin has elected Republican governors ever since. The state gave its electoral vote for Lincoln in 1860 and supported the administration during the Civil War. The policy of the state to keep its regiments full rather than send new regiments to the front made the strength of a Wisconsin regiment, according to General W. T. Sherman, frequently equal to a brigade. The whole number of troops furnished by Wisconsin during the war was 91,379. In January 1874 a Democratic Liberal Reform administration came into power in the state with William R. Taylor as governor. At the legislative session which followed, the Potter law, one of the first attempts to regulate railway rates, was passed. The railways determined to evade the law, but Taylor promptly brought suit in the State Supreme Court and an injunction was issued restraining the companies from disobedience. In 1876, however, the Republicans regained control of the state government and the law was modified. In 1880 the passage of the Bennett law, providing for the enforcement of the teaching of English in all public and parochial schools, had a wide political effect. The Germans, usually Republicans, roused for the defence of their schools, voted the Democratic state ticket at the next state election with the result that George Wilbur Peck, the Democratic nominee, was chosen governor by a narrow majority. The Bennett law was at once repealed, but not until 1895 did the Republicans regain control of the administration. It was accomplished then after a Democratic gerrymander had been twice overthrown in the courts. Since that time, however, the Republican party has grown more secure, and it has placed on the statute books a series of radical and progressive enactments in regard to railway rate legislation and taxation, publicity of campaign expenditures and a state-wide direct primary law (1907). In all these reforms a leading part was taken by Governor Robert M. La Follette (b. 1855), who was elected to the United States Senate in 1900. Opposition to his political programme resulted in a serious split in the Republican ranks, the opposition taking the old name of "Stalwarts" and his followers came to be known as "Halfbreeds." Governor La Follette, however, could draw enough support from the Democrats to maintain in the control of the state by the Republicans. Wisconsin had several times been visited by disastrous forest fires. One in the north-eastern counties (Oconto, Brown, Door, Shawano, Manitowoc and Kewaunee) in 1871 resulted in the loss of 150 lives and a vast amount of property.

### Territorial

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<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Party</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Henry Dodge</td>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>1836–1841</td>
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<td>James Duane Doty</td>
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<td>Nathaniel P. Tallmadge</td>
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<td>James O. Davidson</td>
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<td>F. E. McGovern</td>
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<td>1911–1917</td>
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\(^1\) Wisconsin, as the last state to be created wholly out of the old North-West Territory, was the loser in boundary disputes with neighboring states. As originally planned, Wisconsin would have included all of present Illinois and Michigan (including Lake Superior) to the north end of Lake Michigan, and the inhabitants of this tract actually voted to join Wisconsin, but Congress paid no attention to their demands, and this strip of land, including Chicago, became a part of Illinois. Wisconsin's present boundary was the result of the 1818 Treaty of Greenville (q.v.), to which Michigan for her losses to Ohio the northern peninsula, geographically a part of the Wisconsin region, was given to Michigan. Finally a larger tract of land N. E. of the Mississippi, which include St Paul, Duluth, and other territory, was given to Minnesota in 1858, and Wisconsin's present boundary was fixed.

\(^2\) Peck (b. 1840) was a printer and then a journalist, founded in 1873 at La Crosse the Sun, which in 1878 he removed to Milwaukee, and was the author of many humorous sketches, notably a series of volumes of which the hero is "Peck's Bad Boy."

\(^3\) Governor: succeeded Barstow, who resigned during a contest with Bashford.

\(^4\) Resigned to become a member of the United States Senate.

\(^5\) Lieut.-Governor: elected governor in 1900 and 1908.
BIBLIOGRAPHY.—For physical description and natural resources see the Reports (biennial and the Fourth Edition) of the State Geological and Natural History Survey, especially important for economic geology, hydrography and agriculture, and the Annual Reports of the Wisconsin State Board of Agriculture; the Reports (biennial) of the U.S. Census of Agriculture of the U.S. Census, and the Mineral Resources of the United States, published annually by the U.S. Geological Survey. A good school manual is E. C. Case's Wisconsin, its Resources and Geographic Position (Milwaukee, 1910), and the Birds of Illinois and Wisconsin (Nowell's Museum of Natural History, Publication No. 131 (Chicago, 1909), and L. Kammler and N. Hollister, "The Birds of Wisconsin," in vol. iii. (1908) of the Wisconsin Academy of Arts and Sciences). A list of works on the history of the state see D. S. Durrie's "Bibliography of Wisconsin" in vol. vii., new series, Historical Magazine. The society, R. G. Thwaites, Wisconsin, (Boston, 1908), in the "American Commonwealths" series. The same author's Story of Wisconsin (Ibid. 1890) in the "Story of the States" series, and H. E. Lesger's Leading Events in Wisconsin History (Milwaukee, 1898), a good brief summary, are other single-volume works covering the entire period of the state's history. One of the best accounts of the state's early history is E. H. Neville and D. B. Martin's Historic Green Bay (Green Bay, 1893). S. S. Ibbert's Wisconsin and its People (Madison, 1910) contains material of the earlier period written, however, before much recent material was brought to light. Much material of value is contained in the Historical Collections of Wisconsin, vol. i., sq. (Madison, 1854-59), the Historical Society of Wisconsin (1846; reorganized, 1849), and in the Bulletins of Information, Proceedings and Draper Series of the same society are many valuable historical papers and monographs. Several works on the history of the state, viz., History of the History of the State, 1836 by G. R. Parkman, The Parkman Society Papers (Milwaukee, 1895-1899) provide a collection of good articles on special topics of Wisconsin history, and the Original Narratives and Reprints published by the Wisconsin History Commission (created by an act of 1909) deal with Wisconsin in the Civil War. See also Auguste Gosselin, Jean Nicolet 1618-1642 (1893); B. A. Hinsdale, The Old North-West (New York, 1888); Chalmers Smith, A History of Wisconsin, rev. ed. (Chicago, 1893); and R. V. Phelan, Financial History of Wisconsin (Madison, 1908); F. J. Turner, Character and Influence of the Indian Tribe in Wisconsin, vol. ix. of Johns Hopkins University Studies (Baltimore, 1892); R. G. Parkman, The Jesuits in North America (Boston, 1870), and the volumes of the Jesuit Relations, edited by R. G. Thwaites.

WISCONSIN, UNIVERSITY OF, a coeducational institution of higher learning at Madison, Wisconsin, the capital of the state, established in 1848 under state control, established largely by the state, and a part of the state educational system. The university occupies apicturesque and beautiful site on an irregular tract (600 acres), including both wooded hills and undulating meadow lands, along the shores of Lake Mendota, The main building, University Hall (1854), enlarged several times, and 1905-1906), which crowns University Hill, is exactly 1 m. from the state capitol. The other buildings include North Hall (1850), South Hall (1854), Science Hall (1887), the Biology Building (1911), the Chemical Building (1904-1905), the Hydraulic Laboratory (1903), the Engineering Building (1900), the Law School (1804), Chadbourne Hall (1870; remodelled in 1896) for women, Lathrop Hall (1910) for women, Assembly Hall (1879), the Chemical Engineering Building (1883), Machine Shops (1883), the armoury and gymnasium (1894), a group of half a dozen buildings belonging to the Center of American Archaeology, the Washburn Observatory (1878; a gift of Governor C. C. Washburn). On the lower campus is the building of the Wisconsin State Historical Society.

The university includes a college of letters and science, with general courses in liberal arts and special courses in chemistry, commerce, education, engineering, homoeopathic medicine, law, medicine, mines, music, political science, veterinary science, and agriculture, a department of home economics, a dairy course and farmers' institutes; a college of law (3 years' course); a college of medicine, giving the first two years of a medical course; a graduate school of literature and science; and a department of agriculture, instruction by lectures, of correspondence study, of general information and welfare, and of debating and public discussion. There is a system of extension courses in Agriculture, business, home economics, and schools, instruction is offered to artisans and apprentices and in library training. The college of agriculture, one of the largest and best equipped in the country, provides also briefer courses of practical training for farmers and farmers' wives. In connection with the college of agriculture, instruction on the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis is provided, exhibits and instructors or demonstrators being sent to every part of the state. The state hygienic laboratory and the Wisconsin State Agricultural College are among the state's educational institutions. The Wisconsin State University is the forest products laboratory (1910) of the United States Department. At Milwaukee there is a university settlement associated with the social work of the university.

The university grants a commission or certificate from accredited high schools or academies. Tuition is free for residents of the state. Courses in the first two years are largely prescribed, but those in the three or four years are elective under a definite system. In 1910 there were 395 instructor and 497 student faculty members (men and women). The university library proper, of 163,000 volumes and 40,000 pamphlets, is housed in the Historical Society's building, in the Capitol. The state library also has the collections of the Historical Society and that of the Wisconsin Academy of Arts and Sciences—a total in 1910 of 404,000 books and 200,000 pamphlets.

The grounds, buildings and equipment of the university are valued at $2,000,000. The income of the university, including income from the Federal land grants, from invested productive funds and from state tax levies, exceeds one million dollars annually. Since 1905 the state legislature has appropriated for the current expenses of the university a $2,000,000. The total income of the university in 1910 was $2,000,000. The university is the property of the state, and the legislature has power to regulate the affairs of the university.

An act for the creation of a university to be supported by the Territory was passed by the first session of the Territorial legislature in 1836, but except for the naming of a board of trustees the plan was never put into operation. A similar act for the establishment of a university at Green Bay had no more result. In 1858 a university of the Territory of Wisconsin was created by act of the Territorial legislature and was endowed with two townships of land. This was the beginning of the state university, provision for which was made in the state constitution adopted in 1848. The university was incorporated by act of the legislature in that year with a board of regents as the governing body, chosen by the legislature. A preparatory department was opened in the autumn of that year, and John H. Lathrop (1799-1866), a graduate of Yale, then president of the university of Missouri, was chosen as the first chancellor of the new institution. He was inaugurated in 1859, and in that year North Hall, the first building, was erected. The first academic class graduated in 1854. In the same year the Federal Congress granted to the state seventy-two sections of salt-spring lands, and as no such lands were found in the state, had been petitioned to change the nature of the grant) granted seventy-two sections to be "sold in such manner as the legislature may direct for the benefit and in aid of the university." The Federal land grants, however, which ought to have supported the university, were sacrificed to a desire to attract immigrants, and the institution for many years was compelled to get along on a small margin which rendered extension difficult; and the university permanent fund was soon impaired for the construction of buildings. Henry Barnard in 1859 succeeded Lathrop as chancellor, but resigned in 1861. After the Civil War, the office of chancellor was displaced by that of president. Paul Ansel Chadbourne (1832-1883), a graduate (and afterwards president) of Williams College, became president in 1867, and in his presidency (1867-1870) the university was reorganized, a college of law was founded, co-education was established and the agricultural college was consolidated with the university, a radical departure from the plan adopted by the Territory. In 1871-1874 John Hanson Twombly, a graduate of Wesleyan University, and a member of the founders of Boston University, was president, and the legislature first provided for an annual state tax of $10,000 for the university. With the coming to the presidency (1874) of John Bascom (b. 1827), another graduate of Williams, the university began a new period of development; the preparatory department was

1. The university is now governed by regents, of whom two—the president of the university and the state superintendent of public instruction—are ex officio, and the others are appointed by the governor for terms of three years, two from the state at large and one from each congressional district.
It is not easy to determine whether the book is all from the same author. On the one hand, it may be said that one general theme—the salvation and final prosperity of the righteous—is visible throughout the work, that God is everywhere represented as the supreme moral governor of the world, and that the conception of immortality is found in both parts; the second part, though differing in form from the first, may be regarded as the historical illustration of the principles set forth in the latter.

Historical notes: The book is not a record, but an exposition, the primary object of which is to present the scheme of things in a plausible and consistent theory. The second part, which is often referred to as the historical part, is a continuation of the first, and the two parts are connected by a few key ideas.

It consists of a series of chapters in which the author develops his theory. The first part (chs. 1-22) is a general introduction, setting forth the author's conception of the universe and its purpose. The second part (chs. 23-49) is a detailed account of the events of the world, from its creation to the final triumph of the righteous.

The author uses a variety of literary devices, including allegory, parable, and myth, to explain his ideas. The book is written in a style that is both poetic and philosophical, and it is filled with vivid imagery and metaphors.

The book is not a history in the strict sense, but rather an attempt to give a coherent explanation of the world as it is, and to provide a vision of how it might be brought into line with the author's conception.

It has been compared to other works of literature, such as the Bible and the Iliad, and it has been studied by scholars in a variety of disciplines, including history, philosophy, and literature.

In conclusion, the book is a complex and intriguing work, and it continues to be studied and debated by scholars around the world.
WISDOM LITERATURE

misfortunes for the righteous—over against these things the possession of wisdom is declared to be the supreme good. The ethical standard of the book is high except in the bitterness displayed towards the "wicked," that is, the enemies of the Jews. The only occurrence in old Jewish literature (except in Exod. xiv. 2) of the word meaning "conscience" is found in xvii. 11 (wisdom): wickedness is timorous under the condemnation of conscience (the same thought in Prov. xxviii. 1). The book is absolutely monotheistic, and the character ascribed to the deity is ethically pure with the exception mentioned above.

The style shows that the book was written in Greek, though naturally it contains Hebraisms. The author of the first part was in all probability an Alexandrian Jew; nothing further is known of him; and this is true of the author of the second part, if that be a separate production. As to the date, the decided Greek colouring (the conception of wisdom, the list of Stoiic virtues, etc.), and the fact, that it is.xliii. regarded by Patristic and later authors, generally as inspired, it was by Patristic and later authors, probably as canonical by the council of Trent, but is not so regarded by Protestants.


WISDOM LITERATURE, the name applied to the body of Old Testament and Apocryphal writings that contain the philosophical thought of the later pre-Christian Judaism. Old Semitic philosophy was a science not of ontology in the modern sense of the word, but of practical life. For the Greeks, a "sage" involved inquiry into the basis and origin of things; the Hebrew "wisdom" was the capacity so to order life as to get out of it the greatest possible good. Though the early Hebrews (of the time before the 5th century B.C.) must have reflected on life, there is no trace of such reflection, of a systematic sort, in their extant literature. "Wis men" are distrusted and opposed by the prophets. The latter were concerned only with the maintenance of the sole worship of Yahweh and of social morality. This was the task of the early Hebrew thinkers, and to it a large part of the higher energy of the nation was devoted. The external law given, as was believed, by the God of Israel, was held to be the sufficient guide of life, and everything that looked like reliance on human wisdom was regarded as disloyalty to the Divine Lawgiver. While the priests developed the sacrificial ritual, it was the prophets that represented the theocratic element of the national life—they devoted themselves to their task with noteworthy persistency and ability, and their efforts were crowned with success; but their virtue of single-mindedness carried with it the defect of narrowness—they despised all peoples and all circumstances, and were actuated by a passion to win their fellow-countrymen, who were not wholly in accordance with their own principles.

The reports of the earlier wise men, men of practical sagacity in political and social affairs, have come to us from unfriendly sources; it is quite possible that among them were some who took interest in life for its own sake, and reflected on its human moral basis. But, if this was so, no record of their reflections has been preserved. The class of sages to whom we owe the Wisdom Books did not arise till a change had come over the national fortunes and life. The firm establishment of the doctrine of practical moral hebitus happened to coincide in time with the destruction of the national political life (in the 6th century B.C.).

At the moment when this doctrine had come to be generally accepted by the thinking part of the nation, the Jews found themselves dispersed among foreign communities, and from that time were a subject people environed by aliens, Babylonian, Persian and Greek. The prophetic office ceased to exist when its work was done, and part of the intellectual energy of the people was thus set free for other tasks than the establishment of theistic dogma. The ritual law was substantially completed by the end of the 5th century B.C.; it became the object of scientific study; thus was the basis of the second conception of the future of the life (see Perke Aboth). The social unification produced by the conquests of Alexander brought the Jews into intimate relations with Greek thought. It may be inferred from Ben-Sira's statements (Ecclus. xxxix. 1-11) that it was the custom for scholars to travel abroad and, like the scholars of medieval Europe, to increase their knowledge by personal association with wise men throughout the world. Jews seem to have entered eagerly into the larger intellectual life of the last three centuries before the beginning of our era. For some the influence of this association was of a general nature, merely modifying their conception of the moral life; others adopted to a greater or less extent some of the peculiar ideas of the current systems of philosophy. Scholars were held in honour in those days by princes and people, and Ben-Sira frankly adds this fact as one of the great advantages of the pursuit of wisdom. It was in cities that the study of life and philosophy was best carried on, and it is chiefly with city life that Jewish wisdom deals.

The extant writings of the Jewish sages are contained in the books of Job, Proverbs, Psalms, Ben-Sira, Tobit, Ecclesiastes, Lamentations, Wisdom, Sirach, and the Apocrypha. The first chapter of Pirke Aboth (a Talmudic tract giving, probably, pre-Christian material). Of these Job, Ps. xi., Ixxxii., xcxii. 6-8 (5-7), Eccles., Wisdom, are discussions of the moral government of the world; Prov. Ps. xxxvii., xcx., Ben-Sira, Tob. iv., xii.-xii. 11-11, Pirke, are manuals of conduct, and 4th Maccab. treats of the autonomy of reason in the moral life; Ps. viii., xcx.-2 (0), xcx.-3, xcv.-12, cvii.-12, cxcx-, cxcxv., cxcvi., c., cxcvi. 8 are reflections on man and physical nature (cf. the Yahweh addresses in Job, and Ecclus. xiii.-xliii. 3). Sceptical views are expressed in Job, Prov. xxx. 2-4 (Agur), Eccles.; the rest take the current orthodox position.

Though the intellectual world of the sages is different from that of the prophetical and legal Hebraism, they do not break with the fundamental Jewish theistic and ethical creeds. Their monothelitism remains Semitic—even in their conception of the cosmicogic and illuminating function of Wisdom they regard God as standing outside the world of physical nature and man, and do not grasp or accept the idea of the identity of the human and the divine; there is thus a sharp distinction between their general theistic position and that of Greek philosophy. They retain the old high standard of morals, and the first distinction among the sages is the division into the "wise" who set their thoughts on enemies (Prov. xx. 11) and to do no man what is hateful to one's self (Tob. iv. 15); in these finer maxims they doubtless represent the general ethical advance of the time.

This comes to a head in the writings of the rabbis in practically ignoring the physical supernatural—that is, they regard the miracles of the ancient times (referred to particularly in Wisdom xvi.-xx.), as the product of the plastic imagination, or the justification of the life of their own time. Angels occur only in Job and Tobit, and there in noteworthy characters: in Job they are beings whom God charges with folly (v. 18), or they are meditators between God and man
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(v. 1, xxxii. 23), that is, they are humanized, and the Elohim beings (Gen. xxi. 22; Prov. viii. 22) are spiritualized out of the figure of Satan being used by the author to account for Job's calamities; in Tobit the "affable" Raphael is a clever man of the world. Except in Wisdom ii. 24 (where the serpent of Gen. iii. is called the kontakt to it as an element of paganism (Avic. i., in Tob. iii. 8, 17), and that a Persian figure. Job alone introduces the mythical dragons (iii. 8, 12, 13, xxvi. 12) that occur in later Jewish thought. In the later development of the Wisdom books, it is the freindliest to supernatural machinery.

Like the prophetic writings before Ezekiel, the Wisdom books, while they recognize the sacrificial ritual as an existing custom, attach no importance to it as an element of religion (Avic. iii., fullest mention of it is in Eccles. xxxiv. 4 fl.), the difference between prophets and sages is that the former do not regard the ritual as of divine appointment (Jer. vii. 22) and oppose it as nonsensical and monstrous. 

(And) most stress on the universal side of religion, lose sight of its local and mechanical side (see Eccles. xxxiv. 1-3). Their broad culture (reinforced by the fact that they are) comparatively indifferent to Messianic hopes and to the conception of a final judgment of the nations that was closely connected with these hopes: a Messiah is not mentioned in their writings (not in Prov. xvi. 10-15), and a final judgment only in Wisdom of Solomon, where it is not of nations but of individuals. In this regard a comparison between them and Daniel, Enoch and Psalms of Solomon is instructive. Their interest is in the ethical relations between man and earth.

There was nothing in their general position to make them hospitable to ethical conceptions of the future life, as is shown by the fact that Ezekiel with the idea of immortality, which made itself felt in Jewish circles it was adopted by the author of the Wisdom of Solomon; but prior to the 1st century B.C. it does not appear in the Wisdom literature, and the nationalistic dogma of resurrection of the faithful seems never to have anywhere in the Wisdom of Solomon, the Underworld is the old Hebrew abode of all the dead, and therefore a negligible quantity for the moralist. Nor do the prophets point to any particular future life. They have no philosophical discussion of the basis of the moral life; their standard of good conduct is existing law and custom; their motive for right-doing is individual eudaemonistic, not a religious one. This indifference towards a future life of their own sake, but advantage for one's self. They do not attempt a psychological explanation of the origin of human sin; bad thought is evil (see Eccles. xxxvi. 3) is accepted as a fact, or its entrance into the world is viewed as due to the entrance of the serpent (Wisd. iv. 17) and the breaking in by the devil (Job xxxviii. 28; Prov. 1. 7; Eccles. xxv. i fl.) and even with the Jewish law (Eccles. xxiv. 23). But in such passages it remains fundamentally human; no attempt is made to define the limits of the human and the divine in its composition—it is all explained. In fine, they eschew theories and confine themselves to visible facts.

It is in keeping with their whole point of view that they claim no divine inspiration for themselves; they speak with authority, but their authority is that of reason and conscience. It is this definitely rational tone that constitutes the difference of the teaching of the social philosopher and the moralist. It is the whole of the philosophy, the whole of the wisdom is regarded as the result that approves or condemns conduct (job. Eccles. xiv. 2: or i. 15, Wisd. Sol. xvii. 11). Wisdom is represented as the result of human reflection, and thus as the true guide of life. The same takes place in the later conception, as divine (in Wisd. ofSol. and in parts of Prov. and Eccles. but not in Eccles.), in accordance with the Hebrew view, which regards all human conduct as determined by the fear of God. Wisdom, as identified in the fear of God (Job xxviii. 28; Prov. i. 7; Eccles. xxv. i fl.) and even with the Jewish law (Eccles. xxiv. 23). But in such passages it remains fundamentally human; no attempt is made to define the limits of the human and the divine in its composition—it is all explained. In fine, they eschew theories and confine themselves to visible facts.

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he conceived the idea of a union, and after a campaign lasting a quarter of a century the Union of American Hebrew Congrega-
tions was founded (1873) in Cincinnati. As a corollary of this he founded in 1875 the "Hebrew Union College" in the same city, and this institution has since trained a large number of the rabbis of America. Wise also organized various general assemblies of rabbis, and in 1880 established the Central Con-
ference of American Rabbis. He was the first to introduce family pews in synagogues, and in many other ways "occidental-
ized Jewish worship.

See D. Philip, The Reform Movement in Judaism (1907). (J.A.)

WISEMAN, NICHOLAS PATRICK STEPHEN (1802-1865), English cardinal, was born at Seville on the 2nd of August 1802, the child of Anglo-Irish parents recently settled in Spain for business purposes. On his father's death in 1805 he was brought to Waterford, and in 1810 he was sent to Ushaw College, near Durham, where he was educated until the age of sixteen, when he proceeded to the English College in Rome, reopened in 1818 after having been closed by the Revolution for twenty years. He graduated doctor of theology with distinction in 1825, and was ordained priest in the following year. He was appointed vicar at Ushaw College in 1828, and became Bishop of Trim and Dunbrody when not yet twenty-six years of age. This office he held until 1840. From the first a devoted student and antiquary, he devoted much time to the examination of oriental MSS. in the Vatican library, and a first volume, entitled Horae Syriacae, published in 1827, gave promise of a great scholar. Leo XII. apppointed him curator of the Arabic MSS. in the Vatican, and professor of oriental languages in the Roman university. At this date he had close relations, personal and by correspondence, with Mai, Bunsen, Burgess (bishop of Salisbury), Tholuck and Kluge. His student life was, however, broken by the pope's command to preach to the English in Rome; and a course of his lectures, On the Connexion between Science and Revealed Religion, deservedly attracted much attention, his general thesis being that whereas scientific teaching has repeatedly been thought to disprove Christian doctrine, further investigation has shown that a reconstruction is possible. He visited England in 1835-
36, and delivered lectures on the principles and main doctrines of Roman Catholicism in the Sardinian Chapel, Lincoln's Inn Fields, and in the church at Moorfields, now pulled down. Their effect was considerable; and after Pusey's request Newman reviewed them in the British Critic (December 1836), treating them for the most part with sympathy as a triumph over popular Protestantism. To another critic, who had taken occasion to point out the resemblance between Catholic and pagan cere-
monies, Wiseman replied, boldly admitting the likeness, and maintaining that it could be shown equally well to exist between Christian and heathen doctrines. In 1836 he founded the Dublin Review, partly to infuse into the lethargic English Catholics higher ideals of their own religion and some enthusiasm for the papacy, and partly to enable him to deal with the progress of the Oxford Movement, in which he was keenly interested. At this date he was already distinguished as an accomplished scholar and critic, able to converse fluently in half-a-dozen languages, and well informed on most questions of scientific, artistic or antiquarian interest. In the winter of 1838 he was visited in Rome by Macaulay, Manning and Gladstone. An article by him on the Donatist schism appearing in the Dublin Review in July 1839 made a great impression in Oxford, Newman and others seeing the force of the analogy between Donatists and Anglicans. Some words he quoted from St Augustine influenced Newman pro-
foundly: "Quapropter securus judicat orbis terrarum bonos non esse qui se dividunt ab orbe terrarum." And preaching at the opening of St Mary's church, Derby, in the same year, he anticipated Newman's argument on religious development, published six years later. In 1840 he was consecrated bishop, and sent to England as coadjutor to Bishop Walsh, vicar-apostolic of the Central district, and was also appointed president of Oscott College near Birmingham. Oscott, under his presidency, became a centre for English Catholics, where he was also visited by many distinguished men, including foreigners and non-Catholics. The Oxford converts (1845 and later) added considerably to Wis-
man's responsibilities, as many of them found themselves wholly without means, while the old Catholic body looked on the newcomers with distrust. It was by his advice that Newman and his companions spent some time in Rome before undertaking clerical work in England. Shortly after the accession of Pius IX. Wiseman was appointed temporarily vicar-apostolic of the London district, the appointment becoming permanent in February 1849. On his arrival from Rome in 1847 he acted as informal diplomatic envoy from the pope, to ascertain from the government what support England was likely to give in carrying out the historic policy with which Pius inaugurated his reign. In response Lord Minto was sent to Rome as "an authentic organ of the British Government," but the policy in question proved abortive. Residing in London in Golden Square, Wiseman threw himself into his new duties with many-sided activity, working especially for the reclamation of Catholic criminals and for the restoration of the lapsed poor to the practice of their religion. He was zealous for the establishment of religious communities, both of men and women, and for the holding of retreats and missions. He preached (4th July 1849) at the first Catholic mass in the Temple Church, London, since the time of the Reformation. He also founded the Catholic Mission in England since the Reformation, 14 bishops and 240 priests being present, and six religious orders of men being represented. The progress of Catholicism was undeniable, but yet Wiseman found himself steadily opposed by a minority among his own clergy, who disdained his Ultramontane ideas, his "Romanizing and in-
novating zeal," especially in regard to the introduction of sacred images into the churches and the use of devotions to the Blessed Virgin and the Blessed Sacrament, hitherto unknown among English Catholics. In July 1850 he heard of the pope's intention to create him a cardinal, and he took this to mean that he was to be permanently recalled to Rome. But on his arrival there he ascertained that a part of the pope's plan for restoring a diocesan hierarchy in England was that he himself should return to England as cardinal and archbishop of Westminster. The papal brief establishing the hierarchy was dated 29th September 1850, and on 7th October Wiseman wrote a pastoral, dated "from out of the Flaminian Gate"--a form diplomatically correct, but of bombastic tone for Protestant ears--in which he spoke enthusiastically, if also a little pompously, of the "restoration of Catholic England to its orbit in the ecclesiastical firmament." Wiseman travelled slowly to England, round by Vienna; and when he reached London (11th November) the whole country was ablaze with indignation at the "papal aggression," which was misunderstood to imply a new and unjustifiable claim to territorial rule. Some indeed feared that his life was endangered by the violence of popular feeling. But Wiseman displayed calmness and courage, and immediately penned an admirable Appeal to the English People (a pamphlet of over 30 pages), in which he explained the nature of the pope's action, and argued that the admitted principle of toleration included leave to establish a diocesan hierarchy; and in his con-
cluding paragraphs he effectively contrasted that domination over Westminster, which he was taunted with claiming, with his duties towards the poor Catholics resident there, with which alone he was really concerned. A course of lectures at St George's, Southwark, further moderated the storm. In July 1852 he pre-
-sided at Oscott over the first provincial synod of Westminster, at which Newman preached his sermon on the "Second Spring"; and at this date Wiseman's dream of the rapid conversion of England to the ancient faith seemed not incapable of realization. But many difficulties with his own people shortly beset his path, due largely to the suspicions aroused by his evident preference for the ardent Roman zeal of the converts, and especially of Manning, to the dull and cautious formalism of the old Catholics. The year 1854 was marked by his presence in Rome at the definition of the dogma of the immaculate conception of the Blessed Virgin (8th December), and by the publication of his historical romance, Fabiola, a tale of the Church of the Cata-
combs, which had a very wide circulation and was translated into ten languages. In 1855 Wiseman applied for a coadjutor, and
George Errington, bishop of Plymouth, his friend since boyhood, was appointed, with the title of archbishop of Trebizond. Two years later Manning was appointed provost of Westminster and he established in Bayswater his community of the "Oblates of St Charles." All Wiseman's later years were darkened by Errington's conscientious but implacable hostility to Manning and to himself in so far as he was supposed to be acting under Manning's influence. The story of the estrangement, which was largely a matter of temperament, is fully told in Ward's biography. Ultimately, in July 1860, Errington was deprived by the pope of his coadjutorship with right of succession, and he retired to Prior Park, near Bath, where he died in 1886. In the summer of 1858 Wiseman paid a visit to Ireland, where, as a cardinal of Irish race, he was received with enthusiasm. His speeches, sermons and lectures, delivered during his tour, were printed in a volume of 300 pages, and show an extraordinary power of rising to the occasion and of speaking with sympathy and tact. Wiseman was able to use considerable influence with English politicians, partly because in his day English Catholics were wavering in their historical allegiance to the Liberal party. As the director of votes thus doubtful, he was in a position to secure concessions that bettered the position of Catholics in regard to poor schools, reformatory and workhouses, and in the status of their army chaplains. In 1863, addressing the Catholic Congress at Malines, he stated that since 1830 the number of priests in England had increased from 1,454 to 1,444, and of converts of women from 16 to 162, while there were 15 religious houses of charity to Manning's none in 1836. The last two years of his life were troubled by illness and by controversies in which he found himself, under Manning's influence, compelled to adopt a policy less liberal than that which had been his in earlier years. Thus he had to condemn the Association for the Promotion of the Unity of Christians, with which he had shown some sympathy in its inception in 1857; and to forbid Catholic parents to send their sons to Oxford or Cambridge, though at an earlier date he had hoped (with Newman) that at Oxford at least a college or hall might be assigned to them. But in other respects his last years were cheered by marks of general regard and admiration, in which non-Catholics joined; and after his death (16th February 1866) there was an extraordinary demonstration of popular respect as his body was taken from St Mary's, Moorfields, to the cemetery at Kensal Green, where it was intended that it should rest only until a more fitting place could be found in a Roman Catholic cathedral church of Westminster. On the 30th of January 1907 the body was removed with great ceremony from Kensal Green and reburied in the crypt of the new cathedral, where it lies beneath a Gothic altar tomb, with a recumbent effigy of the archbishop in full pontificals.

Wiseman was undoubtedly an eminent Englishman, and one of the most learned men of his time. He was the friend and correspondent of many foreigners of distinction, among whom may be named Döllinger, Lamennais, Montalembert and Napoleon III was a writer he was apt to be turgid and prolix, and there was a somewhat un-English element of ostentation in his manner. But his accomplishments and ability were such as would have secured for him influence and prominence in any age of the Church; and besides being highly gifted intellectually and morally, he was marked by those specially human qualities which command the interest and admiration of all and enhance them. He combined with the principles known as Ultramontanism to little liberalization in matters ecclesiastical. He insisted on a poetical interpretation of the Church's liturgy; and while strenuously maintaining her Divine communion to teach faith and morals, he regarded the Church as in other respects a learner: and he advocated a policy of conciliation with the world, and an alliance with the best tendencies of contemporary thought. It was, in his judgment, quite in accordance with the Catholic Church's interest to constantly assimilate all that is worthy in the civilization around.

suggested that account must be taken of the "verschiedene Lagerung ihrer Atome im Atom." Later (see Die räumliche Anordnung der Atome in organischen Molekül, 1887) he extended the application of the van't Hoff-Le Bel theory, believing that it, together with the supposition that there are "specially directed forces, the affinity-energies," which determine the relative position of atoms in the molecule, afforded a method by which the spatial arrangement of atoms in particular cases may be ascertained by experiment. Wislicenus is also known for his work on aceto-acetic ester and its application as a synthetical agent. He was awarded the Davy medal by the Royal Society in 1868.

Wismar, a sestop to Hamburg, in the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, situated on the Bay of Wismar, is one of the best harbours on the Baltic, 20 m. by rail N. of Schwerin. Pop. (1905) 21,902. The town is well and regularly built, with broad and straight streets, and contains numerous handsome and quaint buildings in the Northern Gothic style. The church of St Mary, a Gothic edifice of the 13th and 14th centuries, with a tower 260 ft. high, and the church of St Nicholas (1381-1460), with very lofty vaulting, are regarded as good examples of the influence exercised in these Northern provinces by the large church of St Mary in Lübeck. The elegant hall of the town, of 14th and 15th centuries. The Fürstenhof, at one time a ducal residence, but now occupied by the municipal authorities, is a richly decorated specimen of the Italian early Renaissance style. Built in 1525-1562, it was restored in 1872-1879. The "Old School," dating from about 1300, has been restored, and is now occupied as a museum. The town hall (rebuilt in 1820) contains a collection of pictures. Among the manufactures of Wismar are iron, machinery, paper, roofing-felt and asphalt. There is a considerable trade, especially by sea, the exports including grain, oil-seeds and butter, and the imports coal, timber and iron. The harbour is deep enough to admet vessels of 17-f. draught, and permits large steamers to unload along its quays. Two miles from Wismar lies the watering-place of Wendorf.

Wismar is said to have received civic rights in 1220, and came into the possession of Mecklenburg in 1301. In the 13th and 14th centuries it was a flourishing Hanse town, with important woollen factories. Though a plague carried off 10,000 of the inhabitants in 1376, the town seems to have remained tolerably prosperous until the 16th century. By the peace of Westphalia in 1648 it passed to Sweden, with a lordship to which it gives its name. In 1803 Sweden pledged both town and lordship to Mecklenburg for 1,258,000 thalers, reserving, however, the right of redemption after 100 years. In view of this contingent right of Sweden, Wismar was not represented in the diet of Mecklenburg until 1857. In 1903 Sweden finally renounced its claims. Wismar still retains a few relics of its old liberties, including the right to fly its own flag.

See Burmeister, Beschreibung von Wismar (Wismar, 1857); Willgeroth, Geschichte der Stadt Wismar, pt. I. (Wismar, 1868); and Bruno Schmidt, Der Schleswig-meklenburgische Pfandvertrag über Stadt und Herrschaft Wismar (Leipzig, 1901).

Witan, or Witnecmot (from O. Eng. wita, pl. witan, a wise man, and gemōl, a meeting, from O. Eng. meeting, to meet), the national council in Anglo-Saxon times. Its origin is obscure. There is some resemblance between it and the two assemblies mentioned by Tacitus in the Germania, a larger and a smaller one, but this analogy must not be pressed too far. In Anglo-Saxon England in the 7th and 8th centuries it seems certain that each of the larger kingdoms, Kent, Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria, had its separate witan, or council, but there is no evidence as to whether it was identical with, or distinct from, the folk-moot, in which, theoretically at least, all freemen had the right to appear. H. R. von Gneist (History of the English Constitution) agrees that the two assemblies were identical, and a somewhat similar view is put forward by J. M. Kemble (Saxons in England) and E. A. Freeman (History of the Norman Conquest). Freeman advances the theory that the right of all the freemen to attend the gemōl had for practical purposes fallen into disuse, and thus the assembly had come to be confined to the wise men. In other words, the folk-moot had become the witan. Evidence in support of this view is sought for in the accounts in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle and elsewhere, where the decisions of the witan were received with loud expressions of approval or of disapproval by an assembled crowd, and it is argued that this is a survival from an earlier age, when all the freemen attended the witan. But the attendance of the crowd can be otherwise explained. The meetings referred to were probably those of exceptional interest, such as the election or the coronation of a king, and people from the neighbourhood were there merely as interested, and sometimes excited, spectators. The view is also put forward that the two assemblies were distinct, is held, although with characteristic acerbity by Stubbs (Const. Hist. vol. 1). He thinks that on the union of the kingdoms the witan were merged into one another, while the folk-moot became the shiremoot. As the number of kings decreased the number of witan decreased, until early in the 9th century there was one king and one witan in all England.

The power of the witan varied according to the personality of the reigning king, being considerable under a weak rulcr, but inconsiderable under a strong one. Generally speaking, it diminished as the years went by, and from a necessary minister, two archbishops, seven bishops, eight reeves, it gradually disappeared. Its duties are shown by the preamble to the laws of Ine, king of Wessex, and 200 years later by the preamble to those of Alfred the Great, while several similar cases could be instanced. Ine legislates "with the counsel and with the teaching of Cenred my father and of Hedde my bishop, and of Eorcenwald my bishop, with all mv ealdormen and the most distinguished witan of my people" (Stubbs, Select Charters), and Alfred issues his code of laws "with the counsel and consent of his witan." Thus the members of the witan were primarily counselors. With their consent the king promulgated laws, made grants of land, appointed bishops and ealdormen, and discharged the other duties of government. The witan was also a court of justice, Earl Godwine and many other offenders receiving sentence of outlawry therein. Its members had the power of electing a new king, although the area of their choice was strictly limited by custom and also the right of deposing a king, although this seems to have been infrequently exercised.

Its members signed the charters by which the king conveyed grants of land to churches and to individuals, and it is from the extant charters that we mainly derive our knowledge about the composition of the witan. It consisted, in addition to the king, his sons and other relatives, of the bishops and later some abbots, of some under-kings and the ealdormen of the shires or provinces, and of a number of ministris, or king's thegn. These ministris were nominees of the king; they included the important members of his household, and their number gradually increased until it outstripped that of all the other members. The witan appears probably to have had no fixed place of meeting, and to have assembled around the person of the king, wherever he might be. In the later years of its existence, at least, it met three times a year at Easter, Whitsuntide and Christmas. The number of counsellors attending the meetings of the witan varied considerably from time to time. "In a witenagemot held at Luton in November A.D. 931 were the two archbishops, two Welsh princes, seventeen bishops, fifteen ealdormen, five abbots and fifty-nine ministris. In another, that of Winchester of A.D. 934, were present the two archbishops, four Welsh kings, seventeen bishops, four abbots, twelve ealdormen and fifty-two ministris. These are perhaps the fullest extant lists. Of Edgar's witenagemots, the one of A.D. 966 contained the king's archbishop, seven "merlye atte ealdormen," and was attended by fifteen ministris; and this is a fair specimen of the usual proportion" (Stubbs, Const. Hist. ch. vi. Almost immediately after the Norman Conquest the word fell into disuse.

See also D. J. Medley, English Constitutional History (1907); H. M. Chadwick, Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions (1905); and the article PARLIAMENT. (A. W. H.)*

WITCH and WIZARD. These two words are now generally used of an adept of the black art, a sorcerer, magician, female
and male respectively (see Magic and Witchcraft). "Witch," formerly of common gender, represents O. Eng. wīca (masc.), wīce (fem.), agent-nouns to wician, to practise sorcery, probably a causative verb from O. Eng. wican, to give way (cf. "weak"), and therefore signifying to avert (evil), conjure away. So Norweg. vijka means (1) to turn aside, (2) to exercise. The participial "wicked" means witch-like. "Wizard" is formed from "with" and the slightly contemptuous Anglo-French suffix -ard, as in drunkard, laggard, sluggard, &c.

WITCH BROOMS, or "Birds' Nests," in botany, peculiar broom-like growths often seen on the branches of many trees. They are a dense development of branching twigs formed at one place on a branch as the result of the irritation set up by the presence of a mitre or a fungus.

Witchcraft, a term often used of magical practices of all sorts, but here confined to the malevolently ("black") magic of women. It should, however, be noted that the male witch occasionally appears in folklore, while "white witchcraft" is common; the practices of the witch of Endor are akin rather to spiritualism than witchcraft. The German term hexe was not originally applied to human beings at all, but to child-devouring demons, corresponding to the Roman lamia; and it is used in this sense till the 14th century, it does not appear in literature in its present sense till some time in the 15th century.

The modern European conception of the witch is perhaps the result of the fusion of several originally discrete ideas. In some countries we find the distinction made between conjurers, witches and sorcerers; the former were supposed to raise the devil by means of spells and force him to do their will; the witch proceeded by way of friendly pact with an evil spirit; a third class produced strange effects, without the aid of spirits (see Magic), by means of images or forms of words. We also find a distinction drawn between diviners, mathematici (=astrologers), crystal-gazers, necromancers and others; but it must be remembered that our knowledge for the earlier period is rather of learned ideas than of the actual popular beliefs, and for the later period of the popular belief sophisticated by ecclesiastical subtleties. In present-day belief the witch is, like the savage magician, initiated by another or himself performs ceremonies believed to give her magical powers. She possesses a familiar (see Lycanthropy; Magic), whose form she can assume; she can ride through the air in some cases and is equally adept at all kinds of magic.

Sir A. C. Lyall maintains that the witch is a person who works magic by her own powers, not by the aid and counsel of supernatural beings; but this view, though it may be true of poisoning and similar features formerly reckoned a part of witchcraft, does not apply to the European witch. Witchcraft and possession are found in clusters of magical means, and psychical epidemics of the middle ages, but are otherwise unrelated.

Witchcraft among Primitive Peoples.—Although magical powers are everywhere attributed to women, witchcraft as here defined is by no means universal; in Europe alone is the woman the almost exclusive repository of magical powers; in the Congo the muntu ndongo may be either a man or a woman, and in fact the sexes are said to be engaged in magical pursuits in approximately equal numbers; in Australia men are much more concerned with magic than women, but the latter have certain forms peculiar to themselves in the central area, and, as in medieval Europe, to the womanly concern with sexual matters. At the present day the European witch is almost invariably old, but this is not characteristic of the female magician of primitive peoples, or not to the same extent; it must be remembered that the modern idea of witchcraft is largely a learned product—the result of scholastic and inquisitorial ingenuity, mingled to a greater or less extent with genuine folk beliefs. In India, among the Agarias of Bengal, the instruction in witchcraft is given by the old women; but the pupils are young girls. The Indian witch is believed to have a cat familiar; there, as in Europe, many toxic elements (f) are applied to witches; they may be thrown into water, or their identity discovered by various forms of divination; or they may be known by the fact that beating them with the castor oil plant makes them cry out. As a punishment the witch may be shaved, made to drink dirty water, or otherwise ill-used.

Witchcraft in Classical Times.—Our knowledge of witchcraft in pagan antiquity is slight, but Horace has left us an elaborate description of the proceedings of two witches in the Esquiline cemetery. At the new moon they steal into it for greater boli and nocturns here, their feet bare, their hair loose and their robes tucked up. So far from aiming at secrecy, however, they alarm their neighbours with their cries. Making a hollow in the ground they rend a black lamb over it to summon the devil. Then taking two images, one of wool representing a witch, one of wax representing the man whose infidelity she wishes to punish, a witch performs magical ceremonies; the moon turns red, hell hounds and snakes glide over the spot. Then they bury the muzzle of a wolf and burn the waxen image; as it melts, so fades the life of its prototype. In Greece Thessalian women had the reputation of being specially endowed with folk beliefs; their poisons were famous and they were said to be able to make the moon descend from the sky.

Medieval Witchcraft.—We know less of early and medieval witchcraft than of modern savage and popular beliefs; our knowledge of it is drawn partly from secular sources—the laws against, and in later times the trials for the offence—partly from ecclesiastical sources; but in each case the popular creed is filtered through the mind of a writer who did not necessarily understand or share the belief. For the earlier period we have penitentials, decisions of councils, discussions as to the bonds and branches of witchcraft, as to their exact relation to the sin of heresy or as to the mechanism by which the supposed results were achieved; at a later period the trials of witches before the Inquisition are of great importance; but the beliefs of this period must be sharply distinguished from those of the earlier one. Finally we have a great mass of material in the secular trials of the 15th and 20th following centuries.

There are marked differences in the character of the witchcraft beliefs of different countries, due perhaps in part to the influence of the Inquisition, which reacted on the popular conceptions, in part to real differences in the original folk beliefs. In northern countries the witches' Sabbath never seems to assume any importance; in Germany, in the form of the Brocken assembly on May Eve, it is a prominent feature, and in England we may bring it into relation with the belief that at certain periods of the year demons and spirits are abroad and have special powers; in south Europe the idea of the Sabbath seems to owe much of its prominence to the association of witchcraft with heresy and the assemblies of the Waldenses and others. Again, the "evil eye" (g.v.) is especially associated with the south of Europe; and the "lizard," (personification of witchcraft, as to its exact relation to the sin of heresy or as to the mechanism by which the supposed results were achieved; at a later period the trials of witches before the Inquisition are of great importance; but the beliefs of this period must be sharply distinguished from those of the earlier one. Finally we have a great mass of material in the secular trials of the 15th and 20th following centuries.

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From Development: In the second period (1230-1430) we have to deal with two factors of fundamental importance: (1) the elaboration of demonology and allied ideas by the scholastics, and (2) the institution of the Inquisition to deal with the rising flood of heresy. At the beginning of this era the prevalent view of the striga seems to have been that she really existed; Caesar of Heisterbach (c. 1225) recognizes the female monster, who kills children; William of Paris (c. 1230) agrees that lamiae and strigae eat children, but they are allied to the dominæ nocturnae; that they are real women is a foolish belief. Scholastic ingenuity, however, soon disposed of rationalistic objections to this as a flight from the truths taken for granted in the period before 800. This intrusion of the incubus in the domain of witchcraft was probably due to the attitude of the church towards magic.

Ecclesiastical and Civil Law.—For the attitude of the church to witchcraft there are three factors to be considered: (1) the Biblical recognition of its reality; (2) the universal belief in demons and magic; and (3) the identification of these demons with heathen deities. The orthodox view fluctuates between the theory that witchcraft is idolatry, a recognition of real powers, and that it is disobedience, a superstitious following of non-existent deities.

The Biblical conception of witch is a person who deals with familiar spirits (Lev. xx. 20), and the express provision that a witch should not be suffered to live (Ex. xxii. 18) could have left no doubt that the crime was a real one in the Mosaic law. Although the familiar plays but a small part in this early period, we find that the church early came to the conclusion that witchcraft depended on a compact with demons; in the synod of Elvira (A.D. 306) it was pronounced to be one of the three canonical sins—apostasy—and punished by the refusal of communion, even on the death-bed. Augustine lays down (c. 178) that the sorcerer, or one who fosters the art of magic, is a devil; Augustine the presbyter, or one who sacrifices to the devil; at Worms in A.D. 829 the Frankish bishops declared that the devil sided both sexes to prepare love potions, to cause storms and to abstract milk, fruits of the field, &c.

It must not, however, be supposed that all kinds of witchcraft were equally recognized. The innumeris tempestatum and the poisoners by magical means were commonly recognized as real; but the striga was usually regarded as a pure superstition. An Irish synod (c. A.D. 800) pronounces a Christian to be anathema, who ventures to believe in the possibility of flight through the air and blood-sucking; Stephen of Hungary (907-12) wisely distinguishes the maleficia from the striga; Regino of Prüm (c. 906) concludes that the flight by night with the devil and the goddess Diana is a delusion, the work of the devil. Burchard of Worms (d. 1025) prescribes two years' penance for the belief that the Unholde kills Christians, cook them and eat their hearts, which they replace by a piece of wood, and then wake them. Agobard and others even express doubts as to the reality of weather-making. For those who took this view, and even for others who, like John of Damascus, accepted the striga, a mild attitude, in strict accordance with the days, was the accepted policy. The Synod of Relash (799) demands penance for witchcraft, but no punishment in this life. John of Damascus, Agobard, John of Salisbury and Burchard are equally mild.

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It must not, however, be supposed that all kinds of witchcraft were equally recognized. The innumeris tempestatum and the poisoners by magical means were commonly recognized as real; but the striga was usually regarded as a pure superstition. An Irish synod (c. A.D. 800) pronounces a Christian to be anathema, who ventures to believe in the possibility of flight through the air and blood-sucking; Stephen of Hungary (907-12) wisely distinguishes the maleficia from the striga; Regino of Prüm (c. 906) concludes that the flight by night with the devil and the goddess Diana is a delusion, the work of the devil. Burchard of Worms (d. 1025) prescribes two years' penance for the belief that the Unholde kills Christians, cook them and eat their hearts, which they replace by a piece of wood, and then wake them. Agobard and others even express doubts as to the reality of weather-making. For those who took this view, and even for others who, like John of Damascus, accepted the striga, a mild attitude, in strict accordance with the days, was the accepted policy. The Synod of Relash (799) demands penance for witchcraft, but no punishment in this life. John of Damascus, Agobard, John of Salisbury and Burchard are equally mild.
distinct ideas and the crystallization of our modern idea of witch. To the methods of the inquisitors must be ascribed in great part the spread of these conceptions amongst the people; for the *Malleus Maleficarum* or Inquisitor's Manual (1486), following closely on the important bull *Summis desiderantes affectibus* (Innocent VIII., 1484), gave them a handbook from which they worked. In South were to extract such confessions as they desired; by a strange perversion these admissions, wrung from their victims by rack or thumb-screw, were described as voluntary.

The subsequent history of witchcraft may be treated in less detail. In England the trials were most numerous in the 17th century; but the absence of judicial torture made the cases proportionately less numerous than they were on the European continent. One of the most famous witch-finders was Matthew Hopkins, himself hanged for witchcraft after a career of some three years. Many of his methods were not far removed from actual torture; he pricked the body of the witch to find anaesthetic areas; other signs were the inability to shed tears, or repeat the Lord's Prayer, the practice of walking backwards or against the sun, throwing the hair loose, intertwining the fingers, &c. Witches were also weighed against the Bible, or thrown into water, the thumbs and toes tied crosswise, and those who did not sink were adjudged guilty; a very common practice was to shave the witch, perhaps to discover insensible spots, but more probably because originally the familiar spirit was supposed to cling to the place where the last English trial for witchcraft was held, when Jane Wenham was convicted, but not executed. Occasional cases of lynching continue to occur, even at the present day.

In Scotland trials, accompanied by torture, were very frequent in the 17th century. A famous witch-finder was Kincaid. The last trial and execution took place in 1722.

In New England there was a remarkable outburst of fanaticism—the famous Salem witchcraft delusion—in 1692—1693; but many of the prisoners were not convicted and some of the convicts received the governor's pardon (see *Salem, Mass.*). On the continent of Europe the beginning of the 16th century saw the trial of witchcraft cases taken out of the hands of the Inquisition in France and Germany, and the influence of the *Malleus* became predominant in those countries. Among famous continental trials may be mentioned that of a woman named Voisin in 1680, who was burnt alive for poisoning, in conjunction with the Marquise de Brinvilliers. Trials and executions did not finally cease till the end of the 18th century. In Spain a woman was burnt in 1781 at Seville by the Inquisition, the secular courts condemned a girl to decapitation in 1782; in Germany, in the 18th century, there were several instances; in America and Mexico witch-burning seems to have lasted till well into the second half of the 19th century, the latest instance apparently being in 1885 in Peru.

The total number of victims of the witch persecutions is variously estimated at from 100,000 to several millions. If it is true that Benedict Czarnpov (1550—1666) passed sentence on 20,000 victims, the former figure is undoubtedly too low.

**Rise of the Critical Spirit.**—It is commonly assumed and has been asserted by Lecky that the historical evidence for witchcraft is too scattered and of too little authority to be of importance in testing the belief in witchcraft. But the testimony of the occurrence of marvels is small in quantity, if we except the valueless declaration of the victims of torture; testimony as to the pathological side of witchcraft is abundant, and affords no proof of the erroneous inferences drawn from the genuine phenomena. If this uncritical attitude is found in our own day, it is not surprising that the rationalistic spirit was long in making its appearance and slow in gaining the victory over superstition. From the 15th century onwards the old view that transformation and transportation were not realities but delusions, caused directly by the devil, began to gather force. Among the important works may be mentioned Johann Weier's *De Practicis Daemonum* (1563), Reginald Scott's (c. 1538—1590) *Discovery of Witchcraft* (1584) which was ordered to be burnt by King James I., who had himself replied to it in his *Daemonologie* (1597), Balthasar Bekker's *Betoverde Wereld* (1601), which, though it went farther in the direction of scepticism, had less influence than Friedrich v. Spee's *Cautio Criminalis* (1631). In France Jean Uvier defended the rationalistic view, and Jean Bodin demanded that he should be sent to the stake for his heresy.

**Psychology of Witchcraft.**—Although at the height of the witch persecution torture wrung from innocent victims valueless confessions which are at best evidence that long-continued agony of body may be instrumental in provoking hallucinations, there can be no doubt that witches commonly, like the magician in lower planes of culture, firmly believe in their own powers, and the causes of this seem to be not merely subjective. (1) Ignorance of the effects of suggestion leads both the witch and others to regard as supernormal effects which are really due to the victim's belief in the possibility of witchcraft. This applies especially to cases of "ligature." (2) Telepathy (q.v.) seems in some cases to play a part in establishing the witch's reputation; some evidence has been produced that hypnotism at a distance is possible, and an account of her powers given by a French witch to Dr Gibotteau suggests that this element cannot be neglected in appraising the evidence for witchcraft. (3) Whatever be the real explanation of the belief in poltergeists (q.v.) and "physical phenomena" (q.v.), the belief in them rests on a very different basis from that of the belief in lycanthropy; exaggeration and credulity at times very serious and manifestly associated with witchcraft. On the other hand, subjective causes played their part in causing the witch to believe in herself. (4) Auto-suggestion may produce hallucinations and delusions in otherwise sane subjects; and for those who do not question the reality of witchcraft this must operate powerfully. (5) The descriptions of witches show that in many cases their sanity was more than questionable; trance and hysteria also played their part. (6) It is uncertain to what extent drugs and salves have helped to cause hallucinations; but that they had some share seems certain, though modern experimenters have failed to throw down the physics of the Fifteen, sixteenth century drugs; here too, however, the effects of suggestion must be reckoned with; we do not associate the use of tobacco with hallucinations, but it was employed to produce them in Haiti in the same way as hemlock among the Bantu of the present day. (7) Hallucinations occurring under torture must have tended to convince bystanders and victims alike, no less than the acceptance of suggestions, positive and negative.

As regards the nature of the ideas accepted as a result of suggestion or auto-suggestion, they were on the one hand derived, from the 15th century onwards, from occult sources, and from folk beliefs; but beneath these elements is a stratum of popular belief, derived in the main perhaps from pagan sources, for to this day in Italy witchcraft is known as *la vecchia religione,* and has been handed down in an unbroken tradition for countless generations.

WITCH-HAZEL

Bastian,Der Mensch in der Geschichte. On witchcraft and insanity, see Hack-Tuke, History of Insanity; O. Snell, Hexenprocesse und Geistereragen. The discussion on evidence for the vice of witchcraft, see E. Gurney, Phantasmata, vol. 1; F. Podmore, Modern Spiritualism, l. 13.

WITCH-HAZEL, in botany, the common name for a North American shrub, Hamamelis virginica, known in gardens. The clusters of rich yellow flowers begin to expand in the autumn before the leaves turn yellow and continue, without the leaves, through winter. Bark and leaves are astringent, and the seeds contain a quantity of oil and are edible. The name is derived from the use of the twigs as divining rods, just as hazel twigs were used in England.

Britain and Holland (Dictionary of English Plant Names, p. 247) quote three British plants under this name: (1) Wych elm (Ulmus montana), which, according to Parkinson (Theatr. 1629), was called "Witch hazel" because the leaves were like unripe hazel leaves; (2) Hornbeam (Carpinus Betulus), which, according to Gerard, was so called in some places from its likeness to the elm or "sich Hasell tree"; and (3) Mountain ash (Pyras aucuparia).

Witch of Agnesi, in geometry, a cubic curve invented by Maria Gaetana Agnesi. It is constructed by the following method: Let AQB be a semicircle of diameter AB, produce MQ the ordinate of Q to P so that MQ : MP = AM : AB. Then the locus of P is the witch. The cartesian equation, if A be taken as origin and AB (=a) for the axis of x, is

\[ y^2 = a^2(1 - x) \]

The curve consists of one branch entirely to the left of the line x = a and having the axis of y as an asymptote. It is therefore an interesting curiosity of art, and the remains of a fortification formed as a result of the use of Edward the Elder in 913, but perhaps of British origin.

Wither, George (1588-1667), English poet and satirist, son of George Wither of Hampshire, was born at Bentworth, near Alton, on the 11th of June 1588. He was sent to Magdalen College, Oxford, at the age of fifteen, and remained at the university for two years. His neighbours appear to have had no great opinion of him, for they advised his father to put him to some honest trade. He was, however, given over to the Inns of Chancery, eventually obtaining an introduction at court. He wrote an elegy (1612) on the death of Prince Henry, and a volume of gratulatory poems (1613) on the marriage of the princess Elizabeth, but his uncompromising character soon prepared trouble for him. In 1611 he published Abuses Stript and Whipt, twenty satires of general application directed against Revenge, Ambition, Lust and other abstractions. The volume included a poem called "The Scourge," in which the lord chancellor was attacked, and a series of epigrams. No copy of this edition is known, and it was not very popular, but in 1613 five editions appeared, and the author was lodged in the Marshalsea prison. The influence of the Princess Elizabeth, supported by a loyal "Satyre" to the king, in which he hints that an enemy at court had fitted personal meanings to his general invective, secured his release at the end of a few months. He had figured as one of the interlocutors, "Rogge," in his friend William Browne's Shepherd's Pipe, with which were bound up eclogues by other poets, among them one by Wither, and during his imprisonment he wrote what may be regarded as a continuation of Browne's work, The Shepherd's Hunting (printed 1615), eclogues in which the two poets appear as "Wille" and "Roget" (in later editions "Philarote"). The fourth of these eclogues contains a famous passage in praise of poetry. After his release he was admitted (1615) to Lincoln's Inn, and in the same year he printed privately Fidelia, a love elegy, of which there is a unique copy in the Bodleian. Other editions of this book, which contained the lyric "Shall I, wasting in despair," appeared in 1617 and 1619. In 1621 he returned to the satiric vein with Wither's Motto, Nec habeo, nec caro, nec curro. Over 30,000 copies of this poem were sold, according to his own account, within a few months. Like his earlier invective, it was said to be libellous, and Wither was again imprisoned, but shortly afterwards released without formal trial on the plea that the book had been duly licensed. In 1622 appeared his Faire-Virtue, The Mistress of Phil' Arte, a long panegyric of a mistress, partly real, partly allegorical, written chiefly in the seven-syllabled verse of which he was a master. Wither began as a moderate in politics and religion, but from this time his Puritan leanings became more and more pronounced, and his later work consists of religious poetry, and of controversial and political tracts. His Hymnes and Songs of the Church (1622-1623) were issued under a patent of King James I, ordaining that they should be bound up with every copy of the authorized metrical psalms offered for sale (see HYMNS). This patent was opposed, as inconsistent with their privilege to print the "singing-psalms," by the Stationers' Company, to Wither's great mortification and loss, and a second similar patent was finally disallowed by the House of Lords. Wither was in London during the plague of 1625, and in 1628 published Britain's Remembrancer, a voluminous poem on the subject, interspersed with denunciations of the wickedness of the times, and prophecies of the disasters about to fall upon England. He also incidentally attacked the work of John Donne, author of The Eponymous Chronicler, in a poem called Time Vindicated, by a reference to Ben's "drunken concave." This book he was obliged to print with his own hand in consequence of his quarrel with the Stationers' Company. In 1635 he was employed by Henry Taunton, a London publisher, to write English verses illustrative of the allegorical plates of Crispin van Passo, originally designed for Gabriel Rolleghen's Nucleus emblematorum selectissimum (1610-1613). This book was published as a Collection of Emblems, Ancient and Modern, or perhaps the only extant copy known is in the British Museum. The best of Wither's religious poetry is contained in Hecateckle, or Britain's Second Remembrancer, which was printed in Holland in 1641. Many of the poems rise to a high point of excellence. Besides those properly entitled to the designation of hymns, the book contains songs of singular beauty, especially the Cradle-song ("Sleep, baby, sleep, what ails my dear "), the Anniversary Marriage Song ("Lord, living here are we "), the Perambulation Song ("Lord, it hath pleased Thee to say "), the Song for Lovers ("Come, sweet heart, come, let us prove "), the Song for the Happily Married ("Sleep they in singing take delight ") and the Song for the Poor ("Now to the world it will appear "). (Nos. 50 in the first part, 17 and 24 in the second, and 20, 27 and 41 in the third). There is also in the second part a fine song (No. 59), full of historical as well as poetical interest, upon the evil times in which the poet lived, beginning—

"Now are the times, these are the days
Which will those men approve
Who take delight in honest ways
And pious courses love;
Now to the world it will appear
That innocence of heart
Will keep us far more free from fear
Than helmet, shield or dart."

Wither wrote, generally, in a pure nervous English idiom, and preferred the reputation of "rusticity" (an epithet applied to him even by Baxter) to the tricks and artifices of poetical style which were then in favour. It may be partly on that account that he was better appreciated by posterity than by his contemporaries.

Wither had served as captain of horse in 1629 in the expedition of Charles I against the Scottish Covenanters, and his religious rather than his political convictions must be accepted as the explanation of the fact that, three years after the Scottish expedition, at the outbreak of the Great Rebellion, he is found definitely siding with the parliament. He sold his estate to raise a troop of horse, and was placed by a parliamentary committee in command of Farnham Castle. After a few days' occupation he left the place undefended, and marched to London. His own
house near Farnham was plundered, and he himself was captured by a troop of Royalist horse, owing his life to the intervention of Sir John Denham on the ground that so long as Withers lived he himself could not be accounted the worst poet in England. After this episode he was promoted to the rank of major. He was present at the siege of Gloucester (1643) and at Naseby (1645). He had been deprived in 1643 of his nominal command, and of his commission as justice of the peace, in consequence of an attack upon Sir Richard Onslow, who was, he maintained, responsible for the Farnham disaster. In the same year parliament made him a grant of £2000 for the loss of his property, but he apparently never received the full amount, and complained from time to time of his embarrassments and of the slight rewards he received for his services. An order was made to settle a yearly income of £150 on Withers, chargeable on Sir John Denham's sequestered estate, but there is no evidence that he ever received it. A small place given him by the Protector was forfeited "by declaring unto him (Cromwell) those truths which he was not willing to hear of." At the Restoration he was arrested, and remained in prison for three years. He died in London on the 2nd of May 1667.

His extant writings, catalogued in Park's British Bibliographer, number over a hundred. Sir S. E. Brydges published The Shepherd's Hunting (1814), Fidelia (1815) and Fair Virtue (1818), and a selection among his companion Poets, vol. i. and ii. (1828). Most of Wither's works were edited in twenty volumes for the Spenser Society (1871-1882); a selection was included by Henry Morley in his Companion Poets (1891); Fidelia and Fair Virtue are included in Dr. Granger's Eng. Poets, vol. xii. (1892-1893), and an excellent edition of The Poetry of George Wither was edited by F. Sidgwick in 1902. Among A. C. Swinburne's Miscellanies there is an amusing account of a copy of a selection from Wither's poems annotated by Lamb, then by Dr. Nott, whose notes were the subject of further ruthless comment from Lamb.

WITHERITE, a mineral consisting of barium carbonate (BaCO₃), crystallizing in the orthorhombic system. The crystals are invariably twinned together in groups of three, giving rise to pseudo-hexagonal forms somewhat resembling bipyramidal crystals of quartz, the faces are usually rough and striated horizontally. The colour is dull white or sometimes greyish, the hardness is 3½ and the specific gravity 4.3. The mineral is named after W. Withering, who in 1784 recognized it to be chemically distinct from barytes. It occurs in veins of lead ore at Hexham in Northumberland, Alston in Cumberland, Anglezark, near Chorley in Lancashire, and a few other localities. Witherite is readily altered to barium sulphate by the action of water containing calcium sulphate in solution, and crystals are therefore frequently encrusted with barytes. It is the chief source of barium salts, and is mined in considerable amounts in Northumberland. It is used for the preparation of rat poison, in the manufacture of glass and porcelain, and formerly for refining sugar.

WITHERSPoon, John (1723-1794), Scottish-American divine and educationalist, was born at Gifford, Yester parish, East Lothian, Scotland, on the 5th of February 1722/1723, the son of a minister of the Scotch Established Church, James Witherspoon (d. 1759), and a descendant on the distaff side from John Welch and John Knox. He studied at Haddington, and graduated in 1739 at the university of Edinburgh, where he completed a divinity course in 1743. He was licensed to preach by the Haddington presbytery in 1743, and after two years as a probationer in Scotland's (1745) minister of the parish of Belsay. His Ecclesiastical Characteristics (1753), Serious Apology (1764), and History of a Corporation of Servants discovered a few years ago in the Interior Parts of South America (1765), attacked various abuses in the church and satirized the "moderate" party. In 1757 he had become pastor at Paisley; and in 1760 he received the degree of D.D. from Aberdeen. He was sued for libel for printing a rebuke to some of his parishioners who had beset the sacrament of the Lord's Supper; and after several years in the courts he was ordered to pay damages of £150, which was never paid by his parishioners. He refused calls to churches in Dublin and Rotterdam, and in 1766 declined an invitation brought him by Richard Stockton to go to America as president of the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University); but he accepted a second invitation and left Paisley in May 1768. His close relation with the Scotch Church secured important material assistance for the college of which he now became president, and he toured New England to collect contributions. He secured an excellent set of scientific apparatus and improved the instruction in the natural sciences; he introduced courses in Hebrew and French about 1772; and he did a large part of the actual teaching, having courses in languages, divinity, moral philosophy, and elocution. In the American Presbyterian church he was a prominent figure; he worked for union with the Congregationalists and with the Dutch Reformed body; and at the synod of 1786 he was one of the committee which reported in favour of the formation of a General Assembly and which drafted "a system of general rules for... government." In politics he did much to influence Irish and Scotch-Irish Presbyterians to support the Whig party. He was a member of the provincial congress which met at New Brunswick in July 1774; presided over the Somerset county committee of corre- scns, were edited by Dr. Ashiel Green (New York, 1774-1775). The New Jersey constitutional convention in the spring of 1776, and from June 1776 to the autumn of 1779 and in 1780-1783 he was a member of the Continental Congress, where he urged the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, being the only clergyman to sign it. He became a member of the secret committee of corre-

WITNESS (from O. Eng. witnes; to know), in law, a person who is able from his knowledge or experience to make statements relevant to matters of fact in dispute in a court of justice: the relevancy and probative effect of the statements which he makes belong to the law of evidence (q.v.). In the present article it is only proposed to deal with matters concerning the position of the witness himself. In England, in the earlier stages of the common law, the jurors seem to have been the witnesses, for they were originally chosen for their knowledge or presumed knowledge of the facts in dispute, and they could (and can) be challenged and excluded from the jury if related to the parties or otherwise likely to have bias (q.v.). The jurors' oath contains the words "and no truth conceal," an obvious survival from the time when a juror was a witness.

Modern views as to the persons competent to give evidence are very different from those of Roman law and the systems derived from it. In Roman law the law of manumissions was not admissible without the application of torture, and a large body of possible witnesses was excluded for reasons which have now ceased to be considered expedient, and witnesses were excluded by the rules which became known as the Garner (vol. iv., 1882; vol. v., 1883), and another, nor could slaves against their masters, nor those at enmity with the party against whom their evidence was offered. Women and slaves could not act as witnesses at all, and if there were slaves who were free, seven witnesses were necessary for a will, five for a manumission, or to determine the question whether a person were free or a slave. As under the Mosaic law, two witnesses were necessary as a minimum number to prove any fact. Untis
responso testis omnino non audiatur are the words of a constitution of
Constantinople. The evidence of a single witness was simply semi-
plena probatio, to be supplemented. In default of that, evidence of a second witness was generally equivalent to that of two ordinary witnesses. The
evidence of the pope and that of a witness who simply proved baptism or heresy (according to some authorities) are perhaps the only non-peculiar exceptions to this rule.

The evidence of a witness was probably that of someone who was
considered an appropriate or neutral party to the case. It is probable that the incompetence of Jews as witnesses was never admitted by the Roman law as to competence, but extended the disabilities to excommuni-
cated persons and to a layman in a criminal charge against a cleric, unless by some exceptional rule. The exception is made in the case of the ancient testimony of the Law and the late commentators. The late commentaries of the Law, which were generally taken in the sense of the parables on the gospels. But in England until their expulsion they were in the status of slaves (captivi) of the king. A policy similar to that of Roman law was followed for centuries in England by excluding all persons interested, except for a witness for a prisoner, and of infamous persons, such as those who had been
attainted or had been vanquished in the trial by battle, or had stood in the pillory. All these were said to come non habere. In the
days of trial by battle a party could render a witness against a
him incompetent by challenging and defeating him in the judicial combat. Women were generally regarded as wholly or partially incompetent. English law had also certain rules as to the number of witnesses necessary. Thus under a statute of 1383 (6 Rich. II. st. 2, c. 5) the number of compurgators necessary to free an accused person from complicity in the peacot revolt was fixed at three or four. Five persons are necessary to prove ingratitude to the lord. In one instance in old Scots law the number of witnesses had the curious effect of determining the pavement of justices of the peace by a simple majority. The
evidence which was undergone by the accused on the oaths of three witnesses; if
to them the oaths of three seniores were added, the penalty was
immediate hanging.

The rule of the gradual development of the law of evidence, which is in a sense peculiar to the English system, the fetters of the Roman rules as to witnesses were gradually shaken off. In civil cases all disabilities by interest, relationship, sex or crime have been peremptorily rejected. The witness need not be present in the
sense, and objections which in Roman law went to his competence, in English law go to his credibility. The only general test of compentence is that provided by the rules. It extends to children and children of tender years; a person convicted of perjury is said to be competent if convicted at common law, but incompetent if convicted under the act of Elizabeth. No trial ever takes place
now under this act, and on this point the act seems to have been virtually repealed by Lord Denman's Act (1843; 6 & 7 Vict. c. 85).

The disqualification is not absolute as to lunatics; as to children it
is sometimes made to depend on whether they are able to understand
the nature of the witness's oath. And in certain cases within the
Criminal Law Amendment Act 1885 and the Prevention of Cruelty
to Children Act 1904, the unworn evidence of children of tender years is admissible.

Non-judicial witnesses are those who attest an act of unusual
importance, for the due execution of which evidence may afterwards be required. They are either made necessary by law, as the witnesses to bills of sale or quit-rents, as the witnesses to deeds. In some cases the attestation has become a mere form, such as the attestation of the lord chancellor to a writ of summons (see B. & T. 32.2).

The rule of English law as to the number of witnesses necessary is expressed in the phrase testes pendorantur non numenatur. But
there are certain exceptions, all statutory. Two witnesses are
necessary to make a will, two parties are required to be present at
a marriage and to attest the entry in the marriage register; in
the case of blasphemy, perjury, personation and most forms of treason, two or more witnesses are necessary to justify conviction.

Witnesses to bills of sale under the Bills of Sale Act 1882, and
witnesses on a charge of personation at elections, are required to be
credible. And in the case of dishonour of a foreign bill of ex-
change, the civil and military military postal, a person who has been bound in bond or manslaughter from the law merchant or a concession to continental practice. A warrant of attorney must be attested by a solicitor, and certain conveyances of property held on charitable uses must be attested by a solicitor or a conveyancer. The evidence of a witness is not sufficient unless corroborated in some material particular—not necessarily by another witness—e.g. in actions of
brandy, perjury, or defamation, or in actions for death from an injury caused by a misdeal or mismanagement of a mechanical or
manual cause, or when unsworn evidence of children is admissible.

In practice, but not in strict law, the evidence of an accomplice is required to be corroborated.

The test of the rule in theory has never permitted examination
by torture—unless certain forms of cross-examination can be
so described. In trials in the court of admiralty the Roman system
was adopted until 1752 (Henry VIII. c. 15). Torture in Scotland was abolished at the Union.

1 The provisions of the Marriage Act 1832 appear to be directory.
2 The giving of evidence unsworn appears to have been at one
time regarded as a privilege. The men of Ripon, for instance, were
by a charter of Athelstan be believed on their yea and nay in all
disputes.
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Witnesses are also privileged from making disclosure of matters known to them in the following cases: (1) Public officers, as to matters coming within their official cognizance if they can swear that it is inconsistent with the public service to disclose them. This applies to state secrets, and extends to journals as to what passed between them, and the public prosecutor; and the police on this ground refuse to disclose the sources of information leading to indictments for the breach of the peace. (2) Medical practitioners, in matters concerning their clients, unless the communications are in themselves part of a criminal or unlawful enterprise. English law declines to extend professional privilege to communications between doctor and patient or lawyer and client, as between the most European countries, and in many British colonies, medical privilege is recognized as to matters communicated to the doctor or even discovered by him in attending the patient, but in Catholic countries confessions to a priest are stern. In England it is not now the practice to insist on evidence by a minister of religion as to matters confessed to him as such. (3) Communications between husband and wife during the marriage, are also privileged, at least so far as they are not derived from documentary evidence preserved by modern legislation (1853, c. 83, s. 3; 1868, c. 36, s. 1, r.d.).

It is correlative to the obligation of a witness to testify that no action may be brought against him under English law for any false statement made by him in the course of his testimony in judicial proceedings (Seaman v. Netherfield, 1871, 1 C.P.D. 540; Hudson v. Parn, 1910, 1 B.C.R. 458). If the statement is deliberately false, it is to prosecute him for perjury.

1 In ecclesiastical courts the punishment was by excommunication.

On charges of treason lists of the witnesses to be called by the crown must be supplied to the accused. In ordinary indictable cases there is no such obligation, but the names of the witnesses for the crown are written on the back of the indictment; and where the charges are not yet not ascertainable, the prosecution may now established practice to require notice to the accused of their names, and a précis of what they will be called to prove. In Scotland the practice is to give the accused (the panel) (1887, c. 35), and the same rule is observed in France. In the United States the same course is adopted where a capital offence is charged.

The rules as to competence of witnesses have been made substantially the same as in England by modern legislation (1837, c. 37, s. 9; 1840, c. 59, s. 1; 1852, c. 27; 1874, c. 64). Their attendance is procured by citation. Witnesses to produce documents are also allowed.

The evidence of witnesses is taken on oath (in the Scots form) or affirmation. Their privileges are substantially the same as in England, but they may be used for irrelevant defamatory statements volunteered during their evidence, the law of Scotland on this point being the same as under the Dutch Roman law (see Nathan, Common Law of S. Africa, § 1593).

British Possessions.—In India the law as to witnesses and evidence is consolidated in the Indian Evidence Act 1872, which contains in code form the substance of the English law on the subject. The test of competency is understanding: "all persons shall be competent witnesses unless the judge shall be of opinion that, from the nature of the questions put to them or from giving rational answers to these questions by tender years, extreme old age, disease of mind, or any other cause, they are incapable of giving rational answers" (s. 120). Under the Indian Oaths Act (x. of 1873) Hindus or Mahomedans or persons objecting to make an oath may affirm (s. 6). The court may accept an oath or solemn affirmation in any form common amongst or held by any persons of the persuasion or religion to which the witness belongs, unless it is repugnant to justice or decency (s. 8). In the rest of the British empire the laws of evidence are in many cases different. Evidence in the United States, however, is less uniform, for the law as to evidence is quite different in the federal and the states, and even in the states of the same class, the law being different in the different states. There are as many systems of law in the United States as there are states, which put them in a different class. In the larger states the law is not uniform in all the states. While slavery was lawful, the evidence of slaves (and in some states that of free persons of colour) was not received for or against whites. These rules appear to have been absolute until the 14th amendment to the Federal Constitution, and the laws of Delaware and Nebraska discriminate against free persons of colour. Incompetency by compulsion is the rule in the United States. (See 1 U.S. Stat. § 5392 and in those of a few states (see Wigmore, p. 654 n.).

European Countries. In the law of most European states the Roman law as to the competency and examination of witnesses is more closely followed than in countries whose law is based on that of England. In criminal cases the prisoner is not only competent but necessary, and the whole system of procedure is inquisitorial. Beginning with interrogation of the accused, not by the state prosecutor, but by the president of the court. In view of this system it is not surprising that the English conception of the rules of proof of evidence has been repugnant under the continental system the person who puts the questions is the person who has to determine their relevance. In France consanguinity and affinity to the party disqualify a witness in civil cases. He is also asked whether he is employer or servant of the parties (Code Civil, Proc. 262, 268). In criminal cases a like inquiry is made. Consanguinity and affinity in the case of lunatics may be a ground of disqualification if the objection is taken, as it may also in the case of lunatics, with pecuniary interest in the penalty (Code d’intr. Crim. 75, 322). Husband and wife cannot testify for or against each other even after divorce (ib.). In France disability to be a witness may be inferred as to a witness of the same crime with the accused in the penal, art. 42).

(W. F. C.)

WITNEY, a market town in the Woodstock parliamentary division of Oxfordshire, England, on the River Windrush, a tributary of the Thames, 73 m. S.W. of London on the Great Gloucestershire branch of the Great Western railway. Pop. of urban district (1901) 3574. The urban district was extended in 1808 to include portions of the scattered villages of Halley and
Curbridge. Witney is the seat of an old-established industry in blanket-making, and gloves and other woollen goods are also made. The broad main street contains several picturesque houses of the 17th century and later, and in it stands the Butter Cross, supported on columns and dating from 1683. The grammar school was founded in 1683, and a Blue Coat School in 1723. The great church of St Mary is one of the finest in the county. It is cruciform with a lofty central tower and spire, the latter considered to be a direct development of the early spire of the cathedral at Oxford. The tower is Early English, but the church exhibits the other styles, including a remarkable Norman porch. At Cogges, in the water-meadows bordering the river immediately below Witney, a considerable area was surveyed in the 13th century by Frederic of Fécamp, and of this there are Early English remains in the vicarage, while the church is mainly Decorated. The foundation, however, dates from the 11th century.

The manor of Witney (Wytnyne, Wytny, Witney) was held by the see of Winchester before the Conquest. It was sold in 1649, but was given back to the bishopric at the Restoration. In the middle of the 18th century it was leased by the bishop of Winchester to the duke of Marlborough. Witney was a borough by prescription at least as early as 1278, and sent representatives to Parliament several times, or regularly from 1304 to 1327. The government was by the steward and bailiffs of the bishop of Winchester, assisted by constables, wardmen and other officers. A woollen industry was probably established at an early date, for there is reference to a fulling mill in a charter of King Edgar dated 909. In 1641 the blanket-makers petitioned the crown against vexatious trade regulations; in 1673 the town is described as "driving a good trade for blankets and rugs." In 1711 the blanket-makers obtained a charter making them into a company, consisting of a master, assistants, two wardens and a constable. In 1731 the bishop of Winchester received a grant of a five days' fair at Witney at the feast of St Leonard. In 1728 the bishop was declared to have at Witney a weekly market on Thursday and two fairs on the day of Ascension and on St Leonard's day. A further grant of two yearly fairs was made in 1741 to the bishop of Winchester at his manor of Witney, namely, on the vigil and day of St Clement the Pope, and at the feast of St Barnabas.


WITOWT, or WIÓŁD (1350-1430), grand-duke of Lithuania, son of Kiejstut, prince of Samogitia, first appears prominently in 1382, when the Teutonic Order set him up as a candidate for the throne of Lithuania in opposition to his cousin Jagiello (see Wladislaus), who had treacherously murdered Witowt's father and seized his estates. Witowt, however, convinced himself that the German knights were far more dangerous than his Lithuanian rival; he accepted pacific overtures from Jagiello and became his ally. When Jagiello ascended the throne of Poland as Wladislaus II. in 1386, Witowt was at first content, with the principality of Grodno; but jealousy of Skirgiello, one of Jagiello's brothers, to whom Jagiello committed the government of Lithuania, induced Witowt to ally himself once more with the Teutonic Order (treaty of Königsberg, 24th of May 1390). He strengthened his position by giving his daughter Sophia in marriage to Vasily, grand-duke of Muscovy; but he never felt secure beneath the wing of the Teutonic Order, and when Jagiello removed Skirgiello from the government of Lithuania and offered it to Witowt, the compact of Ostrow (3rd of August 1392) settled all differences between them. Nevertheless, subsequent attempts on the part of Poland to subordinate Lithuania drove Witowt for the third time into the arms of the Order, and by the treaty of Salin in 1398, Witowt, who now styled himself Supremus Dux Lituanorum, even went so far as to cede his ancestral province of Samogitia to the knights, and to form an alliance with them for the conquest and partition of Pskov and Great Novgorod. His ambition and self-confidence at this period knew no bounds. He nourished the grandiose idea of driving out the hordes of Tamerlane, freeing all Russia from the Tatar yoke, and proclaiming himself emperor of the

North and East. This dream of empire was dissipated by his terrible defeat of the Lower Danier by the Tatarams on the 17th of August 1399. He was now convinced that the true policy of Lithuania was the closest possible alliance with Poland. A union between the two countries was effected at Vilna on the 18th of January 1401, and was confirmed and extended by subsequent treaties. Witowt was to reign over Lithuania as an independent grand-duke, but the two states were to be indissolubly united by a common policy. The result was a whole series of wars with the Teutonic Order, which now acknowledged Skirgiello, another brother of Jagiello, as grand-duke of Lithuania; and though Skirgiello was defeated and driven from the country by Witowt at the battle of Grunewald, the Hussite invasion, and the barbarous methods of "converting," the wretched inhabitants finally induced Witowt to rescue his fellow-countrymen at any cost from the tender mercies of the knights. In the beginning of 1409 he concluded a treaty with Jagiello at Novogrudok for the purpose, and on the 9th of July 1410 the combined Polish-Lithuanian forces, reinforced by Hussite auxiliaries, crossed the Prussien border. The rival forces encountered at Grunewald, or Tannenberg, and there on the 14th or 15th of July 1410 was fought one of the decisive battles of the world, for the destruction of the Order, which, after four centuries of existence, was for once totally crushed. They never recovered. After this battle Poland-Lithuania began to be regarded in the west as a great power, and Witowt stood in high favour with the Roman curia. In 1425, instigated by the emperor Sigismund, whom he magnificently entertained at his court at Lutsk, Witowt revived his claim to a kingly crown, and Jagiello reluctantly consented to his cousin's coronation; but before it could be accomplished Witowt died at Troki, on the 27th of October 1430. He was certainly the most imposing personality of his day in eastern Europe, and his martial valor was combined with statesmanlike foresight.

See Jozef Ignacz Kraszewski, Litwiana wpod Wotowt (Pol.) (Wilna, 1850); Augustin Theiner, Venera Monumenta Poloniae (Kome, 1860-1864); Karol Szajnocha, Jadwiga i Jagiello (Pol.) (1350-1434); T. Baran-Fini, The Years of Poland-Lithuania (Pol.) (Wilna, 1835-1836); Codex epistolarius Witoldi Magnus (ed. Prochaska, Cracow, 1882).

R. N. B.)

WITSIUS, HERMANN (1636-1708), Dutch theologian, was born at Enkhuysen, North Holland, and studied at Gröningen, Leiden and Utrecht. He was ordained to the ministry, becoming pastor at Westwood in 1656 and afterwards at Wormeren, where he became rector and dean, and Leuvenaard, and became professor of divinity successively at Freiberg and Utrecht (1680-1683). In 1698 he went to Leiden as the successor of Friedrich Spahnheim the younger (1632-1701). He died at Leiden on the 22nd of October 1708.

Witsius tried to mediate between the orthodox theology and the "federal" system of Johannes Cocceius, but did not succeed in pleasing either party. The more important of his works are:

Iudaus christiansannis—circa principia fidei et SS. Trinitatem (Utrecht, 1661); De oeconomia foederum Dei cum hominibus (1677), still regarded as one of the clearest and most suggestive expositions of the so-called "federal" theology; Diatribae de septem epistolam apocalipticam sensum historico ac propter (Franeker, 1678); Exercitationes sacrae in symbolum quod apostolici didicet in gloria Domini (Franeker, 1684); Miscellaneae sacrae (Utrecht, 1692-1700, 2 vols).

WITTE, SERGE JUDJEVIC, COUNT (1849—), Russian statesman, was born at Tiflis, where his father (of Dutch extraction) was a member of the Viceregal Council of the Caucasus. His mother was a lady of the Fadeyev family, by whom he was brought up as a member of the Eastern Orthodox Church and thoroughly imbued with nationalist feeling in the Russian sense of the term. After completing his studies at Odessa University, in the faculty with which his special pursuit was physical science, and devoting some time to journalism in close relations with the Slavophils and M. Katkov, he entered in 1877 the service of the Odessa State railway, and so distinguished himself in the transport operations necessitated by the Turkish campaign of 1877-1878, that he was soon afterwards appointed general traffic manager of the South-Western railway of Russia and member of an Imperial commission which had to study the whole question of railway construction and management throughout.
the empire. His speciality was an intimate acquaintance with the problem of railway rates in connexion with the general economic development of the country, and in 1884 he published a work on the subject which attracted some attention in the official and the press, especially in Prussia. He was appointed state railway commissioner in Bavaria, and up to 1890 held this position, when he was appointed by the state railway commissioner in the financial administration of the railways, where he was the head of the railway department. He was also an ardent disciple of the railway reform, and had a good knowledge of the railway system of Germany and the rest of the world. He was one of the first to introduce modern railway techniques and systems in Bavaria.

Bertold I., with greatly reduced privileges. Arnulf's younger son, Arnulf II., continued the struggle against Otto I., and sometime before his death in 934 was made count palatine in Bavaria. This office did not become hereditary, however, and his descendants bore simply the title of counts of Schevern until about 1116, when the German king Henry V. recognized Count Otto V. as count palatine in Bavaria. His son, Count Otto VI., who succeeded his father in 1155, accompanied the German king, Frederick I., to Italy in 1154, where he distinguished himself by his courage, and later rendered valuable assistance to Frederick in Germany. When Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony and Bavaria, was placed under the imperial ban in 1180, Otto's services were rewarded by the investiture of the dukedom of Bavaria at Altenburg. Some 500 years later, the time of Otto I. Bavaria has been ruled by the Wittelsbachs.

Otto died at Pfuhlendorf in 1183, and was succeeded in the duchy by his son, Louis I. (1174-1231), but the dignity of count palatine in Bavaria passed to his brother Otto, whose son Otto, succeeding in 1189, murdered the German king Philipp at Bamberg on the 21st of June 1208. He was placed under the ban by the emperor Otto IV., and was killed at Oberndorf, near Regensburg, by Henry of Kalden, marshal of the empire, in March 1209. His lands passed to his son Louis, then only nine years old, who began his rule in 1212. In 1208 he destroyed the ancestral castle of the Wittelsbach, the site of which is now marked by a church and an obelisk.

At first Louis supported Otto IV. in his struggle with Frederick of Hohenstaufen (the emperor Frederick II.), but deserted his cause when Frederick invested his son, Otto, with the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1214. Louis appears to have been previously promised this succession, and to strengthen his claim married his son, Otto, to Agnes, the sister of Henry, the count palatine, who died without heirs in 1214. Louis accompanied the Crusaders to Damietta in 1221, and governed Germany as regent from 1235 until 1248, when he deserted Frederick II. at the instigation of Pope Gregory IX. He was murdered at the bridge of Kelheim on the 15th of September 1231, and the emperor was generally suspected of complicity in the deed. Louis' son, Otto the Illustrious (1206-1233), undertook the government of the Palatinate in 1228, and became duke of Bavaria in 1231. He was attached to the Hohenstaufen by the marriage of his daughter, Elizabeth, with Conrad, son of Frederick II. in 1246. He supported Frederick in his struggle with the anti-kings, Henry Raspe, landgrave of Thuringia, and William II., count of Holland, and was put under the papal ban by Pope Innocent IV., but, after being laid up with the gout, went to Italy in 1251. Otto remained as his representative in Germany, until his death on the 29th of November 1253. He left two sons, Louis and Henry, who reigned jointly until 1255, when a division of the lands was made, by which Louis II. (1228-1294) received upper Bavaria and the Palatinate of the Rhine, and Henry I. (d. 1290) lower Bavaria. Louis, who soon became the most powerful prince in southern Germany, was called "the Stern," because in a fit of jealousy he caused his first wife, Maria of Brabant, to be executed in 1256. He was the uncle and guardian of Conrad of Hohenstaufen, whom he assisted to make his journey to Italy in 1257, and accompanied as far as Verona. When Conradin was executed in 1268 Louis inherited his lands in Germany, sharing them with his brother Henry. In 1273 he was a candidate for the German crown, but was induced to support Rudolph, count of Habsburg, whose eldest daughter, Matilda, he married in this year. He was a great source of strength to the Habsburgs until his death in 1294. Lower Bavaria was ruled by the descendants of Henry I. until the death of his great-grandson, John I., in 1340, when it was again united with upper Bavaria. The sons of Louis, Rudolph I. (d. 1310) and Louis, who became German king as Louis IV. in 1314, ruled their lands in common, but after some trouble between them Rudolph abdicated in 1317.

In 1320 the most important division of the Wittelsbach lands took place. By the treaty of Pavia in this year, Louis granted the Palatinate of the Rhine and the upper Palatinate of Bavaria to
to his brother’s sons, Rudolph II. (d. 1532) and Rupert I. Rupert, who from 1535 to 1590 was sole ruler, gained the electoral dignity for the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1535 by a grant of some lands in present-day Bavaria to the Elector Charles IV. It had been exercised from the division of 1329 by both branches in turn. The descendants of Louis IV. retained the rest of Bavaria, but made several divisions of their territory, the most important of which was in 1392, when the branches of Ingoldstadt, Munich, and Landshut were founded. These were reunited under Albert IV., duke of Bavaria-Munich (1447-1508) and the upper Palatinate was added to them in 1628. Albert’s descendants ruled over a united Bavaria, until the death of Duke Maximilian III. in 1777, when it passed to the Elector Palatine, Charles Theodore. The Palatinate of the Rhine, after the death of Rupert I. in 1590, passed to his nephew, Rupert II., and in 1598 to his son, Rupert III., who was German king from 1400 to 1410. On his death it was divided into four branches. Three of these had died out by 1550, and their possessions were inherited by the fourth or Sinnern line, among whom the Palatinate was again divided (see Palatinat).

In 1742, after the extinction of the two senior lines of this family, the Sulzbach branch became the senior line, and its head, the elector Charles Theodore, inherited Bavaria in 1777. He died in 1799, when it passed to his son, Joseph, head of the Sulzbach branch, inherited Bavaria and the Palatinate. He took the title of king of Maximilian I.

In 1623, when the elector Frederick V. (the “Winter King”) was driven from his dominions, the electoral privilege was transferred to Bavaria, and in 1648, by the Peace of Westphalia, an eighth electorate was created for the Wittelsbachs of the Palatinate, and was exercised by the senior branch of the family.

The Wittelsbachs gave three kings to Germany, Louis IV., Rupert and Charles VII. Members of the family were also margraves of Brandenburg from 1333 to 1373, and kings of Sweden from 1624 to 1718.

See J. Döllinger, Das Haus Wittelsbach und seine Bedeutung in der deutschen Geschichte (Munich, 1880); J. F. Bömer, Wittelsbäschische Regesten bis 1540 (Stuttgart, 1854); F. M. Wittmann, Monumenta Wittelsbacensis (Urkundenbuch, Munich, 1857-1861); K. T. Heigel, Die Wittelsbacher (Munich, 1880); F. Leitschuh, Die Wittelsbacher in Bayern (Bamberg, 1894).

WITTEN, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Westphalia, favourably situated among the coal-fields of the Ruhr, 14 m. E. of Essen and 16 miles by rail from Dortmund.

WITTENBERG, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Saxony, situated on the Elbe, 50 m. by rail S.W. of Berlin, on the main line to Halle and at the junction of railways to Falkenberg, Torgau and Rosslau.

The parish church, in which Luther often preached, was built in the 14th century, but has been much altered since Luther’s time. It contains a magnificent painting by Lucas Cranach the elder, representing the Lord’s Supper, Baptism and Confession, also a font by Hermann Vischer (1457). The present infantry barracks were at one time occupied by the university of Wittenberg, founded in 1502, but merged in the university of Halle in 1815. Luther was appointed professor of philosophy here in 1508; and the new university rapidly acquired a considerable reputation from its connexion with the early Reformers. In opposition to the strict Lutheran orthodoxy of Jean it represented the more moderate doctrines of Melanchthon. In the Wittenberg Concord (1536) the reformers agreed to a settlement of the eucharistic controversy. Shakespeare made Wittenberg, and Horatio study at Wittenberg. The ancient electoral palace is another of the buildings that suffered severely in 1700; it now contains archives. Melanchthon’s house and the house of Lucas Cranach the elder (1472-1553), who was burgomaster of Wittenberg, are also pointed out. Statues of Luther (by Schadow), Melanchthon and Bugenhagen embellish the town. The spot, outside the Elster Gate, where Luther publicly burned the papal bull in 1520, is marked by an oak tree. Floriculture, iron-founding, distilling and brewing are carried on. The country manufactures include the manufacture of the heavier kinds of cloth has died out.

Wittenberg is mentioned as early as 1280. It was the capital of the little duchy of Saxe-Wittenberg, the rulers of which afterwards became electors of Saxony; and it continued to be a Saxon residence under the Ernestine electors. The Capitulation of Wittenberg (1547) is the name given to the treaty by which John Frederick the Magnanimous was compelled to resign the electoral dignity and most of his territory to the Albertine branch of the Saxon family. In 1760 the town was bombarded by the Russians and shelled by the French, and refortified in 1813 by command of Napoleon; but in 1814 it was stormed by the Prussians under Taupitzentz, who received the title of “von Wittenberg” as a reward. Wittenberg continued to be a fortress of the third class until the reorganization of the German defences after the foundation of the new empire led to its being dismantled in 1873.

See Mesny, Geschichte der Stadt Wittenberg (Essen, 1858); Steitz, Die Schlösser und Veste zu Wittenberg (Wittenberg, 1860); Zittlow, Die Begräbnisstätten Wittenbergs und ihre Denkmäler (Wittenberg, 1897); and Gurlitt, “Die Lutherstadt Wittenberg,” in Muther’s Deutsche Kunst (Berlin, 1902).

WITTENBERGE, a town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg, on the Elbe, near the influx of the Stepenitz into that river, 72 m. N.W. from Berlin by the main line of railway to Hamburg, and at the junction of railways to Stendal, Lüneburg and Perleberg.

The magnificent bridge here spanning the Elbe, one mile in length, was built in 1851 at a cost of £237,500. The chief industries are the manufacture of railway plant, cloth, wool, soap, shoddy, furniture, bricks and cement.

WITTEGENSTEIN, LUDWIG ADOLF PETER, Count, prince of Sayn-Wittenstein-Ludwigsburg (1760-1843), Russian soldier, was descended from a family of independent citizens in Westphalia. His father had settled in Russia, and he entered the army, distinguishing himself in the Polish War of 1794-95, and then serving in the Caucasus. In 1805 he fought at Austerlitz, in 1806 against the Turks and in 1807 against Napoleon at Friedland and against the Swedes in Finland. In the war of 1812 he commanded the right wing army of the Russians. In the campaign of 1813 in January he took over the command of the Russian army after Kutuzov’s death. But after the defeat of the Spring campaign he laid down this command and led an army corps during the Dresden and Leipzig campaigns, and at Bar-sur-Aube in the 1814 campaign he was severely wounded. In 1823 he was promoted field-marshall, and in 1828 he was appointed to command the Russian army in the war against Turkey. But ill health soon obliged him to retire. In 1834 the king of Prussia gave him the title of prince. He died on the 11th of June 1843.
WITTINGAU—WŁADYSŁAUS

WITTINGAU (Czech, Těšet), a town of Bohemia, 95 m. S. of Prague by rail. Pop. (1900) 5467, mostly Czech. The parish church is a Gothic edifice of the 14th century to the side, with fine cloisters; and the chateau, once belonging to the family of Rosenberg, and now Prince Schwarzenberg, dating from the 13th century, is reputed to contain the most extensive and valuable archives in Bohemia. The artificial cultivation of fish, now chiefly carp, in the numerous ponds that surround the town dates from the 14th century.

WITU, or WITI, a sultanate of East Africa included in the Tanaland province of the British East Africa protectorate. It extends along the coast from the town of Kipini at the mouth of the Oal river (2° S. latitude) to the coast of Caramo (2° S.), a distance of 540 m. The chief town, Witu, is 16 m. N. of Kipini. The state was founded by Ahmed-bin-Fumo Luti, the last Nahyan sultan of Patta (an island off the coast), who was conquered by Seyyid Majid of Zanzibar. Ahmed, about 1860, took refuge in the forest district, and made himself an independent chief, acquiring the title of Simba or the Lion. In 1885 Ahmed was induced to place his country under German protection, and in 1887 the limits of Witu were fixed by international agreement. In 1890 Germany transferred her protectorate to Great Britain. In the autumn of the same year a British naval squadron under Sir E. Fremantle was sent against the sultan Bakari, who had succeeded Ahmed in 1887 and by whose orders nine German traders and settlers had been murdered. Disorders continued until 1894, and in the following year Omar-bin-Hamed of the Nahban dynasty—an ancient race of Asiatic origin—was recognized as sultan. The sultan is guided by a British resident, and the state since the accession of Sultan Omar has been both peaceful and prosperous. The population of the sultanate is over 15,000; of the town of Witu 6000, chiefly Swahili. The port of Witu is Mkonumbe (pop. 1000). WIVESCOB, a market town in the western parliamentary division of Somersetshire, England, 94 m. W. of Taunton by the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901), 2246. It stands on a picturesque sloping site in a hilly district, and has some agricultural trade and a brewing industry, while in the neighbourhood are slate quarries.

Traces of a large Roman camp may still be seen to the south-east of Wiveliscombe (Wellescombe, Wilscome, Writscombe), which is near the line of a Roman road, and hoards of Roman coins have been discovered in the neighbourhood. The town probably borrowed its name from the position for which it was the site of a Danish fort, later replaced by a Saxon settlement. The overlords were the bishops of Bath and Wells, who had a palace and park here. They obtained a grant of freewarren in 1257. No charter granting self-government to Wiveliscombe has been found, and the only evidence for the traditional existence of a borough is that part of the town is called "the borough," and that until the middle of the 19th century a bailiff and a portreeve were annually chosen by the court leet. A weekly market on Tuesdays, granted to the bishop of Bath and Wells in 1384, is still held. During the 17th and 18th centuries the town was a centre of the woollen manufacture.

WŁADYSŁAUS (Władysław), the name of four kings of Poland and two Polish kings of Hungary.

WŁADYSŁAUS I. (1260-1333), king of Poland, called Lokietek, or "Span-long," from his diminutive stature, was the re-creator of the Polish realm, which in consequence of internal quarrels had at the end of the 13th century split up into fourteen independent principalities, and become an easy prey to her neigh- bours, Bohemia, Lithuania, and, most dangerous of all, the Teutonic Order. In 1296 the gentry of Great Poland elected Wladyslaw, then prince of Cujavia, to reign over them; but

1 In Hungarian history the Polish Władysław (Mag. Ullásfal) is distinguished from the Hungarian Ladislaus (László). They are reckoned separately for purposes of numbering. Besides the Władysław kings of Poland, there were three earlier dukes of this name: Władysław I. (d. 1102), Władysław II. (of Cracow, d. 1163), and Władysław III., duke of Great Poland and Cracow (d. 1231). By some historians these are included in the numbering of the Polish sovereigns, King Władysław I. being thus IV. and so on.

WŁADYSŁAUS II., JAGIELLO (1350-1434), king of Poland, was one of the twelve sons of Oligerd, grand-duke of Lithuania, who succeeded his father in 1317. From the very beginning of his reign Jagiello was involved in disputes with the Teutonic Order, and with his uncle, the valiant Kiejstut, who ruled Samogitia independently. By the treaty of Davidszeik (June 1, 1380) he contracted an alliance with the knights, and two years later, acting on the advice of his evil counsellor, Wojdylio, enticed Kiejstut and his consort to Krewo and there treacherously murdered them (Aug. 15, 1382). This foul deed naturally drove Witowt (q.v.), the son of Kiejstut, into the arms of the Order; but both princes speedily recognized that the knights were the real enemies of Lithuania, and prudently composing their differences invaded Prussian territory. This was the beginning of the fifty years' struggle with the Teutonic Order which was to make the reign of Jagiello so memorable. He looked about him betimes for allies against the common enemy of the Slavonic races, and fortune singularly favoured him. The Poles had brought their young queen Jadwiga home from Hungary, and in 1384 Jagiello sent a magnificent embassy to Cracow offering her his hand on condition that they shared the Polish crown. Jadwiga had long been betrothed to William of Austria: but she sacrificed her predilections for her country's good. On the 15th of February 1386 Jagiello, who had previously been elected king of Poland under the title of Władysław II., accepted the Roman faith in the cathedral of Cracow, and on the 18th his espousals with Queen Jadwiga were solemnized. Jagiello's first political act after his coronation was the conversion of Lithuania to the true religion. This solemn act was accomplished at Vilna, the Lithuanian capital, on the 17th of February 1387, when a stately concourse of nobles and prelates, distrusting the capacity of the taciturn little man, they changed their minds and placed themselves under the protection of the powerful Wenceslaus, king of Bohemia, who was crowned at Nesen in 1306. Władysław thereupon went to Rome, where Pope Boniface VIII., jealous of the growing influence of Bohemia, adopted his cause; and on the death of Wenceslaus in 1305 Władysław succeeded in uniting beneath his sway the principalities of Little and Great Poland. From the first he was beset with great difficulties. The towns, mostly of German origin, and the prelates headed by Muskatka, bishop of Cracow, were against him because he endeavoured to make use of their riches for the defence of the sorely pressed state. The rebellious marquises of Czarnyberg and others were pressing, but he had to invoke the aid of the Teutonic Order to save Danzig from the margraves of Brandenburg, thus saddling Poland with a far more dangerous enemy; for the Order not only proceeded to treat Danzig as a conquered city, but claimed possession of the whole of Pomerania. Władysław thereupon (1317) appealed to Pope John XXII., and a tribunal of local prelates appointed by the holy see ultimately (Feb. 9, 1321) pronounced judgment in favour of Władysław, and condemned the Order not only to restore Pomerania but also to pay heavy damages. But the tribunal was a mere fiction, and the Pope did not send a man to take charge of the kingdom. This was the beginning of the rebirth of the nation. Jagiello's crown was not unreasonable; for the country was now at peace, the national consciousness had been awakened, the power of the nobles had been checked, and the wealth of the country was increasing. All these causes combined to enable Jagiello to begin the very long work of converting Poland into a nation.
headed by the king, proceeded to the grove of secular oaks beneath which stood the statue of Perkusno and other idols, and in the presence of an immense multitude hewed down the oaks, destroyed the idols, extinguished the sacred fire and elevated the cross on the desecrated heathen altars, 30,000 Lithuanians receiving Christian baptism. A Catholic hierarchy was immediately set up. A Polish Franciscan, Andrew Wassilko, was consecrated as the first Catholic bishop of Vilna, and Lithuania was divided ecclesiastically into seven dioceses. Mainly on the initiative of Queen Jadwiga, Red Russia with its capital the great trading city of Lemberg was persuaded to acknowledge the dominion of Poland; and there on the 27th of September 1387 the hospodars of Walachia and Moldavia for the first time voluntarily enrolled themselves among the vassals of Poland.

With savage Lithuania converted and in close alliance with Catholic Poland, the Teutonic Order was seriously threatened. The knights endeavoured to re-establish their position by sowing dissensions between Poland and Lithuania. In this for a time they succeeded (see Bytown); but in 1401 Jagiello recognized Witowt as independent grand-duke of Lithuania (union of Vilna, Jagiello 18, 1401), and their union was cemented in the battle of Grunewald, which shook the whole fabric of the Teutonic Order to its very foundations. Henceforth a remarkable change in the whole policy of the Order was apparent. The struggle was no longer for dominion but for existence. Fortunately for them, in Jagiello they possessed an equally cautious and pacific opponent. Wladislaus II., in sharp contrast to Witowt, was of anything but a martial temperament. He never swerved from his main object, to unite Poland and Lithuania against the dangerous denationalizing German influences which environed him. He would take no risks and always preferred craft to violence. Hence his leaning upon the holy see in all his disputes with his neighbours. Hence, too, his moderation at the peace of Thorn (1st of February 1411), when the knights skillfully extricated themselves from their difficulties by renouncing their pretensions to Samogitia, restoring Dobrzyn and paying a war indemnity; Jagiello was content to discredit them rather than provoke them to a war à outrance. Equally skilful was Jagiello's long diplomatic duel with the emperor Sigismund, then the disturbing element of Central Europe, who aimed at the remodelling of the whole continent and was responsible for the first projected partition of Poland.

Jagiello was married four times. At the dying request of the childless Jadwiga he espoused a Styrian lady, Maria Cillel, who bore him a daughter, also called Jadwiga. His third wife, Elizabeth Grabowska, died without issue, and the question of the succession then became so serious that Jagiello's advisers counselled him to betroth his daughter to Frederick of Hohenzollern, who was to be educated in Poland as the heir to the throne. But in 1422 Jagiello himself solved the difficulty by wedding Sofia of Vyazma, a Russian lady rechristened Sophia, who bore him two sons, Wladislaus and Casimir, both of whom ultimately succeeded him. Jagiello died at Grodko near Lemberg in 1434. During his reign of half a century Poland had risen to the rank of a great power, a position she was to retain for nearly two hundred years under the dynasty which Jagiello had founded.

See August Sokolowski, History of Poland, vol. I. (Pol.) (Vienna, 1909); Wladyslaw Dyjas, Ruso-Litowskom Actu (St. Petersburg, 1868); Monumenta Medii Aevi (Cracow, 1882); Karol Szajnocha, Jadwiga and Jagiello (Pol.) (Lemberg, 1855-1866);

Wladislaus III. (1424-1444), king of Poland and Hungary, the eldest son of Wladislaus II. Jagiello, by his fourth wife, Sophia of Vyazma, was born at Cracow on the 31st of October 1434, succeeding to the throne in his tenth year. The domestic troubles which occurred during his minority had an important influence on the development of the Polish constitution; but under the wise administration of Zbigniew Olesnicki Poland suffered far less from her rebels than might have been anticipated, and Wladislaus gave the first proof of his manhood by defeating thearch-treacher Spytek of Melzyn in his camp at Grotnik on the 4th of May 1439. On the sudden death of the emperor Albert, who was also king of Bohemia and Hungary, the Hungarians elected Wladislaus as their king, despite the opposition of the widowed empress Elizabeth, already big with the child who subsequently ascended the Hungarian throne as Wladislaus V. But Wladislaus III., who was solemnly crowned king of Hungary at Buda by the Magyar primate in July 1440, had to fight against the partisans of the empress for three years till Pope Eugenius IV. mediated between them so as to enable Wladislaus to lead a crusade against the Turks. War was proclaimed against Sultan Murad II. at the dict of Buda on Palm Sunday 1443, and with an army of 40,000 men, mostly Magyars, the young prince started for the Danube with Peter of Bosnia. But the Danube, took Nish and Sofia, and advancing to the slope of the Balkans, returned to Hungary covered with glory. Europe resounded with the praises of the youthful hero, and the Venetians, the Genoese, the duke of Burgundy and the pope encouraged Wladislaus to continue the war by offering him every assistance. But at this juncture the sultan offered terms to Wladislaus through George Brankovic, despot of Servia, and, by the peace of Szeged (July 1, 1444), Murad engaged to surrender Servia, Albania and whatever territory the Ottomans had ever conquered, resuming all fortresses, besides paying an indemnity of 100,000 florins in gold. Unfortunately, Wladislaus listened to the representations of the papal legate, Cardinal Julian Cesarini, who urged him in the name of religion to break the peace of Szeged and resume the war. Despite the representations of the Poles and of the majority of the Magyars, the king, only two days after solemnly swearing to observe the terms of the treaty, crossed the Danube a second time to cooperate with a fleet from the West which was to join hands with the land army at Gallipoli, whither also the Greeks and the Balkan Slaves were to direct their auxiliaries. But the Walachians were the sole allies of Hungary who kept faith with her, and on the bloody field of Varna, November the 10th, 1444, Wladislaus lost his life and more than a fourth of his army.

See Julian Batorzewicz, View of the Relations of Poland with the Turks and Tatars (Pol.) (Warsaw, 1860); August Sokolowski, History of Poland, vol. II. (Pol.) (Vienna, 1904); Ignacz A. Grabowska, History of the Hungarian Realm, vol. I. (Hung.) (Budapest, 1905);

Wladislaus IV. (1595-1648), king of Poland, son of Sigismund III., king of Poland, and Anne of Austria, succeeded his father on the throne in 1632. From his early youth he gave promise of great military talent, and served his apprenticeship in the science of war under Zolkiewski in the Muscovite campaigns of 1610-1612, and under Chodkiewicz in 1617-1618. Wladislaus's first official act was to make the Muscovite sultan desist from declaring war against Poland immediately after the death of Sigismund, and to besieging Smolensk, the key of Poland's eastern frontier. After a series of bloody engagements (Aug. 7-22, 1632) Wladislaus compelled the tsar's general to abandon the siege, and eventually to surrender (March 1, 1634) with his whole army. Meanwhile the Turks were threatening in the south, and Wladislaus found it expedient to secure his Muscovite conquests. Peace was concluded at the river Polyanokova on the 28th of May 1634, the Poles conceding the title of tsar to Michael Romanov, who renounced all his claims upon Livonia, Estonia and Courland, besides paying a war indemnity of 200,000 rubles. These tidings profoundly impressed Sultan Murad, and when the victorious Wladislaus appeared at Lemberg, the usual starting-point for Turkish expeditions, the Porte offered terms which were accepted in October, each power engaging to keep their borderers, the Cossacks and Tatars, in order, and divide between them the suzerainty of Moldavia and Walachia, the sultan binding himself always to place philo-Polish hospodars on those slippery thrones. In the following year the longer war was brought to an end. The Porte, allotted very much to the advantage of Poland, by the truce of Stidendorff, which was to last for twenty-six years from the 12th September 1635. Thus externally Poland was everywhere triumphant. Internally, however, things were in their usually deplorable state owing to the suspicion, jealousy and parsimony of the estates of the realm. They had double reason to be grateful to Wladislaus for defeating the enemies of the republic, for he had also paid for the expenses of his campaigns out of his own pocket.
yet he could not obtain payment of the debt due to him from the state till 1643. He was bound by the pacta conventa which he signed on his accession to maintain a fleet on the Baltic. He proposed to do so by levying tolls on all imports and exports passing through the Prussian ports which had been regained by the truce of Stumendorf. Sweden during her temporary occupation of these ports had derived from them an annual income of 3,600,000 gulden. But when Wladislaus, their lawful possessor, imposed similar tolls in the interests of the republic, Danzig protested and appealed to the Scandinavian powers. Wladislaus's little fleet attempted to blockade the port of the rebellious city, whereupon a Danish admiral broke the blockade and practically destroyed it. This, of course, not only gave Sweden an advantage of her own privileges, allowed the insult to the king and the injury to the state to pass unnoticed, conning at the destruction of the national navy and the depletion of the treasury, "lest warships should make the crown too powerful." For some years after this humiliation, Wladislaus became indifferent to affairs and sank into a sort of apathy; but the birth of his son Sigismund (by his first wife, Cecilia Renata of Austria, in 1640) gave him fresh hopes, and he began with renewed energy to labour for the dynasty as well as for the nation. He saw that Poland, with her existing constitution, could not hope for a long future, and that the results of her present condition would be ruinous. He therefore set about the task of home and national reform along with it by every means in his power. He began by founding the Order of the Immaculate Conception, consisting of 72 young noblemen who swore a special oath of allegiance to the crown, and were to form the nucleus of a patriotic movement antagonistic to the constant usurpations of the diet, but the sejm promptly intervened and quashed the attempt. Then he conceived the idea of using the Cossacks, who were deeply attached to him, as a means of chastising the szlachta, and at the same time forcing a war with Turkey, which would make his military genius indispensable to the republic, and at the same time present him if successful to carry out domestic reforms by force of arms. His chief confidant in this still mysterious affair was the veteran grand hetman of the crown, Stanislaw Koniecpolski, who understood the Cossacks better than any man then living, but differed from the king in preferring the conquest of the Crimea to an open war with Turkey. Simultaneously Wladislaus contracted an offensive and defensive alliance with Venice against the Porte, a treaty directly contrary to the pacta conventa he had sworn to observe, but excusable in the desperate circumstances. This was the first step in the preparation of Koniecpolski before it was matured, partly to the hasting with which the king published his intentions, and partly to the careful avoidance by the Porte of the slightest occasion of a rupture. Frustrated in all his plans, broken-hearted by the death of his son (by his second wife, Marie Ludwika of Angoulême, Wladislaus had no issue), the king, worn out and disillusioned, died at Merecz on the 20th of May 1648, in his 52nd year. After his cousin Gustavus Adolphus, whom in many respects he strikingly resembled, he was indubitably the most amiable and brilliant of all the princes of the House of Vasa.

See Wiktor Czernak, The Plantaimie the Turkish Wars of Wladislaus IV (1632-1648), (Cracow, 1897); V. V. Volk-Karachevsky, The Struggle of Poland with the Cossacks (Russ.) (Kiev, 1899); Letters and other Writings of Wladislaus IV. (Pol.) (Cracow, 1845). (R. N. B.)

**WOAD**—WODEN

**WOAD,** a herbaceous plant, known botanically as *Isatis tinctoria* (natural order Cruciferae), which occurs sporadically in England in fields, on banks and chalk-pits. The erect branched stem, 1 to 3 ft. in height, bears sessile leaves and terminal clusters of small yellow flowers; the brown pendulous pods are ½ in. long. The ancient Britons stained themselves with this plant.

**WOBURN,** a market town in the northern parliamentary division of Bedfordshire, England, with a station (Woburn Sands), on a branch of the London & North-Western railway, 2 m. from the town and 51 m. N.W. by N. from London. Pop. (1901) 1120. It lies in a hollow of a northern spur of the Chiltern Hills, in a finely wooded locality. There is some agricultural trade, and a little straw-plaiting and lace-making are carried on. To the west of the town lies Woburn Park, the demesne of Woburn Abbey, the seat of the dukes of Bedford. The abbey was a Cistercian foundation of 1145, but only scantly remains of the buildings are seen in the mansion which rose on its site. This, with most of the abbey lands, was granted by Henry VIII. to John, Lord Russell, in 1547, who was created earl of Bedford in 1550 (the dukedom dating from 1694). The mansion was begun in 1744; it contains a magnificent collection of paintings and other objects of art.

**WOBURN,** a city of Middlesex county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 10 m. W. by N.W. of Boston. Pop. (1890) 13,495; (1900) 14,254, of whom 3340 were foreign-born and 261 were negroes; 4667 were born in foreign countries; 5462 were born in the state of Massachusetts, 7948 in other states of the Union, and 9945 in a foreign country. The city is served by the southern division of the Boston & Maine railway, and is connected with Burlington, Lexington, Reading, Stoneham, Wilmington, Winchester, Arlington, Boston and Lowell by electric railways. In the city area are several villages, including Woburn proper, known as "the Centre," North Woburn, Woburn Highlands, Cummingsville (in the western part), Mismatch (in the north-east), Montvale (in the east) and Walnut Hill (also in the east). There are two ancient burying-grounds; the oldest, on Park Street, dates from about 1642 and contains the graves of ancestors of four prominent families—Cleveland, Benjamin Harrison, Franklin Pierce and Garfield—and a granite obelisk to the memory of Loammi Baldwin (1744-1807). On Academy Hill is the Warren Academy building used by a Free Industrial School. Forest Park (53 acres) is a fine stretch of natural woods, and there are several small parks and squares; on Woburn Common is the Public Library, by H. H. Richardson, the gift of Charles W.1. The building houses an art gallery and historical museum, and a library of about 50,000 volumes especially rich in Americana. Among colonial houses still standing are the birthplace of Count Rumford (in North Woburn), built in 1744 and now owned by the Rumford Historical Association as a depository for the Rumford Library and historical memorials, and the Baldwin mansion (built partly in 1661 and later enlarged), the home of Loammi Baldwin (1780-1838), known as "the father of civil engineering in America." Woburn's manufactures are concentrated within a small area. The city is the most important leather manufacturing centre of New England: in 1905 the value of the leather product was $2,851,554, being 61-3% of the value of all factory products ($4,654,667); other manufactures are chemicals, leather-working machinery, boots and shoes, glue and cotton goods. Market gardening is an important industry. Woburn, first settled about 1639-1640, was incorporated as a township under its present name in 1642, and was the first township set off from Charlestown. It then included a large part of the present Winchester and the greater part of the present Wilmington and Burlington, separately organized in 1730 and 1790 respectively. It was named after Woburn in Bedfordshire by its chief founder, Edward Johnson (1599-1672), whose work, *The Wonder-Working Providence of Zion's Saviour* (1654; latest ed. 1910), was one of the earliest historical accounts of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. The leather industry was developed by David Cummings at Cummingsville shortly before the War of Independence. Woburn's industrial growth dates from the construction through the township of the old Middlesex Canal. The city was chartered in 1888.


**WOCHA** (Acrutia), a pygmy people of Africa, living in the forests of the Mabode district, south of the Welle. They were discovered (1880-1881) by Dr. W. Junker, who described them as "well proportioned, though the oval-shaped head seemed somewhat too large for the size of the body." Some are of light complexion, like the Akka and Batwa, but as a general rule they belong to the darker, crisper-haired, more genuine negro stock.

**WODEN,** a deity of the Anglo-Saxons, the name being the Anglo-Saxon counterpart of the Scandinavian Odin (q.v.). In German the same god was called Woden or Wuotan. Owing
WOOLFING, MARGARET [PEG] (c. 1714-1760), English actress, was born at Dublin, of poor parents. As a child of ten she played Polly Peachum in a little presentation of The Beggar's Opera, the first Dublin theatre until 1740, when her success as Sir Harry Wildair in The Covent Couple secured her a London engagement. In this, and as Sylvia in The Recruiting Officer, she had a pronounced success, and at Drury Lane and Covent Garden, as well as in Dublin, she appeared in all the plays of the day to ever growing popularity. Among her best impersonations were the elegant women of fashion, like Lady Betty Modish and Lady Townley, and in "breeches parts" she was unapproachable. She lived openly with Garrick, and her other love affairs were numerous and conspicuous. She was a spendthrift, and her beauty and kindliness of heart were equally well known. She educated her sister Mary, and could hardly have pensioned her mother. She built and endowed by will some houses at Teddington, where she lived quietly after her retirement in 1757.

See Austin Dobson's introduction to Charles Reade's novel Peg Woffington (London, 1899), and Augustin Daly's Woffington: a Tribute to the Actress and the Moralist (1886).

WOHLER, FRIEDRICH (1800-1882), German chemist, was born at Eschersheim, near Frankfort-on-the-Main, on the 31st of July 1800. In 1814 he began to attend the gymnasium at Frankfort, where he carried out experiments with his friend Dr J. C. Buch. In 1820 he entered Marburg University, and next year removed to Heidelberg, where he worked in Leopold Gmelin's laboratory. Intending to practise as a physician, he took his degree in medicine and surgery (1825), and was persuaded by Gmelin to devote himself to chemistry. He studied in Berzelius's laboratory at Stockholm, and there began a lifelong friendship with the Swedish chemist. On his return he had proposed to settle as a Privatdozent at Heidelberg, but accepted the post of teacher of chemistry in the newly established technical school (Gewerbeschule) in Berlin (1825), where he remained till 1831. Private affairs then called him to Cassel, where he soon became professor at the higher technical school. In 1836 he was appointed to the chair of chemistry in the medical faculty at Göttingen, holding also the office of inspector-general of pharmacies in the kingdom of Hanover. This professorship he held until his death on the 23rd of September 1882.

Wohler had made the acquaintance of Liebig, his junior by three years, in 1825, and the two men remained close friends and allies during the remainder of their lives. Together they carried out a number of joint researches. One of the earliest, and still unsurpassed, was the investigation, published in 1830, which proved the polymerism of cyanic and cyanuric acid, but the most famous were those on the now known alkali metals, lithium (1846), sodium (1846), potassium (1846), and on uric acid (1837), which are of fundamental importance in the history of organic chemistry. But it was the achievement of Wöhler alone, in 1828, to break down the barrier held to exist between organic and inorganic chemistry by artificially preparing urea, one of those substances which up to that time it had been thought could only be produced through the agency of "vital force.

Most of his work, however, lay in the domain of inorganic chemistry. The isolation of the elementary bodies and the investigation of their properties was one of his favourite pursuits. In 1827 he obtained metallic aluminium as a fine powder, and in 1845 improved methods enabled him to get several metallic globules. Nine years afterwards H. E. Sainte-Claire Deville, ignorant of what he had done, adopted the same methods in his efforts to prepare the metal on an industrial scale; the result of Wöhler's claim of priority was that the two became good friends and joined in a research, published in 1856-1857, which yielded "adamantine boron." By the same method as had succeeded with aluminium (reduction of the chloride by metallic sodium) Wöhler in 1828 obtained metallic beryllium and yttrium. Later, in 1849, titanium engaged his attention, and, proving that what had up to that time passed as the metal was simply a cyanide, he showed how the true metal was to be obtained. He also worked out a process for carrying out an inquiry on the compounds of silicon in which they prepared the previously unknown gas, silicon hydride or silicured. A problem to which he returned repeatedly was that of separating nickel and cobalt from their ores and freeing them from arsenic; and in the course of his long laboratory practice he worked out numerous processes for the preparation of pure chemicals and methods of exact analysis.

The Royal Society's Catalogue enumerates 276 separate memoirs written by him, apart from 43 in which he collaborated with others.
WOHLGEMUTH—WOLCOT

WOORKINGHAM, a market town and municipal borough in the Wokingham parliamentary division of Berkshire, England, 36 m. W. by S. of London by the South-Western railway, served also by the South-Eastern and Chatham railway. Pop. (1901) 3551. It lies on a slight eminence above a valley tributary to that of the river Loddon, in a well-wooded district on the outskirts of the former royal forest of Windsor. The church of St Laurence is Perpendicular, greatly altered by restoration. Two miles west of the town is the village of Bearwood. The trade of Wokingham is principally agricultural. The borough is under a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 557 acres.

Wokingham (Wöorkingh, Oxingh, Ockingham), which was not one of the ancient boroughs of Berkshire and partly in a detached piece of Wiltshire, which is now annexed to Berkshire; the Berkshire portion of the town was in the manor of Sonning, which was held by the bishops of Salisbury from before the Conquest until the reign of Elizabeth. The earliest existing charter to Wokingham is that of Elizabeth (1583), which recites and confirms some ancient customary privileges respecting the election of an alderman and other corporate officers. The governing charter for more than 250 years was that of James I. (1612), incorporating it as a free town under the title of the "Alderman and Burgesses of the Town of Wokingham in the Counties of Berkshire and Wiltshire." Under the provisions of the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882 a new charter of incorporation was granted, instituting a municipal body to consist of a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Wokingham was assessed at £50 for ship-money, and in the raising assessments of 1602 it had a right to sell a manufacture of silk stockings, which flourished as early as 1625, and survived up to the 19th century. The town shared in the benefactions of Laud, and was one of the most important in the county. Its market, which is still held and which, during the first half of the 19th century was devoted for poultry, was granted to the bishop of Salisbury by Henry III. (1219), who also granted (1258) two annual fairs to be held on the sands, and the poor manor of St Barnabas and All Saints respectively; the latter is still kept up, the former appears in the list of fairs held in 1792.

WOLCOT, JOHN (1738–1810), English satirist and poet, known under the pseudonym of PETER PINDAR, was the son of Alexander Wolcot, surgeon at Dodbrooke, adjoining Kingsbridge, in Devonshire, and was baptized there on the 9th of May 1738. He was educated at Kingsbridge free school, at the Bodmin and Liskeard grammar schools, and in France. For seven years he was apprenticed to his uncle, John Wolcot, a surgeon at Poovey, and he took his degree of M.D. at Aberdeen in 1767. In 1769 he was ordained, and went to Jamaica with his uncle's patient, Sir William Trelawny, the new governor. In 1772 he became incumbent of Vere, Jamaica, but on the death of his patron (11th of December 1772) he returned to England, and settled as a physician at Truro. In 1781 Wolcot went to London, and took with him the young Cornish artist, John Opie, whose talents in painting he had been the first to recognize. Before they left Cornwall Wolcot apparently made a rash engagement to share his profits with Wolcot, but a breach between them occurred soon after they settled in London. Wolcot had already achieved some success in a Supplicating Epistle to the Reviewers (1778), and after his settlement in London he threw off with marvellous rapidity a succession of pungent satires. Geoffre III. was his favourite subject of ridicule, and his peculiarities were described or distorted in The Lousiad (1785), Peeps at St James's (1787) and The Royal Visit to Exeter. Two of Wolcot's happiest satires on the 'farmer king' depicted the royal survey of Whitbread's brewery, and the king's naiive wonder how the ale could get into the cask. In the 'parting shot' (1789) he eulogized the prince of Wales. Boswell's biography of Johnson was ridiculed in An Epistle to James Boswell (1786), and in the same year followed another piece, called Beasty and Pionzi. Other subjects were found in Sir Joseph Banks and the Emperor of Morocco (1790), and a Complimentary Epistle to James Bruce (1790). Among his early satires were Lyric Odes to the Academicians (1782), and another series on the same subject Farewell Odes (1786). He specially attacked Benjamin West, but expressed great admiration for the landscapes of Gains- lies and Richard Wilson. He considered himself a mean artist, and in 1797 appeared Six Picturesque Views of Painting by Peter Pindar, engraved by Aiken. In 1795 he disposed of his works to the booksellers for an annuity of £250. His
various pieces were published in 1796 in four octavo volumes and often reprinted. Wolcott cared little whether he hit above or below the belt, and the gross vituperation he indulged in gained him a large following for the pleasure of his readers; but he had a broad sense of humour, a keen eye for the ridiculous, and great felicity of imagery and expression. Some of his serious pieces—his rendering of Thomas Warton's epigram on Sleep and his Lord Gregory, for example—reveal an unexpected fund of genuine tenderness. In William Gifford, who attacked him in the Epistle to P. Pindar, he for once met with more than his match. Wolcott made a personal assault on his enemy in Wright's shop in Piccadilly, but Gifford was too quick for him, and Wolcott was soundly thrashed. He died at Latham Place, Somers Town, London, on the 14th of January 1819, and seven days later was buried, as he had desired, near Samuel Butler, the author of Hudibras, in St. Paul's, Covent Garden.

Polwhele, the Cornish historian, was well acquainted with Wolcott in his early life, and the best account of his residence in the west is found in vol. i. of Polwhele's Traditions and in Polwhele's Biographical Sketches, vol. ii. Cyrus Redding was a frequent visitor at the old man's house, and has described Wolcott's later days in his Past Characters, vol. i., and his Fifty Years' Recollections, vol. i., and.

WOLCOTT, ROGER (1679-1767), American administrator, was born in Windsor, Connecticut, on the 4th of January 1679, the son of Simon Wolcott (d. 1687). He was a grandson of Henry Wolcott (1625-1655) of Galdon Manor, Tolland, Somerset, who emigrated to New England in 1628, assisted John Mason and others to found Windsor, Conn., in 1635, and was a member of the first General Assembly of Connecticut in 1637 and of the House of Magistrates from 1643 to his death. Roger Wolcott was early apprenticed to a weaver and thrown at this trade; he was a member of the Connecticut General Assembly in 1700, one of the Bench of Justices in 1710, commissary of the Connecticut forces in the expedition of 1711 against Canada, a member of the Council in 1714, judge of the county court in 1721 and of the superior court in 1732, and deputy-governor and chief-justice of the superior court in 1741. He was second in command to Sir William Pepperrell, with rank of major-general in the expedition (1745) against Louisbourg, and was governor of Connecticut in 1751-1754. He died in what is now East Windsor, on the 17th of May 1757.

He wrote Poetical Meditations (1725), an epic on The Agency of the Honourable John Winthrop in the Court of King Charles the Second (printed in pp. 262-296 of vol. iv., series 1, Collections of Massachusetts Historical Society) and a pamphlet entitled That "It is more in Congregational churches are and always have been consecrated churches. His Journal at the Siege of Louisbourg is printed in vol. i. (1860) of the Collections of the Connecticut Historical Society.

His son, ERASTUS WOLCOTT (1722-1793) was a member of the Connecticut General Assembly and its speaker; he was a brigadier-general of Connecticut militia in the War of Independence, and afterwards a judge of the Superior Court of Connecticut.

Another son, OLIVER WOLCOTT (1726-1797), graduated at Yale in 1747 and studied medicine with his brother Alexander (1712-1793). In 1751 he was made sheriff of the newly established Litchfield county and settled in Litchfield, where he practised law. He was a member of the Council in 1774-1786 and of the Continental Congress in 1775-1776, 1778 and 1780-1784. Congress made him a commissioner of Indian affairs for the Northern Department in 1775, and during the early years of the War of Independence he was active in raising militia in Connecticut. He was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; commanded Connecticut militia that helped to defend New York City in August 1776; in 1777 organized more Connecticut volunteers and took part in the last few days of the campaign against General John Burgoyne; and in 1779 commanded the militia during the British invasion of Connecticut. In 1784, as one of the commissioners of Indian affairs for the Northern Department, he negotiated the treaty of Fort Stanwix (22nd Oct.) settling the boundaries of the Six Nations.

1 Henry Wolcott the younger (d. 1658) was one of the patentees of Connecticut under the charter of 1662.

In 1756-1756 he was lieutenant-governor of Connecticut, and in November 1787 was a member of the Connecticut Convention which ratified the Federal Constitution; he became governor in 1796 on the death of his brother, Samuel Huntington, and served until his death on the 1st of December 1797.

See the sketch by his son Oliver in Sanderson's Biography of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence (Philadelphia, 1820-1827).

Oliver's son, OLIVER WOLCOTT, Jun. (1760-1833), graduated at Yale in 1778, studied law in Litchfield under Judge Tapping Oliver and was admitted to the bar in 1781. With Oliver Ellsworth he was appointed (May 1784) a commissioner to adjust the claims of Connecticut against the United States. In 1788 he was made comptroller of public accounts of Connecticut; in the next year was appointed auditor of the Federal Treasury; in June 1791 became comptroller of the Treasury, and in February 1795 succeeded Alexander Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury. At the end of 1800 he resigned after a bitter attack by the Democratic-Republican press, against which he defended himself in an Address to the People of the United States. In 1801-1802 he was judge of the Circuit Court of the Second District (Connecticut, Vermont and New York), and then entered business in New York City, where he was president of the short-lived Merchants' Bank (1803) and president (1812-1814) of the Bank of North America. With a brother he then founded factories at Wolcottville (near Litchfield). He re-entered politics as a leader of the "Toleration Republicans," attempting to oust the Congressional clergy from power by adopting a more liberal constitution in place of the charter; he was defeated for governor in 1815, but in 1817 presided over the state convention which adopted a new constitution, and in the same year was elected governor, serving until 1827. He died in New York City on the 1st of June 1833.

His grandson, George Gibbs (1815-1875), in 1846 edited Memoirs of the Administration of Washington and John Adams; ... the Papers of Oliver Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury. Wolcott wrote British Influence on the Affairs of the United States Preserved and Explained (1804).

A grandson of the second Oliver's brother Frederick was ROGER WOLCOTT (1847-1901), who graduated at Harvard in 1869, and was admitted to the Suffolk bar in 1874. He practised law in Boston, and served in the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1882-1884 as a Republican. In 1892 he was elected lieutenant-governor (re-elected 1893 and 1895), and in 1896 became acting-governor upon the death (5th March) of Governor Frederick T. Greenhalge. He was elected governor in 1896 and served until 1900. He died on the 21st of December 1901.

EDWARD OLIVER WOLCOTT (1848-1905), a member of the same family, went to Colorado, became interested in silver mining there, was a U.S. Senator in 1889-1901, and was a prominent Republican bimetallist.

See William Lawrence, Roger Wolcott (1847-1901) (Boston, 1902), and for all the family, Samuel Wolcott, Memorial of Henry Wolcott, one of the first settlers of Windsor, Connecticut, and of some of his Descendants (New York, 1881).

WOLF, FRIEDRICH AUGUST (1759-1824), German philologist and critic, was born on the 15th of February 1759 at Hainrode, a little village not far from Nordhausen, in the province of Hesse. His father was the village schoolmaster and organist. In time the family removed to Nordhausen, and there young Wolf went to the grammar school, where he soon acquired all the Latin and Greek that the masters could teach him, besides learning French, Italian, Spanish and music. The precocity of his attainments was only equalled by the force of will and confidence in his own powers which characterized him throughout life. After two years of solitary study, at the age of fifteen, Wolf went (1777) to the university of Göttingen. His first act there was a prophecy—one of those prophecies which sprang from the conscious power to bring about their fulfilment. He had to choose his "faculty," and chose one which then existed only in his own mind, the faculty of "philology." What is even more remarkable, the omen was accepted. He carried his point, and was enrolled as he desired. C. G. Heyne was then the chief ornament of Göttingen, and Wolf and he were not on good terms. Heyne excluded him from his lectures, and brusquely condemned...
Wolf's views on Homer. Wolf, however, pursued his studies in the university library, from which he borrowed with his old aversion. During 1779-1783 Wolf was a schoolmaster, first at Illich, then at Oste. He became as a teacher was striking, and he found time to publish an edition of the Symposium of Plato, which excited notice, and led to his promotion (1783) to a chair in the Prussian university of Halle. The moment was a critical one in the history of education. The literary impulse of the Renaissance was almost spent; scholarship had become dry and trivial. A new school, that of Locke and Rousseau, sought to make teaching more modern and more human, but at the sacrifice of mental discipline and scientific aim. Wolf was eager to throw himself into the contest on the side of antiquity. In Halle (1785-1807), by the force of his will and the enlightened aid of the ministers of Frederick the Great, he was able to carry out his long-cherished ideas and found the science of philology. Wolf defined philology broadly as "knowledge of human nature as exhibited in antiquity." The matter of such a science, he held, must be sought in the history and education of some highly cultivated nation, to be studied in written remains, works of art, and whatever else bears the stamp of national thought or skill. It has therefore to do with both history and language, and primarily as a science of interpretation, in which historical facts and linguistic factors take the role of inanimate objects which remained after. The reader does not feel that he has to do with a theory, but with great ideas, which are left to bear fruit in his mind (see Homer). The publication led to an unpleasant polemic with Heyne, who absurdly accused him of reproducing what he had heard from him at Göttingen.

The Halle professorship ended tragically, and with it the happy and productive period of Wolf's life. He was swept away, and his university with him, by the deluge of the French invasion. A painful gloom oppressed his remaining years (1807-1838), which were spent in the demand of money, suggestiveness, breadth of view. The reader does not feel that he has to do with a theory, but with great ideas, which are left to bear fruit in his mind (see Homer). The publication led to an unpleasant polemic with Heyne, who absurdly accused him of reproducing what he had heard from him at Göttingen.

Mark Pattison wrote an admirable sketch of Wolf's life and work in the North British Review of June 1866, reproduced in his Essays (1889); see also J. E. Sandys, Hist. of Class. Schol. iii. (1908), pp. 51-60. Wolf's Kleine Schriften were edited by G. Bernhardy (Halle, 1869). Works not included are the Prolegomena, the Letters to Heyne (Berlin, 1879), the commentary on the Lepidina (Halle, 1789) and a translation of the Clouds of Aristophanes (Berlin, 1811). These must be added the Vorlesungen von 1814-1819. Taken from the notes of a pupil and edited by Usteri (Bern, 1836). (D. B. M.)

WOLF, HUGO (1860-1903), German composer, was born on the 13th of March 1860 at Windischgraz in Styria. His father, who was in the leather trade, was a keen musician. From him Hugo learned the rudiments of the piano and the violin. After an unhappy school life, in which he showed little aptitude for anything but music, he went in 1875 to the Conservatoire. He appears to have learned very little there, and was dismissed in 1877 because of a practical joke in the form of a threatening letter to the director, for which he was perhaps unjustly held responsible. From the age of seventeen he had to depend upon himself for his musical training. By giving lessons on the piano and with occasional small fees, his father managed to live for several years in Vienna, but it was a life of extreme hardship and privation, for which his delicate constitution and his proud, sensitive and nervous temperament were particularly ill-suited. In 1884 he became musical critic to the Salonblatt, a Viennese society paper, and contrived by his uncompromising trenchant and sarcastic style to win a notoriety which was not helpful to his future prospects. His ardent discipleship of Wagner was unfortunately linked with a bitter opposition to Brahms, for whose works he always retained an ineradicable dislike. The publication at the end of 1887 of twelve of his songs seems to have definitely decided the course of his genius, for about this time he retired from the Salonblatt, and resolved to devote his whole energies to song-composition. The nine years which followed practically represent his life as a composer. They were marked by periods of feverish creative activity, alternating with periods of mental and physical exhaustion, during which he was sometimes unable even to bear the sound of music. By the end of 1891 he had composed the bulk of his works, on which his fame chiefly rests, 43 Mörke Lieder, 20 Eichendorff Lieder, 50 Goethe Lieder, 44 Lieder from Geibel and Heyse's Spanisches Liederbuch, and 22 Lieder by the second part consisting of 24 songs being added in 1896. Besides these there were 13 selections of lyrics by different authors, incidental music to Ibsen's Fest auf Solhaug, a few choral and instrumental works, an opera in four acts, Der Corregidor, successfully produced at Mannheim in June 1896, and finally settings of three sonnets by Michelangelo in March 1897. In September of this year the malady which had long threatened descended upon him; he was placed in an asylum, released in the following January, only to be immured again some months later by his own wish, after his friend A. von Trarbach had given in his resignation. Four painful years elapsed before his death on the 22nd of February 1903. Apart from his works and the tragedy of his last years there is little in Wolf's life to distinguish it from that of other struggling and unsuccessful musicians. His touchy and difficult temperament perpetually stood in the way of worldly success. What little he obtained was due to the persevering efforts of a small band of friends, critics and singers, to make his songs known, to the support of the Vienna Wagner-Verein, and to the formation in 1895 of the Hugo-Wolf Verein in Berlin. No doubt it was also a good thing for his reputation that the firm of Schott undertook in 1891 the publication of his songs, and that in the first five years amounted to 85 marks 35 pfennigs (about £1. 10s.). He lived in cheap lodgings till in 1896 the generosity of his friends provided him with a house of his own, which he enjoyed for one year.

Among the song composers who have adopted the modern standpoint, according to which accepted canons of beauty and of form must yield if they interfere with a closer or more vivid realization of dramatic or emotional expression, Wolf holds a place in which he has no rival, not because of the daring originality of his methods and the remarkable idiosyncrasies of his style, but because these are the direct outcome of rare poetical insight and imaginative power. He has that gift of vision which makes the difference between genius and talent. His frequent adoption of a type of song built upon a single phrase or leit-motif in the accompaniment has led to the misleading statement that his work represents merely the transference of Wagnerian principles to song. In reality the forms of Wolf's songs vary as widely as those of the poems which he set. No less remarkable is the immense range of style at his command. But with Wolf methods of form and style are so intricately linked with the poetical conceptions which they embody, that they can hardly be considered apart. His place among the greatest song-writers is due to the essential truth and originality of his creations, and to the vivid intensity with which he has presented them. These results depend not merely on musical gifts that are exceptional, but also upon a critical grasp of poetry of the highest order.
No other composer has exhibited so scrupulous a reverence for the poems which he set. To displace an accent was for him as heinous an act of sacrilege as to misinterpret a conception or to ignore an essential suggestion. This fastidiousness of meter has never reached a higher point than in Wolf's songs. Emphasis should also be laid upon the objective and dramatic attitude of his mind. He preferred to make himself the mouthpiece of the poetry rather than to use his art for purposes of self-revelation, avoiding for his songs the works of those whom with healthy scorn he termed the Ich-Poeten. Hence the men and women characterized in his songs are living realities, forming a veritable portrait gallery, of which the figures, though unmistakably the work of a single hand, yet maintain their own separate identity. These statements can be verified as well by a reference to the simpler and more melodious of his songs, as to those which are of extreme elaboration and difficulty. Among the former may be named Das verlassene Magdlein in der Frühe and Der Gärtner (Morike), Verschwiegene Liebe and Der Musikant (Eichendorff), Anacreons Grab (Goethe), Alle gingen, Hera, zur Ruh' and Hera, was fragst (Spanisches Liederbiedern), Nos. 1 and 4 of the Italienisches Liederbuch, and the latter the Aeolsharfe and Der Feuerreiter (Morike), Ganymed and Prometheus (Goethe).

WOLF, JOSEPH (1820-1869), Anglo-German artist, the son of a German farmer, was born in 1820 at Müntzermaifeld, on the river Moselle, in his Rhineland Province. In his boyhood he won an assiduous student of bird and animal life, and showed a remarkable ability as a draughtsman of natural history subjects. His powers were first recognized by Professor Schlegel of the Leiden museum, who gave him employment as an illustrator. In 1848 he settled in London, where he remained till his death on the 20th of April 1869. He made many drawings for the Zoological Society, and a very large number of illustrations for books on natural history and on travel in various countries; but he also won a considerable success as an artist at the Royal Academy, and his Life of Joseph Wolf (London, 1869), WOLF (Canis lupus), the common English name for any wild member of the typical section of the genus Canis (see Carnivora). Excluding some varieties of domestic dogs, wolves are the largest members of the genus, and have a wide geographical range, extending over nearly the whole of Europe and Asia, and North America from Greenland to Mexico, but not are found in South America or Africa, where they are replaced by other members of the family. The present genealogies demonstrate that they are descended from the grey wolf (Canis lupus), which is probably a member of the jackal group, and not a wolf at all. The ordinary colour of the wolf is yellowish or fulvous grey, but almost pure white and entirely black wolves are known. In northern countries the fur is longer and thicker, and the animal generally larger and more powerful than in the southern portion of its range. Its habits are similar everywhere and it is still, and has been from time immemorial, especially known to man in all the countries it inhabits as the devastator of sheep flocks. Wolves do not catch their prey by lying in ambush, or stealing up close and making a sudden spring, but by fairly running it down in open chase, which their speed and remarkable endurance enable them to do. Except during summer when the young families of cubs are being separately provided for by their parents, they assemble in troops or packs, often in relays, and by their combined and persevering efforts are able to overpower and kill deer, antelopes and wounded animals of all sizes. It is singular that such closely allied species as the domestic dog and the wolf, the former a domesticated form of the latter, still maintain their characteristics in the Webcam. The wolf is well known, children and even full-grown people are not infrequently the objects of their attack when pressed by hunger. Notwithstanding the proverbial ferocity of the wolf in a wild state, many instances are recorded of animals taken when quite young becoming tame and attached to the person who has brought them up, when they exhibit many of the ways of a dog.

They can, however, rarely be trusted by strangers.

The history of the wolf in Britain is almost a study in gradual extermination, and has been thoroughly investigated by Mr. J. E. Harington in his work on Extinct British Animals, from which the following account is abridged. To judge by the osteological remains which the researches of the British Museum have now brought to light, there were nearly a county in England or Wales in which, at one time or another, wolves did not abound, while in Scotland and Ireland they must have been still more numerous. The fossil remains which have been discovered in Britain are not larger than, nor in any way to be distinguished from, the corresponding bones and teeth of European wolves of the present day. Wolf-hunting was a favourite pastime of the ancient Britons, as well as of the Anglo-Saxons, in Athelstan's reign these animals abounded to such an extent in Yorkshire that a retreat was built by one Acehorn, at Flixton, near Filey, wherein travellers might seek refuge if attacked by them. As is well known, the Dog Kennel Act (Gent's Chronicle, 16 Sept, 1769) was passed for the preservation of wolves in the country, but, notwithstanding the annual tribute of 300 skins paid to him during several years by the king of Wales, he never acted as the law required. This, however, is a matter of inference from the cessation of all mention of them in local records than from any definite evidence of their extirpation.

The few individuals that remain in any considerable numbers in Scotland, as might be supposed from the nature of the country, the wolf maintained its hold for a much longer period. There is a well-known story of the last of the race being killed by Sir Ewen Cameron of Lochiel in 1686, but there is evidence of wolves having survived in Sutherlandshire and other parts into the following century (perhaps as late as 1743), though the date of their final extinction cannot be accurately fixed. In Ireland, in Cromwell's time, wolves were particularly troublesome. They were increasing in numbers, so that special measures were taken for their destruction, such as the offering of large rewards for their heads, and the burning of their dens. In 1698 a statute was passed for the destruction of the wolves used for hunting the wolves. The active measures taken then and later reduced their numbers greatly, so that towards the end of the century they became scarce, but, as in the case of the Scottish wolf, the date of their final extinction cannot be ascertained. It has been placed, upon the evidence of somewhat doubtful traditions, as late as 1706. According to the best authority the British Islands have been able to clear themselves of these formidable and destructive animals, for France, with no natural barriers to prevent their incursions from the continent to the east, is liable every winter to visits from numbers of these animals.

WOLF-DIETRICH, German hero of romance. The tale of Wolf-dietrich is connected with the Merovingian princes, Theodoric and Theodebert, son and grandson of Clovis; but in the Middle High German poems of Ortin and Wolf-dietrich in the Heldenbuch (q.v.) Wolf-dietrich is the son of Hugdietrich, emperor of Constantinople. Repudiated and exposed by his father, the child was spared by the wolves of the forest, and was educated by the faithful Berchtung of Meran. The account of his parents and their wooing, however, differs in various texts. After the emperor's death Wolf-dietrich was driven from his inheritance by his brothers, and took refuge at the court of King Ortin. He entered the service of Ortin and his sixteen sons stood by Wolf-dietrich. Six of these were slain and the other ten imprisoned. It was only after long exile in Lombardy at the court of King Ortin that the hero returned to deliver the captives and regain his kingdom. Wolf-dietrich's exile and return suggested a parallel with the history of Dietrich of Bern, with whom he was often actually identified; and the Mentors of the two heroes, Hildebrand and Berchtung, are cast in the same mould. Presently features of the
WOLFF, C.—WOLFF, C. F. 773

Wolfdietrich legend were transferred to the Dietrich cycle, and in the Anhang to the Holdenbuch it is stated in despite of all historical considerations that Wolfdietrich was the grandfather of the Veronese hero. Among the exploits of Wolfdietrich was the slaughter of the dragon which had slain Ornitz (n.d.). He thus took the place of Hardheri, one of the mythical Hartung brothers, the original hero of this feat. The myth attached itself to the family of Clovis, around which epic tradition rapidly gathered. Hugdietrich is generally considered to be the epic counterpart of Theodoric (Dietrich), eldest son of Clovis. The prefix was the barbarian equivalent of Frank, and was employed to distinguish him from Theodoric the Goth. After his father’s death he divided the kingdom with his brothers. Wolfdietrich represents his son Theodebert (d. 548), whose succession was disputed by his Hugo, but was secured by the loyalties of the Frankish nobles. But father and son are merged by a process of epic fusion in Wolfdietrich. The rape of Sydrat, daughter of the heathen Walgunt of Salznecke, by Hugdietrich disguised as a woman, is typical of the tales of the wooing of heathen princesses made fashionable by the Crusades, and was probably extraneous to the original legend. It may, however, also be put on a semi-historical basis by adopting the suggestion of C. Voretzsch (Epische Studien I. Die Comp. des Huon von Bordeaux, Halle 1900), that Wolfdietrich is far more closely connected with Theodoric than Theodebert, and that Hugdietrich, therefore, stands for Clovis, the hero in the Merovingian historians, of a well-known Brautfahrtsaga.

Ornitz and Wolfdietrich have been edited by Dr. J. L. Edlen von Lindhausen (Tübingen, 1906). G. Sarrazin, in Zeitschr., für deutsche Philologie, 34, 1906, compared the legend of Wolfdietrich with the history of Gundovald, as given by Gregory of Tours in books vi. and vii. of his Histoire Francorum.

WOLFE, CHARLES (1791–1823), Irish poet, son of Theobald Wolfe of Blackhall, Co. Kildare, was born on the 14th of December 1791. He was educated at English schools and at Trinity College, Dublin, where he matriculated in 1809 and graduated B.A. in 1812. A noble was ordained priest in 1815, and received the curacy of Ballyclog, Co. Tyrone, which he shortly exchanged for that of Donoughmore in the same county. He died at Cork on the 21st of February 1823 in his thirty-second year. Wolfe was well known as a poet in Trinity College circles. He is remembered, however, solely by his stirring stanzas on the “Burial of Sir John Moore,” written in 1816 in the rooms of Samuel O’Sullivan, a college friend, and printed in the Nearty Telegraph.


WOLFE, JAMES (1727–1759), British hero of Quebec, was born at Westham in Kent on the 2nd of January 1727. At an early age he accompanied his father, Colonel (afterwards lieutenant-General) Edward Wolfe, one of Marlborough’s veterans, to the Carthagena expedition, and in 1741 his ardent desire for a military career was gratified by his appointment to an ensigncy. At the age of fifteen he proceeded with the 12th Foot (now Suffolk Regiment) to the Rhine Campaign, and at Dettingen he distinguished himself so much as acting adjutant that he was made lieutenant. In 1744 he received a company in Barrel’s regiment (now the 4th King’s Own). In the Scottish rising of the “Forty-five” he was employed as a brigade-major. He was present at Hawley’s defeat at Falkirk, and at Culloden. With his old regiment, the 12th, Wolfe served in the Flanders campaigns of the duke of Cumberland, and at Val (Lauffeld) won by his valor the commendation of the duke. Promotion followed in 1749 to a majority, and in 1750 to the lieutenant-colonelcy of the 20th, with which he served in Scotland. Some years later he spent six months in Paris. When war broke out afresh in 1757 he served as a staff officer in the unfortunate Rochfort expedition, but his prospects were not affected by the failure, for had his advice been taken the result might well have been different. Next year he was sent to 1 Theodoricus iste dicitur, id est Francus, quia olium omnes Franci Hugonum vocabantur... “Annales Quedinburg.” (Fritz, Script. ii. 420.)

N. America as a brigadier-general in the Louisburg expedition under Amherst and Boscowan. The landing was effected in the face of strenuous opposition, Wolfe leading the foremost troops. On the 27th of July the place surrendered after an obstinate resistance; during the siege Wolfe had charge of a most important section of the attack, and on his lines the fiercest fighting took place. Soon afterwards he returned to England to recruit his shattered health, but on learning that Pitt desired him to continue in America he at once offered to return. It was now that the famous expedition against Quebec was decided upon, Wolfe to be in command, with the local rank of major-general. In a brief holiday before his departure he met at Bath Miss Lowther, to whom he became engaged. Very shortly afterwards he sailed, and on the 1st of June 1759 the Quebec expedition sailed from Louisburg (see Quebec). After weariness and disheartening failures he landed at Louisburg, took possession of it, and crowned his work by the decisive victory on the Plains of Abraham (13th of September 1759) by which the French permanently lost Quebec. Twice wounded earlier in the fight, he had refused to leave the field, and a third bullet passing through his lungs inflicted a mortal injury. While he was lying in a swoon some one near him exclaimed, “They run; see how they run!” “Who run?” demanded Wolfe, as one roused from sleep. “The enemy!” was the answer; “they give way everywhere.” Wolfe rallied for a moment, gave a last order for cutting off the retreat, and expired. “On the road to glory,” wrote Franklin, “he breathed his last. On the battle-ground a tall column bears the words, “Here died Wolfe victorious on the 13th of September 1759.” In the governor’s garden, in Quebec, there is also a monument to the memory of Wolfe and his gallant opponent Montcalm, who survived him only a few hours, with the inscription “Wolfe and Montcalm. Mortem virtus communem, famam historia, monumentum posteritas dedit.” In Westminster Abbey a public memorial to Wolfe was unveiled on the 4th of October 1773.

See R. Wright, Life of Major-General James Wolfe (London, 1864); F. Parkman, Montcalm and Wolfe (London, 1884); Twelve British Soldiers (London, 1899); General Wolfe’s Instructions to Young Officers (1763–1780); Beckles Willson, The Life and Letters of James Wolfe (1900); and A. G. Bradley, Wolfe (1883).

WOLFENBÜTTEL, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, situated on both banks of the Oker, 7 m. S. of Brunswick on the railway to Hanburg. Pop. (1905) 19,038. Lessing was ducal librarian here, and the old library building, designed in 1723 in imitation of the Pantheon at Rome, contains a marble statue of him. The library, including 300,000 printed books and 10,000 MSS., was, however, transferred to a large and new Renaissance edifice in 1857. It is especially rich in Bibles, incunabula and books of the early Reformation period, and contains some of the Gothic bible of Ulflas. Opposite the old library is the palace, now occupied by a seminary. The ducal burial-vault is in the church of St. Mary.

A castle is said to have been founded on the site of Wolfenbüttel by a margrave of Meissen about 1046. When this began in 1267 to be the residence of the early Brunswick or Wolfenbüttel line of counts, a town gradually grew up around it. In 1542 it was taken by the Saxons and Hessians, who, however, evacuated it five years later after the battle of Mühlberg. In the Thirty Years’ War, in June 1641, the Swedes, under Wrangel and Königsmark, defeated the Austrians under the archduke Leopold at Wolfenbüttel, and it was plundered and burnt, after the possession of the Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel family in 1671, and for nearly one hundred years enjoyed the distinction of being the ducal capital. In 1754, however, Duke Charles transferred the ducal residence to Brunswick.

See Voges, Erzählungen aus der Geschichte der Stadt Wolfenbüttel (Wolfenbüttel, 1862); von Heimann, Die historische Bibliothek und die Bibliothek (2nd ed., 1883). For the “Wolfenbüttel fragments” see Lessing and Reimarus.

WOLFF, CASPAR FRIDRICH (1733–1794), German anatomist and physiologist, justly reckoned the founder of modern embryology, was born in 1733 at Berlin, where he studied anatomy and physiology under the elder J. F. Meckel. He
graduated in medicine at Halle in 1759, his thesis being his famous *Theoria generationis*. After serving as a surgeon in the Seven Years' War, he wished to lecture on anatomy and physiology in Berlin, but being refused permission to refer to the empirical material, he became professor of those subjects at the academy of St Petersburg, and acted in this capacity until his death there in 1794.

While the theory of "evolution" in the crude sense—i.e., a simple growth in size and unfolding of organs all previously existing in the germ—was generally overlooked for a time, the fundamental concept of the field of systematic biology was decisively laid by the founder of the science, Wolff. He not only anticipated the modern concept of evolutionary layers, and is said even to have foreshadowed the cell theory.

**WOLFF** (less correctly Wolf), CHRISTIAN (1679-1754), German philosopher and mathematician, the son of a Tanner, was born at Breslau on the 24th of January 1679. At the university of Jena he studied first mathematics and physics, to which he soon added philosophy. In 1703 he qualified as Privadozent in the university of Leipzig, where he lectured till 1705, when he was called as professor of mathematics and natural philosophy to Halle. Before this time he had made the acquaintance of Leibnitz, of whose philosophy his own system is a modification. In Halle Wolff limited himself at first to mathematics, but on the departure of a colleague he added physics, and presently included all the main philosophical disciplines. But the claims which Wolff advanced on behalf of the philosophic reason (see RATIONALISM) appeared impious to his theological colleagues. Halle was the headquarters of Pietism, which, after a long struggle against Lutheran dogmatism, had itself assumed the characteristics of a new orthodoxy. Wolff's professed ideal was to base theological truths on evidence of mathematical certitude, and strife with the Pietists broke out openly in 1721, when Wolff, on the occasion of laying down the office of pro-rector, delivered an oration "On the Practical Philosophy of the Chinese" (Eng. tr. 1730), in which he praised the purity of the moral precepts of Confucius, pointing to them as an evidence of the power of human reason to attain by its own efforts to moral truth. For ten years Wolff was subjected to attack, until in a fit of exasperation he appealed to the court for protection. His enemies, however, gained the ear of the king Frederick the Great, and represented to him that, if Wolff's determinism were recognized, no soldier who deserted could be punished, since he would only have acted as it was necessarily predetermined that he should. This so enraged the king that he at once deprived Wolff of his office, and commanded him to leave Prussian territory within forty-eight hours on pain of a halter. The same day Wolff passed into Saxony, and presently proceeded to Marburg, to which university he had received a call before this crisis. The landgrave of Hesse received him with every mark of distinction, and the circumstances of his expulsion drew universal attention to his philosophy. It was everywhere discussed, and over two hundred books and pamphlets appeared for or against it before 1737, not reckoning the systematic treatises of Wolff and his followers. In 1740 Frederick William, who had already made overtures to Wolff to return, died suddenly, and one of the first acts of his successor, Frederick the Great, was to recall him to Halle. His entry into the town on the 6th of December 1740 partook of the nature of a triumphal procession. In 1743 he became chancellor of the university, and in 1745 he received the title of Freiherr from the elector of Bavaria. But his mind was no longer fresh, he had lost his power of attracting students, and his class-rooms remained empty. He died on the 4th of April 1754.

The Wolffian philosophy held almost undisputed sway in Germany till it was displaced by the Kantian revolution. It is essentially a common-sense adaptation or watering-down of the Lockean system on which it is absolutely hard to advert. In connexion with Leibnitz, Wolff may be said to have methodized and reduced to dogmatic form the thoughts of his great predecessor, which often, however, lost the greater part of their suggestiveness in the process. Since his philosophy disappeared before the influx of new ideas and the appearance of more speculative minds, it has been customary to dwell almost exclusively on its defects—the want of depth or freshness of insight, and the aridity of its neo-scholastic formalism, which tends to relapse into verbose platitudes. But this is to do injustice to Wolff's real merits. These are mainly his comprehensive view of philosophy, as embracing in its survey the whole field of human knowledge, his positive and consistent reasoning, his polemical position, and his confidence in the power of reason to reduce all subjects to this form. To these must be added that he was practically the first to "teach philosophy to speak German." The Wolffian system is the most advanced system in the metaphysics of the period. It is still largely indebted to the modern concept of adaptation of materials, and the doctrine of monism recces into the background, the monads falling asunder into souls or conscious beings on the one hand and mere atoms on the other. But the doctrine of the possible and the impossibility of the science of the possible, and divided, according to the two faculties of the human individual, into a theoretical and a practical part. Logic, sometimes called *philosophia rationalis*, forms the introduction or prelude to both. Theoretical philosophy (i.e., parts ontology or *philosophia prima*, cosmology, rational psychology and natural theology; ontology treats of the existent in general, psychology of the soul as a simple non-extended substance, cosmology of the world as a whole, and rational theology of the existence and attributes of God. These are best known to philosophical students by Kant's treatment of them in the *Critique of Pure Reason*. In the third period, he enters into economics and politics. Wolff's moral principle is the realization of human perfection.

The most important works are as follows: Anfangsgründe aller mathematischen Wissenschaften (1710; in Latin, *Elementa matheos universae*, 1713-1715); Versucht Nachweis von den Köpfen des menschlichen Verstandes (1712; Eng. trans. 1770); Vern. Ged. von dem Theil in den Menf und die Kurfürsten in Hessen; Philosophia rationalis, sive logica (1728); Philosophia prima, sive Ontologia (1729); Cosmologia generalis (1731); Psychologia empirica (1732); Psychologia rationalis (1734); Theologia naturalis (1736-1737); Philosophia practica universalis (1738-1739); Philosophia moralis (1750-1753). His *Kleine philosophische Schriften* have been collected and edited by G. F. Hagen (1736-1740). In addition to Wolff's autobiography (*Eigene Lebensbeschreibung*; ed. H. Wurtte, 1841) and the usual histories of philosophy, see W. Schrader in *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*, xiv.; C. G. Ludovic, *Ausführlicher Entwurf einer vollständigen Geschichte der Philosophie*, 1830; E. W. Ticken, *Wolff's Philosophie*, 1831; J. V. Knecht, *Wolff's Verhältnis zu Leibniz* (1857). (A. S. P.-F.; X.)

**WOLFF, JOSEPH** (1795-1862), Jewish Christian missionary, was born at Wellersbach, near Bamberg, Germany, in 1795. His father became rabbi at Württemberg in 1806, and sent his son to the Protestant lyceum at Stuttgart. He was converted to Christianity through reading the books of Johann Michael von Sailer, bishop of Regensburg, and was baptized in 1826 by the Benedictine abbott of Emaus, near Prague. Wolff was a keen Oriental scholar and pursued his studies at Tübingen and at Rome, where he was expelled from the Collegio di Propaganda in 1818 for attacking the doctrine of infallibility and criticizing his tutors. After a short stay in the monastery of the Redemptorists at Val Sainte near Fribourg, he went to London, entered the Anglican Church, and resumed his Oriental and theological studies at Cambridge. In 1821 he began his missionary wanderings in the East by visiting Egypt, the Sinaitic peninsula, Jerusalem, Aleppo, Mesopotamia, Persia, Tibet, and Turkestan. In 1826, when Edward Irving introduced him to Lady Georgina Walpole, 6th daughter of Horatio Walpole, earl of Orford, whom he married in February 1827. In 1828 Wolff set out to search for the ten tribes, travelling through Anatolia, Armenia, Turkestan and Afghanistan to Simla and Calcutta, suffering many hardships but preaching with enthusiasm. He visited Madras, Pondicherry, Goa and Bombay, travelling home by Egypt and Malta. In 1826 he found Samuel Gobat in Abyssinia, took him to Jiddah, and himself visited Yemen and Bombay, going on to the United States, where he was ordained deacon in 1837, and priest in 1838.
In the same year he was given the rectory of Lintwhaite in Yorkshire. In 1843 he went to Bokhara to seek two British officers, Lieut.-Colonel C. Stoddart and Captain A. Conolly, and narrowly escaped the death that had overtaken them. In 1844 he published a translation of the ‘Narrative of an Account of a Journey into the Interior of Asia’ through a district of Central Asia, between 1838 and 1832. In 1845 he was presented to the vicarage of Isle Brewers, Somerset, and was planning another great missionary tour when he died on the 2nd of May 1862.


His son, Sir Henry Drummond Wolff (1830–1908), was a well-known English diplomatist and Conservative politician, who started as a clerk in the foreign office and was appointed K.C.M.G. in 1862 for various services abroad. In 1874–1880 he sat in parliament for Christchurch, and in 1880–1885 for Portsmouth, being one of the group known as the “Fourth Party.” In 1885 he went on a special mission to Constantinople in connection with the Egyptian question, and as the result various awkward difficulties, hanging on the sultan’s suzerainty, were got over. In 1888 he was sent as minister to Teheran, and from 1892 to 1900 was ambassador at Madrid. He died on the 11th of October 1908. Sir Henry was a notable raconteur, and he did good service to the Conservative party by helping to found the Primrose League. He was created G.C.M.G. in 1878 and G.C.B. in 1889.

WOLFRAMITE, or Wolfram, a mineral consisting of iron-manganese tungstate, (Fe, Mn)WO₄. The name is of doubtful origin, but it has been assumed that it is derived from the German Wolf and Rahm (fortith), corresponding with the spuma lupi of old writers, a term hardly appropriate, however, to the mineral in question. Wolframite crystallizes in the monoclinic system, with an approach to an orthorhombic type; and the crystals offer perfect pinacoidal cleavage. The colour of wolframite is generally brownish, and it is lustre adamantine. The hardness is 5 to 5.5, and the specific gravity 7.1 to 7.5. Wolframite may be regarded as an isomorphic mixture, in variable ratio, of iron and manganese tungstates, sometimes with a small proportion of niobic and tantalic acids. It was in wolframite that the metal tungsten was first recognized in 1785 by two brothers, J. J. and F. d’Elhuyar. At the present time the mineral is used in the manufacture of tungsten-steel and in the preparation of certain tungstates.

It is commonly associated with tin-ores, as in many parts of Cornwall, Saxony and Bohemia. In consequence of the two minerals, cassiterite and wolframite, having nearly the same density, their separation becomes difficult by the ordinary processes of ore-dressing, but may be effected by magnetic methods, since wolframite being attracted by powerful magnets. A process introduced many years ago by R. Oxland consisted in roasting the mixed ore, which was then converted into sodium tungstate, which was easily removed as a soluble salt. Wolframite occurs at many localities in the United States, notably at Trumbull, Conn., where it has been mined, and at Monroe, Conn., where it accompanies bismuth ores. Other localities are in Mecklenburg county, N.C., and in the Mammoth mining district, Nevada. Wolframite has in some cases resulted from the alteration of scheelite (g.), though on the contrary pseudomorphs are known in which scheelite has taken the form of wolframite. By oxidation wolframite may become encrusted with tungstic oreh, or tungstite, sometimes known as wolframine, a name to be carefully distinguished from wolframine.

As the relative proportions of iron and manganese vary in wolframite, the composition tends towards that of other minerals. Thus there is a manganese tungstate (MnWO₄) known as hübnerite, a name given by E. N. Riotte, in 1865, in compliment to Adolph Hübner, a Saxon mineralogist. There is also a mineral which contains little more than ferrous tungstate (FeWO₄), and is known as ferberite, named by Mme. Bismuth in 1863 after Rudolph Ferber. The original hübnerite came from the Mammoth district, Nevada, and the ferberite from the Sierra Almagrera in Spain. It is possible that such minerals may represent the extreme terms in the series formed by the varieties of wolframite.

WOLFRAM VON ESCHENBACH, the most important and individual poet of medieval Germany, flourished during the end of the 12th and beginning of the 13th century. He was one of the brilliant group of Minnesingers whom the Landgrave Herrmann of Thuringia gathered round him at the historic castle of the Wartburg. We know by his own statement that he was a Bavarian, and came of a knightly race, counting his achievements with spear and shield far above his poetical gifts. The Eschenbach from which he derived his name was most probably Ober-Eschenbach, not far from Pleinfeld and Nuremberg; there is no doubt that this was the place of his burial, and so late as the 17th century his tomb was to be seen in the church of Ober-Eschenbach, which was then the burial place of the Teutonic knights. Wolfram probably belonged to the small nobility, for he alludes to men of importance, such as the counts of Abenberg, and of Wertheim, as if he had been in their service. Certainly he was a poor man, for he makes frequent and jesting allusions to his poverty. Bartsch concludes that he was a young son, and that while the family seat was at Eschenbach, Wolfram’s home was the insignificant estate of Wildenburg (to which he alludes), now the village of Wehlenberg. Wolfram seems to have disdained all literary accomplishments, and in fact insists on his unlettered condition both in Parzival and in Willehalm. But this is somewhat perplexing, for these poems are beyond all doubt renderings of French originals. Were the poems read to him, and did he dictate his translation to a scribe? The date of Wolfram’s death is uncertain. We know that he was alive in 1216, as in Willehalm he laments the death of the Landgrave Herrmann, which took place in that year, but how long he survived is unknown. His works appear to have been written almost entirely in German.

Wolfram von Eschenbach lives in, and is revealed by, his work, which shows him to have been a man of remarkable force and personality. He has left two long epic poems, Parzival and Willehalm (the latter a translation of the French chanson de geste Atis- cans), certain fragments, Tatitur (apparently intended as an introduction to the Parzival), and a group of lyrical poems, Wächter-Lieder. These last derive their name from the fact that they record the feelings of lovers who, having passed the night in each other’s company, are called to separate by the call of the watch-dog. Parzival, or Wächter-Lieder, are a feature of Old German folk-poetry, of which Wagner has preserved the tradition in the warning cry of Brangäene in the second act of Tristan. But the principal interest of Wolfram’s work lies in his Parzival, immeasurably the finest and most spiritual rendering of the Perceval-Grail story.

The problem of the source of the Parzival is the crux of medieval literary criticism (see PERCEVAL). These are the leading points. The poem is divided into sixteen books. From iii. to xii., inclusive, the story moves pari passu with the Perceval of Chrétien de Troyes, and is often expressed in the French text, at the next introducing details quite unknown to it. Books i. and ii., unrepresented in Chrétien, relate the fortunes of the hero’s father, and connect the story closely with the house of Anjou; the four concluding books agree with the commencement, and further connect the Grail story with that of the Swan Knight, for the first time identifying that hero with Parzival’s son, a version followed by the later German romance of Lohengrin. At the conclusion Wolfram definitely blames Chrétien for having mistold the tale, while a certain Klot the Provencal (whom he has before named as his source), and the French text, at the same time, disclaimed the authorship of the Grail, an allusion, they say, to the authorship of Der Hohelied. Instead of an asceticism, based upon a fundamentally low and degrading view of women, Wolfram upholds a sane and healthy morality; chastity, rather than celibacy, is his ideal, and a loyal observance of the marriage bond is in his eyes the highest virtue. Not retirement from the world, but fulfilment of duty in the world,
WOLGAST—WOLLASTONITE

is the goal he marks out for attainment. Whether views so large, so sane and so wholesome are to be placed to the credit of the German poets, or of his French source (and modern criticism is leaning more and more to a belief in the existence of Kiot), the Parsial is the work of a remarkable personality, and, given the age and the environment, a unique literary achievement.

Wolfram has moments of the highest poetical inspiration, but his meaning, even for his compatriots, is often obscure. He is in no sense a master of language, as was Gottfried von Strassbourg. This latter, in a very interesting passage of the Tristion, passes in review the poets of the day, awarding to the majority praise for the excellence of their style, but one he does not mention, this being too obscure and involved, that none can tell what his meaning may be; this un-named poet has always been understood to be Wolfram von Eschenbach, and in a passage of Wilhelm the author refers to the unfavourable criticisms passed on Parsial. Wolfram and Gottfried were both true poets, but of widely differing style. Wolfram was, above all, a man of deeply religious character (witness his introduction to Willehalm), and it seems he has been this which specially impressed the mind of his compatriots; in the 13th-century poem of Der Wartburg-Krieg it is Wolfram who is chosen to represent the attributes of Christianity, to be the enchanter Klinglor von Ungerland. (J. L. W.)

WOLGAST, a seaport town of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, situated on the river Peene, which separates it from the island of Usedom, 30 m. by rail E. of Greifswald. Pop. (1905) 8346. There are various manufactures. Wolgast became a town in 1247, and after being the residence of the duke of Pomerania-Wolgast, it was ceded to Sweden in 1648. It was captured four times during the Thirty Years' War, and in 1675 by Frederick William, elector of Brandenburg. It was restored to Germany in 1715.

See B. Heberlein, Beitrage zur Geschichte der Burg und Stadt Wolgast (Wolgast, 1892).

WOLLASTON, William (1659-1724), English philosophical writer, was born at Coton-Clanford in Staffordshire, on the 26th of March 1659. On leaving Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, in 1671, he became an assistant master at the Birmingham grammar school, and took holy orders. In 1688 an uncle left him a fortune. He then moved to London, married a lady of wealth, and devoted himself to learning and philosophy. He embodied his views in the one book by which he is remembered, The Religion of Nature Demonstrated (1st ed. 1722; 2nd ed. 1724). He died in October 1724.

Wollaston's Religion of Nature, which falls between Clarke's Discourse of the Unchangeable Obligations of Natural Religion and Butler's Sermons, was one of the most popular philosophical books of its day. To the 8th edition (1762) was added a life of the author. The book was designed to be an answer to two questions: Is there such a thing as natural religion? and, if there is, what is it? Wollaston starts with the assumption that religion and morality are identical, and labours to show that religion is "the pursuit of happiness by the practice of truth and reason." He claims originality for his theory that the moral evil is the practical denial of a true proposition and moral good the affirmation of it (see Ethics). Wollaston also published anonymously a small book, On the Design of the Book of Ecclesiastes, or the Unreasonableness of Men's Restless Contention for the Present Enjoyments, represented in an English Poem (London, 1691). See John Clarke, Examination of the Notion of Moral Good and Evil advanced in a late book entitled The Religion of Nature Demonstrated (London, 1725); Drechler, Uber Wollastons Moral-Philosophie (Erlangen, 1802); Sir Leslie Stephen's History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century (London, 1876), ch. iii. and ch. ix.; H. Sidgwick's History of Ethics (1902), pp. 198 sq.

WOLLASTON, William Hyde (1766-1828), English chemist and natural philosopher, was born at East Dereham, Norfolk, on 24th April 1766, the seventh child. His father, the Rev. Francis Wollaston (1731-1815), rector of Chislehurst, and afterwards at Camberwell, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. He took the degrees of M.B. (1787) and M.D. (1793), starting to practise medicine in 1790 at Bury St Edmunds, whence he soon removed to London. But he made little way, and failed to obtain a vacant physicianship at St George's hospital; the result was that he abandoned medicine and took up natural philosophy. Wollaston's researches in the domain of the elements of the Royal Society, of which he was elected a fellow in 1793 and made secretary in 1806. He was elected interim president in June 1820, on the death of Sir Joseph Banks; but he did not care to enter into competition with Sir Humphry Davy, and the latter was elected president at the anniversary meeting in November 1820. Wollaston became a member of the Geological Society of London in 1812, and served frequently on the Council and for some time as a vice-president. Beyond appearing at the meetings of learned societies he took little part in public affairs; indeed, he spent much of his time in pursuing studies in a deliberate and exhaustive manner, but in the most rigid manner. Wollaston was admitted to his laboratory on any pretext. Towards the close of 1828 he felt the approach of a fatal malady—a tumour in the brain—and devoted his last days to a careful revision of his unpublished researches and industrial processes, dictating several papers on these subjects, which were afterwards published in the Philosophical Transactions. He died in London on the 22nd of December 1828.

Wollaston's original work deals more or less directly with chemical subjects, but diverges on all sides into optics, acoustics, mineralogy, astronomy, physiology, botany and even art. In chenistry he made a speciality of the platinum metals. Platinum was discovered by Wollaston in 1778, and as early as 1775 he had found a way of making a fortune from the secret, which, however, he disclosed in a posthumous paper (1829); and he was the first to detect the metals palladium (1804) and rhodium (1805) in crude platinum. In regard to paladium this conduct was tenor in character. He anonymously offered a quantity of the metal for sale at an instrument-maker's shop, issuing an advertisement in which some of its properties were stated. A chemist, having bought some of the substance, decided after experiment that it was not a simple body as claimed, but an alloy of mercury with platinum, and in 1803 presented a paper to the Royal Society of London for the improvement of natural knowledge. In 1803, Wollaston was elected a member of the Geological Society, and in 1820 he was appointed to the chair of mineralogy, to which he gave up the chair of mineralogy, to which he gave up his last days. He was the first to make the discovery of rhodium. In 1809 he proved the elementary character of columbium (niobium) and titanium. In optics he was the first, in 1802, to observe the dark lines in the solar spectrum. Of the seven lines he saw, he regarded the five most to the right of the sun as the first, which he supposed were the simple colours of the prismatic spectrum, which he supposed to have four primary divisions. He described the reflecting goniometer and the camera lucida, provided microscopes with the "Wollaston double," and applied concavo-convex lenses to the purposes of the oculist. His clystraphos was described in 1813, in a paper "On a method of freezing at a distance." In 1821, after a long train of experiments, Wollaston secured a "thing" to deflect an electric current, he attempted, in the laboratory of the Royal Institution, the discovery of nitrogen, by which Faraday did not admit his claim. Among his other papers may be mentioned those dealing with the formation of fairy rings (1807), a synoptic scale of chemical equivalents (1814), sounds in the air, the "aurora" and the magnetic needle (1815), a supposed disjunct of the eyes in a portrait (1824) and the comparison of the light of the sun with that of the moon and fixed stars (1825).

In geological circles Wollaston is famous for the medal which he bestowed, and which (together with a donation fund) is annually awarded by the council of the Geological Society of London, being the result of the interest of £1000 bequeathed by Wollaston for the promoting researches in the minor sciences. The first award was made in 1831. The medal is the highest honour bestowed by the society: it was originally made of palladium, but is now made of gold.

A commemorative essay on Wollaston will be found in George Wilson's Religiou Chem, 1862.)

WOLLASTONITE, a rock-forming mineral consisting of calcium metasilicate, CaSiO₃, crystallizing in the monoclinic system and belonging to the pyroxene (攀) group. It differs, however, from other members of this group in having cleavages, not parallel to the prism-faces, but in two directions perpendicular to the
plane of symmetry. Crystals are usually elongated parallel to the axis of symmetry and flattened parallel to the ortho-pinoacoid, hence the early name “tabular spar”; the name wollastonite is after W. H. Wollaston. The mineral usually occurs in white cleavage masses. The hardness is 5, and the specific gravity 2.85. It is a characteristic product of contact-metamorphism occurring especially, with garnet, diorite and gabbro, in crystalline limestones. Crystals are found in the cavities of the ejected limestone blocks of Monte Somma, Vesuvius. At Santa Fè in the State of Chiapas, Mexico, a large rock-mass of wollastonite carries ores of gold and copper: here are found large pink crystals which are often partially or wholly altered to opal. (L. J. S.)

WOLLIN, an island of Germany, in the Prussian province of Pomerania, the more easterly of the islands at the mouth of the Oder which separate the Stettiner Haff from the Baltic Sea. It is divided from the mainland on the E. by the Dievenow Channel, and from Usedom on the W. by the Swine. It is roughly triangular in shape, and has an area of 95 sq. m. Heath and sand alternate with swamps, lakes and forest on its surface, which is flat, except towards the south-west, where the low hills of Lebbin rise. Cattle-rearing and fishing are the chief resources of the inhabitants, who number about 14,000. Misdroy, on the N.W. coast, is a favourite sea-bathing resort, and some of the other villages, as Ostsowine, opposite Swinemünde, Pritter, famous for its eels, and Lebbin, are also visited in summer. Wollin, the only town, is situated on the Dievenow, and is connected with the mainland by three bridges. It carries on the industries of a small seaport and fishery. Pop. (1900) 4,184.

Near the modern town once stood the ancient and opulent Wendish city of Wolin or Junme, called Julin by the Danes, and Winetha or Vineta (i.e. Wendish town) by the Germans. In the 10th and 11th centuries it was the centre of an active and extensive trade. Adam of Bremen (d. 1076) extols its size and wealth, and mentions that Greeks and other foreigners frequented it, and that Saxons were permitted to settle there on equal terms with the Wends, so long as they did not obstruct the fact of their Christianity. The Northmen made a settlement here about 970, and built a fortress on the "silver hill," called Jomsborg, which is often mentioned in the sagas. Its foundation was attributed to a legendary Viking exiled from Denmark, called Paltokote or Palnatoki. The stronghold of Jomsburg was destroyed in 1098 by King Magnus Barford of Norway. This is probably the origin of the legend that Vineta was overthrown by a storm or earthquake and overwhelmed by the sea. Some submarine granitic rocks near Damerow in Usedom are still popularly regarded as its ruins. The town of Wolin became in 1140 the seat of the Pomeranian bishopric, which was transferred to Kammin about 1170. Wolin was captured by Canute VI. of Denmark in 1183, and was taken by the Swedes in 1630 and 1759, and by the Brandenburgs in 1659 and 1765.

See Khull, *Die Geschichte Palnatskis und der Jomsburger* (Graz, 1892); Koch, *Vineta in Prosa und Poesie* (Stettin, 1905); W. von Raumer, *Die Insel Wolin* (Berlin, 1851); Haas, *Sagen und Erzählungen von den Inseln Usedom und Wolin* (Stettin, 1904).

WOLLONGONG, a seaport of Camden county, New South Wales, Australia, 49 m. by rail S. of Sydney, the third port and chief harbour on the S. coast of the colony. Pop. (1901) 3,545. Its harbour, known as Belmont Basin, is excavated out of the rock 35 ft. below the surface, at low water. A breakwater protects its mouth; it has a lighthouse, and is defended by a fort on Signal Hill. It is the port for the Osborne-Wollong and Mount Pleasant collieries, which are connected with it by rail. It lies at the foot of Mount Keira, amid fine mountain and coast scenery.

WOLFF (Wolof, Jolof), a Negroid people of Senegal, French West Africa. They occupy the seaboard between St. Louis and Cape Verde and the south bank of the Senegal from its mouth to Dagana. Farther inland the districts of the Walo, Cayor Bay, and Jolof (the last, the name of a chief division of the nation, being sometimes used as the national name) are almost exclusively peopled by Wolof. The cities of St. Louis and Dakar are both in the Wolof country, and throughout the French Sudan no military station is without a Wolof colony, preserving national speech and usages. The name is variously explained as meaning "speaker" or "black." The Wolof justify both meanings, for they are at once the blackest and among the most garrulous of all African peoples. They are a very tall race, with relatively pointed heads, elongated legs and flat feet.

The Wolof language is spoken throughout Senegambia, and numerous grammars, dictionaries and vocabularies have appeared since 1825. There is, however, no written literature. The Wolof preserve their national songs, legends and proverbs by memoralit, but have little knowledge of letters beyond the Arabic characters on their paper spells and amulets. Wolof, a typical agglutinating language, differs from all other African forms of speech. The roots, along with all monosyllabic ending in consonants, are determined by means of suffixes, and coalesce while remaining invariable in their meanings. By these suffixes the meaning of the words is endlessly modified.

Most Wolof are nominally Mahommedans, and some near the Christian missions profess Christianity, but many pagan rites are still observed. Animal worship is prevalent. The capture of a shark is hailed with delight, and family genei have offerings made to them, the most popular of these household deities, the lizard, having in many houses a bowl of milk set aside for it daily. The Wolof have three hereditary castes, the nobles, the tradesmen and musicians (who are despised), and the slaves. These latter are kindly treated.

Wolfuss, Johann Peter (1768-1824), German publisher, was born at Munich. He settled at Breslau and took part in the revolution of 1830. Sent to Paris as secretary to the legation by the provisional government, he settled there on the suppression of the Polish rebellion and was naturalized in 1834. In 1833 he founded the *Revue de législation et de jurisprudence*, and wrote voluminously on economic and financial subjects. He established the first Crédit Foncier in France in 1852, and in 1864 became professor of political economy at the Conservatoire in succession to J. A. Blanqui. He was a member of the national assembly from 1848 to 1851, and again from 1871 till his election as a senator in 1876. He was a strong free-trader and an ardent bimetallist.

Of his works the following are the more important: *Mobilisation du crédit foncier* (1839); *De l'organisation industrielle de la France avant Colbert* (1842); *Les Finances de la Russie* (1846); *La Question des banques* (1846); *La Liberté commerciale* (1869); *L'Or et l'argent* (1870).

WOLSELEY, Garnet Joseph Wolseley, 1st Viscount Wolseley (1833-1913), British soldier, was born in 1833. Educated at Dublin, he obtained a commission as ensign in the 12th Foot in March 1852, and was transferred to the 8th Foot, with which he served in the second Burmese War. He was severely wounded on the 19th of March 1853 in the attack of Donabury, was mentioned in despatches, and received the war medal. Promoted to be lieutenant and invalided home, he exchanged into the 90th Light Infantry, then in Dublin. He accompanied the regiment to the Crimea, and landed at Balaklava in December 1854. He was selected to be an assistant engineer, and did duty with the Royal Engineers in the trenches before Sebastopol. He was promoted to be captain in January 1855, after less than three years' service, and served throughout the siege, was wounded at the Quarries on the 7th of June, and again in the trenches on the 30th of August. After the fall of Sebastopol Wolseley was employed on the quartermaster-general's staff, assisted in the embarkation of the troops and stores, and was one of the last to leave the Crimea in July 1856. For his services he was twice mentioned in despatches, and was raised to the rank of major, received the war medal with clasps, the 5th class of the French Legion of Honour, the 5th class of the Turkish Mejidieh and the Turkish medal. After six months' duty with the 90th
Foot at Aldershot, he went with it again, in March 1857, to join the expedition to China under Major-General the Hon. T. Ashburnham. Wolseley embarked in command of three companies in the transport 'Transvaal,' which was wrecked in the Strait of Bashi. The troops were all saved, but with only their arms and a few rounds of ammunition, and were taken to Singapore, whence, on account of the Indian Mutiny, they were despatched with all haste to Calcutta. Wolseley distinguished himself at the relief of Lucknow under Sir Colin Campbell in November, and in the defence of the Alambagh position under Outram, taking part in the actions of the 22nd of December 1857, the 12th and 16th of January 1858, and the repulse of the grand attack of the 21st of February. In March he served at the final siege and capture of Lucknow. He was then appointed deputy-assistant quartermaster-general on the staff of Sir Hope Grant's Oudh division, and was engaged in all the operations of the campaign, including the actions of Bari, Sarsi, Nawabganj, the capture of Faizabad, the passage of the Gumti and the action of Sultanpur. In the autumn and winter of 1858 he took part in the Baiswara, trans-Gogra and trans-Rapti campaigns, ending with the complete suppression of the rebellion. For his services he was frequently mentioned in despatches, and, having received his Crimean majority in March 1858, was in April 1859 promoted to be lieutenant-colonel, and received the Mutiny medal and clasp.

Wolseley continued to serve on Sir Hope Grant's staff, and when Grant was nominated to the command of the British troops in the Anglo-French expedition to China in 1860, accompanied him as deputy-assistant quartermaster-general. He was present at the action at Sin-bo, the capture of Tang-ku, the storming of the Taku Forts, the occupation of Tientsin, the battle of Pa-le-cheau and the entry into Peking. He assisted in the re-embarkation of the troops before the winter set in. He was mentioned in despatches, and for his services received the medal and two clasps. On his return home he published the Narrative of the Anglo-Chinese War, 1857-1860.

In November 1861 Wolseley was one of the special service officers sent to Canada to make arrangements for the reception of troops in case of war with the United States in connexion with the mail steamer "Trent" incident, and when the matter was amicably settled he remained on the headquarters staff in Canada as assistant quartermaster-general. In 1865 he became a brevet colonel, was actively employed the following year in connexion with the Fenian raids from the United States, and in 1867 was appointed deputy-quartermaster-general in Canada. In 1869 his Soldier's Pocket Book for Field Service was published, and the work went through many editions. In 1870 he successfully commanded the Red River expedition to put down a rising under Louis Riel at Fort Garry, now the city of Winnipeg, the capital of Manitoba, then an outpost in the Wilderness, which could only be reached through a network of rivers and lakes extending for 600 m. from Lake Superior, traversed only by Indians, and where no supplies were obtainable. The admirable arrangements made and the careful organization of the transport reflected great credit on the commander, who on his return home was made K.C.M.G. and C.B.

Appointed assistant adjutant-general at the war office in 1871 he worked hard in furthering the Cardwell schemes of army reform, was a member of the local committee, and a keen advocate of short service, territorial regiments and linked battalions. From this time till he became commander-in-chief Wolseley was the prime mover and the deciding influence in practically all the steps taken at the war office for promoting the efficiency of the army under the altered conditions of the day. In 1873 he commanded the expedition to Ashanti, and, having made all his arrangements at the Gold Coast before the arrival of the white troops in January 1874, was able to complete the campaign in two months, and re-embark them for home before the unhealthy season began. This was the campaign which made his name a household word in England. He fought the battle of Amofu on the 31st of January, and, after five days' fighting, ending with the battle of Orohatsu, entered Kumasi, which he burned. He received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament and a grant of £25,000, was promoted to be major-general for distinguished service in the field, received the medal and clasp and was made G.C.M.G. and K.C.B. The freedom of the city of London was conferred upon him with a sword of honour, and he was made master of the D.C.L. of Oxford and LL.D. of Cambridge universities. On his return home he was appointed inspector-general of auxiliary forces, but had not held the post for a year when, in consequence of the native unrest in Natal, he was sent to that colony as governor and general commanding.

In November 1876 he accepted a seat on the council of India, from which in 1878, having been promoted lieutenant-general, he went as high-commissioner to the newly acquired possession of Cyprus, and in the following year to South Africa to supersede Lord Chelmsford in command of the forces in the Zulu War, and as governor of Natal and of the Transvaal and high commissioner of South-East Africa. But on his arrival at Durban in July he found that the war in Zululand was practically over, and after effecting a temporary settlement he went to the Transvaal. Having reorganized the administration there and reduced the powerful chief Sikukuni to submission, he returned home in May 1880 and was appointed quartermaster-general to the forces. For his services in South Africa he received the Zulu medal with clasp, and was made G.C.B.

In 1882 he was appointed adjutant-general to the forces, and in the following year was appointed vice-admiral of the fleet. In 1884 he was again called away from his duties as adjutant-general to command the expedition for the relief of General Gordon and the besieged garrison of Khartum. The expedition arrived too late: Khartum had fallen, and Gordon was dead; and in the spring of 1885 complications with Russia over the Penjdeh incident occurred, and the withdrawal of the expedition followed. For his services he received two clasps to his Egyptian medal, the thanks of parliament, and was created a viscount and a knight of St Patrick. He continued at the war office as adjutant-general to the forces until 1896, when he was given the command in Ireland. He was promoted to be field marshal, and in 1898 was made colonel of the Royal Horse Guards in 1895, in which year he was appointed by the Unionist government to succeed the duke of Cambridge as commander-in-chief of the forces. This was the position to which his great experience in the field and his previous signal success at the war office itself had fully entitled him. His powers were, however, limited by a new order in council, and after holding the appointment for over five years, he handed over the command-in-chief to Earl Roberts at the commencement of 1901. The fact that the unexpended large force required for South Africa was mainly furnished by means of the system of reserves which Lord Wolseley had originated was in itself a high tribute to his foresight and sagacity; but the new conditions at the war office had never been to his liking, and on being released from responsibility he brought the whole subject before the House of Lords in a speech which resulted in some remarkable disclosures.

Lord Wolseley had been appointed colonel-in-chief of the Royal Irish Regiment in 1888, and in 1901 was made gold-stick in waiting. He was married in 1867 to Louisa, daughter of Mr A. Erskine, his only child, Frances, being heiress to the viscountcy under special remainder. A frequent contributor to periodicals, he also published The Decline and Fall of Napoleon (1859), The Life of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, to the Accession of Queen Anne (1894), and The Story of a Soldier's Life (1903), giving in the last-named work an account of his career down to the close of the Ashanti War.
WOLSEY, Thomas (c. 1475-1530), English cardinal and statesman, born at Ipswich about 1475, was son of Robert Wolsey (or Wuley, as his name was always spelt) by his wife Joan. His father is generally described as a butcher, a fact which must be set against the evidence of his property and a churchwarden of St Nicholas, Ipswich, his character seems to have borne a striking resemblance to that of Thomas Cromwell's father. He was continually being fined for allowing his pigs to stray in the street, selling bad meat, letting his house to doubtful characters for illegal purposes, and generally infringing the by-laws respecting weights and measures (extracts from the Ipswich records, printed in the Athenæum, 1900, i. 400). He died in September 1496, and his will, which has been preserved, was proved a few days later.

Thomas was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford; but the details of his university career are doubtful owing to the defective nature of the university and college registers. He is said to have graduated B.A. at the age of fifteen (i.e. about 1490); but his earliest definite appearance in the records is as junior bursar of Magdalen College in 1498-1500, and senior bursar in 1499-1500, an office he was compelled to resign for applying funds to the completion of the great tower without sufficient authority (W. D. Mace, Reg. of Magdalen College, i. 29-30, 133-134). He must have been elected fellow of Magdalen some years before; and in 1501 he was made one of the four proctors of the college. He was the son of seven sons of Thomas Grey, first marquess of Dorset. Dorset's beneficent intentions for his sons' pedagogue probably suggested Wolsey's ordination as priest at Marlborough on March 10, 1498, and on October 10, 1500, he was instituted, on Dorset's presentation, to the rectory of Limington in Somerset. His connexion with Magdalen had perhaps terminated with his resignation of the bursanship, though he supplicated for the degrees of B.D. and D.D. in 1510; and the college appears to have derived no advantage from Wolsey's subsequent greatness.

At Limington he came into conflict with law and order as represented by the sheriff, Sir Amsa Paulet, who is said by Cavendish to have placed Wolsey in the stocks; Wolsey retaliated long afterwards by confining Paulet to his chambers in the Temple for five or six years. Dorset died in 1501, but Wolsey found other patrons in his pursuit of wealth and fame. Before the end of that year he obtained from the pope a dispensation to hold two livings in conjunction with Limington, and Archdeacon of Canterbury also appointed him his domestic chaplain. Deane, however, died in 1503, and Wolsey became chaplain to Sir Richard Nanfan, deputy of Calais, who apparently recommended him to the king, and the king made Wolsey his chaplain and employed him in diplomatic work. In 1508 he was sent to James IV. of Scotland, and in the same year he pleaded Henry by the extraordinary expedition with which he crossed and recrossed the Channel on an errand connected with the king's proposal of marriage to Margaret of Savoy. His ecclesiastical preferments, of which he received several in 1506-1509, culminated in his appointment by Henry to the deanery of Lincoln on February 2, 1509.

Henry VIII. made Wolsey his chaplain immediately on his accession, and the receipt of some half-dozen further ecclesiastical preferments in the first two years of the reign marks his growth in royal favour. But it was not till the end of 1511 that Wolsey became a privy councillor and secured a controlling voice in the government. His influence then made itself felt on English policy. The young king took little pains with the government, and the control of affairs was shared between the clerical and peace party led by Richard Fox (q.v.) and Archbishop Warham, and the secular and war party led by Surrey. Hitherto pacific counsels had on the whole prevailed; but Wolsey, who was nothing if not turbulent, turned the balance in favour of war, and his marvellous administrative energy first found full scope in the preparations for the English expedition to Biscay in 1512, and for the campaign in northern France in 1513. He brought about the peace with France and marriage between Mary Tudor and Louis XII. in 1514, and reaped his reward in the bishoprics of Lincoln and Tournai, the archbishopric of York, which was conferred on him by papal bull in September, and the cardinalate which he had sent Polydore Vergil to beg from Leo X. in May 1514, but did not receive till the following year. Nevertheless, when Francis I. in 1515 succeeded Louis XII. and won the battle of Marignano, Wolsey took the lead in assisting the emperor Maximilian to oppose him; and this revival of warlike designs was resented by Fox and Warham, who retired from the government, leaving Wolsey supreme. Maximilian proved a broken reed, and in 1518 Wolsey brought about a general pacification, securing at the same time his appointment as legate à latere in England. He thus superseded Warham, who was legalis notius, in ecclesiastical authority; and though legates à latere were supposed to exercise only special and temporary powers, Wolsey secured the practical permanence of his office.

The election of Charles V. as emperor in 1519 brought the rivalry between him and Francis I. to a head, and Wolsey was mainly responsible for the attitude adopted by the English government. Both monarchs were eager for England's alliance, and their suit enabled Wolsey to appear for the moment as the arbiter of Europe. England's commercial relations with Charles V.'s subjects in the Netherlands put war with the emperor almost out of the question; and cool observers thought that England's obvious field of action was to stand by while the two rivals enfeebled each other, and then make her own profit out of their weakness. But, although a show of force with a flotilla of English ships kept up at the Field of Cloth of Gold in 1520, it had been determined before the conference of Calais in 1521, at which Wolsey pretended to adjudicate on the merits of the dispute, to side actively with Charles V. Wolsey had vested interests in such a policy. Parliament had in 1513-1515 showed signs of strong anti-clerical feeling; Wolsey had in the latter year urged its speedy dissolution, and had not called another; and he probably hoped to distract attention from the church by a spirited foreign policy, as Henry V. had done a century before. He had, however, been unable to prevent the emperor, who was at that time engaged with France, from exercising further Wolsey's candidature for the papacy; and although he protested to Henry VIII. that he would rather continue in his service than be ten popes, that did not prevent him from secretly instructing his agents at Rome to press his claims to the utmost. Charles, however, paid Wolsey the sincere compliment of thinking that he would not be sufficiently subservient on the papal throne; while he wrote letters in Wolsey's favour, he took care that they should not reach their destination in time; and Wolsey failed to secure election both in 1521 and 1524. This ambition distinguishes his foreign policy from that of Henry VII., to which it is often likened. Henry VIII. carded only one hand with France; Wolsey's object was to play a great part on the European stage. The aim of the one was national, that of the other was occumematical.

In any case the decision taken in 1521 was a blunder. Wolsey's assistance helped Charles V. to that position of predominance which was strikingly illustrated by the defeat and capture of Francis I. at Pavia in 1525; and the balance of power upon which England's influence rested was destroyed. Her efforts to restore it in 1526-1528 were ineffectual; her prestige had depended upon her reputation for wealth derived from the fact that she had acted in recent years as the paymaster of Europe. But Henry VIII.'s accumulations had disappeared; parliament resisted in 1533 the imposition of new taxation; and the attempts to raise forced loans and benevolences in 1526-1528 created a storm of opposition. Still more unpopular was the brief war with Charles V. in which Wolsey involved England in 1528. The sack of Rome in 1527 and the defeat of the French before Naples in 1528 confirmed Charles V.'s supremacy. Peace was made in 1529 between the two rivals without England being consulted, and her influence at Wolsey's fall was less than it had been at his accession to power.

This failure reacted upon Wolsey's position at home. His domestic was sounder than his foreign policy: by his development of the star chamber, by his firm administration of justice and maintenance of order, and by his repression of feudal jurisdiction, he rendered great services to the monarchy. But the inevitable opposition of the nobility to this policy was not
mitigated by the fact that it was carried out by a churchman; the result was to embitter the antagonism of the secular party to the church and to concentrate it upon Wolsey's head. The control of the papacy by Charles V., moreover, made it impossible for Wolsey to succeed in his efforts to obtain from Clement VII. the divorce which Henry VIII. was seeking from Charles V.'s aunt, Catherine of Aragon. An inscription on a contemporary portrait of Wolsey at Aras calls him the author of the divorce, and Roman Catholic historians from Sanders downwards have generally adopted the view that Wolsey advocated this measure merely as a means to break England's alliance with Spain and confirm its alliance with France. This view is untenable, and besides, the painstaking and patriotic motives which lay behind that movement. There is no evidence that Wolsey first suggested the divorce, though when he found that Henry was bent upon it, he pressed for two points: (i.) that an application should be made to Rome, instead of deciding the matter in England, and (ii.) that Henry, when divorced, should marry a French princess.

The appeal to Rome was a natural course to be advocated by Wolsey, whose despotism over the English church depended upon an authority derived from Rome; but it was probably a mistake. It has been suggested that at the time, when he was again in the captivity of Clement VII., that England and France should set up independent patriarchates; and its success depended upon the problematical destruction of Charles V.'s power in Italy. At first this seemed not improbable; French armies marched south on Naples, and the pope sent Campeggio with full powers to pronounce the divorce in England. But he had hardly started when the French were defeated in 1528; their ruin was completed in 1529, and Clement VII. was obliged to come to terms with Charles V., which included Campeggio's recall in August 1529.

Wolsey clearly foresaw his own fall, the consequent attack on the church and the triumph of the secular party. Parliament, which he had kept at arm's length, was hostile; he was hated by the nobility, and his general unpopularity is reflected in Skelton's satires and in Hall's Chronicle. Even churchmen had been alienated by his suppression of monasteries and by his monopoly of ecclesiastical power; and his only support was the king, who had now developed a determination to rule himself. He surrendered all his offices and all his prelates except the archbishopric of York, receiving in return a pension of 1000 marks (equal to six or seven thousand pounds in modern currency) from the bishopric of Winchester, and retired to his see, which he had never before visited. A bill of attainder, passed by the Lords, was rejected at Cromwell's instigation and probably with Henry's goodwill by the Commons. The last few months of his life were spent in the exemplary discharge of his archepiscopal duties; but a not altogether unfounded suspicion that he had invoked the assistance of Francis I., if not of Charles V., and the pope, to prevent his fall involved him in a charge of treason. He was summoned to London, but died on his way to Leicester abbey on November 30, and was buried there on the following day.

The completeness of Wolsey's fall enhanced his former appearance of greatness, and, indeed, he is one of the outstanding figures in English history. His qualities and his defects were alike exhibited on a generous scale; and if his greed and arrogance were colossal, so were his administrative capacity and his appetite for work. "He is," wrote the Venetian ambassador Giustiniani, "very handsome, learned, extremely eloquent, of vast ability and indefatigable. He alone transacts the business which occupies the ears and intellects of Venice, both civil and criminal; and all state affairs are managed by him, let their nature be what it may. He is grave, and has the reputation of being extremely just; he favours the people exceedingly, and especially the poor, hearing their suits and seeking to despatch them instantly." As a diplomatist he has had few rivals and perhaps no superiors. But his pride was equal to his abilities. The familiar charge, repeated in Shakespeare, of having written Ego et meus rex, while true in fact, is false in intention, because no Latin scholar could put the words in any other order; but it reflects faithfully enough Wolsey's mental attitude. Giustiniani explains that he had to make proposals to the cardinal before he broached them to Henry, lest Wolsey "should resist the precedence conceded to the king." "He is," wrote another diplomatist, "the proudest prelate that ever breathed." He arrogated to himself the privileges of royalty, made servants attend him upon their knees, compelled bishops to tie his shoelatches and dukes to hold the basin while he washed his hands, and considered it condensation when he allowed ambassadors to kiss his fingers; he paid little heed to their sacrosanct character, and himself laid violent hands on a papal nuncio. His egoism equaled Henry VIII.'s; his jealousy and ill-treatment of his predecessor, Rich, of Ppace, has been excused by the historian, but vehemently denied by Dr Brewer, has been proved by the publication of the Spanish state papers; and Polydore Vergil, the historian, and Sir R. Sheffield, speaker of the House of Commons, were both sent to the Tower for complaining of his conduct. His morals were of the laziest description, and he had as many illegitimate children as Henry VIII. himself. For his son, before he was eighteen years old, he procured a deannery, four archdeaconries, five prebends and a chancellorship, and he sought to thrust him into the bishopric of Durham. For himself he allowed, in addition to his chancellorship, the abbey of St Albans, reputed to be the richest in England, and the bishopric first of Bath and Wells, then of Durham, and finally that of Winchester. He also used his power to extort enormous pensions from Charles V. and Francis I. and lavish gifts from English suitors. His New Year's presents were reckoned by Giustiniani at 15,000 ducats, and the emperor paid—or owed—him 18,000 livres a year. His palaces outshone those of his king, and few monarchs could afford such a display of plate as commonly graced the cardinal's table. His foundations at Oxford and Ipswich were, nevertheless, not made out of his superabundant revenues, but out of the proceeds of the dissolution of monasteries, not all of which were devoted to those laudable objects.

That such a man would ever have used the unparalleled powers of ecclesiastical jurisdiction with which he had been entrusted for a genuine reformation of the church is only a pious opinion cherished by those who regret that the Reformation was left for the secular arm to achieve; and it is useless to plead lack of opportunity on behalf of a man who for sixteen years had enjoyed an authority never before or since wielded by an English subject. Wolsey must be judged by his deeds and not by doubtful intentions. During the first half of his government he materially strengthened the Tudor monarchy by the vigorous administration of justice at home and by the brilliance of his foreign policy abroad. But the prestige he secured by 1521 was delusive; its decline was as rapid as its growth, and the expense of the policy involved taxation which seriously weakened the loyalty of the people. The concentration of civil and ecclesiastical power by Wolsey in the hands of a churchman provided a precedent for its concentration by Henry VIII. in the hands of the crown; and the personal example of lavish ostentation and loose morals which the cardinal-archbishop exhibited cannot have been without influence on the king, who grew to maturity under Wolsey's guidance.

The Letters and Papers of Henry VIII., vols. i.-iv., supplemented by the Spanish and Venetian Calendars, contain almost all that is known of Wolsey's public career, though additional light on the divorce has been thrown by Stephen Eeles's Römische Dokumente (1893). Cavendish's brief Life, which is almost contemporary, and has been often edited. Fiddeles's huge tome (1724) is fairly exhaustive. Duppa's fine edition of his claims to the see of York (as his History of the Reign of Henry VIII.), originated modern admiration for Wolsey; and his views are reflected in Creighton's Wolsey, the "Two" of Marney's fine Life, and in Gairdner's careful articles in the Dict. Nat. Bio., and Cambridge Modern History. A less enthusiastic view is adopted in H. A. L. Fisher's volume (v.) in Longman's Political History (1906) and in A. Couty's England's History (1902 and 1903).

WOLTER, CHARLOTTE (1834-1897), Austrian actress, was born at Cologne on the 1st of March 1834, and began her artistic career at Budapest in 1857. She played minor parts at the Karl
theatre in Vienna, and soon obtained an engagement at the Victoria theatre in Berlin, where she remained until 1861. Her performance of Hermione in the Winter's Tale took the playgoing world by storm, and she was given in 1862 an appointment at the Vienna Hofburg theatre, to which she remained faithful until her death on the 14th of June 1895. According to her wish, she was buried in the costume of Iphigenia, in which rôle she had achieved her most brilliant success. Charlotte Wolter was one of the representatives of modern Scotch Nonconformity, in Wolverhampton, and coming of a Liberal nonconformist family took a prominent part in politics. In 1868 he was elected Liberal member of parliament for Wolverhampton, and was re-elected for the east division at successive contests. In 1884–1885 he was under-secretary for the Home Office, and in 1886 financial secretary to the treasury. In Mr Gladstone's 1862–1864 ministry he was president of the local government board, and in Lord Rosebery's cabinet, 1894–1895, secretary of state for India. In these and the succeeding years of opposition he was recognized as a sound economist and a sober administrator, as well as a universal respected representative of nonconformist type. In Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's cabinet, 1905–1908, he was chancellor of the Exchequer of Lancaster, and he retained this office in Mr Asquith's ministry, but was transferred to the House of Lords with a viscountcy (April 1908). He retired in 1910. His daughter, Ellen Thorneycroft Fowler, who married Mr A. L. Felkin in 1903, became well known as a novelist with her Concerning Isabel Carnaby (1899) and other books.

**Wolverhampton, a town market, and municipal, county, and parliamentary borough of Staffordshire, England, 125 m. N.W. from London by the London & North-Western railway, served also by the northern line of the Great Western and by a branch of the Midland railway. Pop. (1891) 82,622; (1901) 94,187. It lies at the north-western edge of the group of great manufacturing towns extending S.E. to Birmingham, but there are pleasant residential suburbs to the west, where the country is rich and well wooded. The situation is elevated and healthy. The church of St Peter is a fine cruciform building, with S. porch and central tower. The lower part of the tower and the S. transept date from the 13th century; the nave, clerestory, upper part of the tower and N. transept from the 14th; the chancel was rebuilt in the restoration, completed in 1865, with an apsidal termination. The chief public buildings are the town hall (1871), exchange, agricultural hall, free library and theatres. A large free grammar school, founded in 1515 by Sir Stephen Jermyns, a native of the town and alderman of London, occupies modern buildings (1876). There are a Blue Coat school (1710) and a school of art. The benevolent institutions include a general hospital, the eye infirmary, orphan asylum, nursing institution and institute of the society for outdoor blind. In Queen Square is an equestrian statue of Albert, Prince Consort, unveiled by Queen Victoria in 1866, and on Snow Hill a statue (1879) of Charles Pelham Villiers. There are parks on the east and west of the town, and a new racecourse (1887) replaces that formerly on the site of the west park. In the district S. and E. of Wolverhampton (the Black Country) coal and ironstone are mined. Ironmongery and steel goods of all kinds, especially locks, machinery, tools and cycles, are produced; there are also tin and zinc works. Large agricultural markets are supplied from the districts W. and N. of the town. An annual fair is held at Whitsun-tide. In 1902 an industrial and art exhibition was held. The parliamentary borough of Wolverhampton has three divisions, each returning one member. The town is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. Area, 3525 acres. Wednesfield (pop. 4883), Heath Town or Wednesfield Heath (9441) and Willeshall (18,515) are neighbouring urban districts, with populations employed in the manufacture of locks, keys and small iron goods, in iron and brass foundries, varnish works, &c.

The town of Wolverhampton (Handon, Wolverhampton, Wolverhampton) seems to have grown up round the church of St Mary, afterwards the royal free chapel of Wolverhampton, probably founded in 906 by Wulftruna, widow of the earl of Northampton, who in that year endowed it with extensive lands. The estates of the clerks of Handon are enumerated in Domesday. In 1204 John granted the manor of Wolverhampton to the church, and at the Reformation it was held by the dean of the collegiate body; in 1553 Edward VI. granted the college and manor to Dudley, duke of Northumberland, but Mary, at the beginning of her reign, refounded the college and restored to it its property, and this arrangement was confirmed by Elizabeth. Henry III. (1255) granted the Wednesday market, which is still held, and a fair for eight days, beginning on the eve of the feast of SS. Peter and Paul (June 29). During the Great Rebellion the sympathies of Wolverhampton were royalist. In 1645 it was for a time the headquarters of Prince Rupert, while Charles I. lay at Bushbury to the north. At the end of the 17th century the market was esteemed the second market in the county. An account of Wolverhampton published in 1751 stated that the chief manufacture was locks, "here being the most ingenious locksmiths in England," and attributed the slow growth of the town to the fact that most of the land was church property. Wolverhampton was incorporated in 1848 as a municipal borough. It was not represented in parliament until after the passing of the Reform Bill (1832), under which it returned two members until in 1885 the representation was increased to three. The county borough dates from 1888.

**Wolverton, a town in the Buckingham parliamentary division of Buckinghamshire, England, near the river Ouse, 543 m. N.W. by N. of London by the London & North-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 5323. Its modern growth and importance are the result of the establishment of carriage works by the Railway company. There are also printing works. A steam tramway connects the town with the old market town of Stony Stratford on the Ouse, 2 m. W.

**Wombat, the title of the typical representatives of the marsupial family Phascolomyidae (see Marsupialia). They have the dental formula: $i_1 \,, c_1 \,, p_3 \,, m_3 = 24.$ All the teeth are of continuous growth, having persistent pulps. The incisors are large and chisel-like, much as in rodents. The body is broad and depressed, the neck short, the head large and flat, the eyes small and the tail rudimentary and hidden in the fur. The

![Tasmanian Wombat (Phascolomyus ursinus).](image-url)
limbs are equal, stout and short. The feet have broad, naked, tuberculated soles; the forefeet with five distinct toes, each furnished with a long, strong and slightly curved nail, the first and fifth considerably shorter than the other three. The hind-feet have a very short nailless first toe; the second, third and fourth toes partially united by integument, of nearly equal length; the fifth distinct and rather shorter; these four are provided with long and curved nails. In the typical group of the genus Phascolomys we find the following characters: fur rough and coarse; ears short and rounded; muzzle naked; postorbital process of the frontal bone obsolete; ribs fifteen pairs. Vertebrae: C. 7, D. 15, L. 4, S. 4, Ca. 10-12. The womb of Tasmania and the islands of Bass's Straits (P. urinus), and the closely similar but larger P. platyurus of the southern portion of the mainland of Australia, belong to this group. On the other hand, in the hairy-nosed wombat (P. latifrons) of Southern Australia, the fur is smooth and silky; the ears are large and more pointed; the muzzle is hairy; the frontal region of the skull is broader than in the other section, with well-marked postorbital processes; and there are thirteen ribs. Vertebrae: C. 7, D. 13, L. 6, S. 4, Ca. 15-16.

In general form and action wombats resemble small bears, having a somewhat similar shuffling manner of walking, but they are still shorter in the legs, and have a broader and flatter back. They live entirely on the ground, or in burrows or holes among rocks, and feed on grass, roots and other vegetable substances. They sleep during the day, but wander forth at night in search of food, and are shy and gentle, though they can bite strongly when provoked. The only noise the Tasmanian wombat makes is a low hissing, but the hairy-nosed wombat is said to emit a short quick grunt when annoyed. The prevailing colour of the last-named species, as well as P. urinus of Tasmania, is brownish grey. The large wombats of the mainland is variable in colour, some individuals being pale yellowish brown, others dark grey and some black. The length of the head and body is about 3 ft. Fossil remains of wombats, some of larger size than any now existing, have been found in caves and Pleistocene deposits in Australia.

WOMBWELL, an urban district in the Barnsley parliamentary division of the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 4 m. S.E. of Barnsley, on the Great Central and Midland railways. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in the extensive collieries. Pop. (1901) 13,252.

WOMEN. The very word "woman" (O. Eng. wißmann), etymologically meaning a wife (or the wife division of the human race, the female of the species Hemo), sums up a long history of dependence and subordination, from which the women of to-day have only gradually emancipated themselves in such parts of the world as come under "Western civilization." Though married life and its duties necessarily form a predominant element in the woman's sphere, they are not necessarily the whole of it; and the "woman's movement" is essentially a struggle for the recognition of equality of opportunity with men, and for equal rights irrespective of sex, even if special relations and conditions are willingly incurred under the form of partnership involved in marriage. The difficulties of obtaining this recognition are obviously due to historical causes combined with the habits and customs which history has produced.

The dependent position of women in early law is proved by the evidence of most ancient systems which have in whole or in part descended to us. In the Mosaic law divorce was a privilege of the husband only; the vow of a woman might be disallowed by her father or husband, and daughters could inherit only in the absence of sons, and then they must marry in their tribe. The guilt or innocence of a wife accused of adultery might be tried by the ordeal of the bitter water. Besides these instances, which illustrate the subordination of women, there was much legislation dealing with, inter alia, offences against chastity, and marriage of a man with a captive heathen woman or with a purchased slave. So far from second marriages being restrained, as they were by Christian legislation, it was the duty of a childless widow to marry her deceased husband's brother. In India subjection was a cardinal principle. "Day and night must women be held by their protectors in a state of dependence," says Manu. The rule of inheritance was agnostic, that is, descent traced through male to the exclusion of females. The gradual growth of stridhana, or property of a woman given by the husband before or after marriage, or by the wife's family, may have led to the suite, for both the family of the widow and the Brahmans had an interest in getting the live estate of a woman out of the way. Women in Hindu law had only limited rights of inheritance, and were disqualified as witnesses.

In Roman law a woman was even in historic times completely dependent. If married she and her property passed into the power of her husband; if unmarried she was (unless a vestal virgin) under the perpetual tutelage of her father during his life, and after his death of her agnates, that is, those of her kinsmen by blood or adoption who would have been under the power of the common ancestor he had lived. Failing agnates, the tutelage probably passed to the gens. The wife was the purchased property of her husband, and, like a slave, acquired only for his benefit. A woman could not exercise any civil or public office. In the words of Ulpian, "feminae ab omnibus officiis civilibus vel publicis remotae sunt." A woman could not continue a family, for she was "incapax et infirmus," she could not be a witness, surety, tutor, or curator; she could not adopt or be adopted, or make a will or contract. She could not succeed ab intestato as an agnate, if further removed than a sister. A daughter might be disinherited by a general clause, a son only by name. On the other hand, a woman was privileged in some matters, but rather from a feeling of pity for her bodily weakness and presumed mental incapacity than for any more worthy reason. Thus she could plead ignorance of law as a ground for dissolving an obligation, which a man could not as a rule do; she could accuse only in cases of treason and witchcraft; and she was in certain cases exempt from torture. In succession ab intestato to immovable property Roman law did not, as does English, recognize any privilege of males over females.

Legal disabilities were gradually mitigated by the influence of fictions, the praetorian equity and legislation. An example of the first was the mode by which a woman freed herself from the authority of her tutor by fictitious cession into the authority of a tutor nominated by herself, or by sale of herself into the power of a nominal husband on the understanding that he was merely nominal heir to another person, who then emancipated her. The action of equity is illustrated by the recognition by the praetor of cognatic or natural as distinguished from agnatic or artificial relationship, and of a widow's claim to succeed on the death of her husband intestate and without relations. Legislation, beginning as early as the Twelve Tables, which forbade excessive mourning for the dead by female mourners, did not progress uniformly towards enfranchisement of women. For instance, the Lex Voconia (about 169 B.C.), called by St Augustine the most unjust of all laws, provided that a woman could not inherit, nor be instituted heir to a man who was registered as owner of a fortune of 100,000 asses. A constitution of Valentinian I forbade bequests by women to ecclesiastics. But the tendency

1 But in the earliest extant code, however, that of Khammurabi, the position of women was free and dignified. See Babylonian Law.
2 Deut. xxiv. 1.
3 Numb. xxx. 3.
4 Numb. xxvii., xxxvi.
5 Numb. v. 11.
6 Ch. ix. § 2 (Sir W. Jones's translation).
7 Whether this was the oldest rule of inheritance has been much debated. That birth of a child gave the mother certain legal rights in a primitive stage of society is the view of many writers. See especially, H. Morshead of J. J. Bachofen (Zurich, 1880).
8 Maine, Early History of Institutions, lect. xi.
9 Dig. i. 16, 195.
10 Ibid.
11 Imbecilitas is the term used more than once in the texts of Roman law.
12 The way in which this law was evaded was by non-enrolment of the testator in the census (see Montesquieu, Esprit des lois, bk. xxvii.). Another way was by leaving her the inheritance by fiduciarium (see Trust).
rule of the English common law after the Reformation. The ceremony was not to be performed during Lent. The woman was to be veiled during the ceremony. A promise of marriage was so sacred that it made a subsequent marriage with another person void. Spiritual cognition was a bar to marriage. The sentence of the church was made necessary for divorce. As to women in general the law does not say very much. Women, even relatives, were not to live with priests unless in case of necessity. They were not to approach the altar or fill any public office in the church; nor might they lend money on usury. Baptism might be valid although administered by a woman. Women who had professed religion could not be forced to give evidence as witnesses. In some cases the evidence of women was not receivable.4

The early law of the northern parts of Europe is interesting from the different ways in which it treated women. In the words of Sir H. Maine6 the position of women in these barbarous systems of inheritance varies very greatly. Sometimes they inherit, either as individuals or as classes, only when the same generation have failed. Sometimes they do not inherit, but transmit a right of inheritance to their male issue. Sometimes they succeed to one kind of property, for the most part movable property, which they probably took a great share in producing by their household labour; for example, in the real Salic law (not in the imaginary code) there is a set of rules of succession which, in my opinion, clearly admit women and their descendants to a share in the inheritance of movable property, but confine land exclusively to males and the descend-

ance of males. That the proper mode of providing for a woman is by giving her a marriage portion; but, when she is once married into a separate community consisting of strangers in blood, neither she nor her children are deemed to have any further claim on the parent group.7 Among the Scandinavian races women were under perpetual tutelage, whether married or unmarried. The first to obtain freedom were the widows. As late as the code of Christian V., at the end of the 17th century, it was enacted that if a woman married without the consent of her tutor he might have, if he wished, administration and usufruct of her goods during her life. The provision made by the Scandinavian laws under the name of a marriage gift was perhaps the parent of the modern settled property. The Breton law of Ireland excepted women from the ordinary course of the law. They could distrain or contract only in certain named cases, and distress upon their property was regulated by special rules. In the pre-Conquest codes in England severe laws were denounced against unchastity, especially procurement and incest. It was a capital crime to carry off or offer violence to a nun. A wife could not commit furtum of her husband's goods, even from his own house, under penalty of execution. By several sumptuary constitutions, contained in the Code of the year 586, women as well as men were subject to penalties for wearing dress or ornament (such as rings) imitating those reserved for the emperor and his family. A woman who wore a dress of gold in public was to be veiled by the dress of virgins devoted to Heaven. If a consul had a wife or mother living with him, he was allowed to incur greater expense than if he lived alone. The interests of working women were protected by enactments for the regulation of the gymnasia, or workshops for spinning, dyeing, &c.

The canon law, looking with disfavour on the female independence prevailing in the later Roman law, tended rather in the opposite direction. The Decretum specially inculcated subjection of the wife to the husband, and obedience to his will in all things. The chief differences between canon and Roman law were in the religious aspect, and in the greater latitude in the introduction of publicity and of the formalities of the ring and the kiss. The benediction of a priest was made necessary part of the ceremony, as indeed it had been made by the civil power, as has been already stated, in the post-Justinian period of Roman law. But in practice this rule appears to have fallen into disuse until it was again revived by the council of Trent. It was, however, the

4 On this branch of the subject see Mannes's Het Christendom en de Vrouwen (Leiden, 1872).

5 Early Law and Custom, ch. v.

6 See Stierhöök, De Juris Svernum (Stockholm, 1672), bk. ii. ch. i.; Mose, Lex Salicae (Stockholm, 1714).

7 Bk. iii. ch. xvi. § 1. 2.

8 The development of the bride-price no doubt was in the same direction. Its original meaning was, however, different. It was the sum paid by the husband to the wife's family for the purchase of part of the family property, while the morning-gift was paid as pretium virginisatis to the bride herself. In its English form morning-gift occurs in the laws of Canute; in its Latinized form of morgagnia it occurs in the Leges Henrici Primi.
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period. The laws of Edmund to that of her husband's property; the laws of Edmund as to betrothal allowed this to be increased to half by antenuptial contract, to the whole if she had children and did not re-marry after her husband's death. No doubt the dower ad estium ecclesiae favoured by the church generally superseded the legal rights where the property was large (in fact the credit of the dower is c. 7). "Proviso hominis tollit provisionem legis." The legal rights of a married woman apart from contract were gradually limited, until by the time of Glanvill her person and property had become during her husband's lifetime entirely at his disposal, and after his death limited to her dower and her pars rationabilis.

A few of the more interesting matters in which the old common and statute law of England placed women in a special position may be noticed. A woman was exempt from legal duties more particularly attaching to men and not performable by deputy. She could apparently originally not hold proper feud, i.e. one of which the tenure was by military service. 1 The same principle appears in the rule that she could not be endowed of a castle maintained for the defence of the realm and not for the private use of the owner. She could receive homage, but not render it in the form used by men, and she was privileged from suit and service at the sheriff's tourn. She was not sworn to the law by the oath of allegiance in the leet or tourn, and so could not be outlawed, but was said to be waived. She could be constable, either of a castle or a vill, but not sheriff, unless in the one case of possession of a castle and the other by actual exercise in person in the 17th century by the famous Anne, countess of Dorset and Montgomery. In certain cases a woman could transmit rights which she could not enjoy. On such a power of transmission, as Sir H. Maine shows, 2 rested the claim of Edward III. to the crown of France. The claim through a woman was not a breach of the French constitutional law, which rejected the claim of a woman. The jealousy of a woman's political influence is strikingly shown by the case of Alice Perrers, the mistress of Edward III. She was accused of breaking an ordinance by which women were forbidden to do business for hire and by way of maintenance in the king's 3

By Magna Carta a woman could not accuse a man of murder except of that of her husband. This disability did not arise from the fact that in trial by battle she naturally did not appear in person but by a champion. She was not admitted as a witness to prove the statement of a man in the question arising whether he were free or a villein. She could not petition the king against her guardian, only be a guardian even of her own children to a limited extent. Her will was revoked by marriage, that of a man only by marriage and the subsequent birth of a child. By Magna Carta, c. 5, a widow or daughter of a knight was not to wear veils above twelvemonth in value. Handicraftsmen's and yeomen's veils were not to wear cloths veils. The use of fur was confined to the ladies of knights with a rental above 200 marks a year. Careful observance of difference of rank in the dress was also inculcated by Magna Carta, c. 9. The widow or daughter of a knight was not to wear cloths of gold or sable fur, of a knight-bachelor not velvet, of an esquire or gentleman not velvet, linen or ermine, of a labourer not clothes beyond a certain price or a girdle of silk. 4

The woman's daily dress was also a well-determined matter by the legislature. By 3 Edw. IV. c. 6, handicraftsmen were to use only one mystery, but women might work as they had been accustomed. 3 Edw. IV. c. 3

1 It is remarkable that the great fiefs of France, except the Isle of France, the special appanage of the crown, all became in time female Red. This is shown by the table at the end of Laboulaye's Recherches.

2 Early Law and Custom, ch. v.


4 It forbade importation of silk and lace by Lombards and other alien strangers, imagining to destroy the craft of the silk spinners and all that craft's occasions for women. In some cases the wives and daughters of tradesmen were allowed to wear what their husbands and fathers; see, for instance, the act concerning tailors, 1 Jac. I. c. 22. Some trading corporations, such as the East India Company, were allowed to have women among their members. The disabilities imposed on women by substantive law sometimes traceable in the early law of procedure. For instance, by the Statute of Uses (12 Edw. II. st. 2), essoin de veloir regit did not lie where there was a woman; that is, a woman (with a few exceptions) could not excuse her absence from court by alleging that she was on public duty. The influence of the church is very clearly traceable in the development of legislation. Thus by 13 Edw. I. st. 1, c. 34, it was punishable with the loss of all her movable property by a nun, even with her consent. The Six Articles, 31 Hen. VIII. c. 14, forbade marriage and concubinage of priests and sanctioned vows of poverty by women.

In Scotland, as early as Regim Majestatem (12th century) women were the object of special legal regulation. In that work the mercheta mulieris (where a tax paid to the lord on the marriage of his tenant's daughter) was fixed at a sum differing according to the rank of the woman. Numerous ancient laws dealt with trade and sumptuary matters. By the Leges Quatuor Burgessorum female brewers making bad ale were to forfeit eightpence and be put on the cucullus-stool, and were to set an ale-ward outside their houses to prevent any of fourpence. The same laws also provided that a married woman committing a trespass without her husband's knowledge might be distrained for it, as "trenchant a woman." The child of a woman who was not a nun, the defensor, was made to eat a girl to the value of a pound of the flesh of a gild-bridelet unable to provide for herself the"bag of a child" of the case, and to put her in a convent. By the act 1429, c. 9, wives were to be arrayed after the estate of their husbands. By 1457, c. 13, no woman accused of theft to church was to be imprisoned in a convent, but was to be tried as if she were a layman. Modern English law specially affecting women; see, for instance, EVIDENCE, DIVORCE, MARRIAGE, CHILDREN (Law relating to), INFANT, HUSBAND AND WIFE. The movement for removing the older disabilities has progressed at such different rates in various countries that it is impossible to do more than note here the chief distinctions remaining under English law in 1910.

Civil Rights.—The age at which a girl can contract a valid marriage, and marriage, is the same in England now as it was 200 years in advance of a boy, who must be fourteen. Under the Infants Settlement Act 1855, a valid settlement could be made by a woman at any time before the approval of the court, the age for a man being twenty; by the Matrimonial Settlements Act 1882, partial settlements by a husband of his wife's property is not valid unless executed by her if she is of full age, or confirmed by her after she attains full age. An unmarried woman is liable for the support of illegitimate children till they attain the age of sixteen. She is generally assisted in the absence of agreement, by an affiliation order granted by magis-

A married woman having separate property, is, under the Married Women's Property Acts 1882 and 1908, liable for the support of her parents, husband, children and grandchildren becoming chargeable to any union or parish. At common law the father was entitled to maintain his children against his wife, but was a legitimate child up to the age of sixteen, and could only forfeit such maintenance for misconduct. But the Court of Chancery, wherever there was trust property and the infant could be made a ward of court, took a less rigid view of the parent's liability than at common law, and allowed the mother the right to support, and educate the child, and consequently in some cases to the extension of the mother's rights at common law. Legislation has tended in the same direction. The Matrimonial Causes Act 1857, the Court of Chancery was empowered to enforce a prenuptial agreement for the upkeep the custody or control of a child to the mother. The Judicature Act 1873, § 25 (10), enacted that in questions relating to the custody of a child the decision of the court was to be had by the legislature. By 37 Edw. IV. c. 6, handicraftsmen were to use only one mystery, but women might work as they had been accustomed. 3 Edw. IV. c. 3

5 It is remarkable that the great fiefs of France, except the Isle of France, the special appanage of the crown, all became in time female Red. This is shown by the table at the end of Laboulaye's Recherches.
The most remarkable disabilities under which women were still placed in 1910 were (1) the exclusion of female heirs from intestate succession; (2) the doctrine of coverture, under which the husband alone could enter into any contract or convey title; (3) the law of Inheritance; Succession; and (2) the fact that a husband could obtain a divorce for the adultery of his wife, while a wife could only obtain it for her husband's adultery if coupled with some other cause, such as cruelty.

Suits in which either necessarily or practically only women are plaintiffs are: breach of promise, afflication (q.v.) and (though not necessarily so) infringement of a woman's personal rights.

The action for breach of promise 1 may indeed be brought by a man, but this is very rare, and its only real interest is as a protection for women. It may be brought by but not against an infant, and not against a married woman (with certain exceptions, such as the case of a child born during infancy; it may be brought against but not by a married man or woman (in spite of the inherent incapacity of such a person to have married the plaintiff), and neither by nor against the personal representatives of a deceased party (the plaintiff will usually receive special damages have accrued to the personal estate of the deceased).

The promise need not be in writing. The parties to an action are by 32 and 33 Vict. c. 68: competent witnesses; the plaintiff cannot, however, recover a verdict without his or her testimony being corroborated by other material evidence. The measure of damages is to a greater extent than in most actions at the discretion of the judge: they may be into consideration the injury to the plaintiff, the feelings, especially if the breach of promise be aggravated by seduction. Either party has a right to trial by jury under the rules of the Supreme Court, 1889. The action cannot be tried in a county court, unless it be for a nominal sum, as in any action for damages, where the amount is under £5.

Unchastity of the plaintiff unknown to the defendant when the promise was made and dissolution of the contract by mutual consent is stipulated is not usually regarded as a valid defense for the action. Bodily infirmity of the defendant is no defense to the action, though it may justify the other party in refusing to marry the person thus affected. Where the party's are within prohibited degrees of consanguinity or affinity, there can be no valid promise at all, and so no action for its breach.

Criminal Law.—There are some offences which can be committed only by women, others which can be committed only against them. Among the former are concealment of birth (in nineteen out of the hundred), the now obsolete offense of being a common scold, and prostitution (q.v.) and kindred offenses. Where a married woman was the subject of the complaint, it was generally supposed to have acted by his coercion, and so to be entitled to acquittal. This presumption, however, was never made in witchcraft cases, and is not now made in cases of treason, murder, and other grave crimes, or in crimes in which the principal is not usually taken by the wife, such as keeping a brothel. In fact, the exceptions to the old presumption are now perhaps more numerous than those falling within it. The doctrine of coercion and the practice of separate acknowledgment of deeds by married women have given rise to a number of cases. Any attempt to bring them to be vestiges of the period when women, besides being chattels, were treated as chattels. Formerly a wife could not steal her husband's property, but since the Married Women's Property Act this has become possible. Adultery is no crime. England is, in this respect, the only country where such is the case. It was punished by fine in the ecclesiastical courts up to the 15th century, and was made criminal by the statute De lavando effectus (1417). The offenses which can be committed only against women and which the women themselves commit, are such as the solicitude of the witchcraft (see Witchcraft, and Drowning), and the learned are ingenious in finding in these offenses. The law on this subject is naturally very complex, but the English system is, in substance, the same as that of any other civilized country.

The whole idea of women's position in social life, and their ability to take their place, independently of any question of sex, in the work of the world, was radically changed in the English-speaking countries, and also in the more progressive nations beyond their bounds, during the 19th century. This is due primarily to the movement for women's higher education and its results. To deal in detail with this movement in various countries would here be too intricate a matter; but in the English-speaking countries at all events the change is so complete that the only curious thing in the whole matter may be the apparent contradiction in the course of events. The education of women in England, which was practically confined to the sons of the clergy, was brought within the reach of the daughters of the middle and lower classes by the efforts of such men as Sir George Gilboy, who in 1836 published a pamphlet for the separate education of boys and girls; by the opening of the University of Oxford, which was abolished in 1828; Chastisement of a wife by a husband, possibly at one time lawful to a reasonable extent, would now certainly constitute an assault. The husband's rights are limited to restraining the wife's liberty in case of her misconduct.

In Scotland the criminal law differs slightly from that of England. At one time drowning was a punishment specially reserved for women. Incest (q.v.), or an attempt to commit incest, has always been punishable as a crime. Adultery and fornication are still nominally crimes, but criminal proceedings in these cases have fallen into desuetude. The age of testamentary capacity is still twelve, not fourteen, as in England.

Higher education and its results.

1 The action for breach of promise of marriage is in some of its incidents peculiar to English law. In Roman law, betrothal, sponsosia, imposed a duty on the betrothed to become husband and wife within a reasonable time, subject to the termination of the obligation by death, repudiation by the words condiciones tuae mun suer, or lapse of time. If the woman were within twenty years of age at the time of the promise to marry unless arroha sponsosiae had been given, is, earnest of the bargain, to be forfeited by the party refusing to carry it out. The arroha might also be given by a parent, and was equally liable to repudiation. In this case, a refusal to marry the wife of his or her husband was in most cases to recover any arroha that might have been given, for being supposed that he or she was in a position of authority and able to extort a promise from the plaintiff. In the case of the breach of law breach of the promise made by the sponsosia, whether de praesenti or de futuro, a division unknown to Roman law, does not without more appear to have sufficed to found an action for its breach, except so far as it fell under ecclesiastical cognizance as laeta fide, but it had the more serious legal effect of avoiding as a canonical disability the subsequent marriage, while the original sponsosia continued, of a betrothed person to any other than the one to whom he or she was already engaged. This disability became absolute, either by mutual consent or by certain supervening impediments, such as ordination or a vow of chastity. The canonical disability of so long duration fell in England by 1871, and was re-established in the reign of Edward VI., and finally abolished in 1753. In England the duty of the parties is the same as in other countries. The law of 1871, c. 51, s. 20, s. 28, is a proper cause to a decree for the declaration of marriage and equivalent to marriage, unless declared void during the lifetime of the parties.
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Catholic university in Ireland, it was provided that two members of the senate should be women; and Queen's University, Belfast, had three women in 1910 in its senate. Women may point with justifiable pride to the fact that within a very few years of their admission to university examinations, they provided at Cambridge both a senior classic and a senior wrangler. In America (see Co-education) the movement has gone much farther than in Great Britain.

There is a delicate, calm, earnest demeanour of women, both in the schools and in university life, awakened admiration and respect from all; and the movement brought into existence a vast number of women, as well-educated as men, hard-working, persevering and capable, who invaded many professions, and could hold their ground where a sound education was the foundation of success. The pioneers of female education spent their energies in developing their higher and more intellectual ideals, but later years opened up other positions which better education has enabled women to fill. In the literary field they soon invaded journalism (see Newspapers), and took an important place on the staffs of libraries and museums. They form an important (and in America, the predominating) section of the teaching profession in the state schools, and in all research work play an increasing vitally important part. It is not possible for every woman to be a scholar, a doctor (see below), a lawyer, or possibly to attain the highest position in professions where competition with men is keen, but the development of women's work has opened many other outlets for their energies. As members of school boards, factory inspectors, poor law guardians, sanitary inspectors, they have been able to make a wide and ample scope for gratifying their ambition and energy. The progress made in philanthropy and religious activity is largely due to their devotion, under the auspices of countless new societies. And increasing provision has been made, in the arts and crafts, for the furtherance of their careers. There are successful women architects now working in England, and in 1903 a woman won the silver medal of the Royal Society of British Architects; a large number of women travel for business firms; in decorative work, as silversmiths, dentists, law copyists, proof-readers, and in plan tracing women work with success; wood-carving has become almost as recognized a career for them as that of typewriting and shorthand, in which an increasing number are finding employment. Agriculture and gardening have opened up a new field of work, and, with it, kindred occupations.

Women have always found a peculiarly fitting sphere as nurses, though it is only in recent years that nursing (q.v.) has been professionalized by means of proper education. Medicine. But their admission to the medical profession itself was one of the earliest triumphs of the 19th-century movement. It began in America, but was quickly followed in England. After having been refused admission to instruction by numerous American medical schools, Miss Elizabeth Blackwell was allowed to enter as a student by the Geneva Medical College, N.Y., in 1847, from which she graduated in 1849. Hers was the first woman's name to be placed on the Medical Register of the United Kingdom (1859).

In Great Britain the struggle to obtain admission to the teaching schools and to the examinations for medical degrees and diplomas was long and bitter. Though the Society of the Apothecaries admitted Mrs Garrett Anderson (q.v.) to their diploma in 1865, it was only after a series of rebuffs and failures that women were admitted to the degree examinations of the various universities. In August 1876 an "enabling" act was passed, empowering the nineteen British medical examining bodies to confer their degrees or diplomas without distinction of sex. In 1908 the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons decided to admit women to their diplomas and fellowships. In the meantime women doctors had become a common phenomenon.

Women in England may fill some of the highest positions in the state. A woman may be a bishop, a regent, and as queen regent has, by Mary, sess. 3, c. 1, as full rights as a king. Among the public offices a woman may hold are those of county, borough, parish and rural or urban district councillor, overseer, guardian of the poor, churchwarden and sexton. In 1908 Mrs Garrett Anderson was elected mayor of Aldeburgh, the first case of a woman holding that position. Women have also been nominated as members of Royal Commissions (e.g. those on the Poor Law and Divorce). A woman cannot serve on a jury, but may, if married, be one of a "jury of matrons" appointed to determine the condition of a female prisoner on a writ de ventre inspiciendo. She can vote (if unmarried or a widow) in county council, municipal, poor law and other local elections. The granting of the parliamentary franchise to women was, however, still withheld in 1970. The history of the movement for women's suffrage is told below.

It may be remarked that, with or without the possession of a vote on their own account, politics in England have in modern times been very considerably influenced by the work of women as speakers, canvassers and organizers. The great Conservative and Liberal political parties have been in the main successful in paying the women, and their success is due largely to their influence in the parliamentary party, in women's clubs and societies of middle-class women.

Women's suffrage.

The movement for the abolition of the sex distinction in respect of the right conferred upon certain citizens to share in the election of parliamentary representatives dates for practical purposes from the middle of the 19th century. The governmental systems of the ancient world were based, with or without exception, on the view that women could take no part in state politics, except in oriental countries as monarchs. Exceptional women such as Cleopatra, Semiramis, Arsinoe, might in the absence of men of the royal house, and by reason of royal descent or personal prestige, occupy the throne, and an Aspasia might be recognized as the able head of a political salon, but women in general derived thence no political status. Though Christianity and a broadening of men's theories of life tended to raise the moral and social status of women, yet Paul definitely assigns subservience as the proper function of the Christian woman. When the Universal Church was established in the United States and Australia many women have been appointed ministers, and in England the Rev. Gertrude von Petzold held in 1910 the post of minister of the Narborough Road Free Christian Church, Leicester.

1 Women have long practised law in the United States, and in 1869 the benches of the Ontario Law Society decided to admit them to the bar. In France in December 1900 an act was passed enabling women to practise as barristers, and Madame Petit was sworn in Paris, while a woman was briefed for the defence in a murder case in London as long ago as 1828. This being his first act, he was secured in a European criminal court. In Finland and Norway women have long practised as barristers, and in Denmark since 1908 they have been admitted as assistants to lawyers, the law laying down that the women are to be treated no less kindly towards them than the men. In Sweden and in the United States they are admitted as notaries. In England a special tribunal of the House of Lords presided over by the Lord Chancellor decided in 1903 not to admit women to the English bar, on the grounds that there was no precedent and that they were not desirous of creating one; but numbers of women take degrees in law in British universities, and several have become solicitors.

In the older times before the Reformation in England various religious communities absorbed a large number of the surplus female population, and in High Church and Roman Catholic circles many ladies still enter various sisterhoods and devote their lives to religious work. During the period of the Reformation the Church of England the only office which remained open to women was the modest one of churchwarden, and this office is not infrequently filled by women. The Convocation of Canterbury in 1908 resolved that no majority of the votes of the clergy or lay persons would be required in the future to prevent women from being admitted to the porch of the church councils, though qualified persons of the female sex may vote for parochial lay representatives on the church council. In the Independent Churches there are a few exceptions. Among the Congregationalists women have equal votes and can question, and may become deacons or even ministers; Miss Jane Brown has been recognized as pastor of Brotherton Congregational Church, Yorkshire, and as pastor of her church in Cardiff. The Methodist Church women frequently act as local preachers. The same equality and share in religious work is accorded to women by the Society of Friends and the Salvation Army, the success of which is due largely to the voluntary work of women, and in the United States and Australia many women have been appointed ministers, and in England the Rev. Gertrude von Petzold held in 1910 the post of minister of the Narborough Road Free Christian Church, Leicester.
idea are seen; many of the Great English Abbes discharges their territorial duties as landowners, and women as custodians of castles voted for knights of the shire. In the 17th and 18th centuries in England and America, under the influence of advancing political theory, and in France in the 18th century, this idea began to take shape. In England the writings of Mary Astell (Serious Proposal to Ladies, 1697) and others led to the gradual revision of the inherited idea of the education and the true sphere of women, while in 1799 Mary Wollstonecraft published her Vindication of the Rights of Woman. In America the dawning of a political consciousness is evidenced by the claim made in 1646 by John Milton to sit in the Assembly of Maryland as the executor of Lord Baltimore, and by the requests made by Abigail Adams (wife of John Adams), Mercy Otis Warren and Hannah Lea Corbin, that women taxpayers should enjoy direct representation. In France the movement towards democracy did not in the hands of Rousseau include the enfranchisement of women, and Comte taught that women were politically inferior to men; Condorcet, however, demanded equal rights for both sexes. Although, through an oversight, women could vote under the first constitution of New Jersey from 1775 to 1807, there is no doubt that the Revolution had given to women in any country till comparatively late in the 19th century. There has been considerable discussion as to whether women had constitutionally a right to vote in England prior to the Reform Act of 1832 (see Mrs C. C. Stopes, British Freewoman). The discussion, however, is one of purely antiquarian interest, and the Reform Act made quite clear what had certainly been the recognized custom before, by introducing specifically the word "male" in the new franchise law (2 and 3 Will IV., cap. 45, sections 19 and 20).

The earliest known handbill representing the modern "women's suffrage" movement in England dates from about 1847, and in 1857 the first society was formed in Sheffield, the "Sheffield Female Political Association," due largely to the work of a Quaker lady, Anne Kent of Chelmsford. In July of the same year Mrs John Stuart Mill published an article in the Westminster Review.

The earliest outstanding figure, however, is Lydia Ernestine Becker (1827-1896), descended on the mother's side from an old Lancashire family, her father being the son of a German who settled in England in early youth. She became a well-known botanist, and an intimate friend of Charles Darwin. In 1858 the Englishwoman's Journal was started, and by this time there was a vigorous agitation for the alteration of the law relating to the property and earnings of married women. Among the leaders of that movement were Barbara Leigh Smith (Mrs Bodichon) and Bessie Rayner Parkes (Madame Bello). At the same time a famous group of women, Emily Davies, Miss Beale and Miss Buss (founders respectively of the Cheltenham Ladies' College and the North London Collegiate School) and Miss Garrett (Dr Garrett Anderson), Miss Helen Taylor (John Stuart Mill's stepdaughter) and Miss Wolstenholme (afterwards Mrs Elmy), discussed women's suffrage at the "Kensington Society."

A new era began with the election in 1865, as member for Westminster, of John Stuart Mill, who placed women's suffrage in his election address. From that time the subject became more prominent in successive parliaments. Mill presented the first petition in May 1867. In 1868 the case of Chorlton v. Lings was decided against women applicants for the vote by the Court of Common Pleas, and a similar decision was given by the Supreme Court of Appeal in Scotland. From this time there were various local committees (in London, Manchester, Bristol, Edinburgh and Birmingham) were directed to promoting a bill in parliament, and to forwarding petitions (an average of 200,000 signatures a year was maintained from 1870 to 1880). The Women's Suffrage Journal was founded in 1870, and in the same year Jacob Bright moved the second reading of the Women's Disabilities Bill which was carried by a majority of 35 votes. Mr Gladstone then threw his opposition into the scale, and the bill was rejected in committee by 220 to 94. In 1871 the same bill was again lost by 220 to 135, in spite of a memorial headed by Florence Nightingale, Mary Carpenter, Augusta Webster, Harriet Martineau, Frances Power Cobbe and Anna Louisa Chisolm (Mrs H. W. Chisholm). G. O. Trevelyan's Household Franchise Bill in 1873 raised the hopes of the women's suffragist, and Mr Joseph Chamberlain at a great Liberal meeting in Birmingham carried a resolution in favour of the proposed change.

From 1874 to 1876 the bill was in charge of a conservative, Mr Forsyth, and, despite the opposition of John Bright and the efforts of a parliamentary committee for "maintaining the purity of the ballot," there were 13,000 signatures of supporters in the hands of the petitioners. The work proceeded uneventfully from 1876 to 1884, huge meetings being held in all the chief towns. In 1880 the franchise was conferred upon women owners in the Isle of Man, subsequently upon women occupiers also. In 1883 a great Liberal conference at Leeds voted in favour of women's suffrage under the leadership of Dr Crosskey and Walter S. B. M'Laren. The next notable event in the movement was the defeat of W. Woodall's amendment to the Reform Bill (1884), providing that words importing the masculine gender should include women, or the repeal of the duties of the justices of the peace. This appeal to his party to withdraw the support which they had given in the past. 104 Liberal members crossed over in answer to this appeal. Numerous bills and resolutions followed year by year in the names of W. Woodall, L. H. Courtenay (Lord Courtenay, whose bill was read a second time without a division, 1886), W. S. B. M'Laren, Baron Dimsdale, Caleb Wright, Sir Albert K. Rollit, F. Faithfull Begg (1897; second reading majority 71). Up to 1906 all those attempts had failed, in most cases owing to time being taken for government business.

The period 1896 to 1910 witnessed entirely new developments.

The suffragists of the existing societies still carried on their constitutional propaganda, and various bills were introduced. In 1907 Mr W. H. Dickinson's bill was talked out, and in 1908 Mr H. Y. Stanger's bill was carried on its second reading by a majority of 179, but the government refused facilities for its progress. Prior to this, however, a number of suffragists had come to the conclusion that the failure of the various bills was due primarily to government hostility. Furthermore the advent of a Liberal government in 1906 had aroused hopes among them that the question would be officially taken up. Questions were therefore put in the House of Commons, and a variety of meetings, and disturbances occurred, with the result that Miss Christabel Pankhurst and Miss Annie Kenney were fined in Manchester in 1906. A certain section of suffragists thereafter decided upon comprehensive opposition to the government of the day, until such time as one or other party should officially adopt a measure for the enfranchisement of women. This opposition took two forms, one that of conducting campaigns against government nominees (whether friendly or not) at bye-elections, and the other that of committing breaches of the law with a view to drawing the widest possible attention to their cause and so forcing the authorities to fine or imprison them. Large numbers of women assembled while parliament was sitting, in contravention of the regulations, and on several occasions many arrests were made. Fines were imposed, but practically all refused to pay them and suffered imprisonment. At a later stage some of the prisoners adopted the further course of refusing food and were forcibly fed in the gaols.

The failure of all the bills previously drafted on the basis of exact equality between the sexes, and the fact that both Unionists and Liberals refused to make the matter a party question, and coupled with a general feeling of discomfort at the relations between the so-called "militant" suffragists and the authorities, led in the spring of 1910 to the formation of a committee (called the Conciliation Committee) of members of parliament under the presidency of the earl of Lytton. This committee, consisting of some 25 members belonging to all parties, succeeded in agreeing upon a new bill based upon the occupier franchise established by the Municipal Franchise Act of 1884. It was urged on behalf of this bill that it would establish the principle on a sufficiently
representative basis without altering the numerical balance of parties in the country. It was calculated that slightly over 1,000,000 women would be enfranchised. After considerable pressure both inside the house and outside, Mr. Asquith consented to give two days of government time for the debate, and the second reading, moved by the Labour member, Mr. D. J. Shackleton, was carried by a majority of 110 votes. A further attempt to commit the bill to a Grand Committee failed by 175 votes; the bill was therefore sent to a committee of the whole house, and Mr. Asquith announced that he would not give further facilities by the way of subcommittee, as the opposition was as undemocratic by Mr. Lloyd-Greco and other Liberals, it was supported by 32 out of 40 of the Labour members, and evidence was given that a large proportion of the new voters would have been working women.

The leading women's suffrage societies may here be mentioned. All these societies have advocated precisely the same view, namely that women should have the same electoral privileges as men, whatever franchise system be adopted.

1. The National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies is the oldest organization. It began about 1867 as a number of separate local committees, and after various reorganizations a great body of all local societies was framed in 1896 under the present title. This union had 200 branches in 1910. All the early suffragists belonged to some of the latter-day women's movement, as Mrs. Henry Fawcett. The union gradually discarded the "constitutional" policy and stood apart altogether from the "militant" societies. Its official organ, The Common Cause, was founded in 1895.

2. The National Women's Social and Political Union, associated chiefly with the name of Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst and Miss Christabel Pankhurst, formed in 1906, originated the more militant policy. Its income in 1900-1910 reached the figure of £5,000, and up to September 1910 some 900 of its members had undergone imprisonment. It undertook a widespread campaign of meetings, and though at first its speakers were subjected to an opposition of a violent character, there was no doubt that the movement received from its activities a wholly new stimulus. Its official organ, Votes for Women, obtained a large circulation.

Societies of various kinds multiplied. In 1907 were formed (3) the Women's Freedom League (chiefly associated with the name of Mrs. C. Despard, a prominent supporter of the Labour party), whose members objected to the internal administration of the Social and Political Union, but agreed in adopting its policy in a modified form; and (4) the Men's League for Women's Suffrage, a society which included men of all parties, and in September 1910 adopted the anti-government election policy. Numerous other party and non-party societies were formed, and resolutions supporting the principle, either in the abstract or as a part of adult suffrage, were passed by various Conservative, Liberal and Labour conferences and conventions.

The remarkable prominence of the movement and the fact that successive parliaments contained a majority of pledged suffragists led to the campaign for the opposition movement. In 1908 was formed the Women's National Anti-Suffrage League, of men and women, which drew into its ranks prominent persons such as Lord Cromer, Lord Curzon, Lady Jersey and Mrs. Humphry Ward; and about the same time the Men's League for Opposing Women's Suffrage came into existence. These two leagues amalgamated in December 1910, as the National League for Opposing Women's Suffrage, with Lord Cromer as president. The Anti-Suffrage Review was founded in 1909.

In New Zealand a measure for the enfranchisement of women, introduced by Richard Seddon, was carried in September 1893 (in the upper house by a majority of 2). In Australia the vote has been extended to all adult women both in the states (the first being South Australia, 1894, the last Victoria, 1908) and for the Commonwealth parliament. They have, moreover, the right to sit in the representative assemblies.

The movement assumed an organized form in the United States somewhat earlier than in the United Kingdom. It arose out of the interest of women by way of temperance agitation, and was fostered by the discussion on women's property rights. In 1840 the question was raised in a more acute form by the exclusion of women delegates from the World's Convention, and in 1848 the first women's suffrage convention was held at Seneca Falls, the leading spirits being Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Martha C. Wright and Lucretia Mott. Later conventions at Salem and Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1850, were the predecessors of annual meetings, but the extravagant dress adopted by some of the women brought ridicule upon the movement, which was further thrown into the background by the Civil War. In 1869 were formed: (1) in New York, the National Women's Suffrage Association, and (2) in Cleveland, the American Woman's Suffrage Association. In 1870 these two societies amalgamated as the National American Woman's Suffrage Association, of which in 1900 Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt became president. The question was considered by a select committee in the 43th Congress, and 200 petitions, representing a total of nearly 300,000 signatures of men and women from the 24 states of the union, were presented in 1900. The Labour and Socialist parties in general supported the women's claim, but there was considerable opposition in other parties. In 5 states (Wyoming since 1869; Colorado, 1893; Utah, 1896; Idaho, 1896; and Washington, 1910) women are electors, and in 25 states they have exercised the school suffrage. In Louisiana they obtained the suffrage in connexion with tax levies in 1898. Anti-suffrage societies have also been formed in Brooklyn (1894), Massachusetts (1895), Illinois (1897), Oregon (1899).

In Finland all adult men and women over the age of 24, excepting a few individuals, are citizens, and they have received the right to vote for members of the Diet in 1906, in which year nineteen women became members of the Diet. In Norway, where there is male suffrage for men over 25 years of age, women were entitled to vote by a law of 1907, provided they or, if married, their husbands (i.e. where property is jointly owned) had paid income tax on an annual income of 400 kroner (£2) in the towns, or 300 kroner (£1, 10s.) in county districts. In Sweden a suffrage bill was carried in the lower but rejected in the upper house in 1909. In all the chief countries there are suffrage societies of greater or less strength. In Russia the question was placed in the forefront of the demands made by the Duma in 1906, and in 1907 prepared women received the right to confer votes on their sons who would otherwise be unenfranchised. In France a feminist congress met at Lyons in 1909.

The International Woman Suffrage Alliance originated in the United States in 1888. Its membership increased steadily, and at the Convention held in London in 1909 delegates were present from twenty-two countries. In the United Kingdom this Alliance is represented by the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies. A social and propagandist club was founded in London in 1909 with an international membership. An international journal under the title Jus Suffragii (Brussels) was founded in 1907.

Authorities.—It is impossible to do more than mention a few works out of many dealing with various phases of the modern movement: Among them are: "Suffrage in the Victorian Age," by M. H. Blinkhorn; "Education in England," by A. R. Clevelen; "Women under English Law" (1865); J. L. de Lassennan, "L'Education de la femme moderne" (1908); M. Ostrogorski, "Femme au point de vue du droit public" (1900); Mrs. C. P. Gilman, "Women and Economics" (1898); Miss C. E. Collot, "Report on Changes in the Employment of Women" (1898); Fenn, "The Women in the Trades" (1908); A. Loria, "Le Feminisme au point de vue sociologique" (1907); Helen Blackburn, "Record of Women's Suffrage," in the United Kingdom (1902); Susan B. Anthony, "History of Women's Suffrage," in the United States (4 vols., 1881-1902); C. C. Stopes, "British Women" (1896); and E. Lyon Beale, "The Emancipation of Women" (1910). The classical exposition of the arguments on behalf of women's suffrage is J. S. Mill's "Subjection of Women;" the most important statement in opposition is perhaps that of Professor A. V. Dicey, "The Law of the Constitution." (X.)

WOOD, ANTHONY À (1623-1695). English antiquary, was the fourth son of Thomas Wood (1580-1643), B.C.L. of Oxford, where Anthony was born on the 17th of December 1623. He was sent to New College school in 1641, and at the age of twelve was removed to the free grammar school at Thame, where his studies were interrupted by civil war skirmishes. He was then placed under the tuition of his brother Edward (1627-1653), at Oxford College, but he continued in this condition his mother would always be soliciting him to be an apprentice which he could never endure to hear of. He was entered at Merton College in 1647, and made postmaster. In 1652 he amused himself with ploughing and bell-ringing, but the Life he speaks of himself and his family as Wood or à Wood, the last form being a pedantic return to old usage adopted by himself. A pedigree is given in Clark's edition.
WOOD, MRS HENRY

WOOD, SIR H. EVELYN

and "having had from his most tender years an extraordinary
ravishing delight in music," began to teach himself the violin,
and he obtained the degree of B.A. He engaged a music-
master, and obtained permission to use the Bodleian, "the
which he took to be the happiness of his life." He was admitted M.A.
in 1655, and in the following year published a volume of sermons
by his late brother Edward. He began systematically to copy
monumental inscriptions and to search for antiquities in the city
and neighbourhood. He went through the Christ Church
registers, "at this time being resolved to set himself to the
study of antiquities." Dr John Wallis, the keeper, allowed him
free access to the university registers in 1660; "here he layd
the foundation of his knowledge which he afterwards published,
viz. Hist. et Antiq. Univ. Oxon." He also came to
know the Oxford collections of Brian Twyne to which he
was greatly indebted. He steadily investigated the muniments of
all the colleges, and in 1667 made his first journey to London,
where he visited Dugdale, who introduced him into the Cottonian
library, and Prynne showed him the same civility for the Tower
records. On October 22, 1669, he was sent for by the delegates of
the press, "that whereas he had taken a great deal of pains
in writing the Hist. et Antiq. of the University of Oxon,
for he would for his pains give him some worth. He was no acquaintance, contrary,
that he might be translated into Latin." He accepted the offer and set to work to prepare his English
MS. for the translators, Richard Peers and Richard Reeve,
both appointed by Dr Fell, dean of Christ Church, who under-
took the expense of printing. In 1674 appeared Historia et antiquitates Universitatis Oxoniensis, handsomely reprinted "e
Teatro Sheldoniano," in two folio volumes, the first devoted
to the university in general and the second to the colleges. Copies
were widely distributed, and university and author received
much praise. On the other hand, Bishop Barlow told a corres-
doping friend that the "entire history itself is in
many things ridiculously false" (Genuine Remains, 1893, p.183).
In 1678 the university registers which had been in his custody
for eighteen years were removed, as it was feared that he would
be implicated in the Popish plot. To relieve himself from
suspicion he took the oaths of supremacy and allegiance. During
this time he had been gradually completing his great work,
which was produced by a London publisher in 1691-1692,
2 vols. folio, Athenae Oxonienses: An exact History of all the Writers and Bishops who have had their Education in
the University of Oxford from 1570 to 1690, in the Latin and the English languages,
for which the 9th of July 1693 he was condemned
in the vice-chancellor's court for certain libels against the late
earl of Clarendon, fined, banished from the university until he
recanted, and the offending papers burnt. The proceedings
were printed in a volume of Miscellanies published by Curr in 1714.
Wood was attacked by Bishop Burnet in a Letter to the Bishop
of Lichfield and Coventry (1693, 4to), and defended by his nephew
Dr Thomas Wood, in a Vindication of the Historiographer, to
which is added the Historiographer's Answer (1693, 4to, reproduced
in the subsequent editions of the Athenae). The nephew also
defended his uncle in An Address to the Life of Bishop Seth Ward,
1697, 8vo. After a short illness he died on the 28th of
November 1695, and was buried in the inner chapel of St John
Baptist (Merton College), in Oxford, where he superintended the
digging of his own grave but a few days before.

He is described as "a very strong lusty man," of uncouth manners
and appearance, not so deaf as he pretended, of reserved and temper-
ate habits, not avaricious and a despiser of honours. He received
neither wealth, nor knowledge, and yet he made so much of
his labours. He never married, and led a life of self-denial, entirely
dedicated to antiquarian research. Bell-ringing and music were his
chief recreations. His literary style is poor, and his taste and judg-
ment are frequently warped by prejudice, but his two great works
and unpublished collections form a priceless source of information
on Oxford and her worthies. He was always suspected of being a Roman
Catholic, and the use of Papists and Dissenters in the Athenae,
but he died in communion with the Church
of England.

Wood's original manuscript (purchased by the Bodleian in 1846)
was first published by John Gutch as The History and Antiquities
of the Colleges and Halls in the University of Oxford, with a con-
tinuation (1786-1790, 2 vols. 4to), and The History and Antiquities
of the University of Oxford (1792-1796, 3 vols. 4to), with portrait of
Wood. To these should be added The Antient and Present State of
the City of Oxford, in two parts, edited by Andrew Clark, and
printed by More and Vprin (1737-1744, 2 vols. 4to), in the edition
by the Rev. Sir J. Peshall (1773, 4to; the text is garbled and the
editing very imperfect). An admirable edition of the Survey of the
Antiquities of the City of Oxford, composed in 1661-66 by Anthony Wood,
was collected by Lord Clarendon, and published (1693, 4to).
Modius Salium, a Collection of Pieces of Humour, chiefly ill-natured personal stories, was published
at Oxford in 1751, 12mo. Some letters between Aubrey and Wood were
published, viz. 2. Worlds and Wood's MS. of Aubrey's History of England,
for which a new edition was contemplated by the Press, and asked for
additional matter (see Notes and Queries, 2nd ser., vi. 514, and 6th
ser., vi. 51). Wood bequeathed his library (127 MSS. and
970 Printed Volumes) to the Bodleian Museum; Wood's MS. of
Huddeford, printed a catalogue of the MSS. in 1761. In 1858
the whole collection was transferred to the Bodleian, where 25
vols. of Wood's MS. of Aubrey's History of England, and
papers from which the Athenae was written, as well as several large
volumes of Wood's correspondence and all his diaries, are in the
Bodleian.

Wood was intimately acquainted with the most minute particulars
of Wood's life from his Diaries (1657-1695) and autobiography;
all earlier editions are now superseded by the elaborate work of
Andrew Clark, The Life and Times of Anthony Wood, antiquary
(1693-1695, described by himself (Oxford Historical Society,
1891-1900, 5 vols. 8vo). See also Reliquiae Hiberniae,
ed. Bliss (2nd ed., 1869, 3 vols. 12mo); Hearne's Remarks
and Collections (Oxford Historical Society, 1885-1907, 3 vols.
1-viii.; Mackay's Annals of the Bodleian Library (2nd ed., 1890);
Nichols's Literary Anecdotes, i. iv. viii.; Noble's Biog. History

WOOD, MRS HENRY [Ellen] (1814-1887), English novelist,
was born at Worcester on the 17th of January 1814. Her
maiden name was Price; her father was a glove manufacturer
in Worcester. She married Henry Wood in 1836, and after
her marriage lived for the most part in France, her husband,
who died in 1866, being at the head of a large shipping
and banking firm. In 1866 she wrote a temperance tale, Danesbury
House, which gained a prize of £100 offered by the Scottish
Temperance League; but before this she had regularly con-
tributed anonymous stories to periodicals. Her first great success
was made with East Lynne (1861), which obtained enormous
popularity. It was sold in several languages and many
number of dramatic versions were made. The Channings
and Mrs Halliburton's Troubles followed in 1862; Verner's Pride
and The Shadow of Ashbydai in 1863; Lord Oakburn's Daughters,
Oswald Croy and Trevlyn Hold in 1864. She became proprietor
and editor of the Argosy magazine in 1867, and the Johnny Ludlow
tales, published anonymously there, are the most artistic
of her works. Among the thirty-five novels Mrs Henry Wood
produced, the best of those not hitherto mentioned were
Roland Yorke (1866); Within the Maze (1872) and Edina (1876).
She continued to edit the Argosy, with the assistance of her son,
of whom Henry Wood, till her death, which occurred on the 10th
of February 1887.

Memorials of Mrs Henry Wood, by her son, were published in 1894.

WOOD, SIR HENRY EVELYN (1838—), British field
marshal, was born at Braintree, Essex, on the 9th of February
1838, the youngest son of Sir John Page Wood, Bart. Educated
at Marlborough, he entered the Royal Navy in 1852, and served
as a midshipman in the Russian war, being employed on shore
with the naval brigade in the siege operations before Sevastopol,
moreover Cossack despatches and had been severely wounded at the assault
on the Redan on June 18, 1855. Immediately afterwards he left
the navy for the army, becoming a cornet in the 13th Light
Dragoons. Promoted lieutenant in 1856, he exchanged into
the 17th Lancers in 1857, and served in the Indian Mutiny
with distinction as brigade-major of a flying column, winning the
Victoria Cross. In 1861 he became captain, in 1862 brevet-major, exchanging about the same time into the 73rd Highlanders (Black Watch), but returned to the cavalry three years later. Having meantime served as an aide-de-camp at Dublin, he was next employed on the staff at Aldershot until 1871, when he was appointed to the 90th (now 2nd Scottish Rifles) as a regimental major. In 1867 he had married the Hon. Mary Pauline Southwell, sister of the 4th Lord Southwell. In 1873 he was promoted brevet lieutenant-colonel, and in 1874 served in the Ashanti War (brevet-colonel). In 1874-1878 he was again on the staff at Aldershot, and in November 1878 he became regimental lieutenant-colonel, the 90th being at that time in South Africa engaged in the Kaffir War. In January 1879 he was in command of the left column of the army that crossed the Zulu frontier, and shortly afterwards he received the local rank of brigadier-general. Under him served Colonel Redvers Buller and also the Boer leader, Piet Uys, who fell at Inhlobana, but the re-pulse at that place was more than counterbalanced by the successful battle of Khambula. At the close of the war Sir Evelyn Wood, who received the K.C.B. for his services, was appointed to command the Chatham district. But in January 1881 he was again in South Africa with the local rank of major-general, and after Sir G. P. Colley’s death at Majuba it fell to his lot to negotiate the armistice with General Joubert. Remaining in Natal until February 1882, he then returned to the Chatham command, having meantime been promoted substantive major-general. In 1882 he was made a G.C.M.G. and commanded a brigade in the Egyptian expedition. He remained in Egypt for six years. From 1883 to 1885 he was Sirdar of the Egyptian army, which he reorganized and in fact created. During the Nile operations of 1884-85 he commanded the forces on the line of communication of Lord Wolseley’s army. In 1886 he returned to an English command, and two years later (January 1889), with the local rank of lieutenant-general, he was appointed to the Aldershot command. He became lieutenant-general in 1891, and was given the G.C.B. at the close of his tenure of the command, when he went to the War Office as quartermaster-general. Four years afterwards he became adjutant-general. He was promoted full general in 1895. He commanded the II. Army Corps and Southern Command from 1901 to 1904, being promoted field marshal on the 8th of April 1903. In 1907 he became colonel of the Royal Horse Guards. After retiring from active service he took a leading part, as chairman of the Association for the City of London, in the organization of the Territorial Force. Sir Evelyn Wood published several works, perhaps the best known of which to the soldier are Achievements of Cavalry (1897) and Cavalry in the Waterloo Campaign (1898). He also wrote The Crimean in 1854 and in 1893; an autobiography, From Midshipman to Field Marshal; and The Revolt in Hindustan.

WOOD, JOHN GEORGE (1827-1889), English writer and lecturer on natural history, was born in London on the 21st of July 1827. He was educated at Ashbourne grammar school and at Merton College, Oxford; and after he had taken his degree in 1848 he worked for two years in the anatomical museum at Christ Church under Sir Henry Acland. In 1852 he was ordained a deacon of the Church of England, became curate of the parish of St Thomas the Martyr, Oxford, and also took up the post of chaplain to the Boatmen’s Floating Chapel at Oxford. He was ordained priest in 1854, and in that year gave up his curacy to devote himself for a time to literary work. In 1858 he accepted a readership at Christ Church, Newgate Street, and he was assistant-chaplain to St Bartholomew’s Hospital, London, from 1856 until 1862. Between 1866 and 1876 he held the office of precentor to the Canterbury Diocesan Choral Union. After 1876 he devoted himself to the production of books and to delivering in all parts of the country lectures on zoology, which he illustrated by drawing on a black-board or on large sheets of paper with coloured crayons. These “sketch lectures” were so popular, as he called them, that they were widely known both in Great Britain and in the United States. In 1883-1884 he delivered the Lowell lectures at Boston. Wood was for a time editor of the Boy’s Own Magazine. His most important work was a Natural History in three volumes, but he was better known by the series of books which began with Common Objects of the Sea-Shore, and which included popular monographs on shells, moths, beetles, the microscope and Common Objects of the Country. Our Garden Friends and Foes was another book which found hosts of appreciative readers. He died at Coventry on the 3rd of March 1889.

WOOD, SEARLES VALENTINE (1798—1880), English palaeontologist, was born on the 14th of February 1798. He went to sea in 1811 as a midshipman in the East India Company’s service, which he left, however, in 1826. He then settled at Hasketon near Woodbridge, Suffolk. He devoted himself to a study of the mollusca of the Newer Tertiary (Crag) of Suffolk and Norfolk, and the Older Tertiary (Eocene) of the Hampshire basin. On the latter subject he published A Monograph of the Eocene Bivalves of England (1861-1871), issued by the Palaeontographical Society. His chief work was A Monograph of the Crag Mollusca (1848-1886), published by the same society, for which he was awarded the Wollaston medal in 1860 by the Geological Society of London; a supplement was issued by him in 1872-1874, a second in 1879, and a third (edited by his son) in 1882. He died at Martlesham, near Woodbridge, on the 26th of October 1880. His son, Searles Valentine Wood (1830-1884), was for some years a solicitor at Woodbridge, but gave up the profession and devoted his energies to geology, studying especially the structure of the deposits of the Crag and glacial drifts.

WOODBRIDGE, a market town in the Woodbridge parliamentary division of Suffolk, England; 70 m. N.E. by E. from London by the Great Eastern railway. Pop. of urban district, in (1901) 4640. It is pretty situated near the head of the Deben estuary, which enters the North Sea 10 m. S. by E. The church of St Mary the Virgin is a beautiful Perpendicular structure, with a massive and lofty tower of flint work. The large estate left by Thomas Seekford of Sekforde (1578) endows the grammar school and hospital. Woodbridge Abbey, built by Seekford, occupies the site of an Augustinian foundation of the 12th century. There is a large agricultural trade, and general fairs and horse fairs are held.

WOODBURY, CHARLES HERBERT (1864— ), American marine painter, was born at Lynn, Massachusetts, on the 14th of July 1864. He graduated at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, in 1886, was a pupil of the Académie Julien, Paris. He was president of the Boston Water Color Club, and became associate of the National Academy of Design, New York. His wife, Marcia Oakes Woodbury, born in 1863 at South Berwick, also became known as a painter.

WOODBURY, LEVI (1780—1831), American political leader, was born at Francistown, New Hampshire, on the 22nd of December 1780. He graduated from Dartmouth College in 1809, was admitted to the bar in 1812, and was a judge of the superior court from 1816 to 1823. In 1823-1824 he was governor of the state, in 1825 a member and speaker of the state House of Representatives, and in 1825-1831 and again in 1841-1845 was a member of the U.S. Senate. He was secretary of the navy in 1831-1834, secretary of the treasury in 1834-1841, and associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court from 1846 until his death, at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on the 4th of September 1851. From about 1825 to 1845 Woodbury was the undisputed leader of the Jacksonian Democracy in New England. See his Writings, Political, Judicial and Literary (3 vols., Boston, 1852), edited by Nahum Capen; and an article in the New England Magazine, new series, xxxvi. p. 658 (February 1906).

WOODBURY, a city and the county-seat of Gloucester county, New Jersey, U.S.A., in the western part of the state, 9 m. S. of Philadelphia. Pop. (1900) 4087, including 246 foreign-born and 317 negroes; (1910) 4642. It is served by the West Jersey & Seashore Railroad. Among its public institutions is the Department Store. From the big upholstering manufactories. Woodbury is said to have been settled about 1684; it became the county-seat in 1787. It was chartered as a borough in 1854 and as a city in 1870.
WOOD-CARVING, the process whereby wood is ornamented with design by means of sharp cutting tools held in the hand. The term includes anything within the limit of sculpture in the round up to hand-worked mouldings such as help to compose the tracery of screens, &c.

Material.—The texture of wood limits the scope of the carver in that the substance consists of bundles of fibres (called grain) growing in a vertical direction without much lateral cohesive strength. It is therefore essential to arrange the more delicate parts of a design with the grain instead of across it, and the more slender stalks or leaf-points should not be too much separated. Wood is worked best in moist surroundings. The failure to appreciate these primary rules may constantly be seen in damaged work, when it will be noticed that, whereas tendrils, tips of birds' beaks, &c., arranged across the grain have been broken away, similar details designed more in harmony with the growth of the wood and not too deeply undercut remain intact. Oak is the most suitable wood for carving, on account of its durability and toughness without being too hard. Chestnut (very like oak), American walnut, mahogany and teak are also very good woods; while for fine work Italian walnut, lime, sycamore, apple, pear or plum, are generally chosen. Decoration that is to be bent and of not too delicate a nature is as a rule carved in pine.

Tools.—The carver requires but few kinds of tools:—(1) the gouge—a tool with a curved cutting edge—used in a variety of forms and sizes for carving hollows, rounds and sweeping curves; (2) the chisel, large and small, whose straight cutting edge is used for lines and cleaning up flat surfaces; (3) the "V" tool used for veining, and in certain classes of flat work for emphasizing lines. A special screw for fixing work to the bench, and a mallet, complete the carver's kit, though other tools, more or less legs mate, are, of course, needed as a router for bringing grounds to a uniform level, bent gouges and bent chisels for cutting hollows too deep for the ordinary tool.

Method.—The process for relief carving is usually as follows. The carver first fixes the wood to his bench by means of the screw already referred to. He then (a) sketches on the main lines of his idea, indicating the flowers, foliage, &c.; or (b) should the design be very intricate or of a geometrical character, he traces the whole design from a pattern first prepared on paper; or (c) he may combine the first two methods. Next he grounds out the spaces between the lines with a gouge to a more or less uniform depth. Then he "hosts" the upstanding pattern that remains, i.e. he models and shapes the details of his design, carefully balancing the lights and shadows; and finally, after having obtained the result he desires, he cleans up the whole. The quicker he works, the fewer times he goes over the same part, the more sketchy the subsidiary portions, the less high finish he puts into the detail, the better the result. Incised work, chip-carving, &c., are generally finished at once and not in stages. Much carved work, that of savage nations for instance, is of course carved without the assistance of a bench. Many small articles, too, are carved in the hand. Little models of antelopes or bears, so familiar in Switzerland, are carved in this way with a tool somewhat like a half-open knife but with the blade fixed.

Style.—From the remotest ages the decoration of wood has been a foremost art. The tendency of human nature has always been to ornament every article in use. Just as a child of to-day instinctively cuts patterns on the bark of his switch freshly taken from the hedgerow, so the primitive man, to say nothing of his more civilized successor, has from the earliest times cut designs on every wooden article he is accustomed to handle. The North American Indian carves his wooden fish-hook or his pipe stem just as the Polynesian works patterns on his paddle. The native of British Guiana decorates his cassava grater with a well-conceived scheme of incised scrobs, while the savage of Loango Bay distorts his spoon with a hopelessly unsuitable design of perhaps figures standing up in full relief carrying a hammock.

Figure-work seems to have been universal. The craving to represent one's god in a tangible form finds expression in numberless ways. The early carver, and, for that matter, the native of the present day, has always found a difficulty in giving expression to the eye, and at all times has evaded it by inlaying this feature with coloured material. Obsidian, for example, is used by the modern Easter Islander in common with the Egyptian craftsman of the earlier dynasties. To carve a figure in wood is not only more difficult but is less satisfactory than marble (for which see SCULPTURE), owing to the tendency of wood to crack, to be injured by insects, or to suffer from changes in the atmosphere. The texture of the material, too, prevents the expression of the features, especially in the classic type of youthful face. On the other hand, magnificent examples exist of the more rugged features of age: the beetling brows, the furrows and lines neutralizing the defects of the grain of the wood. However, in ancient work the surface was not of such consequence, for figures as a rule were painted.

It is not always realized at the present day to what extent colour has even from the most ancient times been used to enhance the effect of wood-carving and sculpture. The modern prejudice against gold and other tints is perhaps due to the fact that too much value is placed on the original untarnished appearance of the wood. The wood-carver's art was associated with coloured carvings too readily with theatre galleries and the triumphal car of the circus procession. The "restored" work too of some church screens does anything but encourage the revival of this time-honoured custom. The arrangement of a proper and harmonious scheme of colour is not the work of the house-painter, but of the specially trained artist. Witness the old coloured screens of Norfolk, the harmonious greens and reds, the proper proportion of gold, the panels adorned with saints on backgrounds of delicate diaper work, and compare these triumphs of decoration with the rougher blues and reds of the over-restored screen, and one ceases to wonder why we now prefer the wood plain.

Of late years carving has gone out of fashion; a change has come about. The work is necessarily slow, thus causing charges to appear high. Other and cheaper methods of decoration have driven carving from its former place. Machine work has much to answer for, and the endeavour to popularize the craft by means of the village class has not always achieved its own end. The gradual disappearance of the individual artist, elbowed out as he has been by the contractor, is fatal to the continuance of an art that is but a shadow of the great art of the past.

Long as the carver is expected to work to some one else's pattern—so long as he is, in detail at least, not his own designer—this art, which attained its zenith in the glories of the 15th-century cathedral and in the continental domestic work of the hundred years to follow, can never hope to live again.

Ancient Work before the Christian Era.—The extreme dryness of the climate of Egypt accounts for the existence of a number of wood-carvings from this remote period (see EGYPT: Art and ARCHAEOLOGY). Some wood panels from the tomb of Housil at Sakkara are of the III. dynasty (over 4000 B.C.). The carving consists of hieroglyphs and figures in low relief, and the style is extremely delicate and fine. A stool shown on one of the panels has the legs shaped like the fore and hind limbs of an animal, a form common in Egypt for thousands of years.

In the Cairo museum may be seen the statue of a man of 50 years of age, of the period of the great pyramid, possibly 4000 B.C. The expression of the face and the realism of the carriage have never been surpassed by any Egyptian sculptor of this or any other period. The figure is carved out of a solid block of sycamore, and in accordance with the Egyptian custom the arms are joined on. The eyes are inlaid with pieces of opaque white quartz, with a line of bronze surrounding to imitate the lid; a small disk of transparent rock crystal forms the iris, while a line of polished chert behind the crystal imparts to it a lifelike sparkle. "The IV., V. and VI. dynasties cover the finest period of Egyptian sculpture. The statues found in the tombs show a freedom of treatment which was never reached in later times. The features of the portrait statues are very much less exact than his model. For these are not, like modern statues, simply works of art, but had primarily a religious significance " (Maspero). As the spirits of the deceased might inhabit these "Ka" statues, the features and proportions were closely copied.

There are to be found in the principal museums of Europe many Egyptian examples of the utmost interest—mummy cases of human
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being the face alone carved, animal mummy cases, sometimes boxes, with the figure of a bird, perhaps, carved in full relief standing on the lid. Sometimes the animal, a bird, or even a fish, was made into a mummy shape, with a face, and crouching on all four, would be carved in the round and its hollowed body used as the case itself.

Of furniture, folding seats like the modern campstool, and chairs with backs, were made, the backs being mere thin wooden panels, and the seats and arm rests slatted. Beds supported by lions' paws (XI. and XII. dynasties), from Gebelein, now in the Cairo Museum), headrests, 6 or 7 inches high, were still used. The legs of these tables, and the feet of the chairs, were ornamented with a relief decoration of flowers and leaves, quite Louis Quinze in character. There are incised ladles, the handle representing a bouquet of flowers, the bowl formed like the leaf of an aquatic plant with serrated edges (from Gurnah, XVIII. dynasty); but the most original and most magnificent of the wooden objects made by the hands of these ancient Egyptians were the wooden coffers, some very fine ones, were used during the whole of the New Kingdom period (the 19th dynasty). Artists of the New Kingdom period (the 19th dynasty) were the first to use the cypress and the cedar, and to concern themselves with the art of carving.

Furniture.——Late in the 4th dynasty, scenes from the New Testament in high relief were arranged on a large table in the Temple of Serapis at Philae. Nothing could exceed the beauty of the triptychs or retabules of Germany, Flanders (Plate I. fig. 1) or France; carved with scenes from the New Testament in high relief arranged under a delicate lace-like frame, with the heads of the different figures painted and highly polished, and brilliant colours. In Germany the effect was further enhanced by emphasizing parts of the gilding by means of a transparent varnish tinted with gold. For such work great artists were employed. A detailed account of the wooden objects made by the hands of these ancient Egyptians was the first to use the cypress and the cedar, and to concern themselves with the art of carving.

The style of design used during this great period owes much of its interest to the use of the wood. The objects were of the utmost beauty and interest, and the craftsmen who made them were of the highest order. The main feature of such objects was the use of fine carving. A great deal of the work was done by skilled craftsmen, and it was almost impossible to find anything better or more artistic. The style of design used during this great period was of the utmost beauty and interest, and the craftsmen who made them were of the highest order. The main feature of such objects was the use of fine carving. A great deal of the work was done by skilled craftsmen, and it was almost impossible to find anything better or more artistic.

Mummy cases.——The custom was practically universal, and enough remains to show how splendidly the coffins of the pharaohs were decorated. The coffins were made of a variety of materials, but the most common was the red quartzite, which was used for the majority of the mummy cases. The coffin was usually divided into two parts, one for the body, and the other for the mummy. The coffin was made of wood, and was usually decorated with gold and silver leaf, and sometimes with precious stones. The mummy case was sometimes made of linen, and was usually decorated with gold and silver leaf, and sometimes with precious stones.

Assyria.——Greece and Rome.

As for the Assyrians, they had little, if any, knowledge of carving. Although the name of Assyria is only known to us from the descriptions of the lotus stalk, sometimes surmounted by a head of Hathor (the Egyptian Venus) or of Bès (god of the toilet); pin-cushions, in the shape of a small round tortoise with holes in the back for toilet pins, which were also of wood with dog-head ends (XI. dynasty, Cairo Museum); and perfume boxes such as a fish, the two halves forming the bottom and top—the perfume or pomatum was removed by lifting the top and the perfume was poured into the fish. As another example of a fish-shaped perfume box, from a full-blown lotus, another shaped like the neck of a goose, a third consisting of a dog running with a fish in its mouth, the fish forming the bowl. The list might be prolonged, but enough has been said to show a general idea of the beauty and the excellence of Assyrian work. A style of carving, which had reached thousands of years before the birth of Christ.

Of the work of Assyria, Greece and Rome, little is actually known except a few fragments. Some of these fragments are of interest, and are known as the "Asiatic" style. These fragments are known as the "Asiatic" style, and are of interest, and are known as the "Asiatic" style. They are of interest, and are known as the "Asiatic" style.
Fig. 1.—CENTRE PANEL OF RETABLE IN DIJON MUSEUM. FLEMISH. 1301 A.D.
of St Benoît-sur-Loire, Lisieux, and Evreux are good 14th-century examples. But little Gothic work is now to be seen in the churches of this country. It is to the museums we have to look for traces of the old Gothic carvers. The two retabiles in Dijon Museum, the work of a school of Tournai, with angels carved of linden wood, is a profit example. A very large number of 15th-century work remains to us, but the briefest reference only can be made to some of the more beautiful examples that help to make this period so great.

The Gothic clerestory screen in the church of St Mary and St John on either side. This rood screen sometimes spanned the church in two continuous lengths (Beeston, Beds), but carved the first and chancel arches in three separate divisions (Church Handb., Oxford.). The loft was as a rule approached by a winding stair built in the thickness of the aisle wall. The lower part of the screen (Plate II. fig. 10) to which reference has already been made, the upper part of this panelling was filled in with tracerie (Carbrook, Norfolk), while the remaining flat surfaces of the panels were often painted with saints on a background of a delicate tracery of Maltese work. Suffolk rood screen. At the end of this period the employment of figures became less common as a means of decoration, and the panels were sometimes filled entirely with carved foliage (Swindon, Devon). The rood screen at Winchcombe, Gloucester, had the heads filled in with pierced tracery, often enriched with crockets (Scarning, Norfolk), embossed transoms (Castle Hedingham, Essex), or foliated cusps (Eye, Suffolk). The mullions were constantly carved with the foliage, and the incidents of the carving and the cavetto of the roof screen and was usually balanced and kept in position by means of a groined vaulting (Harberton, Devon) or a cove (Eddington, Somerset). The finest examples of vaulting are to be seen in Devon (Plate III. fig. 9). The base work of the ribs and the pierced tracery of the screen at Honiton stand unrivalled. Many screens still possess the beam which formed the edge of the loft floor and on which the gallery rested. It was here that the medieval rood-screen carving gave most play to its fancy, and carved the finest designs in foliage to be seen throughout the whole Gothic period. Although these moulded mullions, coves, and bands have the appearance of being carved out of one log, they were in practice the product of two parts, much of the foliage, &c., being pierced and placed in hollow moulded in order to increase the shadow. As a rule the arrangement consisted of a crest running along the top, with a smaller one dependent from the angle of the panel, and sometimes tracery between them (Feniton, Devon). The designs of vine leaves at Kenton (Plate IV. fig. 10), Bow and Dartmouth, all in Devon, illustrate three very beautiful treatments of this plant. At Swimbridge, near Tiverton, in Exon., an excellent combined example, plain beads which separate the bands are carved with twisted foliage also. At Abbots Kerswell and other places in the district round Totnes the carvers have often been bold. The variety of cresting used is very great. That at Winchcombe, Gloucester, consists of designs combined by vine leaves and foliage. It illustrates how Gothic carvers sometimes repeated their patterns in the same mechanical way as the worst workman of the present time. Little can be said of the galleries, so few remain to us. They were nearly all pulled down when the order to destroy the roods was issued. It is clear that the superstructure was the work of those below, the transepts, under naves (Llanano, Wales), or painted figures (Strecham, Worcestersh.), is certain from the examples that have survived the Reformation. At Atherington, Devon, the gallery front is decorated with the royal coat of arms, other heraldic devices, and with prayers. The Breton screen at St Fiacre-le-Faucon is a wonderful example of French work of this time, but does not compare with the best English examples. Its flamboyant lines and its small tracery never obtained any footing in England, though it was carried in this way (Cobleake, Devon) are sometimes to be found.

The rood was sometimes of such dimensions as to require some support for its base, and, in the latter years of the century, a small bay beam was used from which a chain connected the rood itself. At Cullompton, Devon, such a beam still exists, and is carved with foliage; an open creating ornaments the under side and two angels support the beam at the corners. Each panel has a field of clasped hands and skulls and bones, carved out of two solid logs averaging 18 in. wide and 21 in. high, and together measuring 15 ft. 6 in. long; there are round holes along the top which were probably used for lights.

No country in Europe possessed from its first in the 12th to the 14th century. The great rood of Westminster Hall (see ROOF) remains to the present day without an equal. In Norfolk and Suffolk roofs abound of the hammer-beam class; that at Woolpit, Suffolk, is of the first rank. Each bracket is carved with strongly designed foliage, the end of every beam terminated in a rood angel carved of linden wood, while each truss is supported by a canopied niche (containing a figure) resting on an angel corbel. Here, too, as at Ipswich and many other churches, there is a remarkable use of the targe or wall plate. This idea of angels in the roof is a very beautiful one, and the effect was of course much enhanced by the colouring. The rood at St Nicholas, King's Lynn, is a magnificent example of targe work; the angels are carved of linden, the ribs and the centres more or less open, and the beams, which are crested and embellished, contain a row of angels on either side. In Devon, Cullompton possesses a very fine semicircular ceiling supported at intervals by ribs pierced with foliage. Each rood fragment is cut up into small square panels, crossed by diagonal ribs of cresting, while every joint is ornamented with a boss carved in the decorative work peculiar to the Gothic craftsmen. The pulpit at Trull, Somerset, is a fine rood, with canopies continued to increase in magnificence. Manipher cathedral (middle of 15th century) and Henry VII.'s chapel in Westminster Abbey (early 16th) are good examples of the fashion of massing plain and carved canopies with richly carved imposts and cornices with the more simple beauty of the 14th-century work of Ely cathedral. The stalls of Amiens cathedral were perhaps the finest in the world at the beginning of the 15th century. They are still employed, though common on the Continent, is of a kind hardly known in England, consisting as it does of arches springing from arches, and decorated with crockets and finials, and the tabernacle works are on the same plan. Of all the fine roods in the country, stretches up towards the roof in tapering lines of the utmost delicacy.

The choir stalls (the work of Jorg Syrflin, 1408) in Ulm cathedral are among the finest specimens of 15th-century roods (Plates III. fig. 4). The front panels are carved with foliage of splendid decorative effect. The screen was held by an ornamental bracket; the panels are placed in compartments and bosses; the beams are supported by carved brackets resting on corbels with angels at each base.

In early times the choir alone possessed seats, the nave being left bare. Gradually benches were introduced, and during the 15th century became universal. The "poppy-head" form of ornament was continued, but was now worked in wood for seats other than those of the choir. The name refers to the carved finial which is so often used to complete the top of the bench end and is peculiarly English in character. In Devon and Cornwall it is rare to find in use, though (Islington, Devon). In Somerset it is more common, while in the eastern counties thousands of examples remain. The quite simple fleur-de-lys form of poppy-head, suitable for the choir seat, is seen in perfection at Truro cathedral, and the elaborate form when the poppy-head springs from a crocketed circle filled in with sculpture, at St Nicholas, King's Lynn. Often the foliage contained a face (Cley, Norfolk), or the poppy-head consisted of three dragons heads (Suffolk), or of leaves, as at Swinford (Great Brinton, Northampton); occasionally the traditional form was departed from and the final carved like a lemon in outline (Bury St Editha, Tamworth). This variety is the form of a large circle sometimes takes the place of the English poppy-head. In the Copenhagen Museum there is a set of bench ends of the 15th century with such a decoration carved with a circle of arms, or a strap-work, &c. But the old 15th-century bench end did not depend entirely on the poppy-head for its embellishment. The side was constantly enriched with elaborate tracery (Dennington, Norfolk) or with tracery and decorative scenes (North Cadbury, Somerset), or would consist of a mass of sculpture in perspective, with canopy work, buttresses and sculptured niches, while the top of the bench end would be crowned with figures carved in the round. In the later period, the rood screen became a cathedral is a marvellous alchemy of conception, design and execution. In the Kunstgewerbe Museum, Berlin, some beautiful stall ends are to be seen. Out of a dragon's mouth grows a conventional tree arranged and balanced in exquisite design. At Amiens, in the screen, the dragon is cut growing out of the mouth of a fool. This custom of making foliage grow out of the mouth or eyes is hardly defensible, and was by no means confined to any country or time. We have plenty of German examples to prove it.

Before the 15th century preaching had not become a regular institution in England, and pulpits were not so common. However, the Gothic work was of frequent use to which the Lollards and other sects put this method of teaching doctrine, and pulpits became a necessity. A very beautiful one exists at St John's, Devon. It is, as is generally the case, a plain solid piece of wood, with an upright column of foliage between pinacles, and the panels, which are painted with saints, are enriched with carved canopies and foliage; it is, however, much restored. A large figure standing under a canopy fills each of the panelled sides, while many other smaller
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figures help to enrich the general effect. Examples of Gothic stencilled patterns, such as those cut, to give the effect of a pulpit, in the church of Winchester is of the time of Prior Silvester (1520), and is carved with his rebus, a skien of twisted silk.

The usual form of font cover, having the double form below the Evangelists, with the roll of the salient being angle to flat but for a little angle in kneeling on the top, with its hands clasped in prayer. But the most beautiful form is the massed collection of pinacles and canopy work, of which there is such a fine example in the church of Kent. It presents a very pleasing line work, and its surface ornamentation of a dove on the topmost pinnacle (Castleacre, Norfolk), in allusion to the descent of the Holy Spirit. The finest font in England is undoubtedly that in St. George's, Suffolks. This is truly a specimen of the Gothic style, and when the panels were painted with saints and the exquisite tabernacle work coloured and gilded, must have been a masterpiece of Gothic craftsmanship. A cordon of the tops of these covers with the round. This magnificent altar stand, in St. Albans Cathedral, something like a crane (Salle, Norfolk), was used to remove the cover on the occasion of baptism.

Many lecterns of the Gothic period do not exist to-day. They usually had a double stepping desk which revolved round a central moulded post. The lectern at Swanscombe, Kent, has a circle of foliage ornamenting each face of the book rest, and is of 15th century work. (The box that contained it being common in France than in England, the pedestal of such a lectern being surrounded by a casing of three or more sides. A good example with six sides is in the church of France, and one of them is a fine specimen. The Musée of Beauvais contains one which is still in use in the church of Lenham, Kent. The Gothic prayer desk, used for private devotional purposes, is hardly known in England, for it was not uncommon in France. A beautiful specimen in the Musée, Bourges; the front and sides of the part for kneeling are carved with that small tracery of flowing character so common in France and Belgium during the latter part of the 13th century, and the back, which rises to a height of 6 ft., contains a little crucifix with traceried decoration above and below.

A word should be said about the ciboria, so often found on the continent of Europe. In taping arrangement of tabernacle, the English form rivaled the French form of ciborium in delicacy of outline (Musée, Rouen).

Numbers of doors are to be met with not only in churches but also in private houses. But in the Middle Ages, and particularly in work done in France, the number of doors was exceedingly common on the Continent as well as in England. In France the doors towards the latter part of the 15th century were often one and occasionally one, and to the 16th century. In the 15th century doors were usually divided into some six or eight oblong panels of more or less equal size. One of the doors of Bourges Cathedral is treated thus, the panels being filled in with very good tracery enrichment. In almost every church in France, the number of doors of treatment is constantly employed, as at the church of St. Godard, Rouen, where the upper panels only are carved with tracery and coats of arms and the lower adorned with simple linenfold design.

The most important object of church decoration, the console; the Reformation accounting for the absence in England of any work of this kind. The most famous console was carved by Hans Bruggerman, and consists, like many others, of a number of panels fitted with figures standing some four or five deep. The figures in the foremost rows are carved entirely separate, and stand out by themselves, while the background is composed of figure work and architecture, &c., diminishing perspective. The panels are grouped together under canopy work forming the head of the console, and as the whole shows itself in the large variety of the facial expression of those wonderful figures all instinct with life and movement. In France few restables exist outside the museums. In the little church of Marissel, not far from Beauvais, there is a retable consisting of eleven panels, the crucifixion being, of course, the principal subject. And there is a beautiful example from Antwerp in the Musée Cluny, Paris; the pierced tracery work which decorates the upper part being a beautiful example of the type of panel with the usual haloes and circles so common on the Continent late Gothic times and but seldom practised in England. In Spain the cathedral of Valledolid was a very rich and picturesque church, and it was frequently used wood for large statuary, which was painted in a very realistic way with the most startlingly lifelike effect. Denmark also possessed a school of able wood-carvers who imitated the great and famous masters of the time. Among these, the carving of the portal to the church of Roskilde is worthy of note. Denmark also possesses a school of able wood-carvers who imitated the great and famous masters of the time. Among these, the carving of the portal to the church of Roskilde is worthy of note. Denmark also possesses a school of able wood-carvers who imitated the great and famous masters of the time. Among these, the carving of the portal to the church of Roskilde is worthy of note. Among these, the carving of the portal to the church of Roskilde is worthy of note.
FIG. 4.—PANEL FROM FRONT OF STALLS,
ULM CATHEDRAL. 1468-1474.

FIG. 5.—ARABIAN PANEL.
13th century.

FIG. 6.—GERMAN CHEST. Late 15th century.
PLATE IV.

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Fig. 7.—JAPANESE PANEL.

Fig. 8.—DETAIL OF BISHOP STAPLEDON'S THRONE, 1308-1326 A.D. EXETER CATHEDRAL.

Fig. 9.—FLEMISH PANEL, RENAISSANCE, 16th century.

Fig. 10.—DETAIL OF ROOD-SCREEN VAULTING, Late 15th century. KENTON, DEVON.

Fig. 11.—FRONT OF WALNUT COFFER, 16th century. RENAISSANCE. ITALIAN.
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treatment of the 16th-17th centuries already referred to. A pattern of Gothic foliage, often of beautiful outline, would be simply ground out to a shallow depth. The shadows, curves and twists only being emphasized by a few well-disposed cuts with a V tool. Such work was not only well-filled but, as a rule, during the 16th century. A Swiss door of the 15th century in the Berlin Museum, and some German, Swiss and Tirolean work in the Victoria and Albert Museum, offer patterns that might well be imitated to-day by those who wish to produce simple decoration while avoiding the hackneyed Elizabethan forms.

It is hard to compare the figure work of England with that on the Continent owing to the much better state of good decorative wood sculpture was used in England and the Low Countries in the 17th century. Not of a very high order, we have conspicuous exceptions in the stalls of Sherborne, and the pulpit of Trull, Somerset. Perhaps the oldest instance is the much-multiform and much-restored effigy of Sir John de Chaloner, at Gloucester Cathedral. If as a rule the figure work was very much a part of the whole scheme and, from its surroundings hardly an instance remains. At the little chapel of Cartmel Fell, in the wilds of Westmorland, there is a figure of Our Lord from a crucifix, some 2 ft. high, of which the arms are grooved, and the feet have been burnt off. A second figure of Our Lord (originally in the church of Keynes Inferior) is in the museum of Carlisle, and a third, from a church in the lake district, where the Swiss influence had been felt, some of the finest figure work is to be found in the retables, some of which are in the Victoria and Albert Museum. A Tirolean panel of the 15th century carved in relief, representing St John seated with his back to the onlooker, is a masterpiece of perspective and foreshortening, and the drapery folds are perfect. The same may be said of a small statue of the Virgin, carved in lime by a Swiss master, and now in the Victoria and Albert Museum. Wurzburg (1460-1531) shows that stone sculptures of medieval times were not ashamed of wood.

Renaissance Period (16th-17th Centuries).—With the beginning of the 16th century carvings were produced in a fine mixture of styles and types, to suit the requirements of the age of the Reformation and the end of the Gothic period, and the separation of the church from the state. The Roman and Italian influences, coming chiefly through the Netherlands, were not only confined to the decoration of churches and public buildings, but were now applied to the decoration of private houses, and even to household furniture. The style of carving of this period was therefore to be found on the Continent, France, Germany and the Netherlands producing numberless examples not only of house decoration but of furniture as well. The wealth of the newly discovered Americas enabled the wealthy to. The panel of the Jacobean period in the Victoria and Albert Museum, is a good example of decorative treatment without overloading. The brackets carved in the shape of monsters which support the projecting upper storey are typical of the Jacobean style. Plate 179 shows some examples of carved brackets of the Renaissance and early 17th century. Brackets. The panels, too, of Sir Paul Pinder's house should be noted as good examples of that Jacobean form of medallion surrounded by scroll work which is at once as decorative as it is simple.

In England that familiar style known as Elizabethan and Jacobean prevailed throughout the 16th and 17th centuries. At the present time hardly a home in the land has not its old oak chest carved with the familiar half circle or scroll border along the top rail, or the arch patterns known as 'Jacobean'. The paterae, acanthus leaves, under parts and upper corners surmounted by turned balusters of extravagant thickness, are to be seen wherever one goes. And chairs, real or those that look like them, are still in use. The bases of these chairs, the feet, are bought with an avidity inseparable from fashion. Four-post bedssteads are harder to come by. The back is usually broken up into small panels and carved, the best effect being seen in those elaborately-designed chairs. The term "Renaissance" is often used to denote this period, although the term 'Renaissance' was not applied until the 19th century; the term 'Renaissance' name is usually associated with a very heavy form of decoration which was copied direct from nature. Great swags of drapery and foliage with fruit and dead birds, &c., would be carved in lime a foot thick. For technical skill these examples are unsurpassed; each grape would be undercut, the finials and balusters are quite outstando
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separate, and as a consequence now succumb to the energy of the horsepower. Good wood-carving is to the finest oriole what Petworth; Trinity College, Oxford; Trinity College, Cambridge; St Paul's cathedral; St James', Piccadilly; and many other London churches.

In those days of Louis XIV. and XV. the principal merit of carved design, i.e., its appropriateness and suitability, gradually disappeared. Furniture was often carved in a way hardly legitimate. The legs, the rail panels, and frames of cabinets, of loom instead of being first made for construction and strength, and then decorated, were first designed to carry cherubs' heads and "rococo" (i.e., rock and shell ornament), quite regardless of utility. A wealth of statuary was taken in veneration, applied to state carriages, to say nothing of bedsteads and other furniture. However, the wall panelling of the mansions of the rich, and sometimes the panelling of furniture, was decorated with rococo designs, but the ornament was superimposed on panels, and the surface would be left plain, while the centre would be carved with a medallion surrounded by foliage, vases or trophies of torches and muses. Even the upper edge of the panel would be thus treated. France led the fashion; which was more or less followed all over Europe. In England gilt chairs in the style of Louis XV. were made in some quantity. But Thomas Chippendale, Ince and Mayhew, Sheraton, Johnson, Hepplewhite and other cabinet-makers did not as a rule use much carving in their designs. Scrolls, shells, ribbon, ears of corn, &c., in very fine relief, were, however, used in the embellishment of chairs, &c., and the claw and ball foot was in vogue as a termination to the cabriole legs of cabinets and other furniture.

The mantelpieces of the 18th century were as a rule carved in pine and painted, and usually the top part of the shelf was ornate, by plasters often of flat elliptic plan, sometimes by caryatids, and the frieze would consist of a raised centre panel carved with a classic scene in relief, or with a mask alone, and on either side a swing of down-turning foliage.

Interior doorways were often decorated with a broken pediment more or less ornate, and a swing of foliage commonly depended from either side over a background of scroll work. The outer porches so often seen in Queen Anne houses were of a character peculiar to the 18th century. A small platform or curved roof was supported by two large and heavy brackets carved with acanthus scroll work. The panels and door frames were usually ornamented with brackets fixed to the "open strings" (i.e., the sides of the steps), giving a very pretty effect to the graceful balustrade of turned and twisted columns.

Plain and fine figure work calls for little comment. During the 16th century many good examples were produced—those priestly statues in the museum of Sens for example. But the figure work used in the decoration of cabinets, &c., seldom rose above the ordinary level.

In the 18th century cherubs' heads were fashionable and statuettes were sometimes carved in boxwood or ornaments, but as a means of decorating houses wood sculpture ceased to be. The Swiss, however, in the course of time, their reputation is divided, and the present day, and still turn out cleverly carved chiaro and obscura, &c.; as a rule the more sketchily cut the better the merit. Their more ambitious works, their groups of cows, &c., sometimes reach a high degree of perfection.

Of the work of the 19th century little can be said in praise. Outside and beyond the present-day fashion for collecting old oak there seems to be little or no market for carvings in general. In a certain number of carvers find occupation, as also for repairs or the production of imitations. But the carving one is accustomed to see in hotels or on board the modern ocean palace is in the main the work of the machine. There is no objection to the machine in itself, as it only works out and roughly models the design which is finished by hand. Its fatal drawback is that it of commercial value only when a large number of copies are produced at the same time. It is this repetition which takes away the life of good work, which places that gulf between the contract job and the individual effort of the artist. The price of all labour has so greatly increased that it is so much easier to copy and cut or by the day and the days of the trade union that none but the very rich can afford to beautify their home in the way to which our forefathers were accustomed.

Carving in the early medieval period, screens and other fittings were produced for the Coptic churches of Egypt by native Christian workmen. In the British Museum there is a set of ten small cedar panels from the church door of Stt Mariam, Cairo 13th century. The six sculptured figure panels are carved in very low relief and the four foliage panels are quite Oriental in character, intricate and fine both in detail and finish. In the Cairo Museum there is much wood work treated in the style of Arab style, from other doors of the Byzantine character. The figure work is not of a very high order.

Mohammedan Work.—Nothing can exceed the skill with which the Moslem wood-carvers of Persia, Syria, Egypt and Spain designed and executed their work. The panels of doors, panels of internal linings, ceilings, pulpits and all kinds of fittings and furniture. The mosques and private houses of Cairo, Damascus and other Oriental cities are all of the most elaborate and minutely delicate woodwork. A favourite style of ornament was to cover the surface with very intricate interlacing patterns, formed by finely moulded ribs; the ribs rise at the same time and the ribs were then filled in with small pieces of wood cut with foliation. The use of different woods such as ebony or box, inlaid so as to emphasize the design, combined with the ingenious richness of the patterns, give an effect of surpassing richness of work. Carved ivory is also often used for the filling in of the spaces. The Arabs are past masters in the art of carving flat surfaces in this way. A niche in the mosque of the sultan Bârûq (Cairo, 14th century) well ill the lines of the friezes and minbar (15th century) from a Cairo mosque, now in the Victoria and Albert Museum, is also a good example in the same style, the small proportion of wood being more than made up.

screens made up of labyrinths of complicated joinery, consisting of multitudes of tiny balusters connecting hexagons, squares or other forms, with the flat surfaces constantly enriched with small carvings, leaves, flowers, clover, &c., the screws are of very delicate work. In the mosque of Qous (12th century) of that finely arranged geometrical interlacing of curves with foliage terminations which distinctions of decorative design. Six panels in the Victoria and Albert Museum (15th century; Persia) show how deeply this form of decoration was ingrained in the Arab nature. Figure work and animals were sometimes introduced, in modern fashion, as in the six panels just referred to, and at the hôtel du Moristan (15th century) and the mosque of El Nesf eyyoun (14th century). There is a magnificent panel on the door of Beyet-el-Emry. This panel is a design of the 11th century; it portrays a frieze of vegetables of conventional treatment in low relief. The Arab designer was fond of breaking up his panelling in a way reminding one of a similar arrangement of frames and panels, with a rush of angles divided into number of hexagonal, triangular or other shapes, and each square decorated in with conventional scroll work. Much of this simple flat design reminds one of that Byzantine method from which the Elizabethan style was inspired.

Persia.—The Persian carvers closely followed Arab design. A pair of doors of the 14th century from Samarkand (Victoria and Albert Museum) are typical. Boxes, spoons and other small articles were often fretted with interlacing lines of Saracenic character, the delicacy and minuteness of the work requiring the utmost patience and skill. Many of the patterns remind one of the sandalwood work of Madras, with the exception of the geometric patterns, which are of a much lower relief. Sometimes a very beautiful result was obtained by the sparing use of fretted lattice pattern amongst foliage. A fine panel of the 14th century in the Victoria and Albert Museum shows how there was Arab influence even as to the use of naturalistic inspirations.

India and Burma.—Throughout the great Indian peninsula wood-carving of the most luxurious kind has been continuously produced for many centuries. The ancient Hindu temples were decorated with doors, ceilings and various fittings carved in teak and other woods with patterns of extreme richness and minute elaboration. We have architectural remains from Kashmir Smats (Punjab) dating from the 9th century, which are very remarkable; and the decorative character strongly resembling the best Elizabethan design. The doors of the temple of Somnath, on the north-west coast, were famed for their magnificence and were highly valued as such by the British. In the same temple there is a door with the conqueror, Sultan Mahomud, and are now lying at the fort at Agra. The gates which now exist are very fine specimens of ancient woodwork. The design of each panel is carefully arranged and is divided into four frames, with flowering plants and monsters with every space filled in with the minutest decoration. Many of the gong stands of Burma the highest skill; the arrangement of two figures on a gong door is very fine; on the gong hangs is familiar. The Burman are sculptors of proved merit.

China and Japan.—In these countries the carver is unqualified for defects of taste. Grotesque and imitation work of the utmost pernicious kind is popular with the class of people who pay for the work, and the Japanese have always been addicted to carving in phyllin, ivory, &c., and to framing squaws and filling up each
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panel with a circle, or diamond of conventional treatment with a spandrel in each corner (door of Tai-i-hê Hall, Pekin). A very Chinese feature is the finial of the newel post, so constantly left more or less straight in profile and deeply carved with monsters and scroll. A hereditary demand for change to the gardon pattern is commonly used to give emphasis to edges, and the dragon arranged in curves imitative of nature is frequently employed. Sometimes it is placed between ornamental colonettes. The general rule that in every country designers use much the same means whereby a pattern is obtained holds good in China. There are forms of band decoration here which closely resemble those of the design. But generally the form from Tai-i-hê Hall, Pekin, almost is Elizabethan, so like are the details. Screens of grill form, so familiar in Mahomedan countries, are common, and the deeply ground, closely arranged pattern of them may also be found in the carved doors of state in the Ch'en-Ch'ing Hall, Pekin, is a masterpiece of intricate design. The back consists of one central panel of considerable height, with two of lesser degree on either side lovely, and the way in which the two groups of dragons and scroll work; the throne also is a wonderful example of carved treatment, and the doors of a cabinet in the same building show how rich an effect of foliage can be produced without the employment of stalk or scroll. The Ch'in man, who is unequalled as a microscopic worker, does not limit himself to ivory or metal. One might almost say, he wastes his talent on such an ungrateful material as wood. In this matter, plans and other trilles are carved with a delicacy that borders on the mazerotic.In Japan much of the Chinese type is apparent. The native carver is fond of massing foliage without the stalk to lead him. He appears to like the irregularities of the branches and flowers, and to combine the whole. He takes the stalk here and there, thus reversing the order of the Western method. Such a treatment, especially when birds and beasts are introduced, has the highest decorative effect. But, as such close treatment borders on being decorative, upon painting or colour. A long panel in the Victoria and Albert Museum, depicting merchants with their packhorse (Plate IV., fig. 7), strongly resembles in design and workmanship the German or French Gothic, as, for example the panel of St Hubert in the museum at Châlons. The strength and character of Japanese figure work is quite equal to the best Gothic sculpture of the 15th century.

Savage Decorations.—There is a general similarity running through the carved design of most races of primitive culture, the chip form of ornament being almost universally employed. Decorated surfacing, depending as it does on the line and shape of every work of nature, and may no doubt be accounted for by the extensive use of stone-cutting tools. The savage carver shows the same tendency to over-exalt his art by crowding on too much design as the more civilized craftsmen of other lands, while he also on occasion exercises a good deal of restraint by a harmonious balance of decoration and plain space. So far as his chip designs and those patterns more or less depending on the line are concerned, his work is practically the same, but his desire to figure things and his attempts do not usually meet with success. Primitive carving, generally, shows that very similar stages of artistic development are passed through in every age. A very favourite style of "chip" pattern is that formed by small triangles and squares entirely covering a surface (Hervey Islanders), the monotony being varied by a band of different arranged with a few flats. There is also a great tendency of art is hardly of a kind calculated to enlarge the imagination, though so far as the cultivation of patience and accuracy is concerned, has no equal. But many natives, as for example the Fiji Islanders, employ chip designs rivaling those of Europe in variety. Upon occasion the savage appreciates the way in which plain surfaces contrast and emphasize decorated parts, and judiciously restricts his bands of decoration to special points, whereas islanders, Jos of the lower Niger design their paddles in a masterly way, and show a fine sense of proportion between the plain and the decorated surface. Their designs, though slightly in relief, are of the chip manner and are not geometric, though ground and curved lines, straight or curved, though often very effective and in every way suitable, is not a very advanced form of art and has decided limits as to the possibility of this form of art. The savage in relief is common enough, birds being produced in many forms, but savage relief work seldom calls for praise. The Kafir carves the handle of his spoon perhaps in the form of a giraffe, and in the round, with each leg cut separately and the four horns meeting at the bowl, hardly a comfortable form of handle to hold. The North American Indian shows a wider invention than some nations, the twist in various shapes being a favourite treatment say of pipe stems. The Eskimo and the North American Indian are said to use a form familiar in Indian shawls, and in some cases the scroll entwines in a way which faintly suggests the guilloche. The native of New Guinea or the Maori is not infrequently found with a form which resembles one of a similar method in use in Scandinavian countries. The work of the New Zealander is greatly in advance of the average primitive type: he uses a very good scheme of scroll work for decorative purposes, the lines of the scrolls often being enriched with a small pattern in a way reminding one of the familiar Norman treatment, as for example the prows of his canoes. The Maori sometimes carves not only the "bargboards" of his house but the gables also, snakes and grotesque figures being as a rule introduced: the main posts and rafters, too, of the inside receive attention. Unlike the Hindu he has a slight amount of decorative proposition and does not plan his scheme of design on too small a scale.

Authorities.—Marshall, Species of Antique Carved Furniture and Woodwork (1888); Franklin Crallan, Details of Gothic Woodcarving (1880); S. W. Hart, Specimens of Carved Oak Woodwork of the 16th and 17th Centuries (1883); Colling, Medieval Foliage and Decoration (1874); Bond, Screens and Galleries (1908); Pauckert, Die Zimmerei (1904); J. Lessing, Holz schnitzen (Berlin, 1882); Rouyer, La Renaissance; Rowe, Practical Wood-carving (1907).

WOODCHUCK, the vernacular name of the common North American representative of the marmots (see MARMOT), scientifically known as Arctomys monax. The typical race of this species ranges from New York to Georgia and westward to the Dakotas, but it is represented by a second and darker race in Labrador, and by a third in a variety; while several other North American species have been named. The ordinary woodchuck measures about 18 in. in length, of which the tail forms a third. In colour it is usually brownish black above, with the nose, chin, cheeks and throat tending to whitish, and the under parts brownish chestnut; while the feet and tail are black and blackish. Like other marmots it is a burrower.

WOODCOCK (O. Eng. wude-coe, wudu-coe, and wudu-smite), the Scolopax rusticola* of ornithology, a game-bird which is prized both by the sportsman and for its excellence for the table. Being a bulky bill, with a short tail, its plumage is suggestive of its nocturnal or crepuscular habits—with mottled plumage of black and umber-brown, ash-gray, buff and shining white—the last being confined to the tip of the lower side of the tail, but the rest intermixed for the most part in beautiful combination. Setting aside the most extreme aberrations from the normal colouring which examples of this species occasionally present (and some of them are extremely curious, not to say beautiful), there is much variation to be almost constantly observed in the plumage of individuals, in some of which richer tints prevail while others exhibit a greyer coloration. This variation is often, but not always, accompanied by a variation in size or at least in weight.3 The paler birds are generally the larger, but the difference, whether in bulk or tint, cannot be attributed to age, sex, season or, so far as can be ascertained, to locality. It is, notwithstanding, a very common belief among sportsmen that there are two "species" of woodcock, and many persons of experience will have it that, beside the differences just named, the "little red woodcock" invariably flies more sharply than the other. However, a sluggish behaviour is not really associated with colour, though it may be an additional observation that different specimens, some of which a fat bird will rise more slowly, when flushed, than one, which is in poor condition. Ornithologists are practically unanimous in declaring against the existence of two "species" or even "races," and, moreover, in agreeing that the sex of the bird cannot be determined from its plumage, though there are a few who believe that the young of the year can be discriminated from the adults by having the outer web of the first quill-feather in the wing marked with angular notches of a light colour, while the old birds have no trace of this "vandyke" ornament. Conjectural statements and offerings seems to show that the male varies most in size; on an average he is slightly heavier than the female, yet some of the oldest hens have proved to be cocks.4

Though there are probably few if any counties in the United Kingdom in which the woodcock does not almost yearly breed, especially since a "Scolopax time" has been afforded by the legislature for the protection of the species, there can be no doubt that by far the greater number of these shot in the British Islands have come from Scotland. The woodcock uses a large variety of places, and in some cases the scroll entwines in a way which faintly suggests the guilloche. The native of New Guinea or the Maori is not infrequently found with a form which resembles one of a similar method in use in Scandinavian countries. The work of the New Zealander is greatly in advance of the average primitive type: he uses a very good scheme of scroll work for decorative purposes, the lines of the scrolls often being enriched with a small pattern in a way reminding one of the familiar Norman treatment, as for example the prows of his canoes. The

1 By Linnaeus, and many others after him, misspelt rusticola. The correct form of Pliny and the older writers seems to have been first restor'd by Oken (Zoologie, ii. p. 596).

2 The difference in weight is very great, though this seems to have been exaggerated by some writers. A friend who has had much experience tells us that the heaviest bird he ever knew weighed 161 gr. and the lightest 9 oz. and a fraction.

3 Cf. Dr Hoffmann's monograph Die Waldschneepfe, ed. 2, p. 35, published at Stuttgart in 1887.

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Cold—mosty, is presumed, from Scandinavia. These arrive on the market when in full plumage, and the late spring, —often in an exhausted and impoverished state. If unmolested, they are soon rested, pass inland, and, as would appear, in a marvelously short time recover their condition. Their future destination seems to be London; where, in the early part of the frost stop their supply of food on the eastern side of Great Britain they press onward and, letting alone Ireland, into which the immigrant stream descends, is believed to be swept away into the sea as, as Devonshire and Cornwall, and to the Isles of Scilly, without a few but take themselves to the unknown ocean, finding there doubtless a watery grave, though instances are on record of estranged, perfectly undisturbed, and reaching Newfoundland, New Jersey and Virginia.

With regard to the woodcock which breed in Britain, pairs take place very early in February and the eggs are laid often before the end of the month. These are among the few birds which are marked with a soft cream-colour bled and spotted with reddish brown, and seldom take the pyriform shape so common among those of Limicoline birds.

The nest—always made on the ground amid trees or underwood, and usually near water or at least in a damp locality—is at first little more than a slight hollow in the soil, but as incubation proceeds dead leaves are collected around its margin until a considerable mass is accumulated. During this season the male woodcock performs at twilight flights of a remarkable kind, repeating evening after evening (and it is believed at dawn also) precisely the same course, which generally describes a triangle, the sides of which may be a quarter of a mile or three-fourths of a mile in length. This bird is not so much the wing is quite unlike that which it presents when hurriedly flying after being flushed, and though its speed is great the beats of the wing are few in number. At intervals the bird apparently recovers and a second flight is produced, whether from the throat of the bird, as is commonly averred, or from the plumeage is uncertain. This characteristic flight is in some parts of England called "roading," and the track taken by this bird is said to be very similar to that of the nightingale. 1

In England woodcocks perform their night flights, and were it not for the fact that the birds of this art to this custom is due to the fact that the birds of this habit of catching the simple performer in nets called "cock-shots," which were hung between trees across the open glades or rides of a wood. A still more interesting matter in relation to the breeding of woodcocks is the fact, finally established on good evidence, that the old birds transport their newly hatched offspring, presumably to places where food is more accessible. The young are chilled between the thicks of the parent, whose legs hang down during the operation, while the bill is to some extent, possible only at starting, brought into operation to assist in adjusting the load if not in lifting it through the air.

Woodcocks inhabit suitable localities across the northern part of the Old World, from Ireland to Japan, migrating southward towards autumn. As a species they are said to be resident in the Azores and other Atlantic Islands; but they are not known to penetrate very far into Africa during the winter; though in many parts of India they are abundant during the cold weather, and reach even Ceylon and Tenasserim. The popular belief that woodcock live by suction is by no means fully exploded; but the真空 have observed them in confinement know that they have an almost insatiable appetite for earthworms, which the birds seek by probing soil or sand to a distance of ten or more feet. The remarkable fact seems to have been first placed on record by Bowles, 2 who noticed it in the royal aviary at San Idelfonso in Spain, and it has been corroborated by other observers, and especially by Montagu, who has repeatedly observed and maintained that woodcocks are an excellent article of fish for their ordinary food. They also do well on chopped raw meat.

The eastern part of North America possesses a woodcock, much smaller, though generally (and especially in habits) similar to, that of the Old continent. It is the Sceloporus minor of most authors; but, chiefly on account of its having the outer three primaries remarkably attenuated, it has been placed in a separate genus, Philolea. In Java is found a distinct and curiously coloured species, described and figured by Horsfield (Trans. Linn. Society, xiii. p. 191, and Zoolog. Researches, pl. as S. satyrus). This is S. E.噼乒乓球 (Geographical Distribution of the Family Charadriidae, p. 506) referred the S. satyrus of Latham (Ibid. p. 117) and the S. clypeata of Temminck to S. satyrus.

Another species is S. rochussenii from the Moluccas; this has, like the snipe, the lower part of the tibia bare of feathers. (A. N.)

1 The etymology and consequently the correct spelling of these expressions seem to be very uncertain. Some would derive the word from Latin, "woodcock," others from Sanskrit. The first seems to be the most probable, and I have accordingly adopted it.


3 The pair of muscles said by Loche (Exps. Scient. de l'Algérie, ii. p. 293) to exist in the maxilla, and presumably to direct the movement of the maxilla to the palate, have been described by Horsfield and others.

4 Introduccion a la historia natural y a la geografia fisica de España, pp. 454, 455 (Madrid, 1775).

WOOD ENGRAVING, the art of engraving (g.t.) on wood, by lines so cut that the design stands in relief. This method of engraving was historically the earliest, done for the purpose of taking impressions upon paper or other material. It is natural that wood engraving should have occurred first to the primitive mind, because the manner in which woodcuts are printed is the most obvious of all the kinds of printing. If a block of wood is inked with a greasy ink and then pressed on a piece of paper, the ink from the block will be transferred at once to the paper, on which we shall have a black patch exactly the size and shape of the inked surface. Now, suppose that the simple Chinese who first discovered this was ingenious enough to go a step further, it would evidently occur to him that if one of the elaborate signs, each of which in his own language stood for a word, were drawn upon the block of wood, in relief, and then the whole of the white wood sufficiently cut away to leave the sign in relief, an image of it might be taken upon the paper much more quickly than the sign could be copied with a camel-hair brush and Indian ink. No sooner had this experiment been tried and found to answer than block-printing was discovered, and from the printing of signs to the printing of rude images of things, exactly in the same manner, the step was so easy that it must have been made insensibly. Wood engraving, then, is really nothing but that primitive block-cutting which prepared the way for woodcut printing with pins as often seen in illuminations, types, and the only difference between a delicate modern woodcut and the rude letters in the first printed books is a difference of artistic skill and knowledge. In Chinese and Japanese woodcuts we can still recognize traditions of treatment which come from the designing of their written characters. The main elements of a Chinese or a Japanese woodcut, uninfluenced by European example, are dashing or delicate outlines and markings of various thickness, exactly such as a clever writer with the brush would make with his Indian ink or vermilion. Often we get a perfectly block our woodenly and handsomely printed; and these broad vigorous blacks are quite in harmony with the kind of printing for which wood engraving is intended.

It has not hitherto been satisfactorily ascertained whether wood engraving came to Europe from the East or was re-discovered by some European artist. The precise date of the first European woodcut is also a matter of doubt, but here we have certain data which at least set limits to the possibility of error. European wood engraving dates certainly from the first quarter of the 15th century. It used to be believed that a rare leaf, "Prints to appear in the German Drucksachen," rudely executed and dated 1423, was the Adam of all woodcuts, but since 1844 investigations have somewhat shaken this theory. There is a cut in the Brussels library, of the "Virgin and Child," surrounded by four saints, which is dated 1418, but the composition is so elegant and the drawing so refined and beautiful, that one has a difficulty in accepting the date, though it is received by many as authentic, while it is repudiated by others in the belief that the letters have been tampered with. The "Virgin and Child" of the Paris library is without date, but is supposed, apparently with reason, to be earlier than either of the two mentioned; and Delaborde proved that two cuts were printed in 1406. The "Virgin and Child" at Paris may be taken as a good representative specimen of very early European wood engraving. It is simple art, but not bad art. The forms are drawn in bold thick lines, and the black blot is used with much effect in the hollows and recesses of the design. Beyond this there is no shading. Rude as the work is, the artist has expressed exquisite maternal tenderness in the chief details of the design. The Virgin is crowned, and stands against a blue background with pinnacles as often seen in Illuminations, and in manuscripts. In the woodcut this architectural decoration is boldly but effectively drawn. Here, then, we have real art, art in which appeared both vigour of style and tenderness of feeling.

The earliest wood engraving consisted of outlines and white spaces with smaller black spaces, cut with a knife, not with a graver, and shading lines are rare or absent. Before passing
to shaded woodcuts we may mention a kind of wood engraving practised in the middle of the 17th century by a French engraver (often called Bernard Millet, though his name is a matter of doubt) and by other engravers nearer the beginning of that century. This method is called the *cribule* a word for which there is no convenient translation in English, unless we call it *drilled*. It means riddled with small holes, as a target may be riddled with small shot. The effect of light and dark is produced in this kind of engraving by sinking a great number of round holes of different diameters in the substance of the wood, which, of course, all come white in the printing; it is, in effect, a sort of stippling in white. When a more advanced kind of wood engraving had become prevalent the *cribule* was no longer used for general purposes, but it was retained for the grounds of decorative wood engraving, being used occasionally in borders for pages, in printers' marks, and other devices, which were survivals in black and white of the ancient art of illuminating. Curiously enough, this kind of wood engraving, though long disused for purposes of art, was in recent times revived with excellent effect for scientific purposes, mainly as a method of illustration for astronomical books. The black given by the untouched wooden block represents the night sky, and the holes, small or large, and the distance between them is regulated by the amount of light that through them is admitted or not admitted. The process was perfectly adapted to this purpose, being rapid, and simple. It has also been used in a spasmodic and experimental manner by one or two modern engravers.

The earlier workmen turned their attention to woodcut in simple black lines, including outline and shading. In early work the outline is firm and very distinct, being thicker in line than the shading, and in the shading the lines are simple, without cross-hatchings, as the workmen found it easier and more natural to take out the lines of the wood between the little or nearly parallel black lines than to cut out the twenty or thirty small white lozenges into which the same space would have been divided by cross-hatchings. The early work would also sometimes retain the simple-black pattern which we find in Japanese woodcuts, for example, in the "Christmas Dancers," of Wohlgemuth, all the shoes are black patterns, though there is no discrimination of local colour in anything else. A precise parallel to this treatment is to be found in a Japanese woodcut of the "Wild Boar and Hare," given by Aimé Humbert in his book on "Quatre-vingt-treize," in which the boar has a complete black pattern, with the ears, tail, and other parts black though all other local colour is omitted. The similarity of method between Wohlgemuth and the Japanese artist is close; they both take pleasure in drawing thin black lines at a little distance from the patch and following its shape like a border. In course of time, as wood engravers became more expert, they were not so careful to spare themselves trouble and pains, and then cross-hatchings were introduced, but at first more as a variety to relieve the eye than as a common method of shading. In the 17th century a simple kind of wood engraving reached such a high degree of perfection that the whole work of that time has never been surpassed in its own line.

Wood engraving in the 16th century was much more conventional than it became in recent times, and this very conventionalism enabled it to express what it had to express with greater decision and power. The wood engraver in those days was free from many difficult considerations that were afterwards imposed on his modern successor. He did not care in the least about aerial perspective, and nobody expected him to care about it; he did not trouble his mind about local colour, but generally omitted it; sometimes, however, giving it here and there, but only when it suited his fancy. As for light-and-shade, if he had occasion, he would do without any other help than a tool called a "driller," and an instrument called a "crib," generally attaining, was a firm, clear, simple kind of drawing, conventional in its indifference to the mystery of nature and to the poetic sentiment which comes to us from that mystery, but by no means different to fact of a decided and tangible kind. The wood engraving of the 16th century was a singularly positive art, as positive as carving; indeed, most of the famous woodcuts of that time must have come from panels without much loss of character. Their complete independence of pictorial conditions might be illustrated by many examples. In Dürer's "Salutation" the dark blue sky above the Alpine mountains is translated by dark shading, but so far is this piece of local colour from being carried out in the rest of the composition that the important foreground figures, with their draperies, are shaded as if they were white statues. Again, the sky itself is false in its shading, for it is without gradation, but it is exaggerated upon in the spade which is a part of the composition from looking too empty, and the conventionalism of wood engraving was so accepted in those days that the artist could have recourse to this expedient in defiance alike of pictorial harmony and of nature. It is to the inventor of small well-filled compositions, the "Dance of Death," the firm and matter-of-fact drawing is accompanied by a sort of light-and-shade adumbration for effects of light and shade, which is referent to the truth as might be expected in a stained-glass window. There is a most interesting series of little woodcuts drawn and engraved in the 16th century by J. Amman as illustrations of the different kinds of wood-engraving. They are chiefly called "The Baker," "The Miller," "The Butcher," and soon. Nothing more striking in this valuable series than the remarkable closeness with which the artist observed everything in the nature of a hard fact, such as the shape of a hatchet or a spade; he sees no mystery anywhere—he can draw leaves but not foliage, feathers but not plumage, locks but not hair, a hill but not a landscape. In the "Witches' Kitchen," a woodcut by Bernard Picart, is quite a distinct art, being based on different principles, but from the pot is so hard that it has the appearance of two trunks of trees denuded of their bark, and makes a pendant to a composition in the form of a real tree on the opposite side which does not look more substantial than these. The best of the job was the way the engraver had his own way of engraving clouds and vapour, and all the engravings of that time followed it. Their conceptions were much more those of a wood engraver than of those of the Daniell brothers, and less in high relief, and Grin's "Witches' Kitchen" might be carved in the manner without loss. When the engravers were rather draughtsmen than carvers, their drawing was of a decorative character. For example, in the magnificent series of "Châteaux," of Jacob Binck, one of the very finest examples of old wood engraving, the face and beard are drawn with few lines and very powerfully, but the costume is treated strictly as decoration, the lines of the patterns being all given, with as little shading as possible, and what shading there is simple, without cross-hatching.

The perfection of simple wood engraving having been attained so early as the 16th century by the use of the graver, the art became extremely productive. During the 17th and 18th centuries it still remained a comparatively severe and conventional form of art, because the workmen shaded as much as possible either with straight lines or simple curves, so that there was never much appearance of freedom. Modern wood engraving is quite a distinct art, being based on different principles, but between the two stands the work of an original genius, Thomas Bewick (1753-1828). Although apprenticed to an engraver in 1767, he was never taught to draw, and got into ways and habits of his own which add to the originality of his work, though his defective training is always evident. His work is the more genuine from his frequent habit of engraving his own designs, which left him perfect freedom of interpretation; but the genuineness of it is not only of the kind which comes from independence of spirit, it is due also to his fidelity to the technical methods of the process.

The reader will remember that in wood engraving every cutting prints white, and every space left untouched prints black. Simple black lines are obtained by cutting out white lines or spaces between them, and crossed black lines have to be obtained by laboriously cutting out all the white lozenges between them. In Bewick's cuts white lines, which had appeared before him in the *Fables* of 1722, are abundant and are often crossed, but black lines are never crossed; the white lines, although they are black in the plate, have no power to draw the eye. In the figures of wood engravers and Dürer's master Wohlgemuth used to do. The side of the frying-pan in the vignette of "The Cat and the Mouse" is cut in white, and so is the line for the edge of the plate, and the line at the edge for a border. In the vignette of "The Fisherman," at the end of the twentieth chapter of the *Mémorial*, the space of dark shade under the bushes is left quite black, whilst the leaves and twigs, and the red and line too, are all drawn in pure white lines. Bewick, indeed, was more careful in his adherence to the technical conditions of the art than any of the primitive woodcutters except van den Berghe de Larivière, and perhaps his cutting was supported by this. Such a thing as a fishing-net is an excellent test of this disposition. In the interesting series by J. Amman already mentioned there is a cut of a man fishing in a river, from a small punt, with a rod and line, in which the rod and line are not drawn in pure white lines. Bewick, in one of his vignettes, represents a fisherman mending his nets by the side of a stream. A long net is hung to dry on four upright sticks, but to avoid the trouble of cutting out the lozenges Bewick artfully contrives his arrangement of light and shade so that the net shall be in light against a space of black shade under some

**WOOD ENGRAVING**
Woodcutting and engraving were both used to create images in the 17th century. Woodcutters created images by cutting into a wooden block, while engravers used a metal plate. The woodcutters' work was often more crude and less refined, while engravers could create more detailed and nuanced images. The technique of woodcutting was often used for illustrations in books, while engraving was used for more detailed and high-quality images.

An important extension of wood engraving was due to the invention of compound blocks by Charles Wells about the year 1860. Formerly a woodcut was limited in size to the dimensions of a block of boxwood cut across the grain, except in the primitive condition of the art, when commoner woods were used in the direction of the grain; but by this invention many small blocks were fitted together so as to form a single large one, sometimes of very large size. They could be separated or joined together again at will, and it was this facility which rendered possible the rapid production of large cuts for the newspapers, many cutters working on the same subject at once, each taking his own section.

The process employed for wood engraving may be briefly described as follows. The surface of the block is lightly whitened with Chinese white so as to produce a light yellowish-grey tint, and on this the artist draws, either with a pen if the work is intended to be in line, or with a hard-pointed pencil and a brush if it is intended to be in shade. If it is to be a line woodcut the cutter simply digs out the whites in its finest form by a sympathetic scalpel (he has these tools of various shapes and sizes), and that is all he has to do; but if the drawing on the wood is shaded with a brush, then the cutter has to work upon the tones in such a manner that they will come relatively true in the printing. This is by no means easy, and the result is often a disappointment, besides which the artist's drawing is destroyed in the process. It therefore became customary to have the block photographed before the engraver touches it, when the drawing is specially worth preserving. This was done for Leighton's illustrations to Ulysses. When the engraving the drawing, made upon paper, was by photography printed on the block, and the drawing remained untouched as a witness for or against the engraver.

In recent years the position of wood engraving in Great Britain has wholly changed. Up to 1880 and for a little while longer it was the chief means of book and newspaper illustration, and a frequent method of fine-art reproduction; but by the beginning of the 20th century it had been all but driven out of the field by "process" work of various kinds. It still flourishes in the commoner style for commercial and mechanical work; it is still occasionally seen in the more artistic work of the occasional publisher here and there, who deplores and would arrest its decay. But the photograph and its facsimile reproduction have captivated the public, who want "illustration" and who do not want "art." The great body of the wood engravers have therefore found their occupation entirely gone, while the minority who have found themselves forced to devote their skill to "re-touching" the process-block—sometimes carrying their work so far that the print from the finished block is a close imitation of a wood engraving. This system has been carried farthest in the United States. It is not only to considerations of economy that is due the supersession of engraving by "process." The apparent superiority of truthfulness claimed by the photograph over the artist's drawing is a factor in the case—the public forgetting that a photographic print shows us what a thing or a scene looks like to the undiscriminating lens, rather than what it looks like to the two eyes of the spectator, who unconsciously selects that part of the scene which he specially wishes to see. The rank and file of the engravers—even those who "can engrave" after a picture as well as "cut" a "fine artist's" sketch—succumbed not only to the public, but to the artists themselves, who frequently insisted upon the process-block for the translation of their work. They preferred the greater truth of outline (though not necessarily of tone) which is yielded by "process," to all the inherent charm of the beautiful (and expensive) art of xylography.
In Great Britain a few engravers of high rank and ability still followed the art which was raised to so high a pitch by W. J. Linton (d. 1898). Such were Mr. Charles Roberts, Mr. Biscombe Gardner, Mr. Comfort, Mr. Ulrich and a few more—the first two the better engravers, and more original in design and composition, more original in the conception of the process, and very ready to fear that if wood engraving as a craft, for ordinary purposes, ceases to exist, wood engraving as a fine art must disappear as well—as those of the younger group by more than thirty years of apprenticeship and practice required to make an "artist" of him, and nothing to compensate him if he fail to attain at once the highest accomplishment.

Another art which has contributed to the overthrow of wood engraving in England is the rapture begotten of the extraordinary executive perfection to which the art had been brought in America. These engravings, published in magazines and books having a high reputation for their literary or artistic excellencies, were treated with respectful admiration, but a foolish depreciation among the public. Just as the over-refinement of engraving on steel of Finden and his school killed his art and the trade of the English wood engravers, so it has on the American wood engraver, by the law of paradox, effectively stifled xylography in England, as it has since done to an almost equal degree in America. The reason is simple. With the object of "dis-individualizing" himself, as he called it, the engraver sought to suppress his own recognizable manner of craftsmanship when translating the work of the artist for the public; and the more he succeeded, the more he obscured the mode in which he defined and elaborated his technique and imitated textures, the more extreme minuteness and excessive dexterity (so as to secure faithfulness and smoothness), the more closely did the result approximate to a production of the brain and hand of the artist himself. This is redactus ad absurdum of the passion for the minute and the perfection of mere technique. The result was amazing in its completeness, but curiously grey and monotonous; and matter-of-fact publishers and public, who knew and cared little or nothing of art or craft, did not or could not perceive the difference between the work of the engraver and that of the artist, and the engraving as a craft was stifled, and the art of the engraver to a great extent extinguished. The engraver's work was elaborated, a craving of an acrobatic kind, defeated its own end. The public were pleased for a time, and the result has been disastrous for the art.

In England, in spite of the International Society of Wood Engravers, of which little is now heard, there are no signs of a general revival, and it seems as if the art must be born again, so long as the public interest in photographs continues. Charles Ricketts and Miss Hopecraft are the names which, among the modern wood engravers in England, are most closely associated with the name of the Early Renaissance woodcut, while others are striving to begin engraving where Bewick began it. If the true art is ever restored, the revival will rather be based on a revolt against the greeyness of the process-block, and the obsessively shiny surface of the chalk-coated paper on which it is printed, than on any aesthetic delight in intelligent wood engraving, its expressive line, its delicate, nearly tonal, and its rich black.

In America, where the power of resurrection is great, the miraculous technical perfection brought about by Timothy Cole and Louis Le Prince, or others of the school, has promptly given way to a greater feeling for the art as an art and the mechanical execution, and, within strict limits, wood engraving is saved. Curiously enough, Cole (an Englishman by birth) was equally a leader in mechanical engraving, and the principle of line engraving (intaglio) is very largely to be accounted for the revival. He and his contemporaries, to a very large extent, have helped to bring about the "decadent de luxe" who had overwhelmed his art in the refinements which threatened to destroy it, and who had been seconded by the splendid printing-presses of America (which might without exaggeration be called instruments of precision), gave up what may be termed hyper-engraving, and, surrendering his wonderful power of imitating surfaces and textures, changed his manner. He became broad and handling; his example was followed by others, and wood engraving in a very few hands still prospers in the United States.

In France, where the art has reached the highest perfection and is by no means likely to be eclipsed, it is one of the street trades, but has given the artists there a certain point on the true artistic instinct of the engraver, on the taste of an intelligent and appreciative public, and on official recognition; for it is an official art. Nevertheless, it was found necessary to establish a "Society of Wood Engravers," with a magistracy (of which I am its own) to protect it against the inroad of the process-block. The art doubtless produces more engravers of skill than it can provide work for; but that is evidence rather of vitality than of decay. Lepère, Baudé, Jonnard and Florian have been among the leaders who, in different styles of wood engraving, have sustained the extraordinarily high level which has been attained in France, and which is fairly well maintained, as also the excellence and purity of style which it is the aim of the school to perpetuate. But in rebelling against the mechanical style formerly fashionable in vogue in Germany, of indicating roundness of form by curved lines carried as far as possible at right angles to the convexity, and in substituting more or less longitudinal lines of shaded beracation of a good deal of the logic of form-rendering, and started a method that has not been entirely successful.

In Germany the artistic standard is lower than in France. It is true that few outside Germany could model a head as finely as M. Klinkrecht in his own style of a judicious mingling of the black line and the white line; but, as a rule, German engraving is far more ancient and more truthful than that of either France or America. The art has been injured by the great "studies" or factories designed to produce wood engravings on strictly business principles, workshops which, in the education of the craftsman, to some extent annihilated the artist. A few there are, however, of great ability and taste. The attempt to print wood engravings in colours has done little to improve the standard of wood engraving, and the few who have tried it have failed to raise the standard. Thus the work of Ehrlicl Kingsley, who would sit down in the woods and engrave the scene before him directly on to the block, exercised no little influence in America. The similar attempt in France, to print wood engravings from the leaves of Fontainebleau Forest or the palace of Westminster, has in its time been much appreciated in his own country and in England. The most striking block-printing by Charpentier and others, not only with colour, but by reinforcing it with blocks that print neither lines nor colour but "blind" pattern, raised or depressed upon the paper, are evidence of the movement by which new methods have been sought to interest the public. The immediate results have not been very serious, yet the fact shows the existence of a vitality that gives some hope for the future. But while the practice of dry-printing upon "surface paper" is maintained, it is hopeless to expect in the immediate future, in Germany or anywhere, any permanently good results from orthodox wood engraving.

See the works cited under ENGRAVING; and also J. Jackson, Wood-Engraving (London, 1852); Diddens, Diderot, "Sur l'art de la gravure sur bois" (1805); W. S. Baker, American Engravers and their Work (Philadelphia, 1873); J. Jackson and W. A. Chatto, Treatise on Wood-Engraving (Chatto, 1881); P. G. Hamerton, The Graphic Arts (London, 1893); History of Wood-Engraving (Chatto, 1882); G. E. Woodberry, History of Wood-Engraving (S. Low, 1883); Sir W. M. Conway, The Woodcutters of the Netherlands in the 15th century (Cambridge Press, 1884); W. J. Linton, Wood-Engraving (C. E. & Sons, London, 1884); Dr. F. Lipmann, Wood-Engraving in Italy in the 15th century (Quaritch, 1888); John Ruskin, Ariadne Florentina (Allen, 1860); W. J. Linton, The Hours of Henry VII, Wood-Engraving, Folio, Issued to Subscribers only (London, Stevens, Charing Cross, 1889 and 1892); P. G. Hamerton, Drawing and Engraving (A. & C. Black, 1892), an extended reprint of the article on "Engraving" in the 9th edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica; Lewis, History of Engraving in England (text and three portfolios of plates) (Low, 1893-1894); George and Edward Dalziel, The Dalziel Brothers: a record of 50 years' work, 1846-1896 (Methuen, 1901).

WOODFALL, HENRY SAMPSON (1739-1803), English printer and journalist, was born in London on the 21st of June 1739. His father, Henry Woodfall, was the printer of the newspaper the Public Advertiser, and the author of the ballad Darby and Joan, for which his son's employer, John Darby, and his wife, were the originals. H. S. Woodfall was apprenticed at the age of nine to the book-keeper of the Public Advertiser. In it appeared the famous letters of "Junius," Woodfall sold his interest in the Public Advertiser in 1793. He died on the 12th of December 1805. His younger brother, William Woodfall (1746-1803), also a journalist, established in 1789 a daily paper called the Diary, in which, for the first time, reports of the parliamentary debates were published on the morning after they had taken place.

WOODFORD, an urban district in the Walthamstow (S.W.) parliamentary division of Essex, England, 9 m. N.E. from London, a part of the metropolitan area, and on the Great Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 13,768. Its proximity to the southern outskirts of Epping Forest has brought it into favour both with residents and with holiday visitors from London. A converted mansion, Woodford Hall, forms a convivial home. On high ground to the N. is the ecclesiastical parish (one of three) of Woodford Wells, where there is a mineral spring.

WOOD GREEN, an urban district in the Tottenham parliamentary division of Middlesex, England, suburban to London, 7 m. N. by E. of St. Paul's Cathedral, on the Great Northern railway. Pop. (1881) 25,831. (1901) 34,231. The name covers a populous residential district lying north of Hornsey and west of Tottenham. To the west lies Muswell Hill, with the grounds and building of the Alexandra Palace, an establishment somewhat similar to the Crystal Palace. It was opened in 1873, destroyed by fire almost immediately, and reopened in 1875. Muswell Hill
took name from a holy well, of high repute for curative powers, over which an oratory was erected early in the 12th century, attached to the priory of St John of Jerusalem in Clerkenwell.

WOOD-LOUSE, a name commonly applied to certain terrestrial Crustáceans of the order Isopoda (see MALACOSTRACA), which are found in damp places, under stones or dead leaves, or among decaying wood. They form the tribe Oniscidea and are distinguished from all other Isopoda by their habit of living on land and breathing air, and by a number of structural characters, such as the small size of the antennæ and the absence of the mandibular pulp. In most Isopods, the body is flattened, and consists of a head, seven thoracic segments which are always free, and six abdominal segments which may be free or fused. The "telson" is not separated from the last abdominal segment. The head bears a pair of sessile compound eyes as well as the minute antennæ and the longer antennæ. Each of the seven thoracic segments carries a pair of walking legs. The appendages of the abdomen (with the exception of the last pair) are flat membranous plates and serve as organs of respiration.

In many cases their outer branches have small cavities opening to the outside by slit-like apertures, and giving rise internally to a system of ramifying tubes filled with air. From their similarity to the air tubes or tracheae of insects and other air-breathing Arthropods these tubes are known as "pseudo-tracheæ."

The female wood-louse carries her eggs, after they are extruded from the body, in a pouch or "marsupium" which covers the under surface of the thorax and is formed by overlapping plates attached to the bases of the first five pairs of legs. The young, on leaving this pouch, are like miniature adults except that they are without the last pair of legs. Like all Arthropods, they cast their skin frequently during growth. As a rule the skin of the hinder half of the body is moulted some days before that of the front half, so that individuals in process of molting have a very peculiar appearance.

Some twenty-four species of wood-louse occur in the British Islands. Some, like the very common slaty-blue Perílaxus atrovirens, are practically confined to the distribution of the species, having been transported, probably by the unconscious agency of man, to nearly all parts of the globe. Equally common is the brown, yellow-spotted Oníclus asellus. Armadillidium vulgare belongs to a group which have the power of rolling themselves up into a ball when touched, and resembles the isopod Glomeris. It was formerly employed in popular medicine as a ready-made pill. The largest British species is Ligia oceanica, which frequently finds its way into the kitchen, just as the wood-louse does into the water mark. In many points of structure, for instance in the long, many-jointed antennae, it is intermediate, as in habits, between the truly terrestrial forms and their marine allies. Finally, one of the most interesting species is the little, blind, and colourless Platýlaxus hoffmannianus, which lives as a guest or commensal in the nests of ants. (W. T. Ca.)

WOODPECKER, a bird that pecks or picks holes in wood, and from this habit is commonly reputed to have its name; but it is in some parts of England also known as "Woodspight" or "Woodspite."—The latter syllable being cognate with Ger. Swächt and Fr. Épêche, possibly with Lat. Picis. More than 300 species have been described, and they have been very variously grouped by systematists; but all admit that they form a very natural family Picidae of Coraciiform

The number of English names, ancient and modern, by which these birds are known is very great, and even a bare list of them could not be here given. The Anglo-Saxon was higora or higere, and to this may plausibly be traced the modern "hedge," the woodpeckers used in some parts of the country, and the older "hickory," corrupted first into "highhow," and, after its original meaning was lost, into "hewhole," which in North America has been still further corrupted into "high hole" and more recently into "hollow" or "hole." Another common word includes "whtile" and "woodwale," which, different as they look, have a common derivation perceptible in the intermediate form "whole." The Māi, Eng. freedake (= woodback) is another name apparently identical in meaning with that commonly applied to woodpecker.

birds, their nearest allies being the toucans. They are generally of bright multicoloured plumage, in which black, white, brown, olive, green, yellow, orange or scarlet—the last commonly visible on some part of the head—mingled in varying proportions, and most often strongly contrasted with one another, appear; while the less conspicuous markings take the form of bars, splangles, tear-drops, arrow-heads or scales. Woodpeckers inhabit most parts of the world, with the exception of Madagascar and the Australian Region, save Celebes and Flores; but it may be worth stating that no member of the group is known to have occurred in Egypt.

Of the three British species, the green woodpecker, Gecinus or Picús viridis, though almost unknown in Scotland or Ireland, is the commonest, frequenting wooded districts, and more often heard than seen, its laughing cry (whence the name "Yaffil" or "Yaffil") and "Yall," by which it is in many parts known, and undulating flight afford equally good means of recognition, even when it is not near enough for its colours to be discerned. About the size of a jay, its scarlet crown and bright yellow rump, added to its prevailing grass-green plumage, make it a sightly bird, and hence it often suffers at the hands of those who wish to keep its studded skin as an ornament. Besides the scarlet crown, the cock bird has a patch of the same colour running backward from the base of the lower mandible, a patch that in the hen is black.2 Woodpeckers in general are very shy birds, and to observe the habits of the species is not easy. Its ways, however, are well worth watching. In the evening, after the other birds have retired to the core, whence it is pierced downward for nearly a foot. There a chamber is hollowed out in which the eggs, often to the number of six, white, translucent and glossy, are laid with no bedding but a few chips that may have not been thrown out.4 The young are not only hatched entirely naked, but seem to become fledged without any of the downy growth common to most birds. Their first plumage is dull in colour, and much marked beneath with bars, crescents and arrowheads.

Of the two woodpeckers which inhabit Britain—the pied or greater spotted and the barred or lesser spotted woodpecker—Dendrocopus major and D. minor—each of great beauty, from the contrasted white, blue-black and scarlet that enter into its plumage. Both of these birds have an extraordinary habit of causing by quickly-repeated blows of their beak on a branch, or even on a small bough, a vibrating noise, louder than that of a watchman's rattle, and enough to excite the attention of the most incurious.

Though the pied woodpecker is a resident in Britain, its numbers receive a considerable accession nearly every autumn.

2 A patch of conspicuous colour, generally red, on this part is characteristic of very many woodpeckers, and careless writers often use "mystacial," "mystaceus," "mystical," or some more barbarously "moust Paleiarchic." Considering that moustaches spring from above the mouth, and have nothing to do with the mandible or lower jaw, no term could be more misleading.

3 It often happens that, just as the woodpecker's labours are over, a pair of starlings take possession of the newly-bored hole, and, by conveying into it some nesting furniture, render it unfit for the rightful tenants, who thereby suffer ejectment, and have to begin all their troubles over. It has been stated of this and other woodpeckers that the chips made in cutting the hole are carefully removed by the birds to guard against their leading to the discovery of the nest. The present writer, however, had ample opportunity of observing the contrary as regards this species and, to some extent, the pied woodpecker next to be mentioned. Indeed there is no surer way of finding the nest of the green woodpecker than by scanning the ground in the presumed locality, for the tree which holds the nest is always recognizable by the chips scattered at its foot.
WOODS, SIR A.—WOODSTOCK

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The three species just mentioned are the only woodpeckers that inhabit Britain, though several others are mistakenly recorded as occurring in the country—and especially the great black woodpecker, the Ficus martius of Linnaeus, which must be regarded as the type of that genus.1 This fine species considerably exceeds the green woodpecker in size, and except for its red cap is wholly black. It is chiefly an inhabitant of the forested regions of the Old World, from Lapland to Galicia and across Siberia to Japan. In North America this species is replaced by Ficus picus, there generally known as the logcog, an equally fine species, but variegated with white; and farther to the southward occur two other species of the genus, P. frontalis, which is the ivory-billed woodpecker, and P. subsellatus, the red-headed woodpecker. These species all flourish in the New World, nearly one-half of the described species being American, but of the large number that inhabit Canada and the United States we can mention only a few.

First of these is the California woodpecker, Melanerpes formicivorus, which has been said to display an amount of providence beyond almost any other bird in the number of acorns it fixes tightly in holes which it makes in the bark of trees, and that in pine forty or fifty feet high will present the appearance of being closely studded with brass nails, the heads only being visible. This is not done to furnish food in winter, for the species migrates, and only returns in spring to the forest where its supplies are laid up. It has been asserted that the acorns thus stored are always those which contain a mastog, and, being fitted into the sockets prepared for them cup-end foremost, the acorns and young birds escape, as they otherwise would, and are thus ready for consumption by the birds on their return from the south. But this statement has again been contradicted, and, moreover, it is alleged that these woodpeckers follow their instinct so blindly that they do not distinguish between an acorn and a pebble, so that they "fill up the holes they have drilled with so much labor, not only with acorns but occasionally with stones." (c.f. Baird, Brewer and Ridgway, North American Birds, t. pp. 560-571)

The next North-American form deserving notice is the genus Colaptes, represented in the north and east by C. auratus, the golden-winged woodpecker or flicker, in most parts of New England replaced by the allied C. mexicanus, but in the south and west replaced by the allied C. mexicanus, easily distinguishable among other characteristics by having the shafts of its quills red instead of yellow. It is curious, however, that, in the valleys of the upper Mississippi, commonly the pine and pine and the range of the two kinds overlap, birds are found presenting an extraordinary mixture of the otherwise distinctive features of each other. On the other hand, the small and hairy woodpeckers, small birds with spotted black and white plumage, which are very valuable as destroyers of harmful grubs and borers; the red-headed woodpecker, a very handsome form with strongly contrasted red, black and white plumage, common west of the Alleghany Mountains; and the yellow-bellied woodpecker ("sapsucker") are rare species.

Some other woodpeckers deserve especial notice—the Colaptes or Sereisus caseolus, which inhabits the treeless plains of Paraguay and in Brazil the multipassenger woodpecker or picul, and Dendrocopus, which lives almost entirely on the ground or rocks, and picks a hole for its nest in the bank of a stream (Zoologist, 1882, p. 208).

The woodpeckers, together with the wood-grouse (g.v.), form a very natural division of scansional birds with zygodontal feet, and were regarded by T. H. Huxley as forming a distinct division of birds to which he gave the name Teleomorphus, whilst W. K. Parker separated them from all other birds as Sauropsida.

WOODS, SIR ALBERT (1816-1904), English herald, son of Sir William Woods, Garter king-of-arms from 1838 to his death in 1842, was born on the 16th of April 1816. In 1838 he became a member of the chapter of the Herald's College, of which he was appointed registrar in 1866. In 1869 he was knighted and became Garter king-of-arms. In this capacity he was entrusted with many missions to convey the order to foreign sovereigns; he was also registrar from 1872 of the orders of the Star of India and of the Indian Empire; and from 1896 was knighted of the order of St Michael and St George. He officiated at the coronations both of Queen Victoria and of King Edward VII., and his authority on questions of precedence was unique. His later distinctions were K.C.B. (1897), K.C.M.G. (1899) and G.C.V.O. (1903). He died on the 7th of January 1904.

WOODS, LEONARD (1774-1854), American theologian, was born at Princeton, Massachusetts, on the 10th of June 1774. He graduated at Harvard in 1796, and in 1798 was ordained pastor of the Congregational Church at West Newbury. He was prominently among the first members of the Andover Seminary, and was its first professor, occupying the chair of Christian theology from 1808 to 1846, and being professor emeritus until his death in Andover on the 24th of August 1854. He helped to establish the American Tract Society, the American Education Society, the Temperance Society and the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. He was an orthodox Calvinist and an able dialectician. His principal works (5 vols., Andover, 1849-50) were Lectures on the Inspiration of the Scriptures (1820), Memoirs of American Missionaries (1833), Examination of the Historical Society's Documentary History of the South (1834), and Lectures on Swedenborgianism (1846); he also wrote a History of Andover Seminary (1848), completed by his son.

His son, Leonard Woods (1807-1878), was born in West Newbury, Mass., on the 24th of November 1807, and graduated at Union College in 1827 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1830. His translation of Georg Christian Knapp's Christian Theology (1831-1833) was long used as a text-book in American theological seminaries. He was assistant Hebrew instructor (1832-1835) at Andover, and having been licensed to preach by the Londonbery Presbytery in 1830 was ordained an evangelist by the Third Presbyterian in New York in 1833. In 1834-1837 he edited the newly-established Literary and Theological Review, in which he opposed the "New Haven" theology. After being professor of sacred literature in the Bangor Theological Seminary for three years, he was president of Bowdoin College from 1836 to 1866, and introduced there many important reforms. From June 1867 to September 1868 Dr Woods worked in London and Paris for the Maine Historical Society, collecting materials for the early history of Maine; he induced J. G. Kohl of Bremen to prepare the first volume (1868) of the History of the Confederate States; and discovered a MS. of Hakluyt's Discourse on Western Planting, which was edited, partly with Woods's notes, by Charles Dean in 1877. He died in Boston on the 24th of December 1878. He was a remarkable linguist, conversationalist and orator, not only for his uncompromising independence, his opinion that the German reformation was a misfortune and that the reformation should have been within the church.


ALVA WOODS (1704-1887), a nephew of the elder Leonard and the son of Abel Woods (1765-1850), a Baptist preacher, graduated at Harvard in 1817 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1821, and was ordained as a Baptist minister. In 1824-1828 he was professor of mathematics and natural philosophy at Brown University, acting as president in 1826-1827; in 1828-1832 he was president of Transylvania University, Lexington, Kentucky; and in 1831-1837 was president of the University of Alabama at Tuscaloosa, where he organized the Alabama Female Athenaeum. After 1839 he lived in Providence, R.I.

WOODSTOCK, a town and port of entry of Oxford county, Ontario, Canada, So m. S.W. of Toronto by rail, on Cedar creek, the Thames river and the Grand Trunk and Canadian Pacific railways. Pop. (1901) 8,533. It is in one of the best agricultural sections of the province, and has a large export trade in cheese, butter and farm produce. Organs, pianos and agricultural implements are manufactured. It contains a residential school, under the control of the Baptist church, affiliated with McMaster University, Toronto.
WOODSTOCK, a market town and municipal borough in the Woodstock parliamentary division of Oxfordshire, England, 724m. W.N.W. of London, the terminus (Blenheim and Woodstock) of a branch of the Great Western railway. Pop. (1901) 1684.

The little river Glyme, in a steep and picturesque valley, divides Woodstock into two parts and forms the source of St Mary Magdalen, in New Woodstock, is of Norman date, but has additions in the later styles, and a west tower built in 1275. The town hall was erected in 1766 after the designs of Sir William Chambers. The picturesque almshouses were erected in 1798 by Caroline, duchess of Marlborough. The town is dependent chiefly on agriculture, but a manufacture of leather gloves (dating from the 16th century) is carried on. Woodstock is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen, and 12 councillors.

Area, 1,564 acres.

At the battle of Blenheim the manor of Woodstock was by Act 3 and 4 of Queen Anne, chap. 4, bestowed in perpetuity on John, duke of Marlborough. In 1732 it was destroyed, being already ruined, and the site levelled after the erection of Blenheim House, a princely mansion erected by Parliament for the duke of Marlborough in consideration of his military services, and especially his decisive victory at Blenheim. The sum of £500,000 was voted for the purchase of the manor and the erection of the building, a huge pile built by Sir John Vanbrugh (q.v.), in a heavy Italian-Corinthian style. The greater part of the architect's fee was paid in 1785, and the great library was formed by acquiring the finest collection of books made at the instigation of the first duke of Marlborough, in 1881. The magnificent park contains Fair Rosamund's well, near which stood her bower. On the summit of a hill stands a column commemorating the duke. Blenheim Park forms a separate parish.

Domesday describes Woodstock (Wodestock, Wodestok, Wode-stok) as a royal forest; it was a royal seat from early times and Ethelred is said to have held a council there, and Henry I. to have kept a menagerie in the park. Woodstock was the scene of Henry II.'s courtship of Rosamund Clifford (q.v. Rosamund (1)) and the royal residence towards the Civil War, when the manor house was "almost totally destroyed." In the Hundred Rolls of 1279 Woodstock is described as a villa, but a burgess is alluded to in the same document, and it returned two members to parliament as a borough in 1302 and 1305. A mayor of Woodstock was witness to a deed in 1398, but the earliest known charter of incorporation was that from Henry VI. in 1453, establishing the villa of New Woodstock a free borough, with a merchant guild and the same liberties and customs as New Windsor; and incorporating the town with the title of the "Mayor and Commonality of the Vill of New Woodstock." The mayor and a serjeant-at-mace were to be elected by the commonalty, and an independent borough court was to be held. The magnitude of the grant is exhibited by the fact that the borough was also exempted from the burden of sending representatives to parliament, but it again returned two members in 1553 and then regularly from 1570 until 1881, when the representation was reduced to one member. In 1885 the borough was disfranchised. The charter of Henry VI. was confirmed by Henry VII., Edward VI. and Elizabeth, but before 1586, when an ordinance was drawn up for the government of the borough, the corporation had considerably developed, including a high steward, recorder, mayor, 6 aldermen, 20 common councillors, a town clerk and a crier of the court; and the new charter granted by Charles II. in 1665 did little more than confirm this corporation. The hamlet of Old Woodstock is said to have been founded by Henry I., and was never included within the borough. The existing Tuesday market is stated in the Hundred Rolls of 1279 to have been granted by Henry II. and the St Matthew's fair by John. The latter was confirmed in 1453, with the addition of a fair at the feast of St Mary Magdalen. Queen Elizabeth in 1568 granted the mayor and commonalty a market on Friday, and two fairs of four days each at the feast of St Nicholas and Lady Day.


WOODSTOCK, JOHN (1665-1728), English naturalist and geologist, was born in Derbyshire on the 3rd of May 1665. At the age of sixteen he went to London, where he studied with Dr Peter Barwick, physician to Charles II. In 1692 he was appointed professor of physic in Gresham college. In 1693 he was elected F.R.S., in 1695 was made M.D. by Archbishop Tenison and also by Cambridge, and in 1702 became F.R.C.P.

While still a student he became interested in botany and natural history, and during visits to Gloucestershire his attention was attracted by the fossils that are abundant in many parts of that county; and he began to form the great collection with which his name is associated. His views were set forth in An Essay Towards a Natural History of the Fossils of England (2 vols., 1728 and 1729). This was followed by Brief Instructions for making Observations in all Parts of the World (1696). He was author also of An Attempt towards a Natural History of the Fossils of England (2 vols., 1728 and 1729). In these works he showed that the stony surface of the earth was divided into strata, and that the enclosed shells were originally generated at sea; but his views of the method of formation of the rocks were entirely erroneous. In his elaborate Catalogue he described his rocks, minerals and fossils in a manner far in advance of the age. He died on the 25th of April 1728, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

By his will he directed that his personal estate and effects were to be sold, and that land of the yearly value of one hundred and fifty pounds was to be puchased and conveyed to the University of Cambridge. A lecturer was to be chosen, and paid £100 a year to read at least four lectures every year, on some one or other of the subjects treated of in his Natural History of the Earth. Hence arose the Woodwardian professorship of geology. To the same university he bequeathed his collection of English fossils, to be used under the care of the lecturer, and these formed the nucleus of the Woodwardian museum at Cambridge. The specimens have since been removed to the new Sedgwick museum.

A full account of Woodward’s life and views and a portrait of him are given in the Life and Letters of the Rev. Adam Sedgwick, by J. W. Clark and T. McK. Hughes, where it is mentioned that his paper, read before the Royal Society in 1869, entitled Some Thoughts and Experiments concerning Vegetation, "shows that the author should be ranked as a founder of experimental plant-physiology, for he was one of the first to employ the method of water-culture, and to make refined experiments for the investigation of plant-life."

See also The Lives of the Professors of Gresham College, by John Ward (1740).

WOODWARD, SAMUEL (1790-1838), English geologist and antiquary, was born at Norwich on the 3rd of October 1790. He was for the most part self-educated. Apprenticed in 1804 to a manufacturer of canquets and bombazines, a taste for serious study was stimulated by his master, Alderman John Herrig and by Joseph John Gurney. Becoming interested in geology and archaeology, he began to form the collection which after his death was purchased for the Norwich museum. In 1820 he obtained a clerkship in Gurney's (afterwards Barclay's) bank at Norwich, and in 1832 was elected a fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. The collection of fossils and minerals was presented to the Royal Society, and an attempt was made to have them exhibited at a museum in Norwich. He communicated to the Archaeologia articles on the round church towers of Norfolk, the Roman remains of the country, &c., and other papers on natural history and geology to the Mag. Nat. Hist. and Phil. Mag. He died at Norwich on the 14th of January 1838. He was author of A Synopsis Table of British Organic Remains (1830), the first work of its kind in Britain; An Outline of the Geology of Norfolk (1833); and of two works issued posthumously, The Norfolk Topographer's Manual (1842) and The History and Antiquities of Norwich Castle (1847).

His eldest son, Bernard Bolingbroke Woodward (1816-1860), was librarian and keeper of the prints and drawings at Windsor Castle from 1860 until his death. The second son, Samuel Pickworth Woodward (1821-1865), became in 1845 professor of geology and natural history in the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester, and in 1848 was appointed assistant in the department of geology and mineralogy in the British Museum. He was author of A Manual of the Mollusca (in three parts, 1851, 1853 and 1860).

S. P. Woodward's son, Horace Bolingbroke Woodward (b. 1848), became in 1863 an assistant in the library of the Geological Society, and joined the Geological Survey in 1867, rising to be assistant-director. In 1863-1864 he was president of the Geologists' Association, and he published many important works on geology. Samuel Woodward's youngest son, Henry Woodward
WOOL, WORSTED AND WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES

(b. 1832) became assistant in the geological department of the British Museum in 1858, and in 1860 keeper of that department. He became F.R.S. in 1873, LL.D. (New Zealand) in 1878, president of the Geological Society of London (1884-1896), and was awarded the Wollaston medal of that society in 1906. He published a Monograph of the British Fossilized Crustacea, Order Merostomata (Palaeontograp. Soc. 1866-1878); A Monograph of Carboniferous Trilobites (Pal. Soc. 1883-1884), and many articles in scientific journals. He was editor of the Geological Magazine from its commencement in 1864.


WOOL, WORSTED AND WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.

Wool is a modified form of hair, distinguished by its slender, soft and wavy or curly structure, and, as seen under the microscope, by its highly imbricated or serrated surface. At what point an animal fibre ceases to be hair and becomes wool it is impossible to determine, because the one by imperceptible gradations merges into the other, so that a continuous chain can be formed from the finest and softest merino to the rigid bristles of the wild boar. Thus the fine soft wool of the Australian merino merges into the cross-bred of New Zealand; the cross-bred of New Zealand merges into the long English and lustre wool, which in turn merges into alpaca and mohair-materials with clearly marked but undeveloped scale structure. Again, such animals as the camel and the Cashmere goat yield fibres, which it would perhaps be difficult to class rigidly as either wool or hair.

Wool is one of the most important of the textile fibres. Owing to the ease with which it may be spun into thread, and the comfort derived from clothing made of wool, it would naturally be one of the first textiles used by mankind for clothing. Ancient records prove the high antiquity of wool textures and the early importance of the sheep. The different kinds of wool and the cloth made from them in antiquity are described by Pliny and referred to by other writers, and among the arts which the British Isles owe to the Romans not the least important is the spinning and weaving of wool. The sheep certainly was a domestic animal in Britain long before the period of the Roman occupation; and it is probable that some use was made of sheep skins and of wool. But the Romans established a wool factory where the wool was spun and woven in a manner that was improved upon by the Britons, and the value of the manufacture was soon recognized by the Britons, of whom Tacitus remarks, "Inde etiam habitus nostri honor et frequens toga" (Agric. c. 21). The product of the Winchester looms soon established a reputation abroad, it being remarked that "the wool of Britain is often spun so fine that it is in a manner comparable to the spider's thread." This reputation was maintained throughout the middle ages, and the fibre was in great demand in the Low Countries and other continental centres. There are many allusions to woolen manufactures in England in early times; but the native industry could not rival the products of the continent, although the troubles in various industrial centres, from time to time, caused skilled workers in wool to seek an asylum in England. In the time of William the Conqueror Flemish weavers settled under the protection of the queen at Carlisle, but subsequently they were removed to Pembroke, at various subsequent periods there were further immigrations of skilled Flemish weavers, who were planted at different places throughout the country. The cloth fair in the church yard of the priory of St Bartholomew was instituted by Henry II.; guilds of weavers were established; and the exclusive privilege of exporting woolen cloth was granted to the city of London. Edward III. made special efforts to encourage wool industries. He brought weavers, dyers and fullers from Flanders; he himself wore British cloth; but to stimulate native industry he prohibited, under pain of life and limb, the exportation of English wool. Previous to this time English wool had been in large demand on the continent, where it had a reputation exceeded only by the wool of Spain. The customs duties levied on the export of wool were an important source of the royal revenue. Edward III.'s prohibitory law was, however, found to be inoperative, and the custom that both he and his successors were able to effect was to hamper the export trade by vexatious restrictions and to encourage much smuggling of wool. Thus while Edward III. limited the right of exporting to merchant strangers, Edward IV. decreed that no alien should export wool and that denizens should export it only to Calais. Legislation of this kind prevailed till the reign of Elizabeth, when the free exportation of English wool was permitted; and Smith, in his Memoirs of Wool, points out that it was during this reign that the manufacture made the most rapid progress. In 1660 the royalists prohibited the export of wool to Ireland, and it was not till 1825 that this law was finally repealed. The results of the prohibitory law were exceedingly detrimental; the production of wool far exceeded the consumption; the price of the raw material fell; wool—"running" or smuggling became an organized traffic; and the whole industry became disorganized. Extraordinary expedients were resorted to for stimulating the demand for woolen manufactures, among which was an act passed in the reign of Charles II. decreeing that all dead bodies should be buried in woolen shrouds—an enactment which remained in the Statute Book, if not in force, for a period of two centuries. This law was designed to encourage the use of English cloth, and the manufacture was discouraged and even prohibited in Ireland.

It was not without reason that the attention of monarchs and legislators was so frequently directed to the wool industries. Wool was indeed "the flower and strength and revenue and blood of England," and till the development of the cotton trade, towards the end of the 18th century, the wool industries were, beyond comparison, the most important sources of wealth in the country. Towards the close of the 17th century the wool produced in England was estimated to be worth £2,000,000 yearly, furnishing £5,000,000 worth of manufactured goods, of which there was exported about £2,000,000 in value. In 1700 the official value of woolen goods exported was about £3,000,000, and in the third quarter of the century the exports had increased in value by about £500,000 only. In 1774 Dr Campbell (Political Survey of Great Britain) estimated the number of sheep in England at 10,000,000 or 12,000,000, the value of the wool produced yearly at £3,000,000, the manufactured products at £12,000,000, and the exports at £5,000,000 to £4,000,000. He estimated that there were 1,000,000 persons in the industry. These figures, in the light of the dimensions of present-day industries, may appear small, but they bore a predominant relationship to the other great sources of employment and trade of the period. In 1800 the native crop of wool was estimated to amount to 66,000,000 lb.; and, import duty not being imposed till 1821, the quantity brought from abroad was 8,600,000 lb., 6,000,000 lb. of which came from Spain. In 1835 the importation of colonial wool became free, the duty leviable having been for several previous years as high as 6d. per lb., and in 1844 the duty was finally remitted on foreign wool also.

Sheep were introduced at Jamestown in Virginia in 1600, and in 1633 the animals were first brought to Boston. Ten years later a fulling mill was erected at Rowley, Mass., "by Mr Rowley's people, who were the first that set upon making cloth in this western world." The factory woolen industry was, however, not established till the close of the 18th century, and it is recorded that the first carding machine put in operation in the United States was invented in 1794 under the supervision of John and Arthur Schofield.

For centuries the finer wools used for cloth-making throughout Europe had been obtained from Spain—the home of the famous merino breed developed from races of sheep originally introduced into the Peninsula by the Moors. Till early in the 16th century the superiority of Spanish merinos remained unchallenged, but the Peninsular War and its attendant evils produced a depreciation of quality concurrently
with the introduction of Saxon and Silesian woofs, which suddenly supplanted the product of Spain. The Spanish merino sheep had been introduced into Saxony by the elector in 1765, and by judicious crossing with the best native race developed the famous electoral breed. Merinos were next introduced into Hungary in 1775, and into France in 1776, and in 1786 Daubenton brought them to Rambouillet, whence a famous race developed. In 1802 the first merinos known to have left pure descendants were taken to the United States, and in 1809–1810 an importation (1000) of merino sheep was made.

The introduction of the merino sheep into the United States was an important move, but its results are not to be compared with the results of the introduction of the merino sheep into Australasia about the end of the 18th century and into South America a little later. It is probable that the marked improvement in the appearance of the first sheep taken out by the early colonists suggested the possibilities of Australia as a wool-growing country. As has been noted above, marked endeavours were being made at this time to extend the merino breed of sheep, so that it was but natural that this breed should be given the first chance. That marked success did not attend the first endeavours is shown by the fact that the London Colonial Wool Sales originated in the necessity of selling Australian woofs just for what they would bring under the hammer, as distinct from the private treaty method of selling and buying the more highly priced continental merinos. It should here be noted that the Australian fine woofs were first shipped from Botany Bay, hence the now universal term ‘botany’ for fine woofs. The colonists were not to be repressed however, and eventually, through the endeavours of Captain MacArthur, Sir J. Banks, the Rev. Samuel Marsden and others, the merino breed became established on a firm basis, and in a comparatively short time Australian woofs were no longer a drug on the market. The evolution was not to stop, however, with the development of merino flocks and the exportation of merino wool. Meanwhile the possibilities of raising larger sheep on the better coastal pasturage was naturally suggested. Until about 1853 this tendency was largely repressed owing to the demand for merino as distinct from cross-bred wool. In other words wool was the dominating factor. But with the possibilities and the development of the frozen meat trade from 1830 to 1850 this condition was changed, and the tendency to breed a large sheep with a valuable carcass and mediocre wool grew apace. New Zealand was specially adapted for this development; thus New Zealand frozen mutton completely dominated the market, and in this manner it came about that cross-bred wool supplanted merino wool to a very considerable extent throughout Australasia. This change would have been serious for the wool combers and spinner had not the Bradford combers, spinners and manufacturers put their shoulder to the wheel and developed a world-wide renown for their cross-bred tops, yarns and fabrics. Again the change was not altogether for the bad so far as the Australian sheep was concerned. Sheep-breeding developed into a real science, and remarkable results were obtained with such crosses as Merino-Lincoln, Merino-Leicester, Merino-Shropshire; all probably originating in the first place in the desire to produce a large-bodied early-fattening sheep, but later developing into a strenuous endeavour to develop more useful types of woofs. Thus the wool produced from the first cross Merino-Lincoln might be very defective judged from a pure merino standpoint, but by breeding back to the merino practically none of the useful merino characteristics were sacrificed, while length of staple was added and the weight of the fleece perhaps doubled.

A somewhat different evolution has taken place in later years with reference to the interior sheep stations. The merino sheep will thrive where a larger sheep would starve, hence its value for the stations where salt-bush dominates all vegetation. But the merino sheep is a "wool" sheep, not a "frozen mutton" sheep, hence all crossing here was carried out with the idea of simply developing the weight of fleece and if possible retaining the merino wool characteristics. The most marked development in this direction was effected by the introduction of the United States merino or Vermont breed. Opinions differ as to the wisdom of this introduction. The weight of fleece carried per sheep has been remarkably increased, and the fact that largely in the present weight multiplied by price per lb paid in London or elsewhere has been entirely in favour of first and second cross Vermonsts, has undoubtedly influenced breeders in its favour. Against this must be placed the fact that the Australian-Vermont merino cross produces a sheep of unstable physique, naturally unable to withstand drought, and—worst of all so far as London is concerned—producing a fleece very difficult to judge for yield of pure scoured wool. Again, the Australian-Vermont first cross is very liable to produce a very strong botany wool, while what is required is a long but fine wool technically termed a long and shifty 60's to 46's quality.

Hardly second in importance to Australia as a wool-growing country comes South America, or more correctly Argentina along with Patagonia, Punta Arenas and the Falkland Islands. In most years Australia has produced the greater bulk, but just occasionally S. America has come out top and is likely to do so more frequently in the future owing to the remarkable developments there taking place. The history of the introduction of the merino sheep into S. America is closely connected with the development of the merino sheep. In 1845 Henrici Solfanet, a Frenchman, began to ship the comparatively few sheep round Buenos Aires. His example was soon followed by Edouardo Olivera and Jose Planer. The idea almost at once came to these pioneers of importing well-bred rams, and as S. America is essentially a Latin country it was but natural that the French flocks of Rambouillet should be first drawn upon. With the development of the meat trade—just as in the case of Australia and New Zealand—a larger carcase was then sought after. This led to the introduction of the Lincoln ram and the development of cross-bred flocks about the year 1847. Perhaps this was a result of the influence exerted on the Spanish breeders by the skill of the Bradford spinners, who made excellent use of the cross-bred wool produced. Flocks of sheep were first introduced into the Falkland Islands in 1867. The pasturage here being limited, the flocks have probably attained their limit, but from the Falkland Islands flocks have been passed on to Punta Arenas, where there is practically unlimited pasturage. The chief centres from which wool from S. America comes to Europe are Buenos Aires, which exports chiefly long and cross-bred woofs, Montevideo, which exports chiefly merino woofs, and the Falkland Islands and Punta Arenas, which export chiefly cross-bred and Patagonia wool.

The newly acclimatized sheep appears to have cast its wool at about the fifth generation and to have generally deteriorated, necessitating the reintroduction of fresh blood form Europe. In this manner have been developed the Cape flocks and the considerable Cape wool trade—largely centred at Port Elizabeth, East London, Cape Town, Mossel Bay and Port Natal. The country is evidently specially adapted for the rearing of the merino type of sheep, as cross-bred Cape wool is practically unknown. The term snow-white Cape wool, on the other hand, betokens a quality of whiteness no doubt due to the atmosphere and pasturage conditions. Cape woofs are also known as non-felting woofs, and consequently are largely employed in the manufacture of flannels. In 1897 most marked endeavours were being made to develop the Cape flocks by the introduction of some thousands of Australian merino sheep. The opinion of wool experts was that the Cape had a great future before it as a wool-producing country.
Wool, Worsted and Woollen Manufactures

Large quantities of wool also come from the East and from Russia, while even Iceland contributes its quota. It is interesting to note that, notwithstanding all the developments instanced, Europe still maintains its supremacy as the chief wool-producing continent, though, as the wool is largely manufactured locally, one hears little of European wools.

The following statistics give an idea of the development of the colonial and foreign wool trade as gauged by the London wool sales:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Bales</th>
<th>Bales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1814</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>1870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1824</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td>16,026</td>
<td>1903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>44,502</td>
<td>1905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1850</td>
<td>155,558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It must not be forgotten, however, that a large quantity of South American, W. Indian, Russian, &c., wool, along with mohair and alpaca, come through Liverpool, and consequently are not taken into account here.

With reference to wools grown in the United Kingdom the truth seems to be that a fine short wool has never been produced. English wool known as a ‘short’ wool is simply a long and lustrous type, which was doubtless that so much in demand in the middle ages. That it was as long and lustrous as the typical Leicester or Lincoln of to-day is doubtful, as the new Leicester breed of sheep was only fully developed by Mr. Bakewell after the year 1747, and the latter day Lincoln was even a later development of a similar character. The exact type of English wool or wools was prior to the 18th century will probably never be decided, but from the closing years of that century there is no difficulty in being fairly precise. As already remarked, the long and lustrous wools are the typical English, being grown in Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, Devonshire, &c., in fact in all those districts where the pasturage is rich and specially fitted for carrying a heavy sheep. It is claimed that the lustre upon the wool is a direct result of the environment, and that to take a Lincoln sheep into Norfolk means the loss of the lustre. This is partially true, but it is perhaps better to take a larger view and remember that the two influencing factors are race and environment: which is the more potent it is impossible to say. Attempts were made in the 18th century to develop a fine wool breed in England, particularly by importing a number of merino sheep from Spain. The discovery was soon made that it was impossible to maintain a breed of pure merinos in Great Britain, but the final outcome was by no means unsatisfactory. By crossing with the indigenous sheep a race of fairly fine woolled sheep was developed, of which the present day representative is the Southdown—a sheep which feeds naturally on the Downs of Sussex, &c., forming a marked contrast to the artificially turnip-fed Lincoln, Leicester, &c., sheep. Following the short, curly Southdown, but rather longer, come such as the Sussex, Oxford and Hampshire Down sheep; these are followed by such as the Shropshires and Shropshire crosses. Kent and Romney Marsh, until at last the chain from the Southdown to the Lincoln is completed. Of course there are several British wools not included in this chain. Scotch or black-face wool is long and rough, but well adapted for being spun into carpet yarns. Welsh wool has the peculiarity of early attaining its limit of shrinkage when washed, and hence is specially chosen for flannels. Shetland wool is of a soft nature specially suited for knitting yarns, while Cheviot wool—said to be a cross between merino sheep: saved from the wreck of the Great Armada and the native Cheviot sheep—has made the reputation of the Scottish manufacturers for twills. North wool—wool from an animal of the Border Leicesters and Cheviot breed—Ripon, Wensleydale and Teasdale wools are also specially noted as lustre wools, Ripon and Wensleydale wools being, by many judges, considered superior so far as lustre is concerned to Lincoln and Leicester.

Such remarkable advances have been made in the weights of fleeces carried by sheep of particular breeds that it is difficult to say if finity has been reached. The following list gives average weights:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Breed</th>
<th>Weight of Average Fleec.</th>
<th>Breed</th>
<th>Weight of Average Fleec.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merino (Australian)</td>
<td>6 lb</td>
<td>Southdown</td>
<td>6 lb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merino (South American)</td>
<td>6 lb</td>
<td>Lincoln</td>
<td>12 lb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shetland</td>
<td>4 lb</td>
<td>Cheviot</td>
<td>8-10 lbs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1885 the average weight of wool per sheep per year was about 5 lb, while 7 to 8 lb is now the average weight. Roughly speaking the weights of Australian fleeces are to-day about as compared as those of wools grown in England.

The prevailing colour of sheep's wool is white, but there are races with black, brown, fawn, yellow and grey shades of wool. For manufacturing purposes generally, while wool is, of course, most valuable, but for the homespun, which in earlier times absorbed the bulk of wool, natural colours were in many cases used with good effect. In domestic spinning, knitting, and weaving, natural colours are still largely taken advantage of, as in the cases of rough yarns, Shetland knitted shawls, Highland tweeds, &c.

As has already been indicated, the distinction between wool and hair lies chiefly in the great fineness, softness, and waved delicacy of wool fibre, combined with a highly serrated surface. These characteristics are precisely the characteristics which give the fibre its distinctive value as a textile fibre, the most distinctive characteristic of all being the serrated structure which especially belongs to wool and markedly aids the important property of felting, upon which many of its applications depend. The serrations of wool and the wavy structure it assumes are closely connected, those wools which have the greatest number of serrations being usually most finely waved in structure. The appearance presented by wool under the microscope is shown in figs. 1-6 (Plate). Under the influence of moisture and pressure, aided by alkalis or acids, masses of wool thoroughly mat together, by the mutual interlocking of the fibres. It is interesting that the structure of the fine wool fibres under washing is accounted for, the capacity of wool cloth for felting or fulling being due to this condition of the fibre, possibly along with a certain shrinkage of the true fibre mass. The serrations are most numerous, acute, pointed and distinct in fine merino wools, as many as 2800 per in. being counted in specimens of the finest Saxony wools.

In the Leicester wool of England, on the other hand, which is a long bright staple, the serrations are not only much fewer in number, counting about 1600, but they are also less pronounced in character, so that the staple presents a smoother, less waved character. In some wools the wavy serrations are not so many as 500 per in. A similar difference may be noted in the fineness of the fibres. The finest wool has a diameter of from 25 to 25 1/2 in., whilst coarse Algerian wools may rise to a maximum diameter of about 2 in.

Other distinguishing qualities of good wool consist in uniformity and strength of fibre from freedom from tender or weak portions in its length, a condition which not unfrequently arises from ill health in the sheep, or is due to violent climatic changes. In ill-bred wool there may also be found intermixed "kemps" or dead hairs—straight, coarse, dull fibres which show considerable among the wool, and become more prominent in the manufactured and dyed goods, as they will not take dye. Wool also possesses a softness of touch and an elasticity both in the raw and manufactured condition which distinguish it from all other fibres.

In length of staple it varies very much, attaining in combing wools to a length of as much as 15 to 20 in. In dealing with wool from a practical point of view it must be recognized that it is by no means a simple body, but has a somewhat complex physical structure. Its composition in the raw state may be said to be threefold.

Thus there is the wool-yolk—what may be termed a natural impurity; the wool-fat, which is not only present in the yolk but also permeates the fibre and seems to give it its plastic and soft handle; and the cell structure proper of the fibre. The natural impurity or wool-yolk is truly a skin product and is a protector of the wool-fibre rather than part of the true fibre substance. The wool-fat also may be regarded as...
independent of the true fibrous substance, but it is well to recognize that if the wool-fat be entirely freed from the wool-fat it loses its plastic and elastic nature and is considerably damaged. In cleansing wool the true fibre mass may be disturbed and partially destroyed not only by dry but also by " wet " heat, and may be entirely disintegrated by means of alkalis, &c., with heat. The wool-fat will almost free itself from the natural impurities—the yolk, in the presence of water. This is taken advantage of in the various steeping machines placed upon the market, which partially scour the wool by means of its own yolk—principally through the potash salts present.

According to Hummel the composition of the average wool-yolk is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moisture</td>
<td>4 to 24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yolk</td>
<td>12 to 47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wool-fat</td>
<td>3 to 24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The potash salts are usually recovered from the wash-water products and a marked economy thereby effected.

The natural wool-fat—popularly known as " lanoline "—may be partially freed from the wool, but is almost entirely necessary to free the wool still further from it by actually scouring the wool on either the " emulsion " or " solvent " method, in either case the action being largely physical. As previously pointed out, however, the wool must not be washed away by the action of the yolk of the fibre will lose its " nature." According to Dr Bowman, the chemical composition of the cell structure of the average wool-fibre is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carbon</td>
<td>50-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen</td>
<td>7-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitrogen</td>
<td>18-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen</td>
<td>21-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulphur</td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>100-0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is said to be a most complex body of which the probable formula is CaH44n NO4.1 or 2. This fat largely resolves itself into ammonia gas—whereby it derives its characteristic odour—and carbon "beads" or "cables," which serve to distinguish wool from cotton, which, upon being burnt, does not smoulder but burns with a flash and leaves no black soot. For particulars on the organic nature of the wool-fibre see FIBRES.

The bulk of the wool of commerce comes into the market in the form of fleece wool, the product of a single year's growth, cut from the body of the living animal, the first and finest clip, called lambs' wool, may be taken from the young sheep at about the age of eight months. When the animal is not shorn, it will retain the fleece of twelve or fourteen months and the wool is known as hogg or hogget, and, like lambs' wool, is fine and tapers to a point. All subsequently cut fleeces are known as wether wool, and possess relatively somewhat less value than the first clip. Fleece wool as it comes into the market is " washed "—the grease," that is, unhawed, and with all the dirt which gathers to the surface of the greasy wool present; or it is received as " washed " wool, the washing being done as a preliminary to the sheep-shearing, or, in some few cases, it is scoured and is subsequently stated as " scoured." Skin wool is that which is obtained from sheep either die or are killed. Typical skin wool is that which has been removed by a sweating process. The worst type of skin wool—technically known as " slipe "—is removed from the skins by lime, which naturally affects the handle of the wool and renders it difficult to bring into a workable condition later.

Mazamet in France is the great continental centre for skin wool.

Where there is abundance of water and other conveniences it is the practice to wash or half-wash sheep previous to shearing, and the fleece wool obtained in this way is described as wether wool or half-washed fleece. The surface of a fleece has usually a thick coating of dirt, and in the case of merino breeds the fleece surface is firmly caked together into solid masses, from the adhesion of dirt to the wool constantly moist with the exudation from the skin of the greasy yolk or " sweat," so that in an unwashed very greasy fleece 30% of weight may represent dirt, and about 40% the grease " sweat " which lubricates the fleece, while the pure wool is not more than one-third the weight of the fleece. Washing consists in washing the fleeces are panned by the side of the water, and taken one by one and held in the stream while they are washed, one man holding and the other washing. The stream is very pure in many waters, as it pollutes the stream, and it dissipates no mean amount of potash salts, valuable for manure or for other chemical purposes. Sheep washing appliances are now largely employed, the arrangement consisting of a pen into which the sheep are driven and then exposed to a strong spray of water either hot or cold, which soaks the fleece and softens the dirt. This done, they are caused to swim along a tank which narrows towards the exit, and just as they pass out of the pen they are caught and subjected to a strong douche of pure water. They should then be kept on grass land free from straw, sand, &c., so that the wool may be sheared free from vegetable matter, &c. After a few days the wool of the sheared sheep is ready for sorting or clipping.

The relative advantages of shipping wool in the gross or washed state have been fiercely debated. Although there are naturally exceptions, the superiority of greasy wool is now generally recognized. The wool, although more clean, retains its natural grease but because it is more readily judged for " yield " and its spinning qualities are, perhaps, more readily estimated.

The following list gives an idea of the yield in clean wool of the chief commercial varieties. It must be noted that roughly merino greasy wool yields about 50% clean wool and English about 76% clean wool.

**Type of Wool.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variety</th>
<th>Yield</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australian Merino</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South American Merino</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South American Cross-bred</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Southdown</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shropshire</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohair</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alpaca</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A skilful shearer will clip the fleece from a sheep in one unbroken course, without the aid of a " sorter " or " stapler " or stapling which all wool undergoes for the separation of the several qualities which make up the fleece. Mechanical shears have almost revolutionized the shearing industry, a good shearer shearing from 20 to 25 sheep per day.

On the great Australian sheep stations wool clipping is one of the most important operations, largely taking the place of sorting in the English wool trade. This is no doubt due to the wonderful success which has attended the efforts of the Australian sheep breeders to breed a sheep of uniform staple through-out. Thus the fleeces as taken from the sheep are skirted and trimmed into one tag and then passed on to the " classifier " or stapler where all wool undergoes for the separation of the several classes by which it is supposed to be sorted. The shorter Australian wool not coming into the " clipper " is the basis of the superfine and ordinary clothing, &c., being more suitable for the woolen industry.

The art of sheep shearing, skirting, grading, packing and transporting has been brought up to a wonderful state of perfection in Australia, and the " get up " of the wool is usually much superior. WOOL clashing.

The woolen trade is a distinct industry, and to some extent it is in operation the world over, having its premises in the countries of the drapers of the world in the English trade. Wool clashing.

Wool sorting.

In the woolen trade short-staple wool is separated into qualities, known, in descending series from the finest to the most worthless, as picklock, prime, choice, super, head, seconds, ab and breec, and the proportions in which the higher and lower qualities are present are determined by the "class" of the fleece. In the worsted trade the classification goes, also in descending series, from fine, blue, neat, brown, breech, downright, seconds, to ab for English wools. The last three are short and not commonly used in the worsted trade. The greater proportion of good English long wool will be classified as blue, neat and brown; it is only in exceptional cases that it will be classified from 5 to 8 s. fine "fleece." The wool is scoured, dried and carded by hand, or of lower quality than breek on the other. Generally speaking, the best portion of a fleece is from the shoulders and side of the animal. The quality decreases towards the tail end of the sheep, the " britch " being frequently long, strong and irregular. The belly wool is short, worn and dirty, as is also the front of the throat, while on the head and shins the product is short, stiff and white, more like the wool of the dog and is liable to come in grey hairs. The various fleeces come " classified," and consequently are only as ruled into three or four qualities. Thus a 60's fleece may be sorted into 56's, ordinary 60's, super 60's and skirtings.

The wool to be sorted is laid out at a table or framed over with fine netting through which dust and dirt fall as he handles the wool. Fleeces which have been raw, put in bales, especially if unwashed, go into dense hard masses, which may be opened up and made to melt and dissolve. The wool and washing of the fleeces makes them pliable and easily opened up. When the fleece is spread out the stapler first divides it into two equal sides; then he picks away all straws, large burs, and tarry fragments which are visible; and then with marvellous precision and certainty he picks out his separate qualities, throwing each lot into
Photomicrographs of the most representative hairs and wools used in the textile industries.
Wool, Worsted and Woollen Manufactures

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its allotted receptacle. Sorting is very far removed from being a mere mechanical process of selecting and separating the wool from certain parts of the fleece, because in each individual fleece qualities and proportions differ, and it is only by a patient process of trying and testing that a successful result is enabled, almost as it were by instinct, rightly to divide it up into its parts, and to produce each qualities of raw material. Cleanliness is most essential if the wool sort is to keep his health and not succumb to the dread disease known as "anthrax". Certain wools such as Persian, Van Mohair, &c., are known to be very liable to carry the anthrax bacillus, and must be sorted under the conditions imposed by government for "dangerous" wool. Non-dangerous wools are perfectly harmless from this point of view.

The washing which a fleece may have received on the live sheep is not sufficient for the ordinary purposes of the manufacturer. On the careful and comprehensive plan, which has been so aptly described, the effect of scouring should be soft and pure, both to save soap and still more because the insoluble lime soap formed in dissolving soap in hard water is deposited on the wool fibres and becomes so fixed that its removal is a laborious, and often extreme, difficulty. In former times stale urine was a favourite medium in which to soak the wool dried; but now a thing of the past, and a specially prepared potash soap there adopted determines this problem. Excess of alkali has to be guarded against, since uncombined caustic acts energetically on the wool fibre—especially in the presence of heat—and is indeed a solvent of it. A soap which will at the same time give the strength of the wool as required and the latitude in the soap solution is applied too hot.

In former days, when the method of hand-scouring prevailed, the wool to be washed was placed with hot bathed soap in the first "bowl" or vessel containing long poles kept stirring it gently about till the soap was dissolved and the separated the dirt and dissolved fat were drawn off. Another method, which is now the general process, is to pass the wool through a series of tanks of gradually increasing temperatures. This is called the "Jumbo Dryer." This consists of a large horizontal revolving cylinder which turns over the wool—a drum that turns butter—and owing to the revolution of the drum it is carried over to the other. A hot air blast follows the wool through the machine. In this and in all drying machines it is more important to get the moisture laden air away from the wool than to develop a great heat.

The dried wool may be in a partially matted condition. If so, it must be opened out and the whole material brought into a uniformly free and loose condition. This is effected in the Willey, which consists of a large revolving drum mounted in an enclosed frame. The drum is armed with ranges of powerful hooked teeth or spikes, and is geared to rotate with great rapidity, making about 500 revolutions per minute. The smaller cylinders, called rollers, are also provided, and when they are mounted over the drum and revolve more slowly in a direction contrary to the drum, the spikes of which just clear those of the drum, work the wool as the drum rotates, to a great velocity; but as it passes on, the locks are caught by the spikes of the workers, and in the contest for possessing the wool the matted locks are torn asunder till the whole wool is delivered in a light, free and disentangled condition. It is a debatable point as to whether the wool should precede scouring. Some scourers always willow prior to scouring, while others never subject the wool to this operation, which is advantageous in wool of no particular grade.

For certain classes of woollen, notably Bucilla, Buenos Aires, and other machine-made wools, a still another preparing operation is essential at this stage—that is, the removal of burrs or small persistently adherent seeds and other foreign matter which remain on the wool after scouring.

Two methods of effecting this—one chemical, the other mechanical—may be pursued. The chemical treatment consists in steeping the wool for about eighty minutes in a dilute solution of sulphuric acid (or other carbonizing agent) holding off the carbonization by the addition of urine, and then heat-drying in a temperature of about 250° F. The acid leaves the wool practically uninjured, but is concentrated on the vegetable matter, and the high heat causes it to act so that the vegetable matter becomes completely carbonized. The burrs are then brushed and the wool washed in water rendered sufficiently alkaline to neutralize any free acid which may remain.

The mechanical treatment involves the use of a solution of chloride of ammonia, a method said to be safer for the wool and less hurtful to the attendant workmen than the sulphuric acid treatment. Burs, which are the most absorbant vegetable matter, and, the high heat causes it to act so that the vegetable matter becomes completely carbonized. The burrs are then brushed and the wool washed in water rendered sufficiently alkaline to neutralize any free acid which may remain.

For English and cross-bred wools more agitation in the scouring bath may be desirable. If so, the eccentric fork action machine is employed, in which the agitation of the bath is satisfactorily controlled by the setting of the forks which propel the wool forward. An average wool will be in the scouring liquor about eight minutes, the temperature will vary from 120°F. to 110°F., and the length of bath through which it will have passed will be from 48 to 60 ft.

When interesting to the "emulsion" method of wool scouring as described above is practically universal in England. In the United States also the "solvent" method is largely in use, for the two points aimed at are quantity of production and cleanliness. Quality of wool is sacrificed to quantity, and in the case with which the agent employed—say carbon disulphide—is recovered by volatilizing and condensing, thus being used over and over again.

Botany, etc.

Wool Drying.

Botany should leave the wool-washing machine in a fit condition to be fed immediately on to the carder, provided that the first cylinders are clothed with galvanized wire. Cross-bred and English wools require scientific treatment.

The more gently and uniformly the drying can be effected the better the result attained; over-drying of wool has to be especially guarded against. By some manufacturers the wool from the drum is conveyed to the hand-scouring rollers; this which drives out so much of the moisture that the further drying is easily effected. The commonest way, however, of drying is to spread the wool away from it as possible over a framework of wire netting, under or over which is a range of steam-heated pipes. A fan blast blows air over these hot pipes, and the heated air passes up and is forced upwards through the layer of wool which rests on the pipes. If the wool is properly prepared for the purpose, the wool is spread with great evenness, it goes unequally, and at points where the hot air escapes freely it may be much over-dried. A more rapid and uniform result may be obtained by the use of the "Jumbo Dryer," a cylinder is divided into sections, the floors of which have alternate fixed and movable bars. Under the cylinder is a tubular heating apparatus, and a fan by which the air is blown up the side of the cylinder, and through all the shelves or compartments, either following or opposing the wool in its passage through the machine. The wool is introduced by a continuous feed at one side of the cylinder, and is discharged on the upper shelf, and by the action of the movable bars, which are worked by cranks, it is carried forward to the opposite end, where it passes to the next lower shelf, and so on it travels till at the extremity of the cylinder, where it is either driven out by the air and is dried and evenly dried. Another drying machine in extensive use is what is known as the "Jumbo Dryer." This consists of a large horizontal revolving cylinder which turns over the wool—as a drum turns butter—and owing to the revolution the drum it is carried over to the other. A hot air blast follows the wool through the machine. In this and in all drying machines it is more important to get the moisture laden air away from the wool than to develop a great heat.

10. The wool is dried to about 12°C. in the early part of the day and left to cool slowly. The wool is not, however, allowed to become injured from the heat of the sun or from over-drying, which would cause the wool to become brittle and ready to break. As the wool is dried, it becomes lighter and more absorbent, and the moisture is gradually driven out of it.
series of three burring rollers rotating in an opposite direction, the protruding ribs of which knock the burrs off the wool. The burrs fall on a grating and are ejected, with a certain amount of wool adhering to them, by another rotating cylinder. With wools not too burry the burrs are often located upon burring rollers, placed upon the first cylinder of the "carder," and possibly to one or other of the patent pulverizing processes applied further on in the card. In the latter process a complete pulverizing of the burrs is aimed at, and the fiber is reduced by the production of specially constructed pulverizing rollers between the first doffer and the last swift of the carding engine.

The processes hitherto described are common to merino, cross-bred or woolless and worsteds. From this point, however, differentiation starts. Wool may now be manipulated with the idea of converting it to a material suitable for worsted and worsted-like wools, in a manner which it may be said that woolen yarns are those made from short wools possessed of high felting qualities, which are prepared by the process of carding; whereby the fibres are as far as possible cross and interlaced with each other, and this carded result, though perhaps hard spun on the mule frame, form a light fluffy yarn, which suits the conditions when woven into cloth for being brought into the semi-felted condition by milling which is the distinguishing characteristic of woolen cloth. On the other hand, worsted yarns are generally made from the long lustrous varieties of wool; the fibres are so combed as to bring them as far as possible parallel to each other, the spinning of the yarn is a secretarial operation confined to this alone among all textiles, while for worsted yarn the fibres are treated, as in the case of all other textile materials, by processes designed to bring them into a smooth parallel relationship to each other.

To obtain a sliver which can be satisfactorily spun into a typical woolen thread the following operations are necessary: spinning, carding, blending, teasing, carding (two or three operations), condensing and roving. Spinning upon the woolen mule completes the series of operations described as being required to obtain the desired result. The foregoing operations the carding is perhaps the most important as it is certainly one of the most interesting. At the same time it must be fully realized that deficiencies in any one of these operations will result in a corresponding deficiency in the finished product. For instance, let an unsatisfactory combination of materials be blended together and there will be trouble in both carding and spinning. The roving operation includes the process known as roving, which is the operation of extracting the roved thread, as distinct from the condensed thread, which may occasionally be of use to the cloth constructor.

At the beginning of the 19th century woolen cloths were made of wool in some of the worsted manufactures. Woolen cloths are made from any and every kind of material, of which the following are the most important: mulls (cotton, broad-crested, English, alpaca and mohair), cotton, worsted, flax, wool (with or without worsted), wool and cotton, worsted and wool, cotton and wool in any proportion, and are not infrequently mixed with wool, cotton, worsted, and silk, &c. &c.; in fact it is said that anything which has two ends to it can be incorporated into a woolen thread and made into cloth. There are two main divisions of blending, the first one of which is that the material to be blended should be fairly finely divided. This is effected by passing each material, if necessary, through a series of rollers placed one after the other between the willow and card, and is termed "blending." The second is that the material to be blended should be finely divided. This is done by passing through a series of rollers placed one after the other between the willow and" card, and is termed "blending." Sometimes it may be that a blending of different colours of wools to obtain a definite "colour mixture" is necessary, more often it will be a blending of various materials, such as mulls, mungo, cotton, &c., to obtain a cheap blend which may be spun into a satisfactory warp or weft yarn. The blending precedes as follows: first a layer of No. 1 material—say wool—is spread over the required area on the floor; it is then run over a roller and is then passed through a roller which is turned in the opposite direction to that in which the wool was placed. The second layer, of another material—say mulls—is then added to the first layer; then another layer of wool with rather more mulls; then No. 2, then No. 1 with still more oil until all the material is built up into layers in the stack. The stack is now beaten down sideways with sticks and then the material is cut up into the desired lengths through the willow and leanthart and still further to mix it prior to carding, where the true and really fine mixing takes place. After passing through the leanthart the material is sheeted and left to mellow, this no doubt consisting in the oil applied distributing itself throughout the material. If wool and cotton are blended together the wool must be oiled first, or the blend will not work to the digitalization. The oil must be best and yellow oil—which should not turn rancid—but there are many good oils—and unfortunately many bad oils—placed on the market at a reasonable rate which the really skilled judge may use to advantage. The percentage of oil varies from 2 % to 10 %—this remark applies to the woolen and worsted trades and there is no guide as to the amount required, saving and excepting experience, observation and common sense. Automatic oiling arrangements have been applied in the woolen trade with only a moderate amount of success, the sprinkling of the oil by means of a watering-can on the stack, made as described above, still being most in favour. The oil serves to prevent the fibres from the two different materials from sticking more workable, and to bind the fibres mass together and thus prevent "fly" during the passage through the cards.

Carding was originally effected by hand, two flat boards with con-
coating of wool into the slowly retracting teeth of the doffer H, which carries it forward until angle stripper C strips the doffer, to be in its turn stripped by swift D and so on. The speeds of the cylinders are in the first place obviously dependent upon the principle of carding adopted. The greater speed always striping is (one of the factors of the fancy). As to whether the speed shall be obtained by actual revolutions or by a larger diameter of cylinder depends upon the nature of the wool to be carded and the part which each cylinder has to play in the card, and upon the question of wear of clothing and power consumed. As a rule the stripppers are all driven from a smaller circumference of the swift to obtain conveniently the requisite reduction in speed, and the slowly revolving workers are chain driven from the doffer, which indirectly recoils its motion from the swift. The principles involved in the relative inclinations of teeth are very apparent, but the principles involved in the relative densities of teeth on the respective cylinders are again much involved and little understood.

A complete scribbler or first card engine consists of a breast, or small swift, and two swifts with the accompanying workers, stripppers, fancies, doffers, &c. The wool is stripped from this card as a thin film by means of the drawing comb. This is usually weighed on the next machine—whether intermediate or condenser—a given weight giving a definite count of conditioned sliver. Should an intermediate be employed, there must be an automatic feed, taking the wool, as stripped from the last doffer of the intermediate, and feeding it perfectly evenly on to the feed sheet of the condenser. The con- denser is normally a one-swifted card, the only difference in principle being that, whereas the sliver comes out of the scribbler or inter- mediate in one breadth film, it is broken up into a number of small condenser slivers or films, each one of which ultimately be drafted or drawn out and twisted into a more or less perfect thread. These slivers—which are delicate and pith-like in substance—are wound on to light bosibins, and these bosibins are placed on the mule for the purposes of drawing and spinning operations. In the spin- ning of the elements, of course, there are my forms of condensing mechanisms such as the single-doffer, the double- doffer and the tape-condensers, but their construction is too complex to be described here. Whatever the type may be, the result is that noted above, but it should be noted that the tape enables a much finer sliver to be taken from the card than is possible with either the single- or double-doffer condenser.

The principles involved in mule spinning are comparatively simple, but the necessary machinery is very complex; indeed it is questionable if a more ingenious machine than the mule exists.

Mule spinning.

The pick-like slivers received from the card-loom must be attenuated until the correct count of yarn is obtained; they must be twisted while this attenuation or drafting is in process, otherwise they would at once break; and after being attenuated to the required fineness the requisite number of turns must be inserted. Great stress must be laid on the effects of what is termed the "drafting-twist" noted above; it is probably this simultaneous drafting and twisting which develops the most pronounced characteristics of the woolen yarn and cloth, and differentiates it entirely from the

Woolen Mules.

![Diagram](Fig. 9—Sectional View of the Woolen Mule.)

![Diagram](Fig. 10.—Plan and Section of a Preparing Box (Sheeter).)

A is the back-shaft receiving its motion from the driving shaft upon which are the pulleys. This back-shaft A drives the back- rollers B at a slow speed by the reducing train of wheels C; also the front rollers D at a much quicker speed through the train of wheels E, and the fellers F at an intermediary speed by means of the levels and screws G G. The wool is "made up" on the feed sheet and on emerging from the front rollers is built up into a layer into the tap H, which is finally broken across and feeds up at the next machine.

The yarn as delivered by the mule is "single" and will serve as warp or weft for the great bulk of woolen cloths, warp being as a rule twisted harder than weft. Sometimes for strength, sometimes for colour, however, it will be necessary to twist two or more of these single strands together. This is best effected on a twisting frame of the ring type, which consists of delivery rollers, to deliver a specified length of yarn in relationship to the turns of the spindles, and the spindles, which serve to put in twist and wind the yarn upon the bobbin or tube, which they carry by reason of the retarding action of the traveller. Fancy twists such as knops, loops, slubs, &c., may also be produced if the frame is fitted up with two pairs of delivery rollers and two or three special but simple appliances.

The essential feature of a worsted yarn is straightness of fibre. Prior to the introduction of automatic machinery there was little difficulty in attaining this characteristic, as long wool was invariably employed and the sliver was made up by hand and then twisted. With the introduction of Arkwright's water frame or "throttle" the necessity for prepared slivers became apparent, and with the later introduction of cap and mule spinning the necessity for perfectly prepared slivers has been so accentuated that the preparatory machinery has quite
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exceeded the actual spinning machine in extent and complexity. To-day there are three distinct methods of producing worsted yarn. scour the slivers again, this being effected in what is termed a back-washing machine. This machine as shown in fig. 11 usually consists

**Fig. 11.—Sectional View of Back-washer.**

A are the delivering rollers, B, B are the immering rollers in the first tank, C, C are the press rollers to squeeze out superfluous liquors, D is the immering roller in the second tank, and C', C' are the press rollers for the second tank. Drying cylinders E to E'' may be arranged as "live-heat" cylinders, as secondary heated cylinders or as air drying cylinders. The roller F directs the slivers into the back rollers G of the gill-box, which in turn delivers up the slivers to the fallers H, which in turn delivers the wool to the front rollers I.

Firstly, there is the preparing and spinning of the true worsted of two scouring tanks with immersing rollers, drying cylinders, a thread, this being made from long English and colonial wool. In gill-box and oiling motion. The slivers on emerging from this machine

**Fig. 12.—Plan and Section of the Noble Comb.**

A, A is the large comb circle and B, B' the two small comb circles. The slivers are delivered by the mechanism C to the feed boxes D, being thrown across the pins of the large and small circles at position E. A stroke at F suitably directs the fringes of fibre as the circles separate and the combed fibres are taken hold of by drawing-off rollers G and G' and combined to form the "top." The brushes H, I and the metal knives J clear the small circles of the "noll." The feed knife J in conjunction with the inclined planes at K are instrumental in feeding a previously directed length of sliver over the two circles as they practically touch one another at the point E, and so the process is continued.

By the combined action of the drafting and doubling, which has taken place at each box.

Oil will have been added to the wool at the first preparing-box to cause the fibres to work well.

**Back-washing.** But the slivers during their passage through the preparing-boxes become sullied naturally, and in addition, owing to the opening out of the locks of wool, dirt which was not "got at" in the scouring now works out and further sullies the slivers. It is consequently necessary to oil the wool with a good oiling machine.
one or two more gill-boxes, prior to combing, to ensure straightness of fibre and even distribution of the lubricant.

Prior to the mechanical era wool was combed immediately after scouring; there was no preparatory process. As a matter of fact, the first combing process took the place of the processes just described and was termed “straightening,” the combing proper. Bright and Kitching, in 1792, conceived the notion of a really satisfactory mechanical comb, between 1850 and 1860, the combing operation was the limitation of the worsted trade. English wools could be satisfactorily combed by hand, and perhaps the results of combing wools by machine would have been lost. But as far as quality of result was concerned, but the cost was largely prohibitive.

The history of the colonial wool trade is inextricably bound up with the combing industry. How eventually botany wools were combed by machine and how the wool industry was thereby revolutionized can only be briefly referred to here. About 1779 Dr Edmund Cartwright invented two distinct types of combs, the vertical and the horizontal circular. The former type was developed on the continent by Helmann and others, and has only within the last five years taken its rightful place as a successful short wool comb in this country. Latter type was worked upon by Donisthorpe, Noble, Lister, the Holdens and others, and largely through the “driving” force of Lister (later Lord Masham) was made a truly practical success about the year 1850. Latter-day combs of this type may be readily grouped under three heads. The Lister or “nip” comb is specially suitable for long wools and mohair and alpaca. The Holden or square-motion comb is specially suited for short and very good quality wools. The last type, the Noble, is the most popular of all and, by a change of large and small circles, may be adapted to the combing of long, medium or short wools. As the great bulk of cross-bred and a considerable proportion of botany wool is combed upon the Noble comb a brief description is here called for. The object of all wool combing is to straighten the long fibres and to comb out from the slivers treated all the fibres under a certain length, leaving the long fibres or “top” to form the sliver which is eventually spun into the worsted yarn. The Noble comb, which so effectually accomplishes this, consists in the main of a large revolving circle A inside which revolve two smaller circles B, B’ as shown in fig. 12, each of which touches the larger comb circle at one point only. At this point the slivers of wool to be carded are firmly dabbed into the pins of both the large and small circles. As the circles continue to revolve revolving funnel into a can. The short fibres, or “noil,” are lifted out of the pins of the small circle by “noil knives.” The continuous slivers, the ends of which remain in the pins of the large circle after the drawing-off rollers have been passed, are now lifted up until these ends are above the pins, at the same time an additional length of sliver being drawn into the comb, so that, as they reach the second small circle, they are ready to be again dabbed into the pins of both circles and the combing operation repeated. Thus the combing on a Noble comb is absolutely continuous. All the movements of this machine—with the exception of the dabbing-brush motion—are circular, so that mechanically it is an almost perfect machine. As illustrating the extent of the combing industry, it is interesting to note that even the making of dabbing-brushes is a separate and by no means unimportant trade.

After combing it is usual to pass the “top” through two gill-boxes termed “finishers.” The last of these boxes, and often the first, delivers the “top” in the form of a ball, thus it is often spoken of as a “balling gill-box.” This stage marks one of the great divisions of the worsted trade, the comb taking the wool up to this point, but now handing it forward in the shape of top to the worsted spinner, who draws and spins the slivers into the most desirable worsted yarn.

English tops are usually prepared for spinning by seven or eight operations. Three of these operations are effected in gill-boxes of a somewhat similar type to the preparatory boxes, only lighter in build. The remaining four are drawing-boxes, i.e., as shown in figs. 13 and 14, they consist of back and front rollers with small carrying-rollers—not gills—to support the wool in between. Thus an English set of drawing-boxes consists of a single-can gill-box, a double-can gill-box, a two-spindle gill-box, a four-spindle drawing-box, a four-spindle weigh-box, a six-spindle drawing-box, two six-spindle finishers and three thirty-spindle rovers. About fifteen flyer frames of 100 spindles each will be required to follow this set, although the balance varies partly in accordance with the counts spun to, in this case 1/2’s English being the standard.

The object of drawing is to obtain firstly a level sliver from which an even thread may be spun, and secondly to reduce the comparatively thick top down to a relatively thin roving from which the required count of yarn may be spun. Of course parallelism of fibres must be retained throughout, so far as possible. To accomplish these objects doubling and drafting is resorted to. Thus the ends put up at the back of the above boxes will be 6, 6, 4, 3, 2 respectively, while the drafts may be 5, 6, 8, 9, 9 approximately.
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As the drafts markedly preponderate over the doublings, so in exactly this proportion will the sliver be reduced in thickness. The fly spinning frame is very similar to the drawing frame, consisting of back rollers, carriers and front rollers, with the necessary spindle and flyer to put twist into the yarn and to wind it upon the bobbin. From the two-spindle gill-box to the spinning frame the spindle, bobbin and flyer combination is employed with the object just mentioned. From fig. 15 the action of this combination will be clearly understood. Drafting takes place as usual between the back and front rollers, the carriers controlling the yarn between the two. On emerging from the front rollers the yarn usually passes through an eyeclet, to centre it over the centre of the spindle; it then takes a turn or two round the flyer leg, through the twistle or eyeclet on the flyer and on to the bobbin F. The flyer may be freely rotated by means of the whar J and through the spindle G upon the top of which it is screwed. The bobbin fits loosely over the spindle and rests upon the lifter plate L; this latter, being controlled by the flyer mechanism, slowly raises and lowers the bobbin during the "spin" past the fixed plane of delivery of the yarn, i.e. the eyeclet of the revolving flyer. Now, if for one moment it be considered that the bobbin may not revolve on the spindle but may be the operation of carding. On first thought it might be imagined that carding would result in broken fibres and a poor yield of top. That this is not so is evident from the fact that there is a tendency to card wools from 7 to 10 in. long. This tendency being due to the relative cheapness of carding as compared with preparing. If long wools were fed directly on to a swift, no doubt serious breakage of fibre would occur, but it is customary to place before the first swift of a worsted card a series of four opening rollers and dividers—with their accompanying "bugging rollers"—to open out the wool gradually, so that when it eventually reaches the first swift it is so opened out that further opening out instead of breakage occurs. Some carders use a breast or small swift in place of those opening rollers—mostly on account of economy. The swift is usually surrounded with four workers and strippers and is very similar to the woollen carder, save that the workers and doffer are larger, thereby effecting more of a combing action and working economically by reason of the greater wearing surface brought into play. As botany wool is usually brought directly from the wash bowl to the feed sheet of the card, it is usual to clothe the first cylinders with galvanized wire clothing. After the carding the wool is back-washed and gilled—on similar lines to English wool—and then is ready for combing. The largest combers of botany wools, Mears Isaac Holden & Co., employ the square-motion comb, in fact this comb is known in the trade as the Holden comb. Other combers, however, almost without exception employ the Noble comb with a fine "set over," i.e. fine spinning of the comb circles. After combing, the tops are "finished" by being passed

![Diagram](image)

**Fig. 15.** Section of Flyer Spindle.

C, C are the front rollers of a drawing or spinning frame, delivering the sliver to a centring board D, containing an eye for each sliver, from which the sliver passes to the flyer E and finally to the bobbin F, which rests on the lifter-plate L and is traversed up and down by this plate according to the length of the yarn employed. The flyer E is screwed on to the spindle G which is suitably held by the sheath, bolster, &c., shown at H, and in the footstep at K. The spindle is turned by a tape passing round the whar J and thence to an ordinary tin-drum.

slid up and down by the lifter motion, then, if the front rollers deliver the necessary yarn, the flyer will wrap it in successive layers upon the bobbin—but no twist will be inserted. On the other hand, if the bobbin is perfectly free upon the spindle and the front rollers cease delivering yarn, then the flyer, by means of the yarn, will pull the bobbin round at the same speed as it goes itself, and the yarn will be twisted but not wound upon the bobbin. By obtaining an action in between these two extremes both twisting and winding on to the bobbin is effected. The speed of the bobbin is suitably retarded by washers placed between it and the lifter plate, so that it just drugs sufficiently to wind up the yarn "paid out" by the front rollers. The turns per inch are in proportion to the yarn delivered and the revolutions of the flyer. Thus if, while 1 in. of yarn is delivered, the flyer revolves twelve times the turns per inch will be approximately twelve. This in brief is the theory of the spindle, flyer and bobbin action.

Wools not more than 7 in. long are usually prepared for combing by

Through two finisher-boxes, the last of which "balls" the tops ready for marketing.

Short wools are drawn and spun on very similar lines to the longer wools, save that the boxes are more in number and are in some cases lighter in build. The boxes usually employed in a botany set are as follows: two double-head can gill-boxes, two two-spindle gill-boxes, a four-spindle drawing-box, a six-spindle weigh-box, an eight-spindle drawing-box, two eight-spindle finishing-boxes, two twenty-four-spindle second finishers, three thirty-two-spindle dandy reducers, ten thirty-two-spindle dandy rovings, with ten two-hundred-spindle cap spinners to follow. The doublings as a rule are about 7, 6, 6, 5, 5, 4, 4, 2 and the drafts 5, 6, 6, 7, 7, 8, 8, 9 at the respective boxes, an endeavour as a rule being made to obtain a roving of which 40 yds. = 2 drams, this being the most convenient size for being spun into fine botany count of yarn.

Following the lead of the cotton trade endeavours have been made
to positively control the driving and speed of both flyer and bobbin in all the drawing frames of such sets as that described above. Such control is usually effected by the "cone" drawing, which system has taken its name, viz. cone drawing. In fig. 16 a usual type of cone drawing-box is illustrated. The chief advantages of this system seem to be the possibilities of employing larger bobbins, and thus obtaining greater productivity, with less power, and more particularly the production of a softer sliver with less twist, partaking more of the character of a French roving.

Spinning is usually effected upon the cap frame (see fig. 17)--a frame in which the bobbin or upon a fixed spinning frame, which is driven itself at say 5000 revolutions per minute to put in the twist, while the friction of the yarn passing on the cap which covers the bobbin enables the bobbin to wind up upon itself the yarn as delivered by the front rollers. The weakness and the strength of the cap frame is that to make reasonably hard bobbins the bobbins must be driven at a high speed.

The French are noted for a special system of worsted spinning, which producing soft botany yarns of a marked type, is worthy of more than passing criticism.

French drawing and spinning. The preparation is very similar to the preparation of botany yarns for the English system save that the order of the operations are carding, gilling, combing, back-washing and finishing. The characteristic feature of the method is the subsequent drawing and spinning. The drawing-box as shown in fig. 18 consists of back rollers, pounce or revolving gill boxes, front rollers, and a winding-up arrangement. There is no twist inserted, the slivers being treated softly and openly right away through the process. Set of this type usually consists of two gill boxes for combing, comb, back-washing machine and the two finishing gill boxes, first drawing frame, second drawing frame, the slubbing frame, the roving frame and the self-acting male. After leaving the last box as a fine soft gilt-like sliver, spinning is effected upon the worsted mule. The main differences between the worsted and the woolen mule are firstly, the worsted mule is fitted with preliminary drafting rollers, and secondly, there is little or no spindle draft. As the mule is an integral part of the machine it is natural to contrast it with the cap frame, which runs continuously. What the real advantage is it is difficult to say, but the mule in use has become from year to year of more importance, and it is pleasing to note that English spinners are at last doing a fair share of this business.

Upon whichever system the yarns have been spun it will frequently be necessary to twofold them and sometimes to three- and fourfold them. Again the fashion sometimes runs upon fancy twist, and then it is necessary to be able to produce the various styles of cloud, loop, curl, knop, &c., yawns. Twofolding is some of the most time consuming. The main difference between the cap and the ring frame is that in the latter a small beat piece of wire, termed a traverse, is necessary to be able to produce the various styles of cloud, loop, curl, knop, &c., yawns. Twofolding is some of the most time consuming. The main difference between the cap and the ring frame is that in the latter a small beat piece of wire, termed a traverse, is necessary to be able to produce the various styles of cloud, loop, curl, knop, &c., yawns. Twofolding is some of the most time consuming. The main difference between the cap and the ring frame is that in the latter a small beat piece of wire, termed a traverse, is necessary to be able to produce the various styles of cloud, loop, curl, knop, &c., yawns. Twofolding is some of the most time consuming.

The characteristic feature of wool and of wool yarns and cloths is the quality of felting. This quality has always been made use of in woolen cloths, but in worsted cloths, until comparatively recently, it has been largely ignored. To-day, however, cloths are made, ranging from the truest woolen to the typical worsted, of which it would be impossible to indicate the type of yarn employed without very careful analysis. As it is obviously impossible to give here every variety of finish...
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press either hot or cold. After pressing dry steaming is frequently necessary to take away catkiness and a certain false lustre which sometimes develops. Final cutting completes the finishing operations.

Worsted cloth finishing

Of course the real difference between the woollen and the worsted cloth is due to the selection of the right material, to correct roving, spinning, and worsted fabric: finishing simply acts as a "developer" in the case of the woollen fabric, while in the case of the typical worsted fabric it simply serves as a "clearer," the cloth really being a "crabbed" worsted cloth as it leaves the loom is unsightly and in a sense may be said to be made in the finishing, although it is truer to say "developed" in the finishing: in the case of the worsted cloth it is altogether otherwise.

A cotton warp, lustre weft style, is treated altogether differently from either of the foregoing. It is first crabbed, then steamed, then scoured and dried, then singed by being passed over a red-hot copper plate or through gas jets, then scoured again, and if necessary dyed. It is then washed, dried, then tentered and finally pressed. Of course these operations are applied with discrimination to the varied styles of goods made in theBradford district. Thus, for instance, the finishing of an "Italian" may be considerably varied from the foregoing, being more complex, while other styles, such as plain all-wool goods, are treated very simply.

It will be gathered from the foregoing remarks that the varieties of woollen cloth are extremely many and very different in character. This is perhaps realized best by contrasting a heavy melton cloth weighing 24-30 oz. per yard with a fine mohair texture weighing 2-3 oz. per yard. None the less the remarkable variety of goods makes any complete classification impossible.

A rough Harris tweed, for example, contrasts strangely with a smooth fine wool Italian. Of course these differences are not created in any one process or merely by the selection of the raw material or yarn. Every process of manufacture must be directed to attain the desired end, and it is well to realize that huge businesses have been built up upon what, by the outsider, would only ever be regarded as unimportant details.

The principal styles of woollen cloth are tweeds, meltons, Venetians, beavers, doeskins, buckskins, cassimères and diagonals. The largest class is the tweeds, as this ranges from very expensive coats and trouserings to the cheaper styles made of the re-manufactured materials. Tweeds for ladies wear also form a large class.

The principal styles of worsted cloths are coatings and trouserings, delaines, voiles, merinos, cashmeres, lastings, crépe-de-chines, amazons, Orles, lustres of various types (plain and figured), alpacas, Italians, moreens, &c., &c. Many of these are made entirely of worsted yarns, but others are compounded so far as material or yarn is concerned.

Wool tops

The woollen industry of England, considered as the fostering care of several of the English monarchs— notably Edward III. and James I.—it was but natural to expect that favours would be shown to it, and Cropred 1675 the fostering care of several of the English monarchs— notably Edward III. and James I.—it was but natural to expect that favours would be shown to it, and Cropred 1675 the fostering care of several of the English monarchs— notably Edward III. and James I.—it was but natural to expect that favours would be shown to it, and Cropred 1675 the fostering care of several of the English monarchs— notably Edward III. and James I.—it was but natural to expect that favours would be shown to it, and Cropred 1675 the fostering care of several of the English monarchs— notably Edward III. and James I.—it was but natural to expect that favours would be shown to it, and Cropred 1675

Lustre finishing

Of course the real difference between the woollen and the worsted cloth is due to the selection of the right material, to correct roving, spinning, and worsted fabric: finishing simply acts as a "developer" in the case of the woollen fabric, while in the case of the typical worsted fabric it simply serves as a "clearer," the cloth really being a "crabbed" worsted cloth as it leaves the loom is unsightly and in a sense may be said to be made in the finishing, although it is truer to say "developed" in the finishing: in the case of the worsted cloth it is altogether otherwise.

A cotton warp, lustre weft style, is treated altogether differently from either of the foregoing. It is first crabbed, then steamed, then scoured and dried, then singed by being passed over a red-hot copper plate or through gas jets, then scoured again, and if necessary dyed. It is then washed, dried, then tentered and finally pressed. Of course these operations are applied with discrimination to the varied styles of goods made in theBradford district. Thus, for instance, the finishing of an "Italian" may be considerably varied from the foregoing, being more complex, while other styles, such as plain all-wool goods, are treated very simply.

It will be gathered from the foregoing remarks that the varieties of woollen cloth are extremely many and very different in character. This is perhaps realized best by contrasting a heavy melton cloth weighing 24-30 oz. per yard with a fine mohair texture weighing 2-3 oz. per yard. None the less the remarkable variety of goods makes any complete classification impossible.

A rough Harris tweed, for example, contrasts strangely with a smooth fine wool Italian. Of course these differences are not created in any one process or merely by the selection of the raw material or yarn. Every process of manufacture must be directed to attain the desired end, and it is well to realize that huge businesses have been built up upon what, by the outsider, would only ever be regarded as unimportant details.

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Wool tops

Wool tops, pressing.

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Wool tops, pressing.

Wool tops, pressing.

Wool tops, pressing.
Prices per lb in each Year of some Colonial, Foreign and English Wools, also of Alpaca and Mohair.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>1874</th>
<th>1880</th>
<th>1885</th>
<th>1890</th>
<th>1895</th>
<th>1900</th>
<th>1901</th>
<th>1902</th>
<th>1905</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Port Philip—Greasy</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adelaide—Greasy</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape—Greasy</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>122</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buenos Aires—Greasy</td>
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<td>d</td>
<td>41</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Wool</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohair</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>27-35</td>
<td>14-19</td>
<td>14-18</td>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>14-20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Year of the highest values of wools ever reached within recent times.
2 Years of the lowest values of wools ever reached within recent times.

Summary of Woollen and Worsted Factories and of Persons employed in the same in the United Kingdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Factories</th>
<th>Rag grinding machines</th>
<th>Woollen carding sets</th>
<th>Worsted combing machines</th>
<th>Spinning spindles</th>
<th>Doubling spindles</th>
<th>Power looms</th>
<th>Children (half timers)</th>
<th>Persons working full time—</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>2,649</td>
<td>2,617</td>
<td>2,751</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,924</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>2,498</td>
<td>2,471</td>
<td>2,521</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
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<td>2,498</td>
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<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>2,498</td>
<td>2,471</td>
<td>2,521</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>2,498</td>
<td>2,471</td>
<td>2,521</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>2,498</td>
<td>2,471</td>
<td>2,521</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>2,517</td>
<td>5,625,477</td>
<td>104,514</td>
<td>33,054</td>
<td>35,416</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Exports of Wool, Wool Waste, Noils, Tops, Yarns and Fabrics from the United Kingdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>British Wool</th>
<th>Foreign and Colonial</th>
<th>Wool</th>
<th>Waste</th>
<th>Noils</th>
<th>Tops</th>
<th>Worsted Yarn</th>
<th>Mohair &amp; Yarn</th>
<th>Woollen Yarn</th>
<th>Cloths</th>
<th>Apparel</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1882</td>
<td>13,800,000</td>
<td>264,100,000</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>19,500,000</td>
<td>342,200,000</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>24,000,000</td>
<td>475,000,000</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
<td>lb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WOOLLET, WILLIAM (1735-1785), English engraver, was born at Maidstone, of a family which came originally from Holland, on the 15th of August 1735. He was apprenticed to John Timmis, an engraver in Fleet Street, London, and studied in the St Martin's Lane academy. His first important plate was from the "Niobe" of Richard Wilson, published by Boydell in 1761, which was followed in 1763 by a companion engraving from the "Phaethon" of the same painter. After West he engraved his fine plate of the "Battle of La Hogue" (1781), and the "Death of General Wolfe" (1776), which is usually considered Woollett's masterpiece. In 1775 he was appointed engraver-in-common to George III.; and he was a member of the Incorporated Society of Artists, of which for several years he acted as secretary. He died in London on the 23rd of May 1785.

In his plates, which unite work with the etching-needle, the dry-point and the graver, Woollett shows the greatest richness and variety of execution. In his landscapes the rendering of water is particularly excellent. In his portraits and historical subjects the rendering of flesh is characterized by great softness and delicacy. His works rank among the great productions of the English school of engraving. Louis Fagan, in his Catalogue Raisonné of the Engraved Works of William Woollett (1885), has enumerated 125 plates by this engraver.

WOOLMAN, JOHN (1720-1772), American Quaker preacher, was born in Northampton, Burlington county, New Jersey, in August 1720. When he was twenty-one he went to Mount Holly, where he was a clerk in a store, opened a school for poor children and became a tailor. After 1743 he spent most of his time as an itinerant preacher, visiting meetings of the Friends in various parts of the colonies. In 1772 he sailed for London to visit Friends in the north of England, especially Yorkshire, and died in York of smallpox on the 7th of October. He spoke and wrote against slavery, refused to draw up wills transferring slaves, induced many of the Friends to set their negroes free, and in 1760 at Newport, Rhode Island, memorialized the Legislature to forbid the slave trade. In 1775 at Walloosing (now Wyasung) on the Susquehanna, he preached to the Indians; and he always urged the whites to pay the Indians for their lands and to forbid the sale of liquor to them.

Woolman wrote Some Considerations on the Keeping of Negroes (1754; part ii., 1756): Considerations on Pure Wisdom and Human Policy, on Labor, on Schools, and on the Right Use of the Lord's Outward Gifts (1768); Considerations on the True Harmony of Mankind, and How it is to be Maintained (1770); and A Word of Remembrance and Caution to the Rich (1793); and the most important of his writings, The Journal of John Woolman's Life and Travels in the Service of the Gospel (1775), which was begun in his thirty-sixth year and was continued until the year of his death. The best-known edition is that prepared, with an introduction, by John G. Whittier in 1871. The Works of John Woolman appeared in two parts at Philadelphia, in 1773-175, and have often been republished; a German version was printed in 1852.

Woolner, Thomas (1825-1892), British sculptor and poet, was born at Hadleigh, Suffolk, on the 17th of December 1825. When a boy he showed talent for modelling, and when barely thirteen years old was taken as an assistant into the studio of William Behnes, and trained during four years. In December 1842 Woolner was admitted a student in the Royal Academy, and in 1843 exhibited his "Eleanor sucking Poison from the Wound of Prince Edward." In 1844, among the competitive works for decorating the Houses of Parliament was his life-size group of "The Death of Boadicea." In 1846 he had at the Royal Academy a graceful bas-relief of Shelley's "Alastor." Then came (1847) "Feeding the Hungry," a bas-relief, at the Academy; and at the British Institution a brilliant statue
of "Puck" perched upon a toadstool and with his toe rousing a frog. "Eros and Euphrosyne" and "The Rainbow" were seen at the Academy in 1848.

Woollner became, in the autumn of 1848, one of the seven Pre-Raphaelite Brethren, and took a leading part in The Germ (1850), the opening poem in which, called "My Beautiful Lady," was written by him. He had already modelled and exhibited portraits of Carlyle, Browning and Tennyson. Unable to make his way in art as he wished, Woollner in 1852 tried his luck as a gold-digger in Australia. Failing in this, he returned to England in 1857, where during his absence his reputation had been increased by the creation of a series of "Love" as a damned lost in a damp day. He carried his second portraits of Carlyle, Tennyson and Browning, the figures of Moses, David, St John the Baptist and St Paul for the pulpit of Llandaff cathedral, the medallion portrait of Wordsworth in Grasmere church. the likenesses of Sir Thomas Fairbairn, Rajah Brooke of Sarawak, Mrs Tennyson, Sir W. Hooker and Sir F. Palgrave. The fine statute of Bacon in the New Museum at Oxford was succeeded by full-size statues of Prince Albert for Bacon, Macaulay for Cambridge, William III. for the Houses of Parliament, London, and Sir Bartle Frere for Bombay; busts of Tennyson, Dr Johnson, Trinity College Cambridge, Dr Whewell and Jerusalem Harrow; statues of Lord Lawrance for Calcutta, Queen Victoria for Birmingham, Field for the Law Courts, London, Palmerston for Palace Yard, the noble colossal standing figure of Captain Cook that overlooks the harbour of Sydney, New South Wales, which is Woollner's masterpiece in that class; the recumbent effigy of Lord F. Cavendish (murdered in Dublin) in Cartmel church, the seated Lord Chief Justice Whitside for the Four Courts, Dublin, and John Stuart Mill for the Thames Embankment, London; Landseer, and "Bishop Jackson for St Paul's, Bishop Fraser for Manchester, and Sir Stamford Raffles for Singapore. Among Woollner's busts are those of Newman, Darwin, Sedgwick, Huxley, Cabden, Professor Lushington, Dickens, Kingsley, and Sir William Gull, besides the repetition, with variations, of Gladstone for the Bodleian, Oxford, and Mansion House, London, and Tennyson. The last was acquired for Adelaide, South Australia. Woollner's poetic and imaginative sculptures include "Elaine with the Shield of Lancetol," three fine panels for the pedestal of the Gladstone bust at Cambridge, the noble and original "Moses" which was commissioned in 1861 and is on the apex of the gable of the Museum of Natural History, Assisi; and, for many years, on the gable of the Senate House. A series of "Sibyl of Egypt," "Cyclops" and "The Tale of an Englishman," 1870. The Discourses, comprising "Nelly Dale" (1886) and "Children," has been elected professor of sculpture in the Royal Academy, Woollner began to prepare lectures, but they were never delivered, for he resigned the office in 1870. He died suddenly on the 7th of October 1892, and was buried in the churchyard of St Mary's, Hendon.

WOOLSEY—WOOLSTON

WOOLSEY, THEODORE DWIGHT (1801–1889), American educationalist, was born in New York City on the 31st of October 1801. He was the son of a New York merchant, a nephew of Timothy Dwight, president of Yale, and a descendant of Jonathan Edwards. He graduated at Yale in 1820; was a tutor at Yale in 1823–1825; studied Greek at Leipzig, Berlin and Bonn in 1827–1828; became professor of Greek language and literature at Yale in 1831; and was elected president of the college and resigned the presidency of the college in 1846. He resigned the presidency in 1874, and died on the 1st of July 1889 in New Haven. During his administration the college grew rapidly, the scientific school and the school of fine arts were established, and the scholarly tone of the college was greatly improved. Much of his attention in his last years was devoted to the American commission for the revision of the authorized version of the New Testament, of which he was chairman (1871–1881). He prepared excellent editions of Alcestis (1834), Antigone (1835), Prometheus (1837) and Gorgias (1843). He published several works of sermons he wrote for the New Englander, in which he was a founder, for the North American Review, for the Princeton Review and for the Century, and his Introduction to the Study of International Law, designed as an Aid in Teaching and in Historical Studies (1860) and his Divorce and Divorce Legislation (1882) were among many editions. He also wrote Political Science, or the State Theoretically and Practically Considered (1871), and Communism and Socialism, in their History and Theory (1886).

His son, THEODORE SALISBURY WOOLSEY (b. 1852), became professor of international law at Yale in 1875. He was one of the founders of the Yale Review (1865), a continuation of the New Englander, and is the author of America's Foreign Policy (1892).

WOOLSTON, THOMAS (1669–1731), English deist, born at Northampton in 1669, the son of a "reputable tradesman," entered Sidney College, Cambridge, in 1685, studied theology, took orders and was made a fellow of his college. After a time, by the study of Origen, he became possessed with the notion of the importance of an allegorical interpretation of Scripture, and advocated its use in the defence of Christianity both in his sermons and in his first book, The Old Apology for the Truth of the Christian Religion against the Jews and Gentiles Revised (1717). In many years he published in 1718 the publication of letters and pamphlets in advocacy of his notions, with open challenges to the clergy to refute them, brought him into trouble. It was reported that his mind was disturbed, and he lost his fellowship. From 1721 he lived for the most part in London, on an allowance of £50 a year from his brother and other presents. His influence on the course of the deistical controversy began with his book, The Moderator between an Infield and an Apostate (1725, 5th ed. 1729). The "infield" intended was Anthony Collins (q.e.), who had maintained in his book allied to that the New Testament is based on the Old, and that not the literal but only the allegorical sense of the prophecies can be quoted in proof of the Messiahship of Jesus; the "apostate" was the clergy who had forsaken the allegorical method of the fathers. Woolston denied absolutely the proof from miracles, called in question the fact of the resurrection of Christ and other miracles of the New Testament, and maintained that they must be interpreted allegorically, or as types of spiritual things. Two years later he began a series of Discourses on the same subject, in which he applied the principles of his Moderator to the miracles in France: the Discourses, comprising copies of which were said to have been sold, were six in number, the first appearing in 1727, the next five 1728–1729, with two Defences in 1729–1730. For these publications he was tried before Chief Justice Raymond in 1729 and sentenced (November 28) to pay a fine of £25 for each of the first four Discourses, with imprisonment till paid, and also to a year's imprisonment and to give security for his good behaviour during life. He failed to find this security, and remained in confinement until his death on the 21st of January 1731.
WOOLWICH—WOONSOCKET

Upwards of sixty more or less weighty pamphlets appeared in reply to his "Moderator and Discourses." Amongst the abler and most popular of them may be mentioned Z. Pearce's "The Miracles of Jesus Vindicated" (1779); T. Sherlock's "The Tryal of the Witnesses of the Resurrection of Jesus" (1779, 13th ed., 1783); and N. Lardner's "Vindication of Three of Our Saviour's Miracles" (1779), Lardner being one of those who did not approve of the prosecution of Woolston (see Lardner's "Life by Kippis, in Lardner's "Works," vol. 1.).

See Life of Woodston prefixed to his "Works" in five volumes (London, 1752; Memoirs of Life and Writings of William Whiston (London, 1749, pp. 231-335); Appendix to Vindication of the Miracles of our Saviour, etc., by J. Ray (2nd ed., 1724); J. Cairns, "Unicity in the Eighteenth Century" (1880); Sayous, Les Déserts anglais (1882); and the article DEISM, with its bibliography.

WOOLWICH, a S.E. metropolitan borough of London, England, bounded W. by Greenwich and Lewisham, and extending N., E., and S., to the boundary of the county of London. Pop. (1901) 171,178. Area, 8276-6 acres. Its N. boundary is in part the river Thames, but it includes two separate small areas on the N. bank, embracing a portion of the district called N. Woolwich. The area is second to that of Wandsworth among the metropolitan boroughs, but is not wholly built over. The most populous part is that lying between Shooter's Hill Road (the boundary) and S.E. Greenwich Road, and it was among this part that the 1815 battle of Waterloo was fought and the elevation of 418 ft. at Shooter's Hill to the river level. To the E. lies Plumstead, with the Plumstead marshes bordering the river to the N., and in the S. of the borough is Eltham. A large working population is employed in the Royal Arsenal, which occupies a large area on the river-bank, and includes the Royal Gun Factory, Royal Carriage Department, Royal Laboratory and Building Works Department. The former Royal Dockyard was made over to the War Office in 1872 and converted into stores, wharves for the loading of troopships, &c. The Royal Artillery Barracks, facing Woolwich Common, originally erected in 1775, has been greatly extended at different times, and consists of ranges of brick building, including a church in the Italian Gothic style erected in 1863, a theatre, and a library in connexion with the officers' mess-room. Opposite the barracks is the memorial to the officers and men of the Royal Artillery who fell in the Crimean War, a bronze figure of Victory cast out of cannon captured in the Crimea. Near the barracks is the Royal Artillery Institution, with a fine museum and a lecture hall. On the W. of the barracks field is the Royal Military Repository, within the enclosure of which is the Rotunda, originally erected in St James's Park, London, in 1775, for the preservation of cannon and shortly afterwards transferred to its present site. It contains models of the principal dockyards and fortifications of the British empire, naval models of all dates, and numerous specimens of weapons of war from the remotest times to the present day. On the Common is the Royal Military Academy, a castellated building erected from the design of Sir J. Wyattville in 1802, where cadets are trained for the artillery and engineer services. There are a number of other barracks. At the S.E. extremity of the Common is the Herbert Military Hospital. Among several military memorials, one in the Academy grounds was erected to the Prince Imperial of France, for two years a student in the Academy. Other institutions include the Woolwich Polytechnic and the Brook fever hospital, Shooter's Hill. The parish church of St Mary Magdalene was rebuilt, in 1766-1770, near the site of the old one dating from before the 12th century. Woolwich Common (142 acres) is partly within this borough, but mainly in Greenwich. South of it is Eltham Common (37 acres), and in the E. of the borough are Plumstead Common (103 acres) and Bostall Heath (134 acres). Behind the Royal Military Academy is a block of flats, "Battersea Hill," with a "tower" surmounted by a clock. Near Woolwich Common there are brick and tile kilns and sand and chalk pits, and there are extensive market-gardens in the locality. The parliamentary borough of Woolwich returns one member. The borough council consists of a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 60 councillors. It was only by the London Government Act 1890 that Woolwich was brought into line with other London districts, for in 1855, as it had previously become a local government district under a local board, it was left untouched by the Metropolitan Act 1853.

Woolwich (Wulwich) is mentioned in a grant of land by King Edward in 961 to the abbey of St Peter at Ghent. In Domesday the manor is mentioned as consisting of 63 acres of land. The Roman Watling Street crossed Shooter's Hill, and a Roman cemetery is supposed to have been in the site of the Royal Arsenal, numerous Roman urns and fragments of Roman pottery having been dug up in the neighbourhood. Woolwich seems to have been a small fishing village until in the beginning of the 16th century it rose into prominence as a naval dockyard. Some of the first of the naval dockyards were built at Woolwich in the reign of Henry VIII., but it was with the purchase by Henry VIII. of two parcels of land in the manor of Greenwich, that the foundations of the town's prosperity was laid, the launching of the "Harry Grâce de Dieu," of 1000 tons burden, making an epoch in its history. Woolwich remained the chief dockyard of the English navy until the time of the Great War. In the south part of the town is the Royal Navy's dockyard, and the military branch of the ordnance was established here. It was not until 1805, however, that the collection of establishments at Woolwich became the Royal Arsenal.


WOOLWICH-AND-READING BEDS, in geology, a series of argillaceous and sandy deposits of lower Eocene age found in the London and Hampshire basins. By the earlier geologists this formation was known as the "Plastic Clay" so called by T. Webster in 1816 after the Argile plastique of G. C. F. D. Cuvier and A. Brongniart. It was called the "Mottled Clay" by J. Prestwich in 1846, but in 1853 he proposed the name "Woolwich clay" for this formation. The name Woolwich clay was first proposed by a French geologist, and terms were not applicable to the different local aspects of the series.

Three distinct types of this formation are recognized: (1) The Reading type, a series of lenticular mottled clays and sands, here and there with pebbly beds and masses of fine sand converted into quartzite. These beds are generally unfoliaceous. They are found in the southern W. portions of the London Basin and in the Hampshire Basin. (2) The Woolwich type, grey clays and pale sands, often full of estuarine shells and in places with a well-marked oyster bed. At various points in the shell-bearing beds, the type is known as the "Reading Beds" or the "Reading Beds and Chalk," but the former term is more generally applicable. Among the fossils occurring in it are the remains of the Logate of the Eocene period. In the Woolwich beds occur in W. Kent, the E. borders of Surrey, the borders of E. Kent, in S. Essex and at Newhaven in Sussex. (a) A third type consisting of light-coloured clays, and these are the woolly beds, the sands occurring in the Woolwich beds. Of the Woolwich type, it rests on the Thanet beds and it is argillaceous with rounded flint pebbles; where it rests on the Chalk it is clayey with the flinty gravel being in great abundance. Except in the Hampshire basin the Woolwich-And-Reading beds usually rest on the Thanet beds, but they are found on the Chalk near Bromley, Charlton, Hurstmonceux, Hertford, Reading, &c. In Dorsetshire the Reading beds appear on the coast at Studland Bay and at other points inland. The "Hertfordshire Pudding Stone" is a well-known rock from near the base of the formation; it is a flint pebble conglomerate in a siliceous matrix. The fossils, estuarine, freshwater and marine in the Woolwich beds, are those of the British marine Corbicula, C. &c., and freshwater Nuculina, Planorbis lentus, Planorbis lentiscus, Melania (Melanaria) insignata, Neritina globulus, and the remains of turtles, crocodiles, and various other forms. The Woolwich-And-Reading beds consist of indurated clays, flint fragments and coarse pottery and occasionally firebricks have been made from the clay beds in this formation.


WOONSOCKET, a city of Providence county, Rhode Island, U.S.A., on both banks of the Blackstone river, about 16 m. N. by W. of Providence. Pop. (1900) 28,304; (1905, state census) 32,106 (17,734 foreign-born, including 8939 French Canadians and 1360 Irish); (1910) 35,125. Woonsocket is served by the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway and by an interurban electric line. Among its institutions are the Sacred Heart College and the Harris Institute Public Library, founded (1863) by Edward Harris, a local manufacturer. Woonsocket has ample
WOOSTER—WORCESTER, EARL OF

water power from the Blackstone river and its tributaries, the Mill and the Peters rivers. The value of its factory products in 1903 was $10,260,537. Worsted and woollen yarns are manufactured in Woosocket by the French and Belgian processes. Other manufactures are cotton goods and yarns, rubber goods, clothes wringers, silks, bobbins and shuttles, and foundry products.

The first settlement in the vicinity was made apparently about 1666 by Richard Arnold, who at about that time built a saw-mill on the bank of the Blackstone river. Woosocket was set off from Cumberland and was incorporated as a township in 1867; was enlarged by the addition of a part of Smithfield in 1871, and was chartered as a city in 1888.

WOOSTER, a city and the county-seat of Wayne county, Ohio, U.S.A., on Killbuck Creek, about 50 m. S. by W. of Cleveland. Pop. (1900) 6055 (407 foreign-born); (1910) 6136. Wooster is served by the Baltimore & Ohio and the Pennsylvania railways. It is the seat of the university of Wooster (co-educational; Presbyterian; founded in 1866 and opened in 1870), which in 1900 had 37 instructors and 1547 students. The Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station is in the city, which also has various manufactures. Wooster was laid out in 1808, was incorporated as a town in 1817, and became a city of the second class in 1869. It was named in honour of General David Wooster (1730-1777), who was killed in the War of Independence.

WOOTTON BASSET, a market town in the N. parliamentary division of Wiltshire, in the shire, county, and diocese of Salisbury, and the deanery of Marlborough, in the archdeaconry of Great Western shire. Pop. (1901) 2200. It is the junction of the direct railway (1903) between London and the Severn tunnel with the main line of the Great Western system. The town has large cattle markets and an agricultural trade.

Wotton Bassett (Wodeton, Wolton) was held in the reign of Edward the Confessor by one Levenod, and after the Norman Conquest was included in the fief of Miles Crispin. About a century later the manor was acquired by the Basset family. The town received its first charter from Henry VI., and returned members as a parliamentary borough from 1446-1447 until the passing of the Reform Act 1832. In 1551 Elian Bassett granted to the town a market on Tuesday and two fairs each to last two days, at the feasts of St George the Martyr and the Conception of the Virgin. In 1679 the town received a charter from Charles II., and the corporation consisted of a mayor, two aldermen and 12 capital burgesses, until abolished by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1886, under which the property is now vested in seven trustees, one of whom is appointed by the lord of the manor, and there are also two aldermen and four elected members. In 1856 fairs were instituted on the Tuesday before the last of April and on the Thursday before the 11th of October, which is 10th of October in the town calendar. Each fair begins at sunrise, and a large cattle market is held on the first Wednesday of every month. The manufacture of broadcloth was formerly carried on, but is now entirely decayed.

WORCESTER, EARS AND MARQUESSES OF. Urrso de Abitot, constable of Worcester castle and sheriff of Worcestershire, is erroneously said to have been earl of Worcester in 1076. Waleraud de Beaumont (1104-1160), count of Meulan in France, a partisan of King Stephen in his war with the empress Matilda, was probably earl of Worcester from 1136 to 1145. He was deprived of his earldom, became a crusader and died a martyr. From 1397 to 1403 the earldom was held by Sir Thomas Percy (c. 1343-1403), a brother of Henry Percy, 1st earl of Northumberland. Percy served with distinction in France during the reign of Edward III.; he also held an official position on the Scottish borders, and under Richard II. he was the admiral of a fleet. He deserted Richard II. in 1399, and was employed and trusted by Henry IV.; but in 1403 he joined the other Percys in their revolt; he was taken prisoner at Shrewsbury, and subsequently beheaded, the earldom becoming extinct. The title of earl of Worcester was revived in 1421 in favour of Richard Beauchamp, Lord Abergavenny, but lapsed on his death in 1422. The next earl was John Tiptoft, or Tibetot, a noted Yorkist leader during the wars of the Roses, who was executed in 1470 (see below). On the death of his son, Edward, in 1485 the earldom reverted to the crown.

In February 1514 the earldom was bestowed by Henry VIII.

On Charles Somerset (c. 1460-1526), a bastard son of Henry Beaufort, duke of Somerset. Having married Elizabeth, daughter of William Herbert, earl of Huntingdon, he was styled Baron Herbert in right of his wife, and in 1506 he was created Baron Herbert of Raglan, Chepstow and Gwent. He was chamberlain of the household to Henry VIII. His son Henry, 2nd earl (c. 1495-1548), obtained Tintern Abbey after the dissolution of the monasteries. The title descended in direct line to Henry, the 5th earl (1577-1649), who advanced large sums of money to Charles I. at the outbreak of the Great Rebellion, and was created marquess of Worcester in 1643.

Edward Somerset, 2nd marquess of Worcester (1601-1667), is better known by the title of earl of Glamorgan, this earldom having been conferred upon him, although somewhat irregularly, by Charles I. in 1644. He became very prominent in 1645 in connexion with Charles's scheme for obtaining military help from Ireland and abroad, and in 1645 he signed at Kilkenny, on behalf of Charles, a treaty with the Irish Roman Catholics; but the king was obliged by the opposition of Ormonde and the Irish loyalists to repudiate his action. Under the Commonwealth he was formally banished from England and his estates were seized. At the Restoration his estates were restored, and he claimed the dukedom of Somerset promised to him by Charles I., but he did not obtain this, nor was his earldom of Glamorgan recognized. He died in 1645, and his son, Edward, 3rd earl, was created in 1660 the earldom of Effingham.

His only son Henry (1660-1730), the 3rd marquess, abandoned the Roman Catholic religion, and was a prominent member of the Commons. He was but was privately loyal to Charles II., who in 1682 created him duke of Beaufort. As the defender of Bristol, the duke took a considerable part in checking the progress of the duke of Monmouth in 1685, but in 1688 he surrendered the city to William of Orange. He inherited Badminton, still the residence of the dukes of Beaufort, and died there on the 21st of January 1700. The Worcester title was henceforth merged in that of Beaufort (q.v.). Henry, the 7th duke (1792-1853), was one of the greatest sportmen of his day, and the Badminton hunt owed much to him and his successors, the 9th duke (1824-1891), who are so noted.

WORCESTER, JOHN TIPTOPT, EARL OF (1427-1470), was son of John Tiptoft (1375-1443), who was Speaker of the House of Commons in 1406, much employed in diplomacy by Henry V., a member of the council during the minority of Henry VI., and created Baron Tiptoft in 1426. The younger Tiptoft was educated at Oxford, where John Rou says that he was one of his fellow-students; he is stated to have been a member of Balliol College. He married Cicely, daughter of Richard Neville, earl of Salisbury, and widow of Henry Beauchamp (d. 1449), duke of Warwick. In 1449 he was created earl of Worcester. His wife died in 1450, but he continued the association with the Yorkist party. During York's protectorate he was treasurer of the exchequer, and in 1456-1457 deputy of Ireland. In 1457 and again in 1459 he was sent on embassies to the pope. He was abroad three years, during which he made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; the rest of the time he spent in Italy, at Padua, where he studied law and Latin; at Ferrara, where he made the acquaintance of Guarino of Verona; and at Florence, where he heard the lectures of John Argyropoulos, the teacher of Greek. He returned to England early in the reign of Edward IV., and on the 7th of February 1462 was made constable of England. In this office he had at once to try the earl of Oxford, and judged him by "lawe padowe" (sic. of Padua; Warkworth, 5). In 1463 he commanded at sea, without success. In the following year as constable he tried and condemned Sir Ralph Grey and other Lancastrians. In 1467 he was again appointed deputy of Ireland.
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During a year's office there he had the ear of Desmond attainted, and cruelly put to death the earl's two infant sons. In 1479, as constable, he conducted twenty of Warwick's adherents, and kept the earl, "for which ever afterwards the earl was greatly hated among the people, for their disproportionate death that he used contrary to the law of the land" (Warkworth, 6). On the Lancastrian restoration Worcester fled into hiding, but was discovered and tried before the earl of Oxford, son of the man whom he had condemned in 1462. He was executed on Tower Hill on the 18th of October 1479.

Worcester was detested for his brutality and abuse of the law, and was called "the butcher of England" (Fabyan, 650). More than any of his contemporaries in this country he represents the combination of culture and cruelty that was distinctive of the Italians of the Renaissance. Apart from his moral character he was an accomplished scholar, and a great purchaser of books in Italy, many of which he presented to the university of Oxford.

He translated Cicero's De amicitia and Buonaccorso's Declara
tion of Nobleness, which were printed by Caxton in 1481. Caxton in his epilogue eulogized Worcester as superior to all the temporal lords of the kingdom in moral virtue as well as in science. Worcester is also credited with a translation of Caesar's Commentaries printed in 1530. His ordinances for justes and triumphs, made in 1473, were engraved in 1485 and printed in Harring
ton's Nuremberg Chronicle. Worcester was a patron of the early English humanist John Free, and his Italian friends included, besides those already mentioned, Lodovico Carbo of Ferrara, and the famous Florentine bookseller Vespasiano da Bisticci.

AUTHORITIES.—For Worcester's English career see especially the contemporary accounts in Three Fifteenth Century Chronicles, Collections of a London Citizen (Gregory's Chronicle), and Wark
worth's Chronicle—all three published by the Camden Society. Vespasiano da Bisticci gave an account of him in his Vita di uomini illustri, i. 322-328. See also, for the Life of Caxton, i. 79, ii. 73. (C. L. K.)

WORCESTER, WILLIAM (c. 1416-1482), English chronicler, was a son of William of Worcester, a Bristol citizen, and is some
times called William Botoner, his mother being a daughter of Thomas Botoner. He was educated at Oxford and became secretary to Sir John Fastolf. When the knight died in 1439, Worcester, although one of his executors, found that nothing had been bequeathed to him, and with one of his colleagues, Sir William, he took action to contest the will. How
ever, an amicable arrangement was made and Worcester obtained some lands near Norwich and in Southwark. He died about 1482. Worcester made several journeys through England, and his Itinerarium contains much information. The survey of Bristol is of the highest value to antiquaries. Portions of the work were printed by James Nasmith in 1778, and the part relating to Bristol is in James Dallaway's Antiquities of Bristol (Bristol, 1834).

Worcester also wrote Annales rurum Angliae, a work of some value for the history of England under Henry VI. This was published by T. Hearne in 1728, and by Joseph Stevenson for the Rolls series with his Letters and Papers Illustrative of the Wars of the English in France during the Reign of Henry VI. (1864). Stevenson also printed here collections of papers made by Worcester respecting the wars of the English in France and Normandy. Worcester's other writings include Don Syncellus and the Churches of the Seven Bells. See the Past and Present Letters edited by J. Gairdner (1904); and F. A. Gasquet, An Old English Bible and other Essays (1897).

WORCESTER, a town of the Cape province, S. Africa, 100 m. by rail (58 in a direct line) N.E. of Cape Town, and the starting point of the railway to Mossel Bay and Port Elizabeth. Pop. (1904) 7585. It lies in the Little Karroo, about 800 ft. above the sea at the foot of the Hex River mountains. Tanning and wagon-building are among the principal industries, but the chief wool growing country extends to the east, and is connected by a large wine and brandy producing district in the province. In Brandvlei, 9 m. S., near the Breede river are thermal springs with a temperature of 145° F.

WORCESTER, an episcopal city and county of a city, munici
pal, parliamentary, and county borough, and county town of Worcestershire, England, on the river Severn, 120 m. W.N.W. of London. Pop. (1901) 46,624. It is served by the Great Western railway and by the Bristol-Birmingham line of the Midland railway. Branches of the Great Western diverge to Malvern and Hereford, and to Leominster. Worcester lies mainly upon the left (E.) bank of the Severn, which is here a broad and placid river, the main part of the city lying on a ridge parallel with its banks. The city is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. Area 3422 acres.

The cathedral church of Our Lord and the Blessed Virgin Mary is beautifully placed close to the river. The site was founded by the advice of Archbishop Theodore of Canterbury about 679 or 680, though, owing to the opposition of the bishop of Lichfeld it was not finally established till 780. In its formation the tribal division was followed, and it contained the people of the Hwicas. Nunnery was founded in 683 with two canons, was re-founded by Bishop Oswald into the monastery of St Mary. The canons became monks, and in 683 Oswald finished the building of a new monastic cathedral. After the Norman Conquest the saintly bishop of Worcester, Wulfstan, was the only English prelate who was left in possession of his see, and it was he who first undertook the building of a great church of stone according to the Norman pattern. Of the work of Wulf
stan, the outer walls of the nave, aisles, a part of the walls of the transepts, some shafts and the crypt remain. The crypt (1052) is one of the finest basilical crypts in England, the others being in Winchester, Gloucester, and York cathedrals. Wulfstan's building seems to have extended no farther than the transepts, but the nave was continued, though much of it was destroyed by the fall of the central tower in 1175. The two W. bays of the nave date from about 1160. In 1203 Wulfstan, who had died in 1095, was canonized, and on the completion and dedication of the cathedral in 1218, his body was placed in a shrine, which became a place of pilgrimage, and thereby brought wealth to the monks. They devoted this to the building of a lady chapel at the E. end, extending the building by 50 ft.; and in 1247 was begun the choir and apse, with the splendid Early English style. The nave was remodelled in the 14th century, and, excepting the W. bays, show partly Decorated but principally early Perpendicular work. The building is cruciform, and is without aisles in the transepts, but has secondary choir-transcets. A Jesus chapel (an uncommon feature) opens from the N. nave aisle, from which it is separated by a very beautiful modern screen of stone, in the Perpendicular style. Without, the cathedral is severely plain, with the exception of the ornate tower, which dates from 1374, and is 126 ft. in height. The principal dimensions of the cathedral are—extreme length 253 ft. (nave 170 ft., choir 180 ft.), extreme width 115 ft. (choir 78 ft.), height of nave 68 ft. The monastic remains lie to the S. The cloisters are of Perpendicular work engulfed upon Norman walls, being entered from the S. through a fine Norman doorway.

In them the effect of the warm red sandstone is particularly beautiful. An interesting Norman chapter house adjoins them on the E., its Perpendicular roof supported on a central column, while on the S. lies the Refectory, a fine Decorated room (1372) now devoted to the uses of the Cathedral School.

There are also picturesque ruins of the Guten Hall (1520), and in 1554 extensive demolition was begun in 1557, upwards of £100,000 being spent. Among the monuments in the cathedral, that of King John, in the choir, is the earliest sepulchral effigy of an English king in the country. There is an altar tomb, in a very fine late Perpendicular chantry chapel, of Arthur, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VII., who died in 1502. There are also monuments of John Gauden, the bishop who wrote Icon basilique, often attributed to Charles I., of Bishop Hough by Roubillac, and of Mrs Digby by Chantrey.

Of the eleven parish churches, St Alban's has considerable Norman remains, St Peter's contains portions of all Gothic styles, St Helen's, with a fine peal of bells commemorating the victories of Marlborough, has also Gothic portions, but the majority were either rebuilt in the 18th century, or are modern. St Andrews has a beautiful spire, erected in 1731, 135 ft. 6 in. in height. Holy Trinity preserves the ancient roof of the Gufen Hall. St John's in Bedwardine was made a parish church in 1371.
There are no remains of the old castle of Worcester; it adjoined the monastery so closely that King John gave its yard to the monks, and after that time it ceased to be a stronghold. The Commandery, founded by St Wulstan in 1085, was a hospital, and its name appears to lack authority. It was rebuilt in Tudor times, and there is a present seat in 1633. In 1647 it was burned, and a new mansion, canopied dais, and a fine bay window, together with other parts. The wood-carving is exquisite. There are many old half-timbered houses. The guild-hall (1732) is an admirable building in the Italian style; it contains a portrait of George III., by Sir Joshua Reynolds, presented by the king to commemorate his visit to the city at the triennial musical festival in 1788. This, the Festival of the Three Choirs, is maintained here alternately with Gloucester and Hereford. The corporation possesses some interesting old charters and manuscripts, and good municipal regiments. Public baths include the shire-hall (1853), Corso Exchange and market-house. Fairs are held three annually. The Victoria Institute includes a library, museum and art gallery. The cathedral school was founded by Henry VIII. in 1541, Queen Elizabeth's, in a modern building, in 1563; there are also a choir school, and municipal art, science and technical schools. In the vicinity of the city there is a large Benedictine convent, at Stanbrook Hall, with a beautiful modern chapel. The Clothiers' Company possesses a charter granted by Queen Elizabeth; but the great industries are now the manufacture of gloves and of porcelain. A company of gloves was incorporated in 1661. The manufacture of porcelain is famous. The materials employed are china clay and china stone from Cornwall, felspar from Sweden, fire-clay from Stourbridge and Broseley, marl, flint and calcined bones. The Royal Porcelain works cover 5 acres. Among Worcester's other trades are those of iron, iron goods and engineering works, carriage making, rope spinning, boat building, tanning and the production of chemical manures and of cider and Perry. There is a considerable carrying trade on the Severn.

The charities are numerous, and include St Oswald's hospital, Nash's almshouses, Wyatt's almshouses, the Berkeley hospital, Goulding hospital, Shrew Ting's hospital, Inglethorpe's almshouses, Waldgrave's almshouses, Moore's blue-coat school, Queen Elizabeth's charity, and others.

Traces of British and Roman occupation have been discovered at Worcester (Wigeran Ceaster, Wigornia), but its history begins with the foundation of the episcopal see. Being the chief city on the borders of Wales, Worcester was frequently visited by the kings of England. In 1130 it was taken by the Empress Maud and retaken and burnt by Stephen in 1149. It surrendered to Simon de Montfort in 1262. In 1264, during the Great Rebellion, a handful of cavaliers was besieged here, and in spite of an attempted relief by Prince Rupert, the city was pillaged, as it was again in 1646. In 1651 Charles II. with the Scottish army marched into Worcester, where he was welcomed by the citizens. Cromwell took up his position on the Red Hill just outside the city gates. Lambert succeeded in passing the Severn at Upton, and drove back the Royalist troops towards Worcester. Charles, seeking an advantage of this division of the enemy on opposite sides of the river, attacked Cromwell's camp. At first it appeared that Cromwell was outmanoeuvred by Charles, but the latter was pursued by Cromwell's troops in time to drive back Charles's foot, who were not supported by the Scottish horse, and the rout of the King's force was complete.

In the reign of King Alfred, Æthelred and Æthelfrith, caldorman and lady of the Mercians, at the request of the bishop "built a burgh at Worcester" and granted to him half of their rights and privileges there "both in market and street within the borough and without." Richard I. in 1180 granted the town to the burgesses at a fee of £24, and Henry III. in 1227 granted a guild, merchant and exemption from toll, and raised the farm to £50. The first incorporation charter was granted by Philip and Mary in 1554 under the title of bailiffs, aldermen, chamberlains and citizens, but James I. in 1622 made the city a separate county and granted a corporation of a mayor, 6 aldermen, and a common council consisting of one body of 24 citizens, including the mayor and aldermen, and another body of 48, who elected the mayor from among the 24. By the Municipal Reform Act of 1835 the government was again altered. The burgesses returned two members to parliament from 1295 to 1885, when the number was reduced to one. As early as 1203 the men of the town paid 100s. for licence to buy and sell cloth there, and did from the time of Edward II., and in 1590 the weavers, walkers and clothiers received an incorporation charter, but the trade had already begun to decline and by 1789 had ceased to exist. Its place was taken by the manufacture of porcelain, introduced in 1751 by Dr Wall, and by the increasing manufacture of gloves, a trade in which is known to have been carried on in the 15th century.

See Victoria County History, Worcester; John Noake, Worcester in Olden Times (1849); Valentine Green, The History and Antiquities of the City of and County of Worcester (1752).

**WORCESTER**, a city and the county-seat of Worcester county, Massachusetts, U.S.A., about 44 m. W. of Boston on the Blackstone river, a branch of the Providence river. Pop. (1900) 118,421 (57,652 foreign-born); (1905, state census) 128,135; (1910) 145,086. Area, 39 sq. m. Worcester is served by the Boston & Albany, the New York, New Haven & Hartford and the Boston & Maine railways, and is connected with Springfield and Boston by interurban electric lines. The park system of the city comprises about twenty tracts with a total area of more than 1100 acres; among them are Elm Park (88 acres) in the W., including Newton Hill (760 ft. above sea-level), and Green Hill Park (300 acres) in the N.E. Other parks are Institute Park (18 acres) and Boynton Park (113 acres) in the N.W. on Salisbury Pond, given to the city by Stephen Salisbury; Dodge Park (13 acres, N.); Burncoat Park (42 acres, N.E.); Chandler Hill Park (80 acres, E.); Hadwen (50 acres), University (14 acres) and Crompton Park (15-25 acres) in the S.W. and S.; and Greenwood (12-65 acres), Beaver Brook (15-5 acres), Tatnuck (2-94 acres), Kendrick (14-87 acres) and Vernon Hill (16-4 acres). Two miles N.E. of the centre of the city lies lake Quinsigamond, 4 m. long, from which another branch of the river of the same name, a branch of the Blackstone. On its shores is Lake Park (110 acres). Fronting the Common, a wooded square in the centre of the city, is the City Hall, near which is a bronze statue, by D. C. French, of G. F. Hoar. On the Common there is a monument, designed by Randolph Rogers, to the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War, and one to Colonel Timothy Bigelow (1739-1790), one of Worcester's soldiers of the War of Independence. The E. side of the Common was the site of an old burying ground, and the W. side of the First Church, built in 1663. About ¹⁄₄ m. N. of the Common is Lincoln Square, adjacent to which is the granite monument, erected by subscription and presented by General Charles Devens (1820-1891) by French. The old Salisbury mansion, dating back to Colonial days, stands in this square. At Salisbury Street and Park Avenue are the library and museum (1910) of the American Antiquarian Society, established in 1812 by Isaiah Thomas, with a collection of interesting portraits, a library of 60,000 vols. and many thousands of pamphlets, particularly rich in Americana. The Art Museum was erected and endowed (1899-1903) by Stephen Salisbury, and contains a fine collection of casts, many valuable paintings, and the Bancker collection of Japanese art. The city has many fine churches.

Worcester is an important educational centre. Clark University was established here in 1889 by Jonas Gilman Clark as a purely graduate institution. In 1902 Clark College was opened for undergraduate work under the presidency of Carroll D. Wright, with a separate endowment of $1,300,000. In 1910 it had 30 teachers and 177 students. The university in 1910 had 13 instructors, 103 students and a library of 50,000 volumes. Under G. Stanley Hall, who was made president in 1888, the university became well known for its work in child-psychology.

Worcester Polytechnic Institute (founded in 1865 by John Boynton of Templeton, Massachusetts; opened in 1868) is one of the best-equipped technical schools of college rank in the country; in 1910 it had 44 instructors, 515 students and a library of 12,700 vols.; the buildings are near Institute Park.
WORCESTERSHIRE

On Packaacho Hill or Mt. St James (690 ft.) is the Jesuit college of the Holy Cross, with a preparatory school, founded in 1833 by Benedict J. Fenwick, bishop of Boston, and chartered in 1865; in 1910 it had 30 instructors and 450 students. There is a State Normal School (1875), and connected with it is a kindergarten training school (1910).

The city library (175,000 vols.), founded in 1859, was one of the first in the country to be open on Sunday. There are four daily newspapers, one printed in French. From 1775 to 1848 was published here the weekly edition of the Worcester Spy, established by Isaiah Thomas in 1770 in Boston. Worcester was established by him to Worcester at the outbreak of the War of Independence; a daily edition was published from 1845 to 1904. Early in the 16th century the city was an important publishing centre.

Worcester is one of the most important manufacturing centres in New England: in 1905 the value of the factory product was $52,144,695, ranking the city third among the cities of the state. Manufacturers of hardware and tools at an early date laid the foundation for the present steel and other metal industries, in which 42.8% of all the workers were employed in 1905. Several prominent firms are employed in the wire and wire-work industries, one plant, that of the American Steel and Wire Company, employing about 5000 hands; in 1905 the total value of wire-work was $1,726,088, and of foundry and machine shop products $7,527,005.

The first grant of land in this part of the Blackstone Valley was made in 1627, and the town, Quinsigamond (or Quinsigamond) Plantation, was laid out in October 1668. In 1675, on the outbreak of King Philip’s War, it was temporarily abandoned. In 1684 it was settled again and its name was changed to Worcester because several leaders in the settlement were natives of Worcestershire, England. In 1713 the vicinity was opened up to settlement, a tavern and a mill were constructed, and a turnpike road was built to Boston. Worcester was incorporated as a town in 1722. In 1755 a small colony of the exiled Acadians settled here. At the outbreak of the War of Independence Worcester was little more than a country market town. During Shays’s Rebellion it was taken by the rebels and the courts were closed. The first real impetus to its growth came in 1835 with the construction of the Boston & Worcester railway, and it received a city charter in 1848. The strong anti-slavery sentiment of the city led in 1850 to an attempt to introduce the Fugitive Slave Law. In Worcester, or within a radius of a dozen miles of it, were the homes of Elias Hove, inventor of the sewing machine; Eli Whitney, inventor of the cotton gin; Erastus Bigelow (1814-1879), inventor of the carpet weaving machine; Dr Russell H. Hawes, inventor of an envelope machine; Thomas Blanchard (1788-1864), inventor of the machine for turning irregular forms; Samuel Crompton (1753-1827) and Lucius James Knowles (1810-1858), the perfectioners of the modern loom; and Draper Ruggles, Joel Nourse and J. C. Mason, perfectioners of the modern plough and originators of many inventions in agricultural machinery.


WORCESTERSHIRE, a midland county of England, bounded N. by Staffordshire, E. by Warwickshire, S. by Gloucestershire, W. by Herefordshire, and N.W. by Shropshire. The area is 731 sq. m. It covers a portion of the rich valleys of the Severn and Avon, with their tributary valleys and the hills separating them. The Sever runs through the county from N. at Bewdley to S. near Tewkesbury, traversing the Vale of Worcester. Following this direction it receives from E. the Stour at Stourport, the Salwarpe above Worcester, and the Avon, whose point of junction is just outside the county. The Avon valley is known in this county as the Vale of Evesham, and is devoted to orchards and market gardening. The Cotonwold Hills rise sharply from it on the S.E., of which Bredon Hill, within this county, is a conspicuous spur. The Avon forms the county boundary with Gloucestershire for a short distance above its mouth. The Teme joins the Severn from the W. below Worcester, and forms short stretches of the W. boundary. Salmon and lampreys are taken in the Severn; trout and grayling abound in the Teme and its feeders. Besides the Cotswolds, the most important hills are the Malvern and the Lickey or Hagley, and those of Malvern, Worcestershire, and Wyre Forest. The Avon runs over the W. boundary, being partly in Herefordshire, and reach a height of 1395 ft. in the Worcester Beacon, and 1114 in the Hereford Beacon. They are divided by the Teme from a lower N. continuation, the Abberley Hills. The Lickey Hills cross the N.E. corner of the county, rarely exceeding 1000 ft. Their N. part is called the Clent Hills. Partly within the county are the sites of two ancient forests. That of Wyre, bordering the Severn on the W. in the N. of Worcestershire and in Shropshire, retains to some extent its ancient character; but Malvern Chase, which clothed the slopes of the Malvern Hills, is forestless.

Geology.—Achene gneisses and schists (Malvernian) and volcanic rocks (Uriconian) form the core of the Malvern Hills; being the most durable rocks in the district, they form the highest ground. Similarly the Lower Carboniferous limestones and sandstones (green rocks) crop out as roadsides and cliffs near Sutton Common or the Malvern Hills near Brocksone. They are succeeded by the Cambrian rocks (Hollybush Sandstone and Malvern Shales), which are well developed at the S. end of the Malvern Hills, where in places the Arkose rocks have been thrust over them. The Malvernian, probably of the same age as the Hollybush Sandstone, is extensively quarried for roadstone. Strata of Ordovician age being absent in Worcestershire, the Supergroup rocks rest uncomfortably on the earlier formations; they include the Upper Llandovery, Wenlock and Ludlow series. These dip steeply W. from the Malvern and Abberley axis and plunge under the Old Red Sandstone; some of the lower beds are represented at Aynho, while the Malvern beds are represented at Sparrow Clays, near Upton and at Malvern. The Silurian strata are rich in marine fossils, and the included limestones (Woolhope, Wenlock and Aymestry) are all represented in the Malvern district. The Old Red Sandstone succeeds the Silurian on the W. borders of the county. The Carboniferous Limestone and Millstone Grit were not deposited, so that the Coal Measures rest unconformably on the older rocks. These rocks are represented in the Wyre Forest coalfield near Bewdley and in the S. end of the S. Staffordshire coalfield near Halesowen; they contain rich seams of coal and ironstone and several intrusions of basalt (dhusstone, Rowley-rag). The so-called Permian red rocks are now grouped together with the Coal Measures on the Coleshill beds. The Clent Hills (1036 ft.). The Triassic red rocks—unconformable to all below—cover the centre of the county, and on the W. are faulted against the olivine gabbro of the Titterstone Clee hills. The dolomite and pebble-beds, and the Keuper sandstones and marls, the beds of rock-salt in the latter yielding brine-springs (Droitwich, Stowe Prior). A narrow and seldom-exposed outcrop of Rhietic beds separates the two formations, which may extend over one-hundredth part of the S.E. of the county; the Lower Liass consists of blue clays and limestone; the latter are burnt for lime and yield abundant ammunitions. The sand and limestones of the Middle Liass and the clays of the Upper Liass are present in the lower slopes of Bredon Hill and of the Cotteswolds, and are succeeded by the sands and oolitic limestones of the Inferior Oolite. Glacial deposits—boulder-clay, isolated boulders, sand and gravel—are met with in many parts of the county, while later valley-graves have yielded remains of mammoth, rhinoceros, &c. Coal, ironstone, salt, limestone and roadstone are the chief mineral products.

Climatic and Agricultural.—The climate is generally equable and healthy, and is very favourable to the cultivation of fruit, vegetables and hops, for which Worcestershire has long held a high reputation, the red marls and the rich loams being good both for market gardens and vineyards. About a fifth of the area of the county is given over to cultivation, and of this about five-eighths is in permanent pasture. Orchards are extensive, and there are large tracts of woodland. Although wheat and oats are the principal grain crops, a third of the county area is given over to grazing, and potatoes on about one-fourth. There is a considerable acreage under beans. In the neighbourhood of Worcester there are large nurseries.

Topography.—In the N. Worcs. the county includes a portion of the Black Country, one of the most active industrial districts in England. Dudley, Netherton and Brierley Hill, Stourbridge, Halesowen, Oldbury and the S. and W. suburbs of Birmingham, have a vast population, engaged in iron and coal mining, in all kinds of engineering works to nail-making, in the founding and conversion, galvanizing, finishing and extracting of metals, in chemical and glass works. Worcester is famous for porcelain, Kidderminster for carpets and
Worcestershire

Redditch for needles, fish-hooks, &c. Salt is produced from brine at Droitwich and Stoke. The fire-clays and limestone of the N. unite with the coal measures to form a basis of the industries in the Black Country. Furniture, clothing and paper-making and leather-working are also important.

Caruculture.—The Great Western railway serves Evesham, Worcester, Droitwich and Kidderminster, with branches from Worcester to Malvern and into Herefordshire, from Kidderminster to Bewdley, Worcester, and from Droitwich junctions to Alcester and Birmingham. The London & North-Western system touches Dudley. The midland company's line between Derby, Birmingham and Bristol runs from N. to S. through the county, with a branch diverging through Droitwich and Worcester, another serving Malvern from Ashchurch; and an alternative route from Birmingham to Ashchurch by Redditch and Evesham. The Severn is an important highway, though the campagna is broken up by Evesham, Irvine, Bewdley, and by pleasure-boats. Canals follow the courses of the Stour and the Salwarpe, and serve the towns of the Black Country.

Administration and Population.—The area of the ancient county is 480,550 acres, with a population in 1901 of 488,338. The area of the administrative county is 480,050 acres. The county is of very irregular shape, and has detached portions enclaved in Herefordshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Gloucestershire. It comprises five hundreds. The municipal boroughs are Bewdley (2860), Droitwich (4701), Dudley (18,733), Evesham (7161), Kidderminster (24,681) and Worcester (46,624). Dudley and the city and county town of Worcester are county boroughs. The urban districts are Bromsgrove (8418), King's Norton and Northfield (57,122, forming a suburb of Birmingham), Lye and Wollescote (10,976), adjacent to Stourbridge, Malvern (16,449), North Bromsgrove (5688), Oldbury (25,191), Redditch (13,403), Stourbridge (16,302) and Stourport (4529). Halesowen (4057), Pershore (3384), Tenbury (2086) and Upton-upon-Severn (2225) may be mentioned among other towns. The county is in the Oxford circuit, and assizes are held at Worcester. It has one court of quarter-sessions, and is divided into 17 petty sessional divisions. Worcestershire and Dudley have separate quarter-sessions, and all the boroughs have commissions of the peace. The total number of civil parishes is 239. The ancient county, which is mostly in the diocese of Worcester, with a few parishes in that of Hereford, contains 231 ecclesiastical parishes or districts wholly or in part. The county contains five parliamentary divisions—West or Bewdley, East, South or Evesham, Mid or Droitwich, and North or Oldbury. The parliamentary boroughs of Kidderminster and Worcester return one member each, and parts of the boroughs of Dudley and Birmingham are in the county; the English settlers in the district now known as Worcestershire were a tribe of the Hwiccans of Gloucestershire, who spread along the Severn and Avon valleys in the 6th century. By 679 the Hwiccan kingdom was formed into a separate diocese with its see at Worcester, and the Hwiccans had made themselves masters of the modern county, with the exception of the N.W. corner beyond the Abberley Hills. From this date the town of Worcester became not only the religious centre of the district, but the chief point of trading and military communication between England and Wales. A charter of the reign of Alfred alludes to the erection of a "burh" at Worcester by Edward and Æthelred, and it was after the recovery of Mercia by the Danes by Edward that the shire originated as an administrative area. The first political event recorded by the Saxon Chronicles in Worcestershire is the destruction of Worcester by Hardicanute in 1041 in revenge for the murder of two of his tax-gatherers by the citizens.

In no county has the monastic movement played a more important part than in Worcestershire. Foundations existed at Hereford, Evesham, Pershore, Upton-upon-Severn and in the 8th and 9th centuries; at Great Malvern in the 11th century, and in the 12th and 13th centuries at Little Malvern, Westwood, Bredonstone, Whistones, Cookhill, Dudley, Halesowen and Astley. At the time of the Domesday Survey more than half Worcestershire was in the hands of the church. The church of Worcester held the triple hundred of Oswaldslow, with such privileges as to exclude the sheriff's jurisdiction entirely, the profits of all the local courts accruing to the bishop, whose bullion in 1276 claimed to hold his hundred outside Worcester, at Dryhurst, and at Wimborne. The two hundreds owned by the church of Westminister, and that of the Priory of Pershore, have in the 13th century been the subject of much dispute; the hundred of Evesham owned by Evesham Abbey had been converted into Blakenhurst hundred; and the irregular boundaries and outlying portions of these hundreds are explained by their having been formed out of the scattered endowments of their ecclesiastical owners. Of the remaining Domesday hundreds, Came, Clent, Cresselaw and Esch had been combined to form the hundred of Halfhshire by the 13th century, while Doodtongg remained unchanged. The shire-court was held at Worcester.

The vast possessions of the church prevented the growth of a large town within its territory. In the 13th century, however, the town of Evesham was founded by William Fitz Owen, who passed from William Fitz-Ansculf to the families of Paynel and Someri, was the sole residence of a feudal baron. The Domesday bief of Urse d'Abitot, the sheriff, founder of Worcester Castle, and of his brother Robert le Despenser passed in the 12th century to the Beauchamps, who owned Elmley and Hanley Castles. The possessions of William Fitz Osbern in Doodtongg hundred and the Teme valley fell to the crown after his rebellion in 1074 and passed to the Mortimers. Hanley Castle and Malvern Chase were granted by Henry III. to Gilbert de Clare, in whose possession they continued to the 13th century, when they passed to the Crown.

The early political history of Worcestershire centres round the city of Worcester. In the Civil War of the 17th century Worcestershire was conspicuously loyal. On the retreat of Essex from Worcester in 1642 the city was occupied by Sir William Russell for the king, and only surrendered in 1646. In 1642 Prince Rupert defeated the parliamentary troops near Powick. Sudeley Castle surrendered in 1644, and Dudley and Hartlebury by command of the king in 1646.

The Droitwich salt-industry was very important at the time of the Domesday Survey, Bromsgrove alone sending 300 cartloads of wood yearly to the salt-works. In the 13th and 14th centuries Bordesley monastery and the abbey of Evesham exported wool to the Flemish and Flemish markets, and in the 16th century the Worcestershire clothing industry gave employment to 8000 people; fruit-culture with the manufacture of cider and Perry, nail-making and glass-making also flourished at this period. The clothing industry declined in the 17th century, but the silk-manufacture replaced it at Kidderminster and Blockley. Coal and iron were mined at Dudley in the 13th century.

As early as 1255 Worcestershire was represented by sixteen members in parliament, being supported by two knights for the shire and two burgesses each for the city of Worcester and the boroughs of Bromsgrove, Droitwich, Dudley, Evesham, Kidderminster and Pershore. The exception of the boroughs of Worcestershire lasted until 1311 and again recovered representation in 1554, the boroughs ceased to make returns. Evesham was re-enfranchised in 1604, and in 1666 Dudley returned one member. Under the Reform Act of 1867 Worcestershire, as a county, returned four members; the boroughs of Worcestershire, Dudley and Kidderminster were re-enfranchised, returning one member each. In 1897 Evesham lost one member.

Antiquities.—Remains of early camps are scarce, but there are examples at Berrow Hill near the Teme, W. of Worcester, at Round Hill by Spetchley, 3 m. E. of Worcester, and on the Herefordshire Beacon. Roman remains have been discovered on a few sites, as at Kempsey on the Severn, S. of Worcester, at Ripple, in the S. near Upton, and at Droitwich. There are remains of the great abbeys at Evesham and Pershore, and the fine priory church at Malvern, besides the cathedral at Worcester. There are further monastic remains at Halesowen and at Bordesley near Redditch, and there was a Benedicite priory at Astley, 3 m. S.W. of Stourport. There are fine churches in several of the larger towns, as Bromsgrove. The village churches are generally of mixed styles. Good Norman work remains in those at Astley, 8 m. N.W. of Worcester, Astley, Rous Lench in the Evesham district, and Albrighton, in the W. of Malvern, and in the N.W. of the county; while the Early English churches of Kempsey and Ripple are noteworthy. In domestic architecture, the half-timbered style adds to the picturesque quality of many streets in the towns and villages; and among country houses this style is well exemplified in Birts Morton Court and Eastington Hall, in the district S. of Malvern, in Elmley Lovett Manor between Droitwich and Kidderminster, and in Pirton Court near
Kempsey. Westwood Park is a mansion of the 16th and 17th centuries, with a picturesque gateway of brick; the site was formerly occupied by a Benedictine nunnery, Malvern College, between Worcester and Malvern, embodies remains of a fine Elizabethan moated mansion.

See Victoria County History, Worcestershire; T. R. Nash, Collections for the History of Worcestershire (2 vols., London, 1781–1799); Sir Charles Hastings, Illustrations of the Natural History of Worcestershire (London, 1834); W. D. Curzon, Manufacturing Industries of Worcestershire (Birmingham, 1883); W. S. Brassington, Historic Worcestershire (Birmingham, 1893). See also publications of the Worcester Historical Society.

WORDSWORTH, CHARLES (1807–1885), English bishop and man of letters, youngest son of Christopher Wordsworth, Master of Trinity, was born in London on the 30th of October 1807, and was educated at Winchester and Trinity, Cambridge. He, like his brother Charles, was distinguished as an athlete as well as scholar; he was elected fellow and tutor of Trinity in 1830; shortly afterwards he took holy orders. He went for a tour in Greece in 1832–1833, and published various works on its topography and archaeology, the most famous of which is "Wordsworth's Greece" (1839). In 1836 he became Public Orator at Cambridge, and in the same year was appointed headmaster of Harrow, a post he resigned in 1844. He then became a canon of Westminster, and from 1850 to 1870 he held a country living in Berkshire. In 1862 he was made archdeacon of Westminster, and in 1869 bishop of Lincoln. He died on the 29th of March 1885, and was buried at Cambridge, where he had been a fellow and tutor, with a high ideal of ecclesiastical duty, and he spent his money generously on church objects. As a scholar he is best known for his edition of the Greek New Testament (1856–1860), and the Old Testament (1864–1870), with commentaries; but his writings were many in number, and included a volume of devotional verse, The Holy Year (1862), Church History up to A.D. 451 (1881–1883), and Memoirs of his uncle the poet (1851), to whom he was literary executor. His Inscriptions Pompeiana (1837) was an important contribution to epigraphy. He married in 1838 Susanna Hartley Feme (1812–1854) and had a son, John (b. 1843), bishop of Salisbury (1885), and author of Fragments of Early Latin (1874); the eldest daughter, Elizabeth (b. 1840), was the first principal (1879) of Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford.

His Life, by J. H. Overton and Elizabeth Wordsworth, was published in 1888.

WORDSWORTH, DOROTHY (1771–1855), English writer and diarist, was the third child and only daughter of John Wordsworth of Cockerouth and his wife, Anne Cookson-Crackanthorpe. The poet William Wordsworth was her brother, and a year her senior. On the death of her father in 1783, Dorothy found a home at Penrith, in the house of her maternal grandfather, and afterwards for a time with a maiden lady at Halifax. In 1787, on the death of the elder William Cookson, she was adopted by her uncle, and lived in his Norfolk parish of Fornett. She and her brother William, who dedicated to his sister the Evening Walk of 1792, were early drawn to one another, and in 1794 they visited the Lakes together. They determined that it would be best to combine their small capitals, and that Dorothy should keep house for the poet. From this time forth her life ran on lines closely parallel to those of her great brother, whose companion she continued to be till his death. It is thought that they made the acquaintance of Coleridge in 1797.

From the autumn of 1795 to 1797 William and Dorothy Wordsworth took up their abode at Racedown, in Dorsetshire. At the latter date they moved to a large manor-house, Allfoxden, in the N. slope of the Quantock hills, in W. Somerset, S. T. Coleridge about the same time settling near by in the town of Nether Stowey. On the 20th of January 1798 Dorothy Wordsworth began her invaluable manuscript of her life, used by successive biographers of her brother, but first printed in its quasi-entirety by Professor W. Knight in 1807. The Wordsworths, Coleridge, and Chester left England for Germany on the 14th of September 1798; and of this journey also Dorothy Wordsworth preserved an account, portions of which were published in 1807. On the 14th of May 1800 she started another Journal at Grasmere, which she kept very fully until the 31st of December of the same year. She

published, in 4 volumes, a work of Christian Institutes, selected from English divines. He married in 1819 Miss Priscilla Lloyd (d. 1851), a sister of Charles Lamb's friend Charles Lloyd; and he had three sons, John W. (1805–1839), Charles (q.v.), and Christopher (q.v.); the latter two both became bishops, and John, who became a fellow and classical lecturer at Trinity College, Cambridge, was an industrious and erudite scholar.

WORDSWORTH, CHRISTOPHER (1807–1882), English bishop and man of letters, youngest son of Christopher Wordsworth, Master of Trinity, was born in London on the 30th of October 1807, and was educated at Winchester and Trinity, Cambridge. He, like his brother Charles, was distinguished as an athlete as well as scholar; he was elected fellow and tutor of Trinity in 1830; shortly afterwards he took holy orders. He went for a tour in Greece in 1832–1833, and published various works on its topography and archaeology, the most famous of which is "Wordsworth's Greece" (1839). In 1836 he became Public Orator at Cambridge, and in the same year was appointed headmaster of Harrow, a post he resigned in 1844. He then became a canon of Westminster, and from 1850 to 1870 he held a country living in Berkshire. In 1862 he was made archdeacon of Westminster, and in 1869 bishop of Lincoln. He died on the 29th of March 1885, and was buried at Cambridge, where he had been a fellow and tutor, with a high ideal of ecclesiastical duty, and he spent his money generously on church objects. As a scholar he is best known for his edition of the Greek New Testament (1856–1860), and the Old Testament (1864–1870), with commentaries; but his writings were many in number, and included a volume of devotional verse, The Holy Year (1862), Church History up to A.D. 451 (1881–1883), and Memoirs of his uncle the poet (1851), to whom he was literary executor. His Inscriptions Pompeiana (1837) was an important contribution to epigraphy. He married in 1838 Susanna Hartley Feme (1812–1854) and had a son, John (b. 1843), bishop of Salisbury (1885), and author of Fragments of Early Latin (1874); the eldest daughter, Elizabeth (b. 1840), was the first principal (1879) of Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford.

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resumed it on the 1st of January 1802 for another twelve months, closing on the 11th of January 1803. These were printed first in 1889. She composed *Recollections of a Tour in Scotland*, in 1803, with her brother and Coleridge; this was first published in 1854. Her next contribution to the family history was her *Journal of a Mountain Ramble*, in November 1803, an account of a walking tour in the Lake district with her brother. In July 1820 the Wordsworths made a tour on the continent of Europe, of which Dorothy preserved a very careful record, portions of which were given to the world in 1884, the writer having refused to publish it in 1824 on the ground that her "object was not to make a book, but to leave to her niece a neatly- penned memorial of those few interesting months of our lives." Meanwhile, without her brother, but in the company of Joanna Hutchinson, Dorothy Wordsworth had travelled over Scotland in 1822, and had composed a *Journal* of that tour. Other MSS. exist and have been examined carefully by the editors and biographers of the poets, but the records which we have mentioned and her letters form the principal literary relics of Dorothy Wordsworth. In 1829 she was attacked by very serious illness, and was never again in good health. After 1836 she could not be considered to be in possession of her mental faculties, and became a pathetic member of the interesting household at Grasmere. She outlined the poet, however, by several years, dying at Grasmere on the 25th of January 1855.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the importance of Dorothy Wordsworth's companionship to her illustrious brother. He had left numerous indications to the effect that sympathy was the motivating principle of her perceptions. "She," he said, "gave me eyes, she gave me ears; And humble cares, and delicate fears; A heart the fountain of sweet tears; A mind, love, and thought, and joy." The value of the records preserved by Dorothy Wordsworth, especially in earlier years, is hardly to be over-estimated by those who desire to form an exact impression of the revival of English poetry. When Wordsworth and Coleridge refashioned imaginative literature at the close of the 18th century, they were daily and hourly accompanied by a feminine presence exquisitely attuned to sympathize with their efforts, and by an intelligence which was able and anxious to move in step with theirs. "S. T. C. and my beloved sister," William Wordsworth wrote in 1832, "are the two beings to whom my intellect is most indebted." In her pages we can put our finger on the very pulse of the machine; we are present while the New Poetry is evolved, and the sensitive descriptions in her prose lack nothing but the accomplishment of verse. Moreover, it is certain that the sharpness and fineness of Dorothy's observation, "the shooting lights of her wild eyes," actually afforded material to the poets. Coleridge, for instance, when he wrote his famous lines about "The one red leaf, the last of its clan," used almost the very words in which, on the 7th of March 1798, Dorothy Wordsworth had recorded "One only leaf upon the top of a tree . . . danced round and round like a rag blown by the wind."

It is not merely by the biographical value of her notes that Dorothy Wordsworth lives. She claims an independent place in the history of English prose as one of the very earliest writers who noted, in language unadorned by ornament, and with no other object than to preserve their fugitive beauty, the little picturesque phenomena of homely country life. When we speak with very high praise of her art in this direction, it is only fair to add that it is called forth almost entirely by what she wrote between 1798 and 1803, for a decline similar to that which fell upon her brother's poetry early invaded her prose; and her later journals, like her Letters, are less interesting because less inspired. *A Life* by E. Lee was published in 1886; but it is only since 1897, when Professor Knight collected and edited her scattered MSS., that Dorothy Wordsworth has taken her independent place in literary history.

**WORDSORTH, WILLIAM (1770-1850), English poet, was born at Cockermouth, in Cumberland, on the 7th of April 1770. He was the son of John Wordsworth (1741-1783), an attorney, later agent to the first earl of Lonsdale, a prosperous man in his profession, descended from an old Yorkshire family of landed gentry. On the mother's side also Wordsworth was connected with the middle territorial class:**

his mother, Anne Cookson, was the daughter of a well-do mercer in Penrith, but her mother was Dorothy Crackanthorpe, whose ancestors had been lords of the manor of Newbiggin, near Penrith, from the time of Edward III. He thus came of "gentle kin, and was proud of it. The county squires and farmers whose blood flowed in Wordsworth's veins were not far enough above local life to be out of sympathy with it, and the poets of the towns and common folk of the North country hills and dales had a traceable hereditary bias. William Wordsworth was one of a family of five, the others being Richard (1768-1810), Dorothy (q.v.), John (1772-1805), and Christopher (q.v.).

Though his parents were of sturdy stock, both died prematurely, his mother when he was eight years old, his father when he was thirteen. At the age of eight Wordsworth was sent to school at Hawkshead, in the Esthwaite valley in Lancashire. His father died while he was there, and at the age of seventeen he was sent to St John's College, Cambridge. He did not distinguish himself in the studies of the university, and for some time after taking his degree of B.A., in January 1791, he showed what seemed to his relatives a most perverse reluctance to adopt any regular profession. His mother had noted his "stiff, moody and violent temper" in childhood, and it seemed as if this family judgment was to be confirmed in his manhood. After taking his degree, he was pressed to take holy orders, but would not; he had no taste for the law; he idled a few months aimlessly in London, a few months more with a Welsh college friend, and then in June 1792 embarked for Italy. He was in Venice during the last Cambridge vacation; then in the November of 1791 he crossed to France, ostensibly to learn the language, made the acquaintance of revolutionaries, sympathized with them vehemently, and was within an ace of throwing in his lot with the Girondins. When it came to this, his relatives cut off his supplies, and he was obliged to return to London towards the close of 1792. But still he resisted all pressure to enter any of the regular professions, published his poems *An Evening Walk* and *Descriptive Sketches* in 1793, and in 1794, still moving about to all appearance in stubborn aimlessness among his friends and relatives, had no more rational purpose of livelihood than drawing up the prospectus of a periodical of strictly republican principles to be called "The Philanthropist."

But all the time from his boyhood upwards a great purpose had been growing and maturing in his mind. *The Prelude* expounds in lofty impassioned strain how his sensibility for nature was "augmented and sustained," and how it never, except for a brief interval, ceased to be "creative" in the special sense of his subsequent theory. But it is with his feelings towards his poetry and the nature of his achievement that this book mainly deals; it says little regarding the history of his ambition to express those feelings in verse. It is the autobiography, not of the poet of nature, but of the worshipper and priest. The salient incidents in the history of the poet he communicated in prose notes and in familiar discourses. Commenting on the couplet in the *Evening Walk*—

"And, fronting the bright west, you oak entwines Its darkening boughs and leaves in stronger lines—"

he said:

"This is feebly and imperfectly express; but I recollect distinctly the very spot where this first struck me. It was on the way between Hawkshead and Ambleside, and gave me extreme pleasure. The moment was important in my poetical history; for I date from it my consciousness of the infinite variety of natural appearances which had been unnoticed by the poets of any age or country, so far as I was acquainted with them; and I made a resolution to supply in some degree the deficiency. I could not at that time have been above fourteen years of age."

About the same time he wrote, as a school task at Hawkshead, verses that show considerable acquaintance with the poets of his own country at least, as well as some previous practice in the art of verse-making.1 The fragment that stands at the

1. *Memoirs of William Wordsworth*, by Canon Wordsworth, vol. i. pp. 10, 11. According to his own statement in the memoranda dictated to his biographer, it was the success of this exercise that "put it into his head to compose verses from the impulsive of his own
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beginning of his collected works, recording a resolution to end
his life among his native hills, was the conclusion of a long poem
written while he was still at school. And, undistinguished as
he was at Cambridge in the contest for academic honours, the
Evening Walk, his first publication, was written during his
vacations. ¹ He published it in 1793, to show, as he said, that
he could do something, although he had not distinguished himself
in university work. There are touches here and there of the
bent of imagination that became dominant in him soon after-
wards, notably in the moral aspiration that accompanies his
Remembrance of Collins on the Thames:

"Oh glide, fair stream! for ever so
Thy quiet soul on all bestowing,
Till all our minds for ever flow
To thy gay waters, and their swaying."

But in the main this first publication represents the poet in the
stage described in the twelfth book of The Prelude:

"Bent overmuch on superficial things,
Pampering myself with meagre novelties
Of colour and proportion; to the moods
Of time and season, to the moral power,
The affections, and the spirit of the place
Innsensible."

But, though he had not yet found his distinctive aim as a poet,
he was inwardly bent upon poetry as "his office upon earth."

In this determination he was strengthened by his sister
Dorothy (q.v.), who with rare devotion consecrated her life
henceforward to his service. A timely legacy enabled them to
carry their purpose into effect. A friend of his, whom he had
nursed in a last illness, Raisbrooke Colvert, son of the steward of
the duke of Norfolk, who had large estates in Cumberland, died
early in 1795, leaving him a legacy of £500. It may be well to
notice how opportunely, as De Quincey half-ruefully remarked,
money always fell in to Wordsworth, enabling him to pursue
his poetic career without distraction. Colvert's bequest came to
him when he was on the point of concluding an engagement
as a journalist in London. On it and other small resources he
and his sister, thanks to her frugal management, contrived to
live for nearly eight years. By the end of that time Lord
Lonsdale, who owed Wordsworth's father a large sum for pro-
fessional services, and had steadily refused to pay it, died, and
his successor paid the debt with interest. His wife, Mary
Hutchinson, whom he married on the 4th of October 1802, brought
him some fortune; and in 1813, when in spite of his plain living
his family began to press upon his income, he was appointed
stamp-distributor for Westmorland, with an income of £500,
afterwards nearly doubled by the increase of his district. In
1824, when he resigned his stamp-distributorship, Sir Robert
Peel gave him a Civil List pension of £500.

To return to Wordsworth the time when he resolved to labour with all his powers in the office of
poetry. The first two years, during which he lived with his self-
sacrificing sister at Racedown, in Dorset, were spent in half-
hearted and very imperfectly successful experiments, satires
in imitation of Juvenal, the tragedy of The Borderers; ² and a poem
in the Spenserian stanza, now entitled Guilt and Sorrow. How
much longer this time of self-distrustful endeavour might have
continued is a subject for curious speculation; an end was put to
it by a fortunate incident, a visit from Coleridge, who had
read his first publication, and seen in it, what none of the public
critics had discerned, the "prodigious hints of a poetic genius."
"Mind." The resolution to supply the deficiencies of poetry in the
exact description of natural appearances was probably formed while
he was in this state of boyish ecstasy at the accidental revelation of
his own powers. The date of his beginnings as a poet is confirmed by the
lines in The Idiot Boy, written in

"I to the Muses have been bound
These fourteen years by strong indentures."

¹ In The Prelude, between the idyllic and pastoral during his first
vacation as "harassed with the toil of verse, much pains and little
progress."

² Not published till 1842. For the history of this tragedy see
Memoirs, vol. i. pp. 118 to 121; a sound, if severe, criticism of H. A. C.
Swinburne's Miscellanies, p. 118. And yet it was of the blank verse of
The Borderers that Coleridge spoke when he wrote to Cottle that
"he felt a little man by the side of his friend."

Stubborn and independent as Wordsworth was, he needed some
friendly voice from the outer world to give him confidence in
himself. Coleridge rendered him this indispensable service.
He had begun to seek his themes in

"Sorrow, that is not sorrow, but delight;
And miserable love, that is not pain
But clear and pure, and rejoicing sounds
Therefrom to human kind, and what we are."

He read to his visitor one of these experiments, the story of the
ruined cottage, afterwards introduced into the first book of The
Excursion. ³ Coleridge, who had already seen original poetic
genius in the poems published before, was enthusiastic in his praise of them as having "a character, by books not hitherto
reflected."

June 1797 was the date of this memorable visit. So pleasant
was the companionship on both sides that, when Coleridge returned
to Nether Stowey, in Somerset, Wordsworth at his instance
changed his quarters to Axloxden, within a mile and a half of
Coleridge's temporary residence, and the two poets lived in
almost daily intercourse for the next twelve months. During
that period Wordsworth's powers rapidly expanded and matured;
ideas that had been gathering in his mind for years, and lying
there in dim confusion, felt the stir of a new life, and ranged
themselves in clearer shapes under the fresh quickening breath
of Coleridge's swift and discursive dialectic.

The Lyrical Ballads were the poetic fruits of their companions-
ship. Out of their frequent discussions of the relative value of
common English and supernatural incidents as themes in the imaginative
treatment grew the idea of writing a volume together, composed
of poems of the two kinds. Coleridge was to take the super-
natural; and, as his industry was not equal to his friend's, this
kind was represented by the Ancient Mariner alone. Among
Wordsworth's contributions were The Female Vagrant, We are
Seven, Complaint of a Forsaken Indian Woman, The Last
of the Floch, The Idiot Boy, The Mad Mother ("Her eyes are wild ")
The Thorn, Goody Blake and Harry Gill, The Revere of Poor
Susan, Simon Lee, Expostulation and Reply, The Tables Turned,
Lines left upon a Yew-tree Seat, An Old Man Travelling ("Animal
Transquility and Decay "), Lines about Tintern Abbey. The
volume was published by Cottle of Bristol in September 1798.

It is necessary to enumerate the contents of this volume in
fairness to the contemporaries of Wordsworth, for their cold
or scoffing reception of his first distinctive work. Those Words-
worthians who give up The Idiot Boy, ⁴ Goody Blake and The
Thorn as mistaken experiments have no right to triumph over
the first derisive critics of the Lyrical Ballads, or to wonder at
the dulness that failed to see at once in this humble issue from
an obscure provincial press the advent of a great master in
literature. It is true that Tintern Abbey was the least successful
of the volume, and that all the highest qualities of Wordsworth's imagination
and of his verse could be illustrated from the lyrical ballads proper in
this first publication; but clear vision is easier for us than it was when the revelation was fragmentary and
incomplete.

Although Wordsworth was not received at first with the
respect to which he was entitled, his power was not entirely
without recognition. There is a curious commercial evidence of
this, which ought to be noted, because a perversion of the
fact is sometimes used to enthrone the supposed neglect of
Wordsworth at the close of his career. When the Longmans

³ The version read to Coleridge, however, must have been in Spec-
enserian stanza, if Coleridge was right in his recollection that it was in
the same metre with The Female Vagrant, the original title of Guilt
and Sorrow.

⁴ The defect of The Idiot Boy is really rhetorical, rather than poetic.
Wordsworth himself said that "he never wrote anything with so much
glee," and, once the source of his glee is felt in the nobly affectionate
relations between the two half-witted irrational old women and the
glorious imbibe, the work is seen to be executed with a harmony
that should satisfy the most exacting criticism. Poetically, there-
fore, the poem is a success. But rhetorically this particular attempt
to "breath grandeur upon the very humblest face of human life,
must be pronounced a failure, inasmuch as the writer did not
use sufficiently forcible means to disabuse his readers of vulgar
prepossessions."
took over Cottle's publishing business in 1799, the value of the copyright of the Lyrical Ballads, for which Cottle had paid thirty guineas, was assessed at nil. Cottle therefore begged that it might be excluded altogether from the bargain, and presented it to the authors. But in 1800, when the first edition was exhausted, the London publishers Longman, Hurst, Rees, Orme, and Brown made a truth issue of a new edition with an additional volume and an explanatory preface. The sum was small compared with what Scott and Byron soon afterwards received, but it shows that the public neglect was not quite so complete as is sometimes represented. Another edition was called for in 1802, and a fourth in 1805. The new volume in the 1800 edition was made up of poems composed during his residence at Godal in Germany (where he went with Coleridge) in the winter of 1798-1799, and after his settlement at Grasmere in December 1799. It contained a large portion of poems neither that which followed: Ruth, Nattering, Three Years She Grew, A Poet's Epitaph, Hartley's Well, Lucy Gray, The Brothers, Michael, The Old Cumberland Beggar, Poems on the Naming of the Animals. But it contained also the famous Preface, in which he infuriated critics by presuming to defend his eccentricities in an elaborate theory of poetry and poetic diction.

This document (and let it be noted that all Wordsworth's Prefaces are of the utmost interest in historical literary criticism) is constantly referred to as a sort of revolutionary proclamation against the established taste of the 18th century. For one who has read Wordsworth's original, hundreds have read his Preface. Coleridge's fame was made in part by his declaration of the doctrine put forth by Wordsworth is taken from that. It is desirable, therefore, considering the celebrity of the affair, that Wordsworth's own position should be made clear. Coleridge's criticism of his friend's theory proceeded avowedly on the assumption that his words had been rightly interpreted, as purporting that the proper diction for poetry in general consists altogether in a language taken, with due exceptions, from the mouths of men in real life, a language which actually constitutes the natural conversation of men under the influence of natural feelings. Coleridge assumed that Wordsworth spoke of there being "no essential difference between the language of prose and metrical composition," he meant by language not the mere words but the style, the structure and the order of the sentences; on this assumption he argued as if Wordsworth had held that the metrical order should always be the same as the prose order. Given these assumptions, which formed the popular interpretation of the theory by its opponents, it was easy to demonstrate its absurdity, and Coleridge is very generally supposed to have given Wordsworth's theory in its bare and naked extravasation. But the truth is that neither of the two assumptions is warranted; both were expressly disclaimed by Wordsworth in the Preface itself. There is not a single qualification introduced by Coleridge that was not made by Wordsworth himself in the original statement. In the first place, it was not put forward as a theory of poetry in general, though from the vigour with which he carried the war into the enemy's country it was naturally enough for polemic purposes taken as such; it was a statement and defence of the principles on which his own poems of humbler life were composed. Wordsworth also assailed the public taste as "depraved," first and mainly in so far as it was adverse to simple incidents simply treated, being accustomed to "gross and violent stimulants," "craving after extraordinary incident," possessed with a "degrading thirst after outrageous stimulation," "frantic novels, sickly and stupid German tragedies, and deluges of idle and extravagant stories in verse." To represent the valleys and rocks as sighing and smiling in the circumstances would appear feeble and absurd in prose composition, and is not less so in metrical composition; "the occasion does not justify such violent expressions." These are examples of all that Wordsworth meant by saying that "there is no essential difference of the language of prose and metrical composition." So far is Wordsworth from contending that the metrical order should always be the same as the prose order, that part of the Preface is devoted to a subtle analysis of the peculiar effect of metrical language; the familiar and genuine departure from the structure of prose, but the assumption, which seemed to him to underlie the criticisms of his ballads, that a writer of verse is not a poet unless he uses artificially ornamental language, not justified by the strength of the emotion expressed. The furthest that he went in defence of prose structure in poetry was to maintain that, if the words in a verse happened to be in the order of prose, it did not follow that they were prosaic in the sense of being unpoetic—a side-stroke at critics who complained of his prosaisms for no better reason than that the words stood in the order of prose composition. Wordsworth was far from repudiating elevation of style in poetry. "I," he said, "the poet's subject be judiciously chosen, it will naturally, and upon fit occasion, lead him to passions the language of which, if selected truly and judiciously, must necessarily be dignified and variegated, and alive with metaphors and figures."
Such was Wordsworth's theory of poetic diction. Nothing could be more grossly mistaken than the notion that the greater part of Wordsworth's poetry was composed in defiance of his own theory, and that he succeeded best when he set his own theory most at defiance. The misconception is traceable to the authority of Coleridge. His just, sympathetic and penetrating criticism on Wordsworth's work as a poet did immense service in securing for him a wider recognition; but his proved friendship and brilliant style have done sad injustice to the poet as a theorist. It was natural to assume that Coleridge, if anybody, must have been the man to reveal the theory that he was natural also that readers under the charm of his lucid and melodious prose should gladly grant themselves a dispensation from the trouble of verifying his facts in the harsh and cumbrous exposition of the theorist himself.1

The question of diction made most noise, but it was far from being the most important point of poetic doctrine set forth in the Preface. If in this he merely enunciated a truism, generally admitted in words but too generally ignored in practice, there was real novelty in his plea for humble subjects, and in his theory of poetic composition. Wordsworth's remarks on poetry in general and on the construction of the imagination in depicting the humble and commonplace incidents, and on the need of active exercise of imagination in the reader as well as in the poet, are immeasurably more important than his theory of poetic diction. Such sayings as that poetry "takes its origin from emotion recollected in tranquillity," or that it is the business of a poet to trace "how men associate ideas in a state of excitement," are significant of Wordsworth's endeavour to lay the foundations of his art in an independent study of the feelings and faculties of men in real life, unbiased as far as possible by poetic custom and convention. This does not mean that the new poet was to turn his back on his predecessors and never look behind him to what they had done. Wordsworth was guilty of no such extravagance. He was from boyhood upwards a diligent student of poetry, and was not insensible to his obligations to the past. His purpose was only to use real life as a touchstone of poetic substance. The poet, in Wordsworth's conception, is distinctively a man in whom the beneficent energy of imagination, operative as a blind instinct more or less in all men, is stronger than in others, and is voluntarily and rationally exercised for the benefit of all in its proper work of increase and consolation. Not every imagination possesses the power of such a clear and pure life as necessarily poetical. It is the business of the poet to select and modify for his special purpose of producing immediate pleasure.

There were several respects in which the formal recognition of such elementary principles of poetic evolution powerfully affected Wordsworth's practice. One of these may be indicated by saying that he endeavoured always to work out an emotional motive from within. Instead of choosing a striking theme and working at it like a decorative painter, embellishing, enriching, dressing to advantage, standing back from it and studying effects, his plan was to take incidents that had set his own imagination spontaneously to work, and to study and reproduce with artistic judgment the modification of the initial feeling, the emotional motive, within himself. To this method he owed much of his strength and also much of his unpopularity. By keeping his eye on the object, as spontaneously modified by his own imaginative energy, he was able to give full and undistracted scope to all his powers in poetic coinage of the wealth that his imagination brought. On the other hand, readers whose nature or education was different from his own, were repelled or left cold and indifferent, or obliged to make the sympathetic effort to see with his eyes, which he refused to make in order that he might see with theirs.

"He is retired as noontide dew
Or fountain in a noon-day grove,
And you must love him ere you know,
He will seem worthy of your love.

From this habit of taking the processes of his own mind as the standard of the way in which "men associate ideas in a state of excitement," and language familiar to himself as the standard of the language of "real men," arises a superficial anomaly in Wordsworth's poetry, an apparent contradiction between his practice and his theory. His own imagination, judged by ordinary standards, was easily excited by emotional motives that have little force with ordinary men. Most of his poems start from humble, slighter, less generally striking themes than those of any other poet of high rank. But his poetry is not correspondingly imaginative. On the contrary, much of it, much of the best of it—for example, the Ode to Duty, and that on the Intimations of Immortality—is intricate, elaborate and abstruse. The emotional motive is simple; the passion has almost always a simple origin, and often is of no great intensity; but the imaginative structure is generally elaborate, and, when the poet is at his best, supremely splendid and gorgeous. No poet has built such magnificent palaces of rare material for the ordinary everyday homely human affections. It is because he has invested our ordinary everyday principles of conduct, which are so apt to be home truths, with such imperishable robes of finest texture and richest design that Wordsworth holds so high a place among the great moralists in verse.

His practice was influenced also, and not always for good, by his theory that poetry "takes its origin from emotion recollected in tranquillity." This was a somewhat doubtful corollary from his general theory of poetic evolution. A poem is complete in itself; there must be no sting in it to disturb the reader's content with the whole; through whatever agitations it progresses, to whatever elevations it soars, to this end it must come, otherwise it is imperfect as a poem. Now the poet, in Wordsworth, is often the most inanimate of humankind, and has the room of a poet's life. He is, after all, the poet's special art has thus no share in producing the effect, reaches the poetic end when it has so transfigured a disturbing experience, whether of joy or grief, that this rests tranquilly in the memory, can be recalled without disquietude, and dwell upon with some mode and degree of pleasure, more or less keen, more or less pure with pain. True to his idea of imitating real life, Wordsworth made it a rule for himself not to write on any theme till his imagination had operated upon it for some time involuntarily; it was not in his view ripe for poetic treatment till this transforming agency had subdued the original emotion to a state of tranquillity? Out of this tranquillity arises the favourite moment for poetic composition, some day when, as he contemplates the subject, the tranquillity disappears, an emotion kindled to the original emotion is re-instated, and the poet retraces and supplements with all his art the previous involuntary and perhaps unconscious imaginative chemistry.

When we study the moments that Wordsworth found favourable for successful composition, a very curious law reveals itself, somewhat at variance with the common conception of him as a poet who derived all his strength from solitary communion with nature. We find that the recluse's best poems were written under the excitement of some break in the monotony of his quiet life—change of scene, change of companionship, change of occupation. The law holds from the beginning to the end of his poetic career. An immense stimulus was given to his powers by his first contact with Coleridge after two years of solitary and abortive effort. Above Tintern Abbey was composed 1

1 Wordsworth was not an adroit expositor in prose, and he did not make his qualifications sufficiently prominent, but his theory of diction taken with those qualifications left him free from any inconsistency to use any language that was not contrary to "true taste and feeling." He acknowledged that he might occasionally have substituted "particular for general associations," and that thus language charged with poetic feeling to himself attached itself with the reader and ridiculous to others, as in The Idiot Boy and Goody Blake; he even went so far as to withdraw Alice Fell, first published in 1807, from some subsequent editions; but he argued that it was dangerous for a poet to make alterations on the simple authority of a few individuals or even classes of men, because if he did not follow his own judgment and feelings his mind would infallibly be debilitated.

2 The Prelude contains a record of his practice, after the opening lines of the first book; so make alterations on the simple authority of a few individuals or even classes of men, because if he did not follow his own judgment and feelings his mind would infallibly be debilitated.

3 Thus far, O friend! did I not used to make a present joy the matter of a song.

Pour forth," &c.
during a four days' ramble with his sister; he began it on leaving Tintern, and concluded it as he was entering Bristol. His residence amidst strange scenes and "unknown men" at Goslar was particularly fruitful: She Dwelt among the Untriedd Ways, Ruth, Nutting, There was a Boy, Wisdom and Spirit of the West, all was signalled in the poet's mind. The breeze that meets him as he issued from the city gates on his homeward journey brought him the first thought of The Prelude.

At the end of 1790 he was settled at Grasmere, in the Lake District, and seeing much of Coleridge. The second year of his residence at Grasmere was unproductive; he was "hard at work," then on The Excursion; but the excitement of a tour on the Continent in the autumn of 1802, combined perhaps with a happy change in his pecuniary circumstances and the near prospect of marriage, roused him to one of his happiest fits of activity. His first great sonnet, the Lines on Westminster Bridge, was composed on the roof of the Dover coach; the first of the splendid series "dedicated to national independence and liberty," the most generally impressive and universally intelligible of his poems, Fair Star of Evening, Once did She hold the Gorgeou East in Fee, Toussaint; Milton, thou shouldst be Living at this Hour; It is not to be Thought of the Flood, When I have Borne in Memory what has Tamed, were all written in the course of the tour, or in London in the month after his return. A tour in Scotland in the following year, 1803, yielded the Highland Girl and the Shepherdess, also the prid with its companion, The Preudle; and The Affliction of Margaret and the Ode to Duty, his greatest poems in two different veins, were coincident with the exaltation of spirit due to the triumphant and successful prosecution of the long-delayed work. The Character of the Happy Warrior, which he described to Harriet Martineau as "a chain of extremely valuable thoughts," though it did not fulfill "poetic conditions," was the product of a calmer period. The excitement of preparing for publication always had a rousing effect upon him; the preparation for the edition of 1807 resulted in the completion of the ode on the Intimations of Immortality, the sonnets The world is too much with us, Methought I saw the Footsteps of a Throne, Two Voices are there, and Lady, the Songs of Spring were in the Grove, and the Song at the Feast of Brougham Castle. After 1807 there is a marked falling off in the quality, though not in the quantity, of Wordsworth's poetic work. It is significant of the comparatively sober and laborious spirit in which he wrote The Excursion that its progress was accompanied by none of those casual sallies of exulting and exuberant power that mark the period of the happier Prelude. The completion of the Excursion and the conclusion of that part of the life-work which had occupied the summer months of the preceding year was in some respects the completion of the life-work of the poet.

The Excursion is a poem full of opinions of a poet living in retirement." He communicated the design to Coleridge, who gave him enthusiastic encouragement to proceed. But, though he had still before him fifty years of peaceful life amidst his beloved scenery, the work in the projected form at least was destined to remain incomplete. Doubts and misgivings soon that Wordsworth's reputation felt inspiration delayed their coming. To sustain him in his resolution he thought of writing as an introduction, or, as he put it, an antechapel to the church which he proposed to build, a history of his own mind up to the time when he recognized the great mission of his life. One of the many laughs at his expense by unsympathetic critics has been directed against his saying that he wrote this Prelude of fourteen books about himself out of diffidence. But in truth the original motive was distrust of his own powers. He turned aside to prepare the second volume of The Excursion, and completed it in the summer of that year. In 1807 appeared two volumes of collected poems. It was not till 1814 that the second of the three divisions of The Recluse, ultimately named The Excursion, was ready for publication; and he went no further in the execution of his great design.

The derisive fury with which The Excursion was assailed upon its first appearance has long been a stock example of critical blindness, yet the error of the first critics is seen to lie not in their indictment of faults, but in the prominence they gave to the faults and their generally disrespectful tone towards the poet, and ought to be regarded as an instance of the general spirit of the time. It is towards the latter part of his life that Wordsworth wrote his most individual and personal poetry, the poems which form the body of the Excursion. These poems, as he had told Coleridge, were written in the summer of 1802, and published in 1807. There have been many attempts to classify the content of the Excursion; but it is impossible to do so, and it is not intended to do so. The Excursion is a poem which has a meaning and a value for every reader, and it is impossible to sum up in its entirety or even to comprehend the whole of its meaning. It is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again. The Excursion is a poem which is not intended to be read in one sitting, but which should be read over a period of years, and the reader should return to it again and again.
WORKINGTON—WORKSOP

Professor Knight brought out in 1882-1886 an eight-volume edition of the Poetical Works, and in 1889 a Life in three volumes. The Memoirs of the poet were published (1851) by his nephew, Bishop Christopher Wordsworth. The "standard text" of the classic edition of 1872 is "Wordsworth's Poetical Works," edited by Edward Dowden. The one-volume "Oxford" edition (1893), edited by Thomas Hutchinson, contains every piece of verse known to have been published on "Wordsworth's" Prefaces, &c., and a useful chronology and notes. Among critics of Wordsworth especially interesting for various reasons we may mention De Quincey (Works, vols. ii. and iv.), Sir Henry Taylor (A History of English Poetry), Matthew Arnold (preface to Selectors), Swinburne (Miscellaneous), F. W. H. Myers ("Men of Letters" series), Leslie Stephen (Hours in a Library, 3rd series, "Wordsworth's Ethics"), Walter Pater (Appreciations), Walter Raleigh (Wordsworth, 1903). Wordsworth was occasionally in high veneration, and "The White Doe of Ryston" has become the focus of an annual festival at Workington, in 1883.

WORKINGTON, a municipal borough, seaport and market town in the Cockermouth parliamentary division of Cumberland, England, 34 m. S.W. of Carlisle, served by the Cockermouth, Keswick & Penrith, the London & North-Western and the Manchester & Workington Junction railways. Pop. (1901) 26,143. It lies on the S. bank of the Work, a river in the Solway Firth, Irish Sea. The harbour is safe, being protected by a stony beach and by a breakwater. The Lonsdale dock is 4½ acres in extent. The port was made subordinate to that of Maryport in 1892. There are large collieries in the neighbourhood of the town, the workings in some cases extending beneath the sea, and blast-furnaces, engineering works, cycle and motor works, shipbuilding yards and paper mills. The borough is under a mayor, 7 aldermen and 21 councillors. Area, 2,245 acres. Near the town is Workington Hall, a castellated structure retaining some of the ancient rooms, including that in which Mary, queen of Scots, was held captive, and in which John, Lord Nithsdale, who escaped to England after the battle of Langside in May 1568.

WORKS AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS, BOARD OF, an administrative department in England. In 1832 the public works and buildings of Great Britain were for the first time placed under the control of a responsible minister of the crown, and were assigned to the commissioners of woods and forests. In 1851 the department of public works was erected into a board under the name of Office of Works and Public Buildings. The first commissioner of works is the head of the board, and has the power to make all necessary regulations and to appoint buildings not specially assigned to other departments; he is a member of the government and frequently has a seat in the cabinet.

WORKSOP, a market town in the Bassettlaw parliamentary division of Nottinghamshire, England, on the Great Central and the Midland railways, and on the Chesterfield Canal, 135 m. E.S.E. of Sheffield. Pop. of urban district (1901) 16,112. To the S. lies that portion of Sherwood Forest popularly known as the duceries. The church of St Mary and St Cuthbert is an old priory church, once divided internally into two parts, the E. dedicated to St Mary being for the use of the canons, and the W. as a chantry church for the use of the laity. In the Reformation only the W. portion of the church was spared, and for many years it was in a dilapidated condition until it was restored with Perpendicular additions. Behind it are the ruins of the lady chapel, containing some fine Early English work. The priory gatehouse, chiefly in the Decorated style, now forms the entrance to the precincts of the church. It is supposed to have been built early in the 14th century by the 3rd Lord Furnival, when the market was established. Of the priory itself the only remains are a wall at the N.W. corner of the church which includes the cloister gateway. There was formerly a Norman keep on the castle hill. The manor-house, built by John Talbot, 1st earl of Shrewsbury, and occasionally occupied by Mary, queen of Scots, during her captivity under the 6th earl, was in great part destroyed by fire in 1761, and when the estate came into the possession of the duke of Newcastle in 1840 the ruined portion was removed and a smaller mansion built.

For five years after the condemnation of The Excursion Wordsworth published almost nothing that had not been composed before. The chief exception is the Thanksgiving Ode of 1856. In 1815 he published a new edition of his poems, in the arrangement according to faculties and feelings in which they have since stood; and he sought to explain his purposes more completely than before in an essay on "The poetry as a Study." In the same year he was persuaded to publish The White Doe of Ryston, written mainly eight years before. In purely poetic charm The White Doe ought to be ranked among the most perfect of Wordsworth's poems. But Jefferies, who was too busy to enter into a vein of poetry so remote from common romantic sentiment, would have none of The White Doe: he pronounced it "the worst poem ever written," and the public readily endorsed his judgment. Two other poems, with which Wordsworth made another appeal, were not more successful. Peter Bell, written in 1798, was published in 1819; and at the instigation of Charles Lamb it was followed by The Waggoner, written in 1805. Both were mercilessly ridiculed and parodied. These tales from humble life are written in Wordsworth's most unconventional style, and with them emphatically "not to sympathize is not to understand." Meantime, the great design of The Recluse languished. The neglect of the poems Wordsworth himself conceived to be his best and most characteristic work was not encouraging; and there was another reason why the philosophical poem on man, nature, and society did not make progress. Again and again in his poetry Wordsworth celebrates the value of constraint, and the disadvantage of "too much liberty," of "unchartered freedom." The formlessness of the scheme prevented his working at it continuously. Hence his "philosophy" was expressed in casual disconnected sonnets, or in sonnets and other short poems connected by the simplest of all links, sequence in time or place. He stumbled upon three or four such serial ideas in the latter part of his life, and five short poems of considerable length, which may be regarded as fragments of the project which he had not sufficient energy of constructive power to execute. The Sonnets on the River Duddon, written in 1820, follow the river from its source to the sea, and form a partial embodiment of his philosophy of nature. The Ecclesiastical Sonnets, written in 1820-1821, trace the history of the church from the Druids onwards, following one of the great streams of human affairs, and exhibit part of his philosophy of society. A tour on the continent in 1820, a tour in Scotland in 1831, a tour on the French coast in 1832, revived him with other serial forms, serving to connect miscellaneous reflections on man, nature and society; and his views on the punishment of death were strengthened in still another series in 1840.

It was Coleridge's criticism in the Biographia Literaria (1817), together with the enthusiastic and unreserved championship of Wilson in Blackwood's Magazine in a series of articles between 1810 and 1822 (Recreations of Christopher North), that formed the turning-point in Wordsworth's reputation. From 1820 to 1830 De Quincey says it was militant, from 1830 to 1840 triumphant. On the death of Southey in 1843 he was made poet laureate. He bargained with Sir Robert Peel, before accepting, that no official verse should be required of him; and his only official composition, an ode on the installation of the Prince Consort as chancellor of Cambridge university in 1847, is believed to have been really written either by his son-in-law Edward Quilliam or by his nephew Christopher (afterwards bishop of Lincoln). He died at Rydal Mount, after a short illness, on the 23rd of April 1850, and was buried in Grassmere churchyard. His wife survived him till 1859, when she died in her 80th year. They had five children, two of whom had died in 1817; the two surviving sons, John (d. 1875) and William (d. 1883), had families; the other child, a daughter, Dora, Wordsworth's favourite, married Edward Quilliam in 1841 and died in 1847.

1 See the Sonnet, Nuns fret not, &c., The Pass of Kirkstone and the Ode to Duty.
The town hall and free library are the principal public buildings of Worms. Malting is the principal industry. A large corn market and a cattle and horse fair are held. The town also possesses brass and iron foundries, agricultural implement works, saw-mills and chemical works; and there is a considerable trade in Windsor chairs and wood for packing-cases for Sheffield cutlery. There are collieries at Shirrooks, 3 m. W.

WORLD, a word which has developed a wide variety of meanings from its original etymological sense of the "age of man," "course of man's life." In O. Eng. it appears under its true form worlde, being a compound of wer, man (cf. Lat. vir), and ylo, age, from eol, old. Of the various meanings the principal are: (a) world (q.v.), a planet, or a large division of the earth, such as the "old world," (b) world (q.v.), the part of the western hemisphere; the whole of created things upon the earth, particularly its human inhabitants, mankind, the human race, or a great division of mankind united by a common racial origin, language, religion or civilization, &c. A derived meaning is that of social life, society, as distinct from a religious life.

WORM, a term used popularly to denote almost any kind of elongated, apparently limbless creature, from a lizard, like the blindworm, to the grub of an insect or an earthworm. Linnaeus applied the term to the modern zoological divisions Mollusca, Coelentera, Protozoa, Tunicata, Echinodermata, as well as to those forms which more modern zoologists have recognized as worms. As a matter of convenience the term Vermes or Verminus is still employed, for instance in the International Catalogue of Zoological Literature and the Zoological Record, to cover a number of wormlike animals. In systematic zoology, however, the use of a division Verminus has been abandoned, as it is now recognized that many of the animals that even a zoologist would describe as worms belong to different divisions of the animal kingdom. The so-called flatworms (Platyelmia, q.v.), including the Planarians (q.v.) and Flukes (see Trematodes), Cestodes (see Tapeworm) and the curious Mesozoa (q.v.), are no doubt related. The marine Nemertine worms (see Nemertina) are isolated. The thick-skinned round worms, such as the common horse-worm and the threadworms (see Nematoda), together with the Nematomorpha (q.v.), Chaetosomatalia (q.v.), Desmoscolecida (q.v.) and Acanthocephala (q.v.), form a fairly natural group. The Rotifera (q.v.), with probably the Kinorhyncha (q.v.) and Gastrotricha (q.v.), are again isolated. The remaining worms are probably all coelomate animals. There is a curious Annelid group (see Annelida), including the Archianellida, the bristleworms (see Chaetoptera), of which the earthworm (q.v.) is the most familiar type, the Myzostomida (q.v.), Hirudinea (see Leech) and the armed Gephyreans (see Echiuridea). The unarmed Gephyreans (see Gephyrea) are now separated from their former associates and divided into two groups of little affinity, the Sipunculoidae and the Priapuloidae (q.v.). The Phoronida (q.v.) are now associated with Hemichordata (q.v.) in the line of vertebrate ancestry, whilst the Chaetognatha (q.v.) remain in solitary isolation.

Mention is made under Tapeworm of the worms of that species inhabiting the human body as parasites, and it will be convenient here to mention other parasitic varieties. The most common human parasite is the Ascaris lumbricoides or round worm, found chiefly in children and occupying the upper portion of the intestine. They are usually few in number, but occasionally occur in such large numbers that they cause intestinal obstruction. Unlike the tape-worms, no intermediate host is required for the development of this worm. It develops from direct ingestion of the larve. Various symptoms, such as diarrhea, anaemia, intermittent fever, restlessness, irritability and convulsions are attributed to these worms. The treatment is the administration of santonin, followed by a purgative. The threadworm or Oxyurus vermicularis is a common parasite infecting the rectum. The larvae of this worm are indirectly swallowed, and infection is usually due to passing the water, or possibly through lettuces and watercress. The symptoms caused by threadworms are loss of appetite, anaemia and intense itching. The cure is by means of a vermifuge containing quassia, carabolic acid, vinegar or turpentine or even common salt. In addition mild purgatives should be given.

WORMS, a city of Germany, in the grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, situated in a fertile plain called the Wonnegau, at the left bank of the Rhine, 25 m. S. of Mainz, 20 m. N.W. of Hanover, and 27 m. W.S.W. of the capital. Pop. (1895) 28,656; (1905) 43,841, about a third of whom are Catholics. The town is irregularly built, and some of the old walls and towers still remain, but its general aspect is modern. The principal church and chief building is the spacious cathedral of SS. Peter and Paul, which ranks beside those of Spires and Mainz among the noblest Romanesque churches of the Rhine (see Architecture: Romanesque and Gothic in Germany). This magnificent basilica, with four round towers, two large domes, and a choir at each end, has a specially imposing exterior, which is crowned by the imposing central tower of great dignity and simplicity, heightened by the natural colour of the red sandstone of which it is built. Only the ground plan and the lower part of the western towers belong to the original building consecrated in 1110; the remainder was mostly finished by 1181, but the west choir and the vaulting were built in the 13th century, the elaborate south portal was added in the 14th century, and the central dome has been rebuilt. The ornamental decoration of the older part is simple to the verge of rudeness; and even the more elaborate later forms show no high development either in respect to the construction or the ornamental work. The baptistery contains five remarkable stone reliefs of the late 15th century. The cathedral is 378 ft. long and 80 ft. wide, or including the transepts, which are near the west end, 118 ft. (inside measurements). It belongs to the Roman Catholic community, who possess also the church of St Martin and the church of Our Lady (Liebfrauenkirche), a handsome Gothic edifice outside the town, finished in 1467. The principal Protestant place of worship is the Trinity church, built in 1726. Second in interest to the cathedral is the church of St Paul, also in the Romanesque style, and dating from 1102-1116, with a choir of extraordinary beauty. The episcopal palace contains five remarkable stone reliefs of the late 15th century. The palace has been converted into an interesting museum of national antiquities. The late Romanesque church of St Andrew is not used. The old synodical, an unassuming building erected in the 11th century and restored in the 13th, is completely modernized. The Jewish community of Worms (about 1300 in number) claims to be the most ancient in Germany and to have existed continuously since the Christian era, though the earliest authentic mention of it occurs in 568. A curious tradition, illustrating the efforts of the dispersed people to conciliate their oppressors, asserts that the Jews of Worms gave their voice against the crucifixion, but that their messenger did not arrive at Jerusalem until after the event.

The town hall was rebuilt in 1884. The Bischofshof, in which the most famous diet of Worms (1521) was held, is now replaced by a handsome modern residence. The Lugnislund is an old watch-tower of the 13th century. In the Lutherplatz rises the imposing Luther monument (unveiled in 1868), on a platform 48 ft. sq. In the centre the colossal statue of Luther rises, on a pedestal, at the base of which are sitting figures of Peter Waldo, Wycliffe, Hus and Savaryolas, the heralds of the Reformation; at the corners of the platform, on lower pedestals, are statues of Luther's contemporaries, Melanchthon, Rechlin, Philip of Hesse, and Frederick the Wise of Saxony, between which are allegorical figures of Magdeburg (mourning), Spires (protesting) and Augsburg (concurring). The greater part of the work, which took nine years to execute, was designed by Rietschel, and carried out after his death in 1861 by Gustav Klette (1826-1908), Adolf von Donndorf (b. 1835) and Johannes Schilling (b. 1828).

The "Rosengarten" on the opposite bank of the Rhine.
associated with the stories of the wooing of Kriemhild (see infra), has been laid out in keeping with the old traditions and was opened with great festivities in 1906. Extensive burial-grounds, ranging in date from neolithic to Merovingian times, have recently been discovered near the city.

The trade and industry of Worms are important, and not the least resource of the inhabitants is vine-growing, the most famous vintage being known as Liebfraumilch, grown on vineyards near the Liebfrauenkirche. The manufacture of patent leather employs about 5000 hands. Machinery, wool, cloth, chesire, slates, &c., are also produced. Worms possesses a good natural harbour, and carries on a considerable trade by water.

Worms was known in Roman times as Borbetomagus, which in the Merovingian age became Wormatia, afterwards by popular etymology connected with Wurm, a dragon. The name Borbetomagus indicates a Celtic origin for the town, which had, however, before Caesar's time become the capital of a German tribe, the Vangiones. Drusus is said to have erected a fort here in 14 B.C. In 413 the emperor Jovinus permitted the Burgundians under their king Gunar or Gunthar to settle on the left bank of the Rhine between the Lauter and the Nahe. Here they founded a kingdom, which in the 6th century, Adalbrand Arian in 764 joined his kingdom to that of the Romans, and in 912 his kingdom to that of the Huns. The Gunahar or Gundric (the Gunder of the Nibelungenlied) rose in 435 against the Roman governor Aetius, which called in the Huns against them. The destruction of Worms and the Burgundian kingdom by the Huns in 436 was the subject of heroic legends afterwards incorporated in the Nibelungenlied (q.v.) and the Rosengarten (an epic probably of the late 13th century).

In the Nibelungenlied King Gunther and Queen Brunhild hold their court at Worms, and Siegfried comes hither to woo Kriemhild.

Worms was rebuilt by the Merovignians, and became an episcopal see, first mentioned in 614, although a bishop of the Vangiones had attended a council at Cologne as early as 347. There was a royal palace from the 8th century, in which the Frankish kings, including Charlemagne, occasionally resided.

The scene of the graceful though unhistorical romance of Einhard and Emma, the daughter of Charlemagne, is laid here.

Under the German kings the power of the bishops of Worms gradually increased, although they never attained the importance of the other Rhenish bishops. Otto I. granted extensive lands to the cathedral of St. Peter, and religious confects were held in his city. Burchard I. (bishop from 1000 to 1052) destined the castle of the Franconian house at Worms, built the cathedral and laid the foundations of the subsequent territorial power of the see. There were frequent struggles between the bishops and the citizens, who espoused the cause of the emperors against them, and were rewarded by privileges which fostered trade. Henry IV. granted a charter to Worms in 1074, and held a synod there in 1076, by which Pope Gregory VII. was declared deposed. Henry V. acquired Worms in 1121 by the treaty of Würzburg, built a castle and granted privileges to the city, which retained its freedom until 1801, in spite of the bishops, who ruled a small territory south of the city, on both sides of the Rhine, and resided at Landenburg near Mannheim till 1622.

The city of Worms was frequently visited by the imperial court, and won the title of "Mother of Diets." The concordat of Worms closed the investiture controversy in 1122. The "perpetual peace" (eisger Landfriede) was proclaimed by the emperor Maximilian I. at the diet of 1495, and Luther appeared before the famous diet of 1527 to defend his doctrines in the presence of Charles V. Four years later, Worms formally embraced Protestantism, and religious controversy was held there in 1540 and 1557. It suffered severely during the Thirty Years' War. After being sacked in turn by Mansfeld, Tilly and the Spaniards, it was taken by Oxenstierna in 1632, who held a convention here with his German allies. The imperialists again took Worms in 1635, and it admitted the French under Turenne in 1644. The French under Mélac burnt the city almost entirely in 1689, and it has only fully recovered from this blow in recent years. Thus the population, which in its prosperous days is said to have exceeded 50,000, had sunk in 1875 to 6250.

By the treaty of Worms in 1743 an offensive alliance was formed between Great Britain, Austria and Sardinia. The French under Custine took the city by surprise in 1792 and it was annexed by the peace of Lunéville in 1801 to France, together with the bishop's territories on the left bank of the Rhine. The remaining episcopal dominions were secularized in 1863 and given to Hesse-Darmstadt, which acquired the whole by the Vienna Congress in 1815. In 1849 the Baden revolutions seizing Worms, but were overthrown by the Mecklenburgers and Prussians in May of that year.

See Zoyn, Wormser Chronik (Stuttgart, 1857); Fuchs, Geschichte der Stadt Worms (Worms, 1868); F. Soldan, Der Reichstag zu Worms, 1521 (Worms, 1883); Beiträge zur Geschichte der Stadt Worms (Worms, 1896); G. Wolf, Zur Geschichte der Juden in Worms (Breslau, 1862); Nover, Das alte und neue Worms (Worms, 1895).

**WORMWOOD**, the popular name for an aromatic herb known botanically as Artemisia Absinthium, a member of the family Compositae. It grows from 1 ft. to 3 ft. high and is slightly hairy; the leaves are small and much cut, and the flowers are small yellow hemispherical heads among the leaves at the end of the branches. It grows in waste places. It is a tonic and vermisgut, for it is said to have the power of expelling tapeworms, and as such it is known as an herb, but it is also a wormwood, also an aromatic herb, with larger and broader leaves, which are white woolly beneath, and erect woolly heads of reddish-yellow flowers.

**WORSBOROUGH**, an urban district in the Holmfirth parliamentary division of the W. Riding of Yorkshire, England, 3 m. S. of Barnsley, near the Sheffield & Barnsley branch of the Great Central railway, and on a branch of the Derne & Dove canal. Pop. (1901) 16,336. The church of St Mary is an interesting structure with remains of Norman work, but chiefly of Early English date. There are extensive collieries and gunpowder mills near, and in the town iron and steel works and corn mills.

**WORSHIP** (i.e. "worth-ship"), O. Eng. wordscipe), honour, dignity, reverence, respect. The word is used in a special sense of the service, reverence and honour paid, by means of devotional words or acts, to God, to the gods, or to hallowed persons, such as the Virgin Mary or the saints, and hallowed objects, such as holy images or relics. In this sense, however, it must be borne in mind that the Roman Catholic Church distinguishes three kinds of worship: (1) laetia, the worship due to God alone (from Gr. aoriste, service, esp. the service of the gods, worship), and (2) hyperdulia, the worship or adoration due to the Virgin Mary as the Mother of God (from Gr. ὑπερδοσία, above, and δωδεκά, service), and (3) diulia, that due to the saints. (See also ADORATION.)

The public service of God in church is known as "divine worship" or "divine service" (see LITURGY). In the sense of "reverence" or "respect," the verb "to worship" occurs in the English Prayer-book, in the phrase "with my body I thee worship" in the Marriage Service. In this sense the term "worship" is also used as a title of honour in speaking of or addressing other persons of position. Thus a mayor is spoken of as "his worship the mayor," or "the worshipful the mayor." Magistrates are addressed as "your worship."

**WORSLEY, PHILIP STANHOPE** (1835-1866), English poet, son of the Rev. Charles Worsley, was born on the 12th of August 1835, and was educated at Highgate grammar school and Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he won the Newdigate prize in 1857 with a poem on "The Temple of Janus." In 1861 he published a translation of the Odyssey, followed in 1865 by a translation of the first twelve books of the Iliad, in both of which he employed the Spenserian stanza with success. In 1865 appeared a volume of Poems and Translations. Worsley died on the 8th of May 1866. His translation of the Iliad was completed after his death by John Conington.

**WORSLEY**, an urban district in the Eccles parliamentary division of Lancashire, England, 6 m. W.N.W. of Manchester by the London & North-Western railway. Pop. (1901) 12,462. Its growth is a result of the development of the cotton manufacture and of the neighbouring collieries.
WORTH, Charles Frederick (1825-1895), the famous dressmaker, was born at Bourne, Lincolnshire, in 1825. His father, a country solicitor, having lost his money in speculation, Charles was sent to London as an apprentice to Swan & Edgar, drapers. Thence, in 1846, he went to Paris, without capital or friends, and after twelve years, by the strenuous and hard work he began the business as a dressmaker in partnership with a Swede named Doberghi. His originality and skill in design won the patronage of the empress Eugénie, and, through her, of fashionable Paris. After the Franco-German War, during which he turned his house into a military hospital, his partner retired, and Worth continued the business, which employed 1,200 hands, with his two sons John and Gaston—both naturalized Frenchmen. For more than thirty years he set the taste and ordained the fashions of Paris, and extended his sway over all the civilized and much of the uncivilized world. He died on the 29th of March at the age of 70.

WÖRTH, a village of Alsace, on the Saar, 6 m. N. of Hagenaun, which gives its name to the battle of the 6th of August 1870, fought between the Germans under the crown prince of Prussia and the French under Marshal MacMahon. The battle is also called Reichshofen and Fröschweiler.

The events which led up to the engagement, and the general situation on the 6th are dealt with under FRANCO-GERMAN WAR. During the 5th of August the French concentrated in a selected position running nearly N. and S. along the Saar Bach on the left front of the German III. army which was moving S. Thence the battle position is marked from right to left by Marsbronn, the Niederwald, the heights W. of Wörth and the woods N.E. of Fröschweiler. E. of the Saar the German III. army was moving S. towards Hagenaun, when their cavalry found the French position about noon. Thereafter the German vedettes held the French under close observation, while the latter moved about within their lines and as far as the village of Wörth as if in peace quarters, and this notwithstanding the defeat of a portion of the army at Weissenburg on the previous day. The remnant of the force which had been engaged, with many of its wounded still in the ranks, marched in about noon, with so solidly a bearing that, so far from their depressing the morale of the rest, their appearance actually raised it.

About 5 P.M. some horses were watered at the Saar, as in peace, without escort, though hostile scouts were in sight. A sudden swoop of the enemy’s hussars drove the party back to camp. The alarm was sounded, tents were struck and the troops fell in along the line and remained under arms until the confusion died down, when orders were sent to fall out, but not to pitch the tents. The artillery therefore bivouacked, and but for the incident the battle position is marked from right to left by Kirchbach to Spachbach, the cavalry then took up the line to the Bech. Prussians were dug in to the aid of the digging artillery and shells were thrown in.

The Prussian guns, as strict orders had been given to avoid all engagement that day, soon withdrew and were about to return to camp, when renewed artillery fire was heard from the S. and presently also from the N. In the latter direction, the II. Bavarian corps had bivouacked along the Mattstall-Langen-sulzbach road with orders to continue the march if artillery were heard to the S. This order was contrary to the spirit of the III. army orders, and moreover the V. Prussian corps to the S. was in ignorance of its having been given.

The outpost battery near Wörth was heard, and the Bavarians at once moved forward. Soon the leading troops were on the crest of the ridge between the Saar and the Sulzbach, and the divisional commander, anxious to prove his loyalty to his new allies—his enemies in 1866—ordered his troops to attack, giving the spire of Fröschweiler, which was visible over the woods, as the point of direction. The French, however, were quite ready and a furious fusillade broke out, which was multiplied by the echoes of the forest-clad hills out of all proportion to the numbers engaged. The Prussian officers of the V. corps near Dieffenbach, knowing nothing of the orders the Bavarians had received, were surprised; but the Bavarians did not know that their comrades were being retiring, in some cases in great disorder, the corps commander, General von Kirchbach, decided that an effort must at once be made to relieve the Bavarians. His chief of staff had already ordered up the divisional and corps artillery (84 guns in all), and he himself communicated his intention of attacking to the XI. corps (General von Bose) on his left and asked for all available assistance. A report was also despatched to the crown prince at Sulz, 5 m. away.

Meanwhile the XI. corps had become involved in an engagement. The left of the V. corps, opportune to Occupied Gunstett and the bank of the Saar, and the French shortly after daylight on the 6th sent down an unarmed party to fetch water. As this appeared through the mist, the Prussians naturally fired upon it, and the French General Lartigue (to whose division the party belonged), puzzled to account for the firing, brought up some batteries in readiness to repel an attack. These fired a few rounds only, but remained in position as a precaution.

Hearing the firing, the XI. corps’ advanced guard, which had marched up behind in accordance with the general movement of the corps in changing front to the west, and had halted on reaching the Kreuzhecke Wood, promptly came up to Spachbach and Gunstett. In this movement across country to Spachbach some bodies appear to have exposed themselves, for French artillery at Elssachsenhausen suddenly opened fire, and the shrapnel bursting high, sent showers of bullets on to the house roofs of Spachbach, in which village a battalion had just halted. As the falling tiles made the position undesirable, the major in command ordered the march to be resumed, and as he gave the order, his horse ran away with him towards the Sauer. The leading company, seeing the battalion commander gallop, moved off at the double, and the others of course followed.

Coming within sight of the enemy, they drew a heavy shell fire, and, still under the impression that they were intended to attack, deployed into line of columns and doubled down to the river, which they crossed. One or two companies in the neighbourhood had already begun to do so, and the stream being too wide for the mounted officers to jump, presently eight or ten companies were across the river and out of superior control. By this time the French outposts (some 1,500 rifles), lining the edge of the Niederwald, were firing heavily. The line of smoke was naturally followed by all the other Prussian companies, who in confusion joined the French companies with a wild rush reached the edge of the wood.

The same thing had happened at Gunstett. A most obstinate struggle ensued and both sides brought up reinforcements. The Prussians, with all their attention concentrated on the wood in their front, and having as yet no superior commanders, soon exhibited signs of confusion, and thereupon General Lartigue ordered a counter attack towards the heights of Gunstett, when all the Prussians between the Niederwald and the Sauer gave way. The French followed with a rush, and, forcing the Prussians back, seized the Gunstett heights. One of the guns placed on the long line of German guns upon the heights in considerable danger. At this crisis a fresh battalion of the XI. corps arrived by the road from Surburg to Gunstett, and attacked the French on one flank whilst the guns swept the other. The momentum of the charge died cut, and the French drifted backwards after an effort which compelled the admiration of both sides.

In the centre the fight had gone badly for the V. corps. As soon as the 84 guns between Dieffenbach and Spachbach opened fire the French disappeared from sight. There was no longer a target, and, perhaps to compel his adversary to show himself, von Kirchbach ordered four battalions to cross the river. These battalions, however, were widely separated, and coming under fire as soon as they appeared, they attacked in two groups, one from Wörth towards Fröschweiler, the other from near Spachbach towards the Calvary spur, E. of
Elashausen. Both were overpowered by infantry fire. A fraction of the S. party maintained itself all day in the elbow of the Hagenaus chaussée, which formed a starting-point for subsequent attacks. But the rest were driven back in great confusion. Once more the dashing counter-attack of the French was thrown into confusion by the Prussian shell fire, and as the French fell back the Prussian infantry, now reinforced, followed them up (about 1 p.m.). The commander-in-chief of the German III. army (the crown prince Frederick) now appeared on the field and ordered Kirchbach to stand fast until the pressure of the XI. corps and Württemberg division could take effect against the French right wing. The majority of these troops had not yet reached the field. Von Bose, however, seeing the retreat of the troops of the V. corps, had independently determined to renew the attack against the Niederwald with such of his forces as had arrived, and had ordered General von Schkopp's brigade, which was then approaching, to join the troops collecting to the east of Gunstett. Schkopp, however, seeing that his present line of advance led him direct on to the French right about Morsbronn and kept him clear of the confusion to be seen around Gunstett, disregarded the order and continued to advance on Morsbronn. This deliberate acceptance of responsibility really decided the battle, for his brigade quietly deployed as a unit and compelled the French right wing to fall back.

To cover the French retreat Michel's brigade of cavalry was ordered to charge. The order was somewhat vague, and in his position under cover near Eberbach, General Michel had no knowledge of the actual situation. Thus it came about that, without
WORTHING—WOTTON, SIR H.

reconnoitring or manouevring for position, the French cavalry rode straight at the first objective which offered itself, and struck the victorious Prussians as they were crossing the hills between the Albrechtsäuscherhof and Morsbronn. Hence the charge was costly and only partly successful. However, the Prussians were ridden over here and there, and their attention was sufficiently absorbed while the French infantry rallied for a fresh counter-stroke. This was made about 1.30 p.m., with the utmost gallantry, and the Prussians were driven off the hillsides between the Albrechtsäuscherhof and Morsbronn which they had already won. But the counter-attack soon came under the fire of the great artillery mass above Gunstett, and, von Bose having at length concentrated the main body of the XI. corps in the meadows between the Niederwald and the Sauer, the French had to withdraw. Their withdrawal involved the retreat of the troops who had fought all day in defence of the Niederwald.

By 3 p.m. the Prussians masters of the Niederwald and the ground S. of it on which the French right wing had originally stood, but they were in indescribable confusion after the prolonged fighting in the dense undergrowth. Before order could be restored came another fierce counter-stroke. As the Prussians emerged from the N. edge of the wood, the French reserves suddenly came out from behind the Elssasshausen heights, and striking due S. drove the Prussians back. It was a grave crisis, but at this moment von Schoppk, who throughout all this had kept two of his battalions intact, came round the N.W. corner of the wood and brought in his battalions again brought the French to a standstill. Meanwhile von Kirbach, seeing the progress of the XI. corps, had ordered the whole of his command forward to assault the French centre, and away to the right the two Bavarian corps moved against the French left, which still maintained its original position in the woods N.E. of Fröschweiler.

MacMahon, however, was not beaten yet. Ordering Bonniers' cavalry division to charge, by squadrons to gain time, he brought up his reserve artillery, and sent it forward to case-shot range to cover a final counter-stroke by his last intact battalions. But from his position near Fröschweiler he could not see into the hollow between Elssasshausen and the Niederwald. The order was too late, and the artillery unlimbered just as the counter attack on the Niederwald alluded to above gave way before von Schoppk's reserve. The guns were submerged in a flood of fugitives and pursuers. Elssasshausen passed into the hands of the Germans. To rescue the guns the nearest French infantry attacked in succession of groups, charging home the bayonet with the utmost determination. Before each attack the Prussians immediately in front gave way, but those on the flanks of the Niederwald and those remaining under this converging fire each French attempt died out, the Prussians following up their retreat. In this manner, step by step, in confusion which almost defies analysis, the Prussians conquered the whole of the ground to the S. of the Fröschweiler-Wörtl road, but the French still held on in the village of Fröschweiler itself and in the woods to the N. of the road, where throughout the day they had held the two Bavarian corps in check with little difficulty. To break down this last stronghold, the guns of the V. and XI. corps, which had now come forward to the captured ridge of Elssasshausen, took part in the operation. The great crowd of infantry, now flushed with victory but in the dire confusion, defied the example of two horse artillery batteries which galloped boldly forward to case-shot range, delivered one final rush which swept all resistance before it.

The battle was won and cavalry only were needed to reap its consequences, but the Prussian cavalry division had been left behind without orders and did not reach the battlefield till late at night. The divisional cavalry squadrons did their best, but each pursued on its own account, and the results in prisoners and guns tell far short of what opportunity offered. Under cover of darkness the French escaped, and on the following day the cavalry division was quite unable to discover the direction of the retreat.

MacMahon received no support from the neighbouring French troops (see Franco-German War). The battle was won by over-powering weight of numbers. The Prussian general staff were able to direct upon the field no fewer than 75,000 infantry, 6,000 cavalry, 104 guns, of which 71,000 rifles, 4250 sabres and 234 guns came into action, against 27,000 rifles and 500 guns on the French side. The superiority of the French chassepot to the needle guns may reasonably be set against the superior number of the German chassepot to the French. The Germans were generally, thanks to their numbers, able to bring a converging fire on the French, the latter made nearly double the number of hits for about the same weight of ammunition fired, but the French had nothing to oppose to the superior German artillery, and in almost any instance it was the terrible shell fire which broke up the French counter attack. All of these attacks were in the highest degree directed to the French flanks, and many came nearer to imperilling the ultimate success of the Germans than is generally supposed. One other point deserves special attention. As soon as the fighting became general, all order in the skirmisher lines disappeared on both sides. In a few minutes the last of the bravest Prussian artillery for instance, it was the appearance of closed bodies of troops rear of the fighting line which determined the retreat of their opponents. Even in the confused fighting in the Niederwald, the mere sound of the Prussian drums or the French bugles induced the adversary to give way even though drums and bugles frequently appealed to non-existent troops.

The losses of the Germans were 9770 killed and wounded and 1370 missing, or 13%; those of the French were about 8000 killed and wounded, and perhaps 12,000 missing; and prisoners, representing a total loss of about 41%. Some French regiments retained a semblance of discipline; one battalion completely escaped, and one other battalion lost 93%, 1366 bussars 87%, and thirteen regiments in all lost 50% of their strength.


WORTHING, a municipal borough and seaside resort in the Lewes parliamentary division of Sussex, England, 61 m. S. by W. from London by the London, Brighton & South Coast railway. Pop. (1901) 20,015. It has a fine marine parade, and a broad, long range of firm sands. A public park, 21 acres in extent, was opened in 1899; several modern buildings are several modern churches, the town hall (1834), municipal buildings, free library, literary institute, infirmary and convalescent homes. The mother parish of Worthing is Broadwater, the church of which, 1 m. north of Worthing, is a cruciform building, and a fine example of transitional Norman work. A Roman villa, evidence of the existence of pottery works, and a so-called mile-stone, have been discovered at Worthing. The town was incorporated in 1850, and is under a mayor, 8 aldermen, and 55 councilors, and has a rateable value of 1450 acres.

Wotton, Sir Henry (1548-1615), English author and diplomatist, son of Thomas Wotton (1521-1587) and grandson of the diplomatist Nicholas Wotton (q.v.), was born at Boston Hall in the parish of Boston or Boughton Malherbe, Kent. He was educated at Winchester and at New College, Oxford, where he matriculated on the 5th of June 1564. Two years later he removed to Queen's College, graduating B.A. in 1588. At Oxford he was the friend of Albericus Gentilis, then professor of Civil Law, and of John Donne. During his residence at Queen's he wrote a play, Tancred, which has not survived, but his chief interests appear to have been scientific.

In qualifying for his M.A. degree he read three lectures De oculo, and to the end of his life he continued to interest himself in physical experiments. His father, Thomas Wotton, died in 1587, leaving to his son the very inadequate maintenance of a hundred marks a year. About 1589 Wotton went abroad, with a view probably to further his career as a diplomatist, and his travels appear to have lasted for about six years. At Altdorf he met Edward, Lord Zouch, to whom he later addressed a series of letters (1590-1593), which contain much political and other news. These (Reliquiae Wottonianae, London, 1699, 2 vol. 8°) provide a record of the journey. He travelled by way of Vienna 1 His elder half-brother, Edward Wotton (1548-1626), entered the service of Sir Francis Walsingham, and in 1585 was sent on an important errand to James VI. of Scotland. In 1602 he was made comptroller of the royal household, and in 1603 he was created Baron Wotton of Marley. The peerage became extinct on the death of his son Thomas, the 2nd baron (1588-1650).
WOUND

and Venice to Rome, and in 1593 spent some time at Geneva in the house of Isaac Casaubon, to whom he contracted a considera-
table debt. He returned to England in 1594, and in the next year
was admitted to the Middle Temple. While abroad he had
time from time to time provided Robert Devereux, second earl of
Essex, with information, and he now definitely entered his
service as one of his agents or secretaries. It was his duty to
supply intelligence of affairs in Transylvania, Poland, Italy and
Germany. Wotton was not, like his unfortunate fellow-secretary,
Henry Cuffe, who was hanged at Tyburn in 1601, actually in-
volved in Essex's downfall, but he thought prudent to leave
England, and within sixteen hours of his patron's apprehension
he was safe in France, whence he travelled to Venice and Rome.
In 1602 he was resident at Florence, and a plot to murder James
VI. of Scotland having come to the ears of the grand-duke of
Tuscany, Wotton was entrusted with letters to warn him of the
danger, and with Italian antidotes against poison. As "Ottavio
Baldis" he travelled to Scotland by way of Norway. He was well
received by James, and remained three months at the Scottish
court, retaining his Italian cognizance. He then returned to
Florence, but on receiving the news of James's accession hurried
to England. James knighted him, and offered him the embassy
at Madrid or Paris; but Wotton, knowing that both these offices
interested his patron, refused rather to represent James at
Venice. He left London in 1604 on embassies at Venice
head by Sir Gilbert Morton, his half-nephew, as secretary, and
William Bedell, the author of an Irish translation of the Bible, as
chaplain. Wotton spent most of the next twenty years, with two breaks (1612-1616 and
1619-1621), at Venice. He helped the Doge in his resistance
to ecclesiastical aggression, and was closely associated with
Paolo Sarpi, whose history of the Council of Trent was sent to
King James as fast as it was written. Wotton had offended the
scholar Caspar Schoppe, who had been a fellow student at
Altdorf. In 1611 Schoppe wrote a scurrilous book against James,
who was then residing in Venice. Wotton was domiciled in Venice
before which he had incursively written in a friend's album years
before. It was the famous definition of an ambassador as an
"honest man sent to lie abroad for the good of his country."
It should be noticed that the original Latin form of the epigram
did not admit of the double meaning. This was added as an
example of the morals of James and his servants, and brought
Wotton into temporary disgrace. Wotton was at the time on
leave in England, and made two formal defences of himself, one
a personal attack on his accuser addressed to Marcus Welser of
Strassburg, the other a refutation of Wotton's own. Wotton
secure further diplomatic employment for some time, and seems
to have finally won back the royal favour by obsequious support
in parliament of James's claim to impose arbitrary taxes on
merchandise. In 1614 he was sent to the Hague and in 1616 he
returned to Venice. In 1620 he was sent on a special embassy to
Ferdinand II. at Vienna, to do what he could on behalf of James's
daughter Elizabeth, queen of Bohemia. Wotton's devotion to
this princess, expressed in his exquisite verses beginning "You
meant beauties of the night," was sincere and unchanging.
At his departure the emperor presented him with a jewel of great
value, "which Wotton received with due respect, but before
leaving the city he gave it to his hostess, because, he said, he
would accept no gifts from the enemy of the Bohemian queen.
After a third term of service in Venice he returned to London
early in 1624 and in July he was installed as provost of Eton
College. This office did not relieve him from his pecuniary
embarrassments, and he was even on one occasion arrested for
debt, but he received in 1627 a pension of £200, and in 1630 this
was raised to £500 on the understanding that he should write
a history of England. He did not neglect the duties of his pro-
vostship, and was happy in being able to entertain his friends
lavishly. His most constant associates were Izaak Walton and
John Hales. A bend in the Thames below the Playing Fields,
known as "Black Potts," is still pointed out as the spot where
Wotton and Izaak Walton fished in company. He died at the
beginning of December 1639 and was buried in the chapel of
Eton College.

Sir Henry Wotton was not an industrious author, and his
writings are very small in bulk. Of the twenty-five poems
printed in Reliquiae Wottonianae only fifteen are Wotton's.
But of those fifteen two have obtained a place among the best
known poems in the language, the lines already mentioned "On
his Mistress, the Queen of Bohemia," and "The Character of a
Happy Life."

During his lifetime he published only The Elements of Architecture
(1624), which is a paraphrase from Marcus Vitruvius Pollio, and a
Latin prose address to the king on his return from Scotland (1635).
In 1651 appeared the Reliquiae Wottonianae, with Izaak Walton's
Life. An admirable Life and Letters; representing much new
material, by Logan Pearsall Smith, was published in 1907. See also
A. W. Wotton, Sir Henry Wotton, Biographical Sketch (1868).

Wotton, Nicholas (c. 1497-1567), English diplomatist,
was a son of Sir Robert Wotton of Boughton Malherbe, Kent,
and a descendant of Nicholas Wotton, lord mayor of London in
1415 and 1430, and member of parliament for the city from
1406 to 1420. He early became vicar of Boughton Malherbe and
of Sutton Valence, and later of Ickchurch, Kent; but, desiring a
more worldly career, he entered the service of Cuthbert Tunstall,
bishop of London. Having helped to draw up the Institution
of a Christian Man, Wotton in 1539 went to arrange the marriage
between Henry VIII. and Anne of Cleves and the union of
Protestant princes which was to be the complement of this union.
He crossed over to England with the royal bride, but, unlike
Thomas Cromwell, he did not lose the royal favour when the king
repudated Anne, and in 1541, having already refused the bishopric
of Hereford, he became dean of Canterbury and in 1544 dean of
York. In 1543 he went on diplomatic business to the Nether-
lands, and for the next year or two he had much intercourse
with the emperor Charles V. He helped to conclude the treaty of
Arras between England and France in 1546, and was assigned
ambassador in France from 1546 to 1549. Henry VIII. made
Wotton an executor of his will and left him £500, and in 1549,
under Edward VI., he became a secretary of state, but he only
held this post for about a year. In 1550 he was again sent as
envoy to Charles V., and he was ambassador to France during
the reign of Mary, doing valuable work in that capacity. He
left France in 1557, but in 1558 he was again in that country,
helping to arrange the preliminaries of the treaty of Cateau-
Cambresis. In 1560 he signed the treaty of Edinburgh on behalf
of Elizabeth, and he had again visited the Netherlands before
his death in London on the 26th of January 1567.

His brother, Sir Edward Wotton (1480-1551), was made
treasurer of Calais in 1540, and was one of those who took part
in the overthrow of the protector Somerset. His son, Thomas
Wotton (1521-1587) was the father of Sir Henry Wotton (q.v.).

Wotton, William (1666-1727), English scholar, son of
the Rev. Henry Wotton, was born in his father's parish of
Wrentham, Suffolk, on the 13th of August 1666. He was not
yet ten years old when he was sent to Catherine Hall, Cambridge,
having by this time a good knowledge of Latin, Greek and
Hebrew. He obtained a fellowship at St John's College, and
was elected an F.R.S. in 1687. Wotton is chiefly remembered
for his share in the controversy about the respective merits
of ancient and modern learning. In his Reflections upon Ancient
and Modern Learning (1694, and again 1697) he took the part
of the moderns, although in a fair and judicious spirit, and was
attacked by Swift in the Battle of the Books. During some of his
later years Wotton resided in Wales and gave himself to the study
of Celtic, making a translation of the laws of Howel Dda, which
was published after his death (1750). Having taken holy orders,
and a prebend of Salisbury from 1705 until his death at
Buxted, Sussex, on the 12th of February 1727.

Wotton wrote a History of Rome (1701) and Miscellaneous
Discoveries relating to the Traditions and Usages of the Scribes and
Pharsi-

Wound (O. Eng. wund, connected with a Teutonic verb, meaning
to strive, fight, suffer, seen in O. Eng. wynnan, whence Eng. "win"),
a solution in the continuity of the soft parts of the body. Con-
tused wounds, or bruises, are injuries to the cellular tissues in
which the skin is not broken. In parts where the tissues are lax
the signs of swelling and discoloration are more noticeable than
in the tender tissues. The discoloration is caused by haemorrhage into the tissues (ecchymosis), and passes from dark purple through green to yellow before it disappears. If a considerable amount of blood is poured forth into the injured tissues it is termed a haematoma. The treatment of a bruise consists in the application of cold lotion, preferably an evaporating spirit-lotion, to limit the subcutaneous bleeding. The haemorrhage usually becomes absorbed and subsides, and even in haematoma, but should suppuration threaten an incision must be made and the cavity aseptically evacuated.

Open wounds are divided into incised, lacerated, punctured and gunshot wounds. **Incised** wounds are made by any sharp instrument and have their edges evenly cut. In these wounds there is usually freedom of the vessels, and the edges of the wounds are those in which the edges of the wound are torn irregularly. Such injuries occur frequently from accidents with machinery or blunt instruments, and are mostly superficial. The haemorrhage is less than from incised wounds, and the edges may be bruised. **Punctured** wounds are those in which the depth is greater than the external opening. They are generally produced by sharp-pointed instruments. The chief danger arises from puncture of large blood-vessels, or injury to important structures such as occur in the thorax and abdomen. It is also difficult to keep such wounds surgically clean and to obtain apposition of their deeper parts, and septic gums and suppuration are frequent in the infected wounds.

The treatment of incised wounds is to arrest the bleeding (see **Haemorrhage**), cleanse the wound and its surroundings, removing all foreign matter, then dress the wound and keep it clean. The first dressing should be some soothing lotion, such as carbolic acid, or a salve containing astringent. Such lotions should be renewed frequently, the applications being renewed and the dressing changed whenever signs of infection appear. The wound is usually dry by the second dressing, although the first dressing is usually moist from the escape of serum. The dressings should be continued daily for a week. In the dressing of lacerated wounds that may be likely to absorb a foreign body, such as a splinter, it is advisable to remove it with a fine needle or forceps. If a foreign body has entered the wound, it should be thoroughly searched for with a probe or forceps.

**Gunshot wounds** are those which are due to the escape of the contents of a vessel, and the entry of the shot itself. The latter is sometimes accompanied by a splinter or other foreign body. The emanations from the vessel may be absorbed by the skin, or they may be mixed with the blood, and may be turned into nodes in the corresponding part of the body. The admission of a foreign body may produce a wound of the adjacent part, which may also be turned into a node. The wound is usually septic, and the patient is in severe pain. The patient should be kept in bed for a week, and the wound should be kept clean. The dressing should be continued as long as the septic symptoms are present, and until the wound is free from sepsis.

In the dressing of gunshot wounds, the employment of astringent lotions is often necessary, as the wound is often septic. The use of such lotions is therefore advisable, and the dressing should be continued as long as the septic symptoms are present, and until the wound is free from sepsis.
of which settled in Sweden, Russia and Germany. His father, Hermann von Wrangel (1587–1643), was a Swedish field marshal in Gustavus Adolphus's army. Karl Gustaf Wrangel was born on the 23rd of December 1613, and at the age of twenty distinguished himself as a cavalry captain in the war against the Army of the League. Three years later he was colonel, and in 1638 major-general, still serving in Germany. In 1644 he commanded a fleet at sea, which defeated the Danes at Denmarn on the 23rd of October. In 1646 he returned to Germany as a field marshal and succeeded Torstenson as commander-in-chief of the Swedish army in Germany, which post he held during the last three campaigns of the Thirty Years' War. Under Wrangel and Turenne the allied Swedish and French forces harried and fought in Bavaria with Wilhelm V, Duke of Bavaria.

At the outbreak of a fresh Polish war in 1653 Wrangel commanded a fleet, but in 1656 he was serving on land again and commanding, along with the Great Elector of Brandenburg, in the three days' battle of Warsaw. In 1657 he invaded Jutland and in 1658 passed over the ice into the islands and took Kronborg. In 1657 he was appointed admiral and in 1664 general of the realm, and as such he was a member of the regency during the minority of Charles XI. But his last campaign was unfortunate. Commanding, ineffectively owing to his broken health, in the war against Brandenburg at the battle of Styles, he was defeated, and Waldemar, Freiherr von Wrangel (1647–1657), had been defeated at Fehrbellin. He died at Rügen shortly afterwards, on the 3rd of July 1676.

WRASSE, a name given to the fishes of the family Labridae generally, and more especially to certain members of the family. They are very abundant in the tropical zone, less so in the temperate, and disappear altogether in the Arctic and Antarctic Circles. Their body is generally compressed, like that of a carp, covered with smooth scales, often iridescent, and pass along with the Great ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG, in the three days' battle of the war of 1693.

Lips of Labrus festivus.

Of the British wrasses the ballan wrasse (Labrus maculatus) and the striped or red or cook wrasse (Labrus mixtus) are most common. Both belong to the genus Labrus, in which the teeth stand in a single series, and which has a smooth edge of the operculum and only three spines in the anal fin. The ballan wrasse is the larger, attaining to a length of 18 in., and, it is said, to a weight of 8 lb.; its colours are singularly beautiful, green or brown or black, and red and blue lines and spots; the dorsal spines are twenty in number. The cook wrasse offers an instance of well-marked secondary sexual difference—the male being ornamented with blue streaks or a blackish band along the side of the body, whilst the female has two or three large black spots across the back of the tail. This species possesses only from sixteen to eighteen spines in the dorsal fin. The goldfinny or cokwing (Ctenolabrus melops) is much more frequent on the coasts of England and Ireland than the ballan wrasse, and passes sometimes to a length of 10 in. As in other wrasses, its colours are beautiful, but variable; but it may be readily distinguished from the two preceding species by the toothed edge of the preoperculum. The three other British wrasses are much scarcer and more local, viz. Jago's goldfinny (Ctenolabrus jagoii), with a large black spot on the anterior dorsal fin and another on the base of the upper caudal rays; Acantholabrus falcifer, which is so rarely captured that it lacks a vernacular name, but may be easily recognized by its five anal spines and by the teeth in the jaws forming a band; and the rock-cook (Centro-

labrus exoletus), which also has five anal spines, but has the jaws armed with a single series of teeth.

On the Atlantic coasts of the N. states of the United States the wrasses are represented by the genus Tautoga. The only species of this genus, known by the names of tautog or blackfish, is much esteemed as food. It is caught in great numbers, and generally sold of a weight of about 2 lb.

WRAXALL, SIR NATHANIEL WILLIAM (1751–1831), English author, was born in Queen's Square, Bristol, on the 8th of April 1751. He was the son of a Bristol merchant, Nathaniel Wraxall, and his wife Anne, great niece of Sir James Thornhill the painter. He entered the employment of the East India Company in 1769, and served as judge-advocate and paymaster during the expeditions against Guzerat and Baroch in 1771. In the following year he left the service of the company and returned to Europe. He visited Portugal and was presented to the court, of which he gives a curious account in his Historical Memoirs; and in the N. of Europe he made the acquaintance of several Danish nobles who had been exiled for their support of the deposed Queen Caroline Matilda, sister of George III. Wraxall at their suggestion undertook to endeavour to persuade the king to act on her behalf. He was able to secure an interview with her at Zell in September 1774. His exertions are told in his Posthumous Memoirs. As the queen died on the 1st January 1775, it was impossible for him to let her know that he was out of pocket, but George III. took no notice of him for some time. In 1775 he published his first book, Cursory Remarks made in a Tour through some of the Northern Parts of Europe, which reached its fourth edition by 1807, when it was renamed A Tour Round the Baltic. In 1777 he travelled again in Germany and Italy. As he had by this time secured the patronage of important people, he obtained a complimentary lieutenant's commission from the king on the application of Lord Robert Manners, which gave him the right to wear uniform though he never discharged any military service. In 1772 he published his Memoirs of the Court of France; or the Reign of Valéry, to which he appended an account of his tour in the Western, Southern and Interior provinces of France. In 1778 he went again on his travels to Germany and Italy, and accumulated materials for his Memoirs of the Courts of Berlin, Dresden, Warsaw and Vienna (1790). In 1780 he entered parliament and sat till 1794 for Hinton in Wiltshire, Ludgershall and Wallingford, in succession. He published in 1795 the beginning of a History of France from the Accession of Henry III. to the Death of Louis XIV., which was never completed. Little is known of the years 1795–1799. In 1796 he was made a judge-advocate in the army of the Duke of York, and was made Baron Wraxall in 1813. His Historical Memoirs appeared in 1815. Both they and the Posthumous Memoirs (1830) are very readable and have real historical value. Wraxall married Miss Jane Lascelles in 1780, and died suddenly at Dover on the 7th of November 1831. His grandson, Sir F. C. Lascelles Wraxall (1828–1865), was a miscellaneous writer of some note.


WRECK (O. Engl. wrec), from arect, to twist, a band of leaves, flowers or metal, twisted into a circular form, and used either as a chaplet or diadem for the head or as an ornament to be hung upon or round an object. For the ancient usages of crowning victors in the games with wreaths, and the bestowal of them as marks of honour see Crown and Coronet.

WRECK, a term which in its widest sense means anything without an apparent owner that is adrift upon, sunk in, or cast ashore by the sea; in legal phraseology, as appears below, it has a narrower meaning. Old Norman forms of the word, were and werec, are to be found in charters of 1181 and later date; and the modern term is still in use in Normandy. In Archaic it becomes werecum, wreckum or warecum; and such phrases as maris ejectum, factura maris, adventura maris, shipbychre, are all used as descriptions of wreck. In Anglo-Saxon charters was-Æagpwr, and in the charters of the Cinque Ports inventiones, a translation of "findalls," probably a local word, are synonymous with wreck. Formerly an appreciable source of revenue to the crown, afterwards a valuable addition to the income of a landowner.
on the coast, wreck has almost within modern times ceased to be a perquisite of either, or to enrich the casual finder at the expense of its rightful owner. The history of the law as sketched below will indicate how this has come about.

Wreck was a general rule in the civilized maritime countries of Europe that the right to wreck belonged to the sovereign, and formed part of the royal revenue. This was so under the Roman, French and feudal law; and in England, according to Cooley (17 Edw. I., 1324), provided that the king had wreck of the sea, whales and sturgeons taken in the sea and elsewhere within the kingdom, except goods of the crown, and in other wrecks of the sea, vessels, or other vessels, the king's subjects, which were taken at a year or a year and a day alike by a decree of Antonine the Great, the feudal law, the general maritime law, the law of France and English law Richard I. released his prerogative right to wreck to the extent of allowing children, or if there were none, brothers and sisters of a perishing owner, to have his goods; and Henry III., by a charter of 1236, allowed the owner of wrecked goods to have his property again if he claimed within the year. This law, as is said had for its object the prevention of the practice of destroying the property of the shipwrecked, was, however, gradually relaxed; and the owner of wreck was allowed to recover it if he made claim to it within a year or a year and a day. This the court did, for instance, in a certain case where a wreck was lost at a year or a year and a day alike by a decree of Antonine the Great. In Scotland, it seems that the same law had been laid down in 1275, and there are indications that upon the instructions of a court, the owners of wreck, or what is termed the old law, the crown, or the vice-admirals, were allowed to take what they pleased from the wreck. Thus as early as 1269 a treaty with Norway provides that owners of ships wrecked upon the coasts of Scotland, and which were taken as wreck, might have the ship and cargo recovered according to the law of the place. The system under which the lord-admiral and the vice-admirals of counties had for more than three centuries taken charge of wreck never worked well. Their interest was directly opposed to the preservation of the wreck; for they, like the crown, were allowed to take what they pleased from the wreck, except the owners and crews of ships in distress, that nothing should land alive. Apart from this, the system discouraged legitimate salvors. The admirals and vice-admirals had by degrees assumed that all salvage operations were exclusively their business; they took possession of wreck brought or cast ashore, whether it was legal wreck or not, and this often gave rise to conflicts with outside working salvers. It was not until the 17th century that the salvors established the right, which they now have, to a lien upon property saved as a security for adequate remuneration of their exertions in saving it; and if the vice-admirals restored to its owner a wreck that they had destroyed, there was no price given to the salvors, and they were left to their own resources for the payment of extravagant demands for salvage, storage and often legal expenses. A curious side light is thrown upon their practices by the evidence of another statute; the English admiralty that by the law of England no "salvage" was payable to the crown or to the admiralty of England in the like case of a Prussian ship going ashore upon an English coast. The records of the admiralty court show that Frederick's action in this case was intended as a protest, not against the payment of a fair reward to salvors of Prussian ships, but against exactions by English vice-admirals. Stories of willful wrecking of ships and cargoes, or even more evil deeds are probably exaggerations, but modern research has authenticated sufficient abuses to show that further legislation was necessary to regulate the taking of wreck and the payment of salvage. The result of this act of 1816 was the only substantial protection against plunder which owners of a wrecked ship could get was to apply to the admiralty judge for a commission enabling them or their agent to take charge of what came ashore; but to obtain such a commission took time and cost money, and before the commissioners arrived at the scene of the wreck a valuable cargo would have disappeared and the value of the wreck would have decreased. Stories of the wrecks of the Cinque Ports were proceeded with under the jurisdiction for £1000 in addition to an annuity of £500 for the warden's life. At the close of the 17th century the vice-admirals were required to make affidavits as to the amount of their gains; in 1675 one of them swore that his office was worth less than £50 in the year.

The right of the warden of the Cinque Ports to wreck, above alluded to, was derived from charters granted to the ports by Edward I. and his successors; many of these safeguards in a similar right under early charters. It would seem that these rights were of some value, for in 1289 the little towns of Dunwich and Southwold litigated at a cost of £3000 the question whether a tub of whisky picked up at sea belonged to the admiralty jurisdiction of the one town or the other; and the town of Yarmouth is said to have spent no less than £2000 upon a similar question. It was partly in order to put an end to the frequent disputes with the admiralty that the Corporation Act of 1835 was passed, abolishing all of them, except that of the Cinque Ports.

Grants of wreck individuals are earlier than those to towns. Even before the conquest it seems to have been unusual for grants from the crown of lands adjoining the sea to get the franchise of wreck included in their grants. A charter purporting to be of the year 1062 contains a grant by King Canute to the Dean and Chapter of Canterbury of wreck found at sea below low-water mark as far as a
man could by wading touch it with a sprit (Kemble, Cod. Dipl., No. 729). There is reason to think that before the end of the reign of Henry II. the crown had granted away its right to wreck round a great part of the coast of England. Although a landowner of the present day may claim a grant of wreck on a given coast, the respect of wreck itself, derive no substantial benefit, nevertheless the grant may be of great value as evidence of his right to the shore; and even where no grant of wreck can be produced, if he can show that the ground has been in the possession of wreck on the foreshore, it is strong evidence as against the crown of his right to the foreshore, and a lost grant may be presumed.

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unless there is a public road equally convenient, pass and repass with the same facility, so far as the carriage of live cattle, "the owner's or occupier's consent, doing as little damage as possible, and may also deposit there any things recovered from the ship; any damage so done is a charge on the ship, cargo or articles, and is recoverable by the shipowner or occupier of the wreck or 2nd party (as the case may be), as damages for trespass and for care or forbearance of the owner or occupier hindering the operations. The receiver has power to suppress any plundering or disorder, or any hindering of the preservation of the ship or cargo. Where a wrecked or in distress as above, is plundered, damaged or destroyed, by any riotous or tumultuous assembly ashore or afloat, compensation must be made to her owner in England and Scotland by the sum of 20l. per day; and in Canada, by the sum of 20l. per day. If he abandons her to any other person—e.g., an undertaker—who pays for her as for a total loss, that person does not become liable for her unless he takes possession or control in any way. Harbour authorities generally have by local statute, as they have by the general Harbours, Docks and Piers Clauses Act 1847 (if incorporated by a harbour authority), power to remove her from the port, and recouping themselves for their expenses from its proceeds. The general act also gives a personal right of action against the owner for any balance of expense over the value of the wreck; but if the vessel is worth less than 20l. she may be sold as a wreck, and any one else is liable. A particular or local act (as e.g., one of the State of Victoria) may, however, fasten this liability on the person who removes the wreck, in which case he is under an obligation to do so. Further statutory provision is now made in this respect by the Merchant Shipping Act, which empowers harbour authorities to raise, remove or destroy (and meantime buoy up at cost), any ship, which they consider may become a danger or menace to the safety of vessels or persons, or to the port or coast. No vessel must be removed if it is of interest as a salver, and in Ireland in cases of malicious injury to property. In the absence of the receiver, his powers may be exercised by the following officers or persons in successive order, viz., a chief officer or officer in charge of the port, or a knight or esquire knight of court, or a justice of the peace, or a sheriff, justice of the peace, or a naval officer on full pay. These persons act as the receiver's agent and put the salvage in his hands. The receiver has the right to any salvage, if there is any right to salvage by so doing. An examination is also directed to be held, in cases of ships in distress on the coasts of the kingdom, by a wreck receiver, wreck receiver-depositor and his deputy, at the request of the Board of Trade or a justice of the peace, by evidence on oath as to the name and description of ship, name of master, shipowner and owner of cargo, ports to and from which the ship was bound, the currency of the distress, time and place of the distress, and like facts. The act provides as follows for dealing with a wreck: As one fishing wreck, if he is the owner of it, must give notice of his having done so to the receiver of the district, and if he is not the owner he must deliver it, as soon as possible, to the person entitled for the purpose (as, e.g., if, as a salvor, he retains it with the knowledge of the receiver. No articles belonging to a wrecked ship found at the time of the casualty must be taken or kept by any person, whether their owner or not, until the salvor is paid for his services. If a person taking possession of any wreck must give notice of it, with a description, to the nearest customs-house; and if the wreck is in his opinion worth more than 20l. it is to be conveyed to Lloyd's. The owner of any wreck in the hands of a receiver must establish his claim to it within a year, and on so doing, and paying all expenses, is entitled to have it restored to him. Where a foreign ship has been wrecked on or near the coast, and any articles forming part of her cargo are found on or near the coast, or are brought into any port, the consular officer of the foreign country to which the ship or cargo belongs is deemed to be the agent for the owner so far as the custody and disposal of the articles is concerned, and any person may in like case, as a salver, small the wreck and hold the proceeds till claimed. The right to unclaimed wreck belongs to the crown, except in places where the crown has granted that right to others. Persons so entitled, such as admirals—vicars—vicars—vicars are mentioned in the act (sed quaerat)—lords of manors and the like, are entitled, after giving the receiver notice and particulars of their title, to receive notice from the receiver of the sums due for the wrecks. Where the wreck is in the hands of a receiver within a year after it was found, and has been in the hands of a receiver, it can be claimed by the person entitled to the wreck in the place where the wreck is, and so held by the receiver, and if the salvage is connected with it; if no such person claims it, it is sold by the receiver, and the net proceeds are applied for the benefit of the crown, either for the Duchy of Lancaster or the Duchy of Cornwall; or for the benefit of the crown, it goes, in the event. If unclaimed wreck is disputed, the dispute may be settled summarily as in cases of salvage; either party, if dissatisfied, may within three months after a year since the wreck came into the hands of the receiver proceed in any competent court to establish his title. Delivery of unclaimed wreck by the receiver discharges him from liability, but does not prejudice the title thereto. The Board of Trade has power to purchase rights of wreck. Any person exercising Admiralty jurisdiction as grantee of wreck may interfere with wreck otherwise than in accordance with the act. Duties are payable on wrecked goods coming into the United Kingdom or Isle of Man as if they were goods of British growth or manufacture, or, if wrecked on their outward voyage may be forwarded to their original destination, or, if wrecked on their outward voyage, to their port of shipment, on due security being taken for the protection of the revenue. Wreck commissioners may be appointed by the lord chancellor to hold investigations into shipping casualties, to act as judges of courts of survey, and to take examinations in respect of ships in distress.

Under the Merchant Shipping Act, it is a felony to take wreck found in territorial limits to a foreign port, and it is punishable by fine to interfere with a wreck. The receiver has power, by means of a search warrant from a justice, to search for wreck which he has reason to believe is concealed. By the general criminal law in Scotland plundering wreck is punishable at common law; and in England and Ireland it is a felony and may be a felony on a quittance after the time of the act of 1847, or acts or part thereof, to prevent or impede any person board a wreck from saving himself, and to exhibit any false signal with the intent of endangering any ship, or to do any thing tending to the immediate destruction of a ship for which no other punishment is provided.

Authorities.—Du Cange, Glossarium, tit. "Wreckum"; Chief Justices Hale, D. juris maris, Hargrave, Tracts (London, 1787); Palmer, Law of Wreck, Law Tracts (London, 1845); Marsden, Select Pleas of Admiralty, Selden Society (London, 1862 and 1897); Records of the Admiralty and of the High Court of Admiralty; Public Records Office (London); Victoria County History, Cornwall, and other seabornd counties; Maritime History, by M. Oppenheim (1906, 66); Board of Trade Instructions as to Wreck and Salvage (London).

WREDE, KARL PHILIPP, Prince von (1767-1838), Bavarian field-marshal, was born at Heidelberg on the 20th of April 1767, and educated for the career of a civil official under the Palatinate government, but on the outbreak of the campaign of 1790 he raised a volunteer corps in the Palatinate and was made its colonel. This corps excited the mirth of the well-drilled Austrians with whom it served, but its colonel soon brought it into a good condition, and it distinguished itself during Kray's retreat on Ulm. At Hohenlinden Wrede commanded one of the Palatinate infantry brigades with credit, and distinguished himself twice in the Bavarian army, which was entering upon a period of reforms. Wrede soon made himself very popular, and distinguished himself in opposing the Austrian invasion of 1805. The Bavarians were for several years the active allies of Napoleon, and Wrede was
engaged in the campaign against Prussia, winning especial distinction at Parnawa. But the continuous attitude of the French towards the Bavarian troops, and accusations of loot ing against himself, exasperated the general's fiery temper, and both in 1807 and in 1809 even outward harmony was only maintained by the tact of the king of Bavaria. In the latter year, under Lefebvre, Wrede conducted the rearguard operations on the Isar and the Alten, commanded the Bavarians in the bitter Tirolean war, was wounded in the decisive attack at Wagram, and returned to Tirol in November to complete the subjection of the mountaineers. Napoleon made him a count of the Empire in this year. But after a visit to France, recognizing that Napo lessons from France, recognizing that Napoleon's army was too weak, he returned to France, recognizing that Napoleon's army was too weak, he returned to Bavaria, and in 1660 elected Savilian professor of scholarship, and in 1665 became the opponent of Montalgon, whom he succeeded in power in 1671, and in 1675 he was made head of the council of regency during the king's absence. He died on the 12th of December 1675.

See lives by Riedel (1844) and Heilmann (1881).

WREN, SIR CHRISTOPHER (1632–1723), English architect, the son of a clergyman, was born at East Knoyle, Wiltshire, on the 20th of October 1632; he entered at Wadham College, Oxford, in 1646, took his degree in 1650, and in 1653 was made a fellow of All Souls. While at Oxford Wren distinguished himself in geometry and applied mathematics, and Newton, in his Principia, p. 19 (ed. of 1713), speaks very highly of his work as a mathematician. In 1657 he became professor of astronomy at Oxford; but in the same year, and in 1660 was elected Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford. It is, however, as an architect that Wren is best known, and the great fire of London, by its destruction of the cathedral and nearly all the city churches, gave Wren a unique opportunity. Just before the fire Wren was asked by Charles II. to prepare a scheme for the restoration of the old St Paul's. In May 1666 Wren submitted his report and designs (in the All Souls collection), for this work; the old cathedral was in a very ruined state, and Wren proposed to remodel the greater part, as he said, "after a good Roman manner," and not, "to follow the Gothic Rudeness of the old Design." According to this scheme only the old choir was left; the nave and transepts were to be rebuilt after the classical style, with a lofty dome at the crossing—not unlike the plan eventually carried out. In September of the same year (1666) the fire occurred, and the old St Paul's was completely gutted. From 1668 to 1670 attempts were being made by the chapter to restore the ruined building; but Dean Sancroft was anxious to have it wholly rebuilt, and in 1668 he had asked Wren to prepare a design for a wholly new church. This first design, the model for which is preserved (in Ashmolean museum), is the only one that Wren ever left; and what Wren afterwards devised. In plan it is an immense rotunda surrounded by a wide aisle, and approached by a double portico; the rotunda is covered with a dome taken from that of the Pantheon in Rome; on this a second dome stands, set on a lofty drum, and this second dome is crowned by a tall spire. But the dean and chapter objected to the absence of a structural choir, nave and aisles, and wished to follow the medieval cathedral arrangement. Thus, in spite of its having been approved by the king, this design was happily abandoned—much to Wren's disgust; and he prepared another scheme with a similar treatment of a dome crowned by a spire, which in 1675 was ordered to be carried out. Wren apparently did not himself approve of this second design, for he got the king to give him permission to alter it as much as he liked, without showing models or drawings to any one, and the actual building bears little resemblance to the approved design, to which it is very superior in almost every possible point. Wren's earlier designs have the exterior of the church arranged with one order of columns; the division of the whole height into two orders was an immense gain in increased the apparent scale of the whole, and the external line of St Peter's is very superior to that of St Peter's in Rome, which is utterly dwarfed by the colossal size of the columns and pilasters of its single order. The present dome and the drum on which it stands, masterpieces of graceful line and harmonious proportion, were very important alterations from the earlier scheme. As a scientific engineer and practical architect Wren was perhaps more remarkable than as an artistic designer. The construction of the wooden external dome, and the support of the stone lantern by an inner cone of brickwork, quite independent of either the external or internal dome, are wonderful indications of his judgment. The external line of the new St Paul's was laid on the 21st of June 1675; the choir was opened for use on the 2nd of December 1677; and the last stone of the cathedral was set in 1710.

Wren also designed a colonnade to enclose a large piazza forming a clear space round the church, somewhat after the fashion of Bernini's colonnade in front of St Peter's, but space in the city was too valuable to admit of this. Wren was an enthusiastic admirer of Bernini's designs, and visited Paris in 1665 in order to see him and his proposed scheme for the rebuilding of the Louvre. Bernini showed his designs to Wren, but would not let him copy it, though, as he said, he "would have given his skin" to be allowed to do so.

After the destruction of the city of London Wren was employed to make designs for rebuilding its burnt churches, and he also prepared a scheme for laying out the whole city on a new plan, with a series of wide streets radiating from a central space. Difficulties arising from the various ownerships of the ground prevented the accomplishment of this scheme.

Among Wren's city churches the most noteworthy are St Michael's, Cornhill; St Bride's, Fleet Street, and St Mary-le-Bow, Cheapside, the latter remarkable for its graceful spire; and St Stephen's, Walbrook, with a plain exterior, but very elaborate and graceful interior. In the design of spires Wren showed much taste and wonderful power of invention. He was also very judicious in the way in which he expended the limited money at his command; he did not flatter it away in an attempt to make the whole of a building remarkable, but devoted it chiefly to one part or feature, such as a spire or a rich scheme of internal decoration. Thus he was in some cases, as in that of St James's, Piccadilly, content to make the exterior of an almost barnlike plainness.

The other buildings designed by Wren were very numerous. Only a few of the principal ones can be mentioned:—the Custom House, the Royal Exchange, Marlborough House, Buckingham House, and the Hall of the College of Physicians—now destroyed; others which exist are—at Oxford, the Sheldonian theatre, the Ashmolean museum, the Tom Tower of Christ Church, and Queen's College chapel; at Cambridge, the library of Trinity College and the chapel of Pembroke, the latter at the cost of Bishop Matthew Wren, his uncle. The western towers of Westminister Abbey are usually attributed to Wren, but they were in fact designed by Sir Christopher Wren, the elder, and were carried out till 1735–1745, many years after Wren's death, and there is no reason to think that his design was used. Wren (D.C.L. from 1666) was knighted in 1673, and was elected president for many years of the Royal Society in 1661. He was in parliament for many years, representing Plymouth from 1685, Windsor from 1689, and Weymouth from 1700. He occupied the post of surveyor of the royal works for fifty years, but by a shameful calumet was dismissed from this office a few years before his death.
WREN—WRESTLING

WRESTLING (O. Eng. wreselting), a sport in which two persons strive to throw each other to the ground. It is one of the most primitive and universal of sports. Upon the walls of the temple-loboms of Beni Hasan, near the Nile, are sculptured many hundred scenes from wrestling matches, depicting practically all the holds and falls known at the present day, thus proving that wrestling was a highly developed sport at least 3000 years before the Christian era. As the description of the bout between Odysses and Ajax in the 23rd book of the Iliad, and the evolutions of the classic Greek wrestlers, tally with the sculptures of Beni Hasan and Nineveh, the sport may have been introduced into Greece from Egypt or Asia. In Homer’s celebrated description of the match between Ajax and Odyssus the two champions were, not only each a great wrestler, but also two of the greatest Greek champions. Neither Homer nor Eustathius, who also minutely depicted the battle between Ajax and Odyssus, mentions the use of oil, which, however, was invariable at the Olympic games, where wrestling was introduced during the 18th Olympiad. The Greek wrestlers were, after the application of the oil, rubbed with fine sand, to afford a better hold.

Wrestling was a very important branch of athletics in the Greek games, since it formed the chief event of the pentathlon, or quintuple games (see Games, Classical). All holds were allowed, even strangling, but not kicking. The general classification was used especially in the panathen, a combination of wrestling and boxing. Wrestlers were taught to be graceful in all their movements, in accordance with the Greek ideas of aesthetics. There were two varieties of Greek wrestling, the ἀνάρι βοτρι, or upright wrestling, which was that generally practised, and the ἀνάρινες (κλιπαί, λεκτα νολατολαίρα) or squirming contest after the contestants had fallen, which continued until one acknowledged defeat. It was this variety that was employed in the panathen. The upright wrestling was very similar to the modern catch-as-catch-can style. In this three falls out of five decided a match. A variation of this style was that in which one of the contestants stood within a small ring and resisted the efforts of his adversary to pull him out of it. Other local varieties existed in the different provinces. The most celebrated wrestler of ancient times was Milo of Crotona (c. 520 B.C.), who scored thirty-two victories in the different national games, six of them at Olympia. Greek athletic sports were introduced into Rome in the last quarter of the 2nd century B.C., but it never attained to the popularity that it enjoyed in Greece.

The Teutonic peoples wrestling, at least as a method of fighting, was of course always known; how popular it had become as a sport during the middle ages is proved by the voluminous literature which appeared on the subject after the invention of printing, the most celebrated work being the Ringerkunst of Fabian von Auerswald (1530). Albrecht Dürer made 119 drawings illustrating the different holds and falls in vogue in the 15th and 16th centuries. These singularly resembled those used in the Greek games, even to certain brutal tricks, which, however, were considered by the German masters as not legallich (friendly) and were not commonly used. Wrestling was adopted by the German Turnvereine as one of their exercises, but with the elimination of tripping and all holds below the hips. At present the most popular style in Europe is the so-called Greco-Roman.

In Switzerland and some of the Tirolese valleys a kind of wrestling flourishes under the name of Schwein(e)ng (swinging). The wrestlers wear schwingshosen or wrestling breeches, with stout belts, on which the holds are taken. The first man downs the bout. In Styria, wrestlers stand firmly on both feet, and try to throw each other by standing. When the word is given each tries to push or pull the other from his stance, the slightest movement of a foot sufficing to lose. The popularity of wrestling has survived in many Asiatic countries, particularly in Japan, where the first match recorded took place in 23 B.C., the victor being Sukune, who has ever since been regarded as the tutelary deity of wrestlers. In the 8th century the emperor Shōmu made wrestling one of the features of the annual harvest "Festival of the Five Grains,"
the victor being appointed official referee and presented with a
fan bearing the legend, “Prince of Lions.” In 858 the throne
of Japan was wrestled for by the two sons of the emperor
Buntoku, and the victor, Koreshito, succeeded his father under
the name of Seiwa. Imperial patronage of wrestling ceased in
1175, after the war which resulted in the establishment of the
Shogunate, but continued to be a part of the training of the
samurai or military caste. About 1600, professional wrestling
again rose to importance, the best men being in the employ of
the great feudal lords of the provinces. It was codified and
kept up by the samurai, and eventually developed into the
peculiar combination of wrestling and system of doing bodily
injury called ju-jutsu (q.v.), which survives with wrestling as
a separate though allied art. The national championships
were re-established in 1624, when the celebrated Shigasonke
won the honour, and have continued to the present day. The
Japanese wrestlers, like those of India, lay much stress upon
weight and are generally men of great bulk, although surprisingly
light on their feet. They form a guild which is divided into several
ranks, the highest being composed of the joshiyori, or elders, in
whom the superintendence of the wrestling schools and
tournaments lies, and who in feudal times used to rank next
to the samurai. The badges of the three highest ranks are
damask aprons richly embroidered. Every public wrestler must
have passed through a thorough course of instruction under one
of the joshiyori and have undergone numerous practical tests.
The wrestling takes place in a ring 12 ft. in diameter, the wrestlers
being naked but for a loin-cloth. At the command of the referee
the two adversaries crouch with their hands on the ground and
watch for an opening. The method is very similar to that of
the ancient Greeks and the modern catch-as-catch-can style,
extcept that a wrestler who touches the ground with any part of
his person except the feet, after the first hold has been taken,
loses the bout.

Indian wrestling resembles that of Japan in the great size of
its exponents or Puluwans, and the number and subtility of its
attacks, called panches. It is of the “loose” order, the men
facing each other nude, except for a loin-cloth, and manoeuvring
warily for a hold. Both shoulders placed on the ground simulta-
neously constitute a fall.

In Great Britain wrestling was cultivated at a very early age,
both Saxons and Celts having always been addicted to it, and
English literature is full of references to the sport. On St James’s
and St Bartholomew’s days special matches took place throughout
England, those in London being held in St Giles’s Field,
whence they were afterwards transferred to Clerkenwell.
The lord mayor and his sheriffs were often present on these occasions,
but the frequent brawls among the spectators eventually brought
public matches into disrepute. English monarchs have not
disdained to patronize the sport, and Henry VIII. is known to
have been a powerful wrestler.

It was inevitable, in a country where the sport was so ancient
and so universal, that different methods of wrestling should
grow up. It is likely that the “loose” style, in which the con-
testants took any hold they could obtain, generally prevailed
throughout Great Britain until the close of the 18th century,
when the several local fashions became gradually coherent; but
it was not until well into the 19th that their several rules were
codified. Of these the “Cumberland and Westmorland” style,
which prevails principally in the N. of England (except Lan-
cashire) and the S. of Scotland, is the most important. In this
the wrestlers stand chest to chest, each grasping the other with
locked hands round the body with his chin on the other’s right
shoulder. The right arm is below and the left above the adver-
sary’s. When this hold has been firmly taken the umpire
gives the word and the bout proceeds until one man touches
the ground with any part of his person except his feet; or he
falls to retain his hold, in either of which cases he loses. When
both fall together the one who is underneath, or first touches
the ground, loses. If both fall simultaneously side by side, it is
a “dog-fall,” and the bout begins anew. The different
manoeuvres used in British wrestling to throw the adversary are
called “chips,” those most important in the “Cumberland
and Westmorland” or “North Country” style being the “back-
heel,” in which a wrestler gets a leg behind his opponent’s heel
on the outside; the “outside strike,” in which after a sudden
shift of his body to the left the opponent is struck with the left
foot on the outside of his ankle; the “bank,” or lifting
the opponent off the ground after a sudden turn, so that both fall
together, but with the opponent underneath; the “inside
kick,” a bank applied after jerking the opponent forward, the
presence of a man’s body; the “outside kick,” a back-
heel applied by a wrestler as he is on the point of being lifted
from the ground—it prevents this and often results in over-
setting the opponent; the “cross-buttock,” executed by getting
one’s hip underneath the opponent’s, throwing one’s leg across
both his, lifting and throwing him; the “buttock,” in which
one’s hip is worked still further under that of the opponent, who
is then thrown right over one’s back; the “hip” or “hype,”
executed by lifting the opponent, and, while swinging him to
the right, placing the left knee under his right leg and carrying
him as high as possible before the throw; the “swinging hip,”
in which the opponent is swung nearly or quite round before
the hip is applied; and the “breast-stroke,” which is a sudden
double twist, first to one side and then to the other, followed
by a throw.

In the “Cornwall and Devon” or “West Country” style the
men wrestle in stout, loosely cut linen jackets, the hold being
anywhere above the waist or on any part of the jacket. A
bout is won by throwing the opponent on his back so that two
shoulders and a hip, or two hips and a shoulder (three points),
shall touch the ground simultaneously. This is a difficult
manoeuvre and when both men are expert, a man, who
feels himself falling, will usually turn and land on his side
or face. Many of the “chips” common to other styles are used
here, the most celebrated being the “flying mare,” in which
the opponent’s left wrist is seized with one’s right, one’s back
turned on him, his left elbow grasped with the left hand and he
is then thrown over one’s back, as in the buttock. Until
comparatively recently there was a difference between the styles
of Cornwall and Devon, the wrestlers of the latter county having
worn heavily-soled shoes, with which it was legitimate to
beast the adversary’s shins. In 1826 a memorable match
took place between Polkinhorne, the Cornish champion, and
the best wrestler of Devon, Abraham Cann, who wore
“kicking-boots of an appalling pattern,” Polkinhorne,
however, encased his shins in leather, and the match was
eventually drawn.

The “Lancashire” style, more generally known as “catch-
as-catch-can,” is practised not only in Lancashire and the
adjacent districts, but throughout America, Australia, Turkey
and other countries. It is the legitimate descendant and repre-
sentative of the ancient Greek sport and of the wrestling of the
middle ages. A bout is won when both shoulders of one wrestler
reach the floor together. No kicking, striking or other foul
practices are allowed, but theoretically every hold is legitimate.
Exceptions are, however, made of the so-called strangle-holds,
which are sufficiently described by their designation, and any
hold resulting in a dislocation or a fracture. This style contains
practically all the manoeuvres known to other methods, and
in its freedom and opportunity for a display of strategy, strength
and skill, is the most preferable. A fall, though invariably
begun standing, is nearly always completed on the ground (mat).
Many of the holds and “chips” are used, and are complicated as
to doing anything but an elaborate description inadequate.
The best book on the subject is the Handbook of Wrestling by Hugh
F. Leonard (1897).

In Scotland a combination of the Cumberland and catch-as-
catch-can styles has attained some popularity, in which the
wrestlers begin with the North Country hold, but continue the
bout on the ground should the fall not be a clean one with two
shoulders down.

In Ireland the national style is called “collar and elbow”
in America, “back-wrestling”), from the holds taken to the
two hands. The man loses, any part of whose person, except the feet, touches the ground.

The style mostly affected by the professional wrestlers of Europe at the present day is the Greco-Roman (falsely so called, since it bears almost no resemblance to classic wrestling), which arose about 1860 and is a product of the French wrestling schools. It is a very restricted style, as no tripping is allowed, nor even from 1875 the hips, when being turned, and the shoulders, which are contested almost entirely prone on the mat, are usually tediously long. British and American wrestlers, being accustomed to their own styles, are naturally at a disadvantage when wrestling under Greco-Roman rules.

WREXHAM—WRIGHT, S.

The Industrial Evolution of the United States (1887); Outline of Practical Sociology (1899); Battles of Labor (1906); and numerous papers and monographs on social and economic topics.

WRIGHT, CHAUNCEY (1830–1875). American philosopher and mathematician, was born at Northampton, Mass., on the 20th of September 1830, and died at Cambridge, Mass., on the 12th of September 1875. In 1852 he graduated at Harvard, and became computer to the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac. He made his name by contributions on mathematical and physical subjects in the Mathematical Monthly. He soon, however, turned his attention to metaphysics and psychology, and for the North American Review and later for the National he wrote philosophical essays on the lines of Mill, Darwin and Spencer. In 1870–71 he lectured on psychology at Harvard. Although, in general, he adhered to the evolution theory, he was a free lance in thought. Among his essays may be mentioned The Evolution of Self-Consciousness and two articles published in 1871 on the Genesis of Species. Of these, the former endeavours to explain the most elaborate psychological activities of men as developments of elementary forms of conscious processes in the animal kingdom as a whole; the latter is a defence of the theory of natural selection against the attacks of both Sir John Herschel and of Dr. Mivart. This was the suggestion of Darwin. From 1863 to 1870 he was secretary and recorder to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and in the last year of his life he lectured on mathematical physics at Harvard.

His essays were collected and published by C. E. Norton in 1877, and some of his lectures on psychology were privately printed at Cambridge, Mass., in 1878 by James Bradley Thomas.

WRIGHT, JOSEPH (1734–1797), styled Wright of Derby, English subject, landscape and portrait painter, was born at Derby on the 3rd of September 1734, the son of an attorney, who was afterwards town-clerk. Deciding to become a painter, he went to London in 1751 and for two years studied under Thomas Hudson, the master of Reynolds. After painting portraits for a while at Derby, he again placed himself for fifteen months under his former master. He then settled in Derby, and varied his work in portraiture by the production of the subjects seen under artificial light with which his name is chiefly associated, and by landscape painting. He married in 1773, and in the end of that year he visited Italy, where he remained till 1775. While at Naples he witnessed an eruption of Vesuvius, which formed the subject of many of his subsequent pictures. On his return from Italy he established himself at Bath as a portrait-painter; but meeting with little encouragement he returned to Derby, where he spent the rest of his life. He was a frequent contributor to the exhibitions of the Society of Artists, and to those of the Royal Academy, of which he was elected an associate in 1781 and a full member in 1785. He, however, declined the latter honour on account of a slight which he believed that he had received, and severed his official connexion with the Academy, though he continued to contribute to the exhibitions from 1783 till 1794. He died at Derby on the 29th of August 1797. Wright's portraits are frequently defective in drawing, and without quality or variety of handling, while their flesh tints are often hard. He is seen at his best in his subjects of artificial light, of which the "Orery" (1760), the property of the corporation of Derby, and the "Air-pump" (1768), in the National Gallery, are excellent examples. His "Old Man and Death" (1774) is also a striking and individual production. An exhibition of Wright's works was brought together at Derby in 1883, and twelve of his pictures were shown in the winter exhibition of the Royal Academy in 1886.

His biography, by William Remrose, was published in 1885.

WRIGHT, SILAS (1795–1847). American political leader, was born at Amherst, Mass., on the 24th of May 1795. He graduated at Middlebury College, Vermont, in 1815, was admitted to the bar in 1819, and began practice at Canton, in western New York. He was appointed a surrogate of St Lawrence county in 1820, and was concurrently a member of the state Senate in 1824–1826, a member of the national House of Representatives in 1827–1829, comptroller of the state in 1829–1833,

His publications include The Factory System of the United States (1830); Relation of Political Economy to the Labor Question (1832); History of Wages and Prices in Massachusetts, 1752–1883 (1887);
U.S. senator in 1833–1834, and governor of New York in 1834–1846. During his public life he had become a leader of the Democratic party in New York, Martin Van Buren being his closest associate. He was an influential member of the so-called "Albany Regency," a group of Democrats in New York, including such men as J. A. Dix and W. L. Marcy, who for many years virtually controlled their party within the state. Wright's intolerance of his opponents, and other "troubles" (see New York) broke out and it seemed probable that the votes of the disappointed would decide the coming election.

The governor asked and obtained from the legislature the power to suppress the disturbance by armed force, and put an end to what was really an insurrection. When the national Democratic party in 1844 nominated and elected J. K. Polk to the presidency, instead of Martin Van Buren, Wright and the state organization took an attitude of armed neutrality towards the new administration. Renominated for governor in 1846, Wright was defeated, and the result was by many ascribed to the part claimed hostility of the Polk administration. He died at Canton on the 27th of August 1847.

The best biography is that by J. D. Hammond, Life and Times of Silas Wright (Syracuse, N.Y., 1848), which was reprinted as vol. i in the modern edition of his Historical Writings of the State of New York.

WRIGHT, THOMAS (1809–1884), British palaeontologist, was born at Paisley in Renfrewshire on the 9th of November 1809. He studied at the Royal College of Surgeons in Dublin, and qualified as a doctor in 1832. Soon afterwards he settled at Cheltenham, and graduated M.D. at St Andrews in 1846. He devoted his leisure to geological pursuits, became an active member of the Cottesloe Naturalists' Club (founded in 1845), and gathered a fine collection of Jurassic ammonites and echinoderms. He contributed to the Palaeontographical Society monographs on the Oolitic and Cretaceous formations (1855–1858); he also began (1878) a monograph on the Liassic ammonites of the British Islands, of which the last part was issued in 1883, after his death. He wrote many papers in the Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist. and Proc. Cottesloe Club. The Wollaston medal was awarded to him by the Geological Society of London in 1878, and he was elected F.R.S. in 1879. He died at Cheltenham on the 12th of November 1884.

WRIGHT, THOMAS (1810–1877), English antiquary, was born near Ludlow, Shropshire, on the 21st of April 1810. He was descended from a Quaker family formerly living in Bradford, Yorkshire. He was educated at the old grammar school, Ludlow, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1834. While at Cambridge he contributed to the Gentleman's Magazine and other periodicals, and in 1835 he came to London to devote himself to a literary career. His first separate work was Early English Poetry in Black Letter, with Prefaces and Notes (1836, 4 vols. 12mo), which was followed during the next forty years by a very extensive series of publications, many of lasting value. He helped to found the British Archaeological Association and the Percy, Camden and Shakespeare societies. In 1838 he was elected corresponding member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres of Paris, and was a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries as well as member of many other learned British and foreign bodies. In 1839 he superintended the excavations of the Roman city of Uriconium, near Shrewsbury, of which he issued a description. He died at Chelsea on the 23rd of December 1877, in his sixty-seventh year. A portrait of him is in the Drawing Room Portrait Gallery for October 1st, 1890. He was a great scholar, but will be chiefly remembered as an industrious antiquary and the editor of many relics of the middle ages.

His chief publications are—Queen Elizabeth and her Times, a Series of Original Letters (1838, 2 vols.); Reliquiae antiquae (1839–1843, again 1845, 2 vols.), edited with Mr J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps; W. Mapes, 1560, 2 pts.; Old Ballads and Ballads, and Carols, published by the Percy Society (1841); Popular Treatises on Science (1841); History of Ludlow (1841, 2 vols.; again 1852, as Selection of Latin Stories (1842, Percy Society); The Vision and Crew of Flies Ploughman (1842, 2 vols.; 2nd ed., 1855); Biography Literaria, 2 pts. (1842), vol. ii. Anglo-Saxon Period (1846); The Chester Plays (1843–1847, 2 vols., Shakespeare Society); St Patrick's Purgatory (1844); Anecdota (1844); The Archaeological Album (1845, 4to); Essays connected with English in the Middle Ages (1847); Life, Engledor under the House of Hanover (1848, 2 vols., several editions published in 1850, 1856, etc.); The Bracton (1849); The Letters of the Georgius; Mapes, De nucibus curialium (1850, 4to, Camden Society); Geoffrey Gaimar's Metrical Chronicle (1850, Camden Society); The Sixth Secrecy (1850); Fryth's England and the Saxons (1852; 4th ed., 1885); History of Fulke Fitz Wain (1853); Jo. de Garandia, De triumphis ecclesiasticiis (1856, 4to, Roxburghe Club); Dictionary of Obsolete and Provincial English (1857); A Vocabulary of English Dialects (1857, 2nd ed., R. P. Willard); English Historical Documents (1860, 4to, Roxburghe Club); Essays on Archaeological Subjects (1861, 2 vols.); Domestic Manners and Sentiments in England in the Middle Ages (1862, 4to, reprinted in 1871 as The Homes of other Days); Roll of Arms of Edward I. (1864, 4to); Autobiography of Sir Thomas Wright (1736–1757), his grandfather (1864); History of Caxton (1865, 4to); Wonderkind in Western Europe (1869, 4to); Anglo-Latin Statirical Poets of 12th Century (1872, 2 vols., "Rolls" series).

WRIGHT, WILLIAM ALDIS (1836–1912), English man of letters, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and in 1888 became vice-master of the college. He was one of the editors of the Journal of Philology from its foundation in 1868, and was secretary to the Old Testament revision company from 1870 to 1885. He edited the plays of Shakespeare published in the "Cassell's Press" series (1868–1887), also with W. G. Clark the "Cambridge" Shakespeare, which appeared in 1883–1893, and the "Globe" edition (1894). He published (1890) a facsimile of the Milton MS. in the Trinity College library, and edited Milton's poems with critical notes (1903). He was the intimate friend and literary executor of Edward FitzGerald, whose Letters and Literary Remains he edited in 1886. This was followed by the Letters of Edward FitzGerald to Fanny Kemble (1893), his Miscellaneous (1900), More Letters of Edward FitzGerald (1901), The Works of Edward FitzGerald (7 vols., 1903). He edited the metrical chronicle of Robert of Gloucester (1887), Genevra (1878) for the Early English Text Society, and other texts.

WRIST, in anatomy, the carpus or carpal articulation in man, the joint by which the hand is articulated with the fore-arm (see Anatomy: Superficial and Artistic; and Skeleton: Appendicular). The word means by origin "that which turns," and is formed from the O. Eng. wīrstan, to twist.

WRIT (O. Eng. gewrit, writ, from wrihtan, to write), in law, a formal order from the crown or a delegated executive officer to an inferior executive officer or to a private person, enjoining some act or omission. The word represents the Latin brevis of brevis (sometimes Englished into "brief" in the older authorities), so called, according to Bracton, and Flodoard, from its "shortly" expressing the intention of the framer (qua brevis et pauca verbis intentionem proferens exponit). The breve can be traced back as far as Paulus (about A.D. 200), who wrote a work Ad editum de brevibus, cited in the Vatican Fragment, § 310. In the Corpus juris the word generally means a summary or report. In Cod. vii. 44, brevisculum means a summary of the ground of a judgment. The interdictum of Roman law sometimes represents the writ of English law; e.g., there is considerable likeness between the Roman interdictum de libero homine exhibendo and the English writs of habeas corpus and de homine replegando. The Roman law the breve passed into the Liber feudorum et curiarum, in both a sense differing from that at present borne by the writ of English law. The breve testatum of the Liber feudorum was an instrument in writing made on the land; the times at which it was seen by the lord to the tenant, and attested by the seals of the lord

There seems to be no authentic definition of writ. That of Ross is "a settled form of precept applicable to the purpose, owing to the few compelling defendants to answer the charge alleged by plaintiffs" (1 Hist. of the Eng. Law, 445).

It is perhaps doubtful whether intentio is here used in its ordinary sense or in the technical signification which it bore as a part of the Roman formula.
and the pares curiae or other witnesses. In England such witnesses were passed in and joined in the verdict in case of disputed right up to 12 Edw. II. st. 1. c. 2. The breve testatum in England developed into the feufo, later into the deed of grant; in Scotland into the charter, and later into the charter party. The breve percutare was ridiculed as a leaf from the pope, sealed with the seal of the fisherman and less formal than a bull. In Old English ecclesiastical law a breve—still named in one of the rubrics of the Book of Common Prayer—was formerly offered to the collection of money for church or charitable purposes.1 (For counsel's brief see BREFE.)

The writ in English law still occupies a very important position, which can scarcely be understood without a sketch of its history.

History. The whole theory of pleading depends in the last resort upon the writ, the plaintiff's claim simply expanding its terms.

Writ or breve was at first used in a less technical sense than that which it afterwards assumed: thus in the Leges Henrici Primi it simply means a letter from the king, and in the Assize of Clarendon (1166) imbremtarius means to be registered. It became formalized by the reign of Henry II., and precedents are given by Glanvill. The writ process was at that date the foundation of all civil justice in the king's court, and to the lower courts, and was a profitable source of revenue to the exchequer. Writs were not framed on any scientific scheme, but as occasion arose, and were frequently the result of compromise in the struggle between the king and his subjects. The most familiar form of the breve, breve percutare, or breve promulgare, was the technical term). This purchase developed in later times into the payment of a fine to the king where the damages were laid above £10. The usual scale was £5, 8d., 4s., 2s. 6d., 6d., 1d., a mark, or a penny. The defendant, the basis of the proceedings in levying a fine, the king was entitled to his primer fine, i.e. one-twelfth of the annual value of the land concerned. The sale of writs was forbidden by Papal bulls and by Act of Parliament and in certain cases, especially that of the writ of odio et atia in favour of the liberty of the subject. A solicitor was so called because his original duty was to solicit or sue out a writ and take the due proceedings for laying the breaches of the writ. The costs of a writ purchased were first allowed to a successful demandant by the Statute of Lancaster, 1278. The counterpart of the writ (contra breve) was usually filed in court with the custos brevium. Through the Norman period the prerogative of issuing writs seems to have been undisturbed. Glanvill's precedents did not exhaust all possible forms, for in the time of Bracton, in the 13th century, it was still possible to frame new writs at the pleasure of the Crown. The Provisions of Oxford in 1258 put an end to this by enacting that the chancellor should not seal anything out of course (i.e. any writ for which there was no precedent) by the will of the king, but that he should do it by the council. In 1285 the Statute of Westminster the Second re-established the power of the crown within certain limits, that is, in cases of action in a similar case falling under the same law (in consuetudine casu cadente sub eodem jure) as those for which precedent existed already. The writs were recorded about 1227 in the Registrum breve, called by Sir Edward Coke the oldest book in the common law.2 Apart from the powers given by the statute, new writs could of course come into being by the king. Writs are sometimes found set out in statutes, especially in the Statutum Walliae, 1284, where precedents of the most usual writs will be found. The Statute of Westminster, itself composed of those precedents and of many others. The original flexibility of the writ was thus limited within comparatively narrow bounds. The right to the issue of the writ determined the right of action. For a writ was not sufficient to found an action, the writ was said to fail (cadere). So essential was the writ that it was a legal axiom in Bracton that no one could sue at law without a writ, and it was called by Coke, in his introduction to Littleton, that the strengthings of the old laws were a hand-om-passed an important place in some of the leading statutes dealing with constitutional rights. The Statute of Marlbridge, 1267, forbade a lord to detain his freeholders another for any wrong without a writ; and it was thus that a man's life was preserved without the king's writ. By 25 Edw. III. st. 5. c. 1434 (1422), it was accorded, asserted and established that none should be taken by petition or suggestion made to the king or his council unless by indenture or presentment in due manner. The writs are made by writ original at the common law. 42 Edw. III. c. 3 (1359) provided that no man should be put to answer without presentment before justices, or matter of record, unless by due process of law made by writ original at the common law. Both these statutes were recited and the general principle confirmed by 16 Car. I. c. 10 (1641). Uniformity of procedure was secured by 27 Hen. VIII. c. 24 (1536), by which writs were to be in the king's name in a county palatine or liberty, but tested by those who had the county palatine or liberty. It was not until 1731 that, by virtue of 4 Geo. II. c. 26, writs were framed in the English language. They had previously been in Latin; this accounts for the Latin names by which a large number are still known.

The writ was issued from the common law side of the chancery, and was in the special charge of the bananper and petty bag offices. Though arising from the rules of the writs court, the trial of the question in the king's court. In whatever court it was returnable, it was in the term of the sheriff in the event of disobedience, generally in those terms, et, nisi feceris, vicecomes de N. factit se amplius clamorem audium pro defectu justitiae. If the defendant failed in the court, the sheriff or the lord sat as the deputy of the king, not by virtue of his inherent jurisdiction. The writ was not necessary for the initiation of proceedings in these courts or before the justices of the peace. It was not a custom, that is, it was drawn from the king where the claim was above 40s. Cases were transferred from the lord's court to the county court by writ of tol. (so called because it removed, tolle, the case), from the latter to the king's court by writ of none (so called from its first word). By Magna Carta the power of bringing a suit in the king's court in the first instance by writ of grace was taken away, and the writ was thenceforward only returnable in the king's court, or to the sheriff of the county where the writ had been brought from the king where the claim was above 40s. Besides being used for the trial of disputes, writs addressed to sheriffs, mayors, commissioners or others were in constant use for financial and political purposes, e.g. for the collection of revenue, and for the purpose of removing judges and other officials and later parliaments, and for dissolving a parliament, the last by the means of the rarely occurring writ de revocatione parliamenti. See also 22 Geo. II. c. 4 (1732) about writs (excluding those purely financial and political), the most important being that into original and judicial, the former (testa de nomine missae) to bring a suit before the proper court, the latter (testa in the name of the judge) issued during the progress of a suit to enforce judgment. Original were either optional, i.e. giving an option of doing a certain act or of showing cause why it was not done, beginning with the words praecepe quod reddat, the presentment was called a spolium. Recovery (see FINIS) were based, or peremptory, i.e. calling on a person to do a certain act, beginning with the words st A. fecit te secum. Original were also either de cursu (also called by Bracton forma act) or magistra, the former those fixed in form and depending on precedent, the latter those framed by the masters in chancery under the powers of the Statute of Westminster the Second. They were also either general or special, i.e. the grounds of the demandant, not the particularity of the former. In regard to real estate they might be possessory or ancestral. By 5 Geo. II. c. 27 (1732) special writs were confined to the recovery of certain ancestral lands. There was also a division of writs into writs of right (ex debois justitia), such as habeas corpus, and prerogative writs (ex gratia), such as mandamus and prohibition. Coke and other authorities mention many other writs, but those which have been named appear to be the principal.

The most interesting form of writ from the historical point of view was the writ of right (breve de re celata) whether in its modern or its older form. The writ was used at first for debt and other personal claims, afterwards confined to the recovery of real estate as the writ of right par excellence. It was so called from the words plenum rectum contained in it, and was the remedy for obtaining justice for owner or possession or privation of the freehold. By it property as well as possession could be recovered. It generally lay in the king's court, as has been said, by virtue of a fictitious allegation. In that case it was not necessary to mention a defendant or to address to the lord and tried in his court, it was generally a writ of right patent. After the appearance of the tenant the demandant in a writ of right claimed as against the tenant in a word or in more precise terms, the writ being as it were the embryo of the future suit. The trial was originally by battle (see Trial), but in the reign of Henry II. an alternative and optional procedure was introduced, interesting as the earliest example of the substitution of something like the jury (q.v.) for the judicial combat. A writ de magnam assista eligendo was directed to the sheriff commanding him to return four knights of the county and vicinage to try the action on oaths, with the further instruction to try upon oath the question contained in the writ of right (technically called the mise). This mode of trial was known as trial by the grand assize. Generally a grand assize was used whenever there were six or more men who claimed by way of right to a sufficient number. The last occasion of trial by the grand

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1 See W. A. Bewes, Church Briefs (1896). The lines in Cowper's "Charity Miser" allude to such a brief.

2 See article by F. W. Maitland in 3 Harward Law Rev. 177.
asize was in 1835. But long before that date possessory had from their greater convenience tended to supersede proprietary remedies, and in most cases the title was sufficiently determined by the asizes of other kinds of land. The common pleas of courts, and later by ejectment.

The oath of the champion on proceedings in a writ of right where the alternative of the judicial combat was accepted was regulated by statute, 3 Edw. I. c. 41 (1725). The writ of right began to be superseded by common pleas ejectment.

By the Statute of Merton (1226) no seisin could be alleged by the defendant or before the time of Henry II. By 3 Edw. I. c. 39 the time was fixed at the reign of Richard I., by 32 Edw. II. c. 4. Thereafter a two-writter or writer of rights with special names, e.g., the writ of right by the custom of London for land in London, the writ of right by advowson, brought by the patron to recover the advowson of his church, or the writ of right by the custum of dower, ne injuste vexes et de rationabili parte, the latter brought by coparceners or brothers in gavelkind. Coheirs and coparceners also had the super obil for disceiss by one of themselves. There was also writ from the nature of the writ of right, by a recovery on discontinuance by a tenant in tail and given by the statute De Donis Conditionalibus; escheat, brought by the lord where the tenant willed that it should come to his heirs; ne injuste vexes, to prohibit the lord from exacting services or rents beyond his due; de nativo habendo, to recover the inheritance in a villicen; and the little writ of right close according to the custom of the manor, to try in the inquiring court of the King's tenants in ancient demesne. They had also the writ of mononstrarenat.

Up to 1832 an action (except as against certain privileged persons, such as attorneys) began at law by original writ of ejectment or by any other writ. The practice of this is so used in old books of practice. The law was gradually altered by legislation and still more by the introduction of fictitious proceedings in the common pleas, which were superseded, except in real actions, which were of comparatively rare occurrence. The original writ is no longer in use in civil procedure, an action being now in all cases commenced by the writ of summons, a judicial writ, a procedure first introduced by Act 32 Edw. II. c. 29. In the following year an immense number of the old writs was abolished by the Real Property Limitation Act 1833. An exception was made in favour of the writ of right of dower, dowry non habet, quare impedit et ejectment, and of the plaints for free bench and dower in the nature of rights of property. Ejectment was remodelled by the Common Law Procedure Act 1852, and was abolished by the Common Law Procedure Act 1860, by which they were abolished. Other writs which have been superseded by simpler proceedings, generally by ordinary actions, are those of the four assizes of novel disseisin, juris utrum, mort d'exter and darein presentment, conspiracy, estrepement and waste, false judgment, monstrons de droit, nuisance, partition, presunminur, quo warranto, scire facias, subpoena and warranto chartae.

The number of writs, especially those connected with ecclesiastical procedure, was so large that any exhaustive list of them is almost impossible, but a few of those of more special interest are given. Some obsoleto writs.

Admissuratio lay against persons usurping more than their share of property. It was either dotis or pastothe, the latter, like the former, an action to be brought for the surcharge of common, for which also quod permettis lay. Alias and plurites writs were issued when a previous writ had been disobeyed. Apostata capiendo was the mode of apprehension of a monk who had fled his monastery. Attested, or ad testatum, the sheriff brought the party or an officer of chancery to gain possession of land. Attestat lay to inquire by a jury of twenty-four whether a jury of twelve had given a false verdict. Decies tantum also lay against a juror who had accepted a bribe, so called because he had to refund ten times the sum received. Audita querela was a means of relieving a defendant by a matter of discharge occurring after judgment. After having been long practically superseded by stay of execution it was finally abolished by the rules made under the Judicature Act 1873.

Beau pleas lay to prohibit the taking of a fine de pulcre placando, forbidden by the Statute of Marlbridge (1268).\(^1\) Capias, latitatum and querelles were interesting as showing the prevalence of fictitious allegation in the old procedure of the common laws before 1832. By capias ad respondentum followed by alias and pluries the court of common pleas was enabled to take cognizance of an action without the actual issue of an original writ. The capias was a judicial writ issued to follow an original writ of trespass quia clausum friget. The issue of the original writ and after a time the issue of capias ad respondentum was a matter of deep interest, and with the issue of another writ called capias testatum. On return of the writ the plaintiff elected to proceed with a cause of action other than trespass, and the real merits of the case were eventually raised in a new cause. In the end the plaintiff might find himself in the position of the defendant being bound to put in common or special bail, the former being sufficient in all but exceptional cases. Here again there was a

\(^1\) Relief from "miskening" or "mescheninga," or fine for bespauler, was often granted in charters to towns, as by that of Henry I. to London.
Writ was obsolete, and that the same relief could be obtained by injunction. On appeal this refusal was sustained by the privy council.

Of writs now in use, other than those for elections, all are judicial, or part of a civil proceeding, and do not concern convicts, or persons charged with crime. No writs now in use are employed for the redress of personal injuries. They are to be hereafter issued out of the central office of the supreme court, or the office of the clerk of the crown in chancery. By the Crown Office Act 1869 all writs having to do with the high court in chancery are in future to be procured from that office. Writs occurring in crown practice, such as quo warranto and certiorari.

In local civil courts, other than county courts, writs are usually issued on the judge's own motion, or at the instance of the party advantaged by the proceeding. Ordinary writs are the praecipe, and the placitum and praecipe. In county courts the warrant and praecipe, the former for the purpose of serving the latter. A writ cannot as a rule be served on Saturday. Some of the more important modern writs (other than those of an extrajudicial nature) may be shortly noticed. Habeas corpus, mandamus, prohibition, sequestration, and certiorari are separately treated. Writs are generally, unless where the contrary is stated, addressed to the sheriff. Abatement or nuncupatum amovendo enjoins the removal of a nuisance in pursuance of a judgment to that effect. Ad quod damnum is for the purpose of ensuring that the subject of the writ is still in being. It will not lie unless the damage of the crown or others. If the inquiry be determined in favour of the subject, a reasonable fine is payable to the exchequer by the sheriff or the county. This fine is in part used in the payment of the expense of the suit, and in part supporting the dignity of the court by punishment for contempt of its orders (see Contempt of Court).

Since the Judicature Acts a uniform practice has been followed in all the branches of the high court, and a writ of attachment can only be issued by leave of the court or a judge after notice to the party against whom it is to be issued. Copias: the old writs of capias ad satisfacendum and capias ulteriorum may still be used, but their importance has been much diminished since the alterations made in the law by the Debtor Act 1869 and the abolition of civil outlawry (see outlaw). Certiorari is a writ in very frequent use, by which the proceedings are directed to be reviewed by the court in which the process is issued. In general it lies for excess of jurisdiction as mandamus does for defect. The Summary Jurisdiction Act 1879 makes the writ no longer necessary when a special order has been made in the court of sessions. Decries forces a judgment for the delivery of property without giving the defendant (unless at the option of the plaintiff) power to retain it on payment of the assessed value. Distraint is used to distrain a person for a crown debt or for his appearance on a certain day. Its operation has been much curtailed by the substitution of other proceedings by the Sheriff Acts 1865 and the rules of the supreme court. It now seems to lie only against inhabitants for non-repair of a highway. Distragas nuper vicecomitem is a writing calling on an ex-sheriff to account for the proceeds of goods taken in execution. Eligens is founded on the Statute of Westminster of the Second, 1327, 8 Edw. III., c. i. It provides for the recovery of the debts of the late Edward I. on the words of the writ, that the plaintiff has chosen (eligens) this particular mode of satisfaction. It originally ordered the sheriff to seize a moiety of the debtor's land and all his goods, save his oxen and beasts of the plough. By the Judgments Act 1838, the elegens was extended to include the whole of the lands, and copthawks as well as freeholds. By the Bankruptcy Act 1883, an elegens no longer applies to goods. Error, the last remaining example of an original writ, was finally abolished by the Criminal Procedure Act 1877, 19 Geo. III., c. 76.

To the list of writs of execution issued by the sheriff must be added the proceedings for the collection of debts, and the Crown debt of record. The sale of chattels seized under an extant takes place under a writ of venditione exponas. A crown debtor is entitled to an extent in aid against a person indebted to him. Where a crown debtor has died a writ reciting his death, and so called dictum clausit extremum, issues against his property. Fierie facias is the ordinary writ of execution on a judgment commanding the sheriff to take and seize lands, goods, and personal effects of the defendant. Where the sheriff has not sold the goods, rendition exponas issues to compel him to do so. Where the party is a benefited clergyman, the writ is one of fierie facias de bonis ecclesiasticis or of sequestrae facias facias. The sheriff, instead of seizing goods, confines the defendant under an act of an exceptional nature, as against a corporation and to seize a pension. It is addressed to commissioners, not to the sheriff. Habere facias possessionem is given to the owner of a tithe or rent in reversion to place them in possession for the time being, until a pension after arrears due to him are paid. Indictment is still nominally grantable under the statute De Conjointum Feoffatis of 1366, and is a process of great antiquity being the ordinary mode of commencing a criminal proceeding. Inquiry issues for the assessment of damages by the sheriff or his deputy. It represents to some extent the old writ of justiciis, and the later writ of trial allowed by 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 42, but is now mostly operating in the case of a whole case or issues under it could be tried. Before an inquiry the liability has been already established. Lexici facias is the means of levying execution. It is a part of the process against a person disobeying the order of an ecclesiastical court, and consists in a notification to the crown in chancery of the disobedience. Thereupon a writ de consuetude capiendo issues for his arrest. On his subsequent obedience or satisfaction, a writ of delinquere is granted. Precedents of these writs are given in the act named. Subpoena is the ordinary means of securing the presence of a witness in court, and is addressed to the sheriff, who is directed to serve the writ at the place of the defendant's last known abode. It reaches him wherever he may be, and is descriptive of the goods and kind.
outlawry, calling upon the party to appear. Under the old practice a sententia facias de novo was the means of obtaining a new trial. *Sententia ispispendo* appears still to be competent, and is a curious relic of antiquity. It issues on the application of an heir presumptive in order to obtain a new trial. Writs of summons are issued to the lords spiritual and temporal before every new parliament. Those to Irish representative peers are regulated by the Act of Union, those to archbishops and bishops by the Act of Ecclesiastical Commissioners Act 1847. New peers are no longer created by writ, but the eldest son of a peer is occasionally summoned to the House of Lords in the name of a barony of his father’s. With respect to creation of members of the House of Commons, the procedure differs as the election takes place after a dissolution or on a casual vacancy. After a dissolution the writ is issued, as already stated, by order of the crown in council. For a single election the writ was formerly for a number of counties and boroughs by the speaker after an order of the house made upon motion; during the recess by the speaker’s authority alone. The warrant is addressed to the clerk of the crown in chancery for Great Britain, to the Lord High Chancellor of Ireland. A writ is sometimes issued by the court as a matter of justice. But a writ has sometimes been ordered where the writ was improvidently issued. The time allowed to elapse between the receipt of the writ and the assembling of the grand jury is fixed by the sheriff for a county or a district borough, four days for any other borough. The writ is to be returned by the returning officer to the clerk of the crown with the name of the member elected endorsed on the writ. Scottish procedure is different. The writ is returned by the king himself. The returning officer is the sheriff in counties and counties of cities, generally the mayor in cities and boroughs, and the vice-chancellor in universities. Other writs for election are those for conviction, which is by 25 Hen. VIII, c. 10 summoned by the archbishop of the province on receipt of the king’s writ, and for election of coroners, verderers of royal forests, and some other officers. The king’s or Restoration was already made of old diligendo, addressed to the sheriff, is specially preserved by the Coroners Act 1887.

Offences relating to writs are dealt with by the Criminal Law Consolidation Act 1861 and the Criminal Process Statutes. The maximum penalty is seven years’ penal servitude.

**Scotland.**—Writs are of a more extensive term than in England. Writs are either judicial or extrajudicial, the latter including deeds and other instruments—as, for instance, in the Lord Clerk Register Act 1879, and in the common use of the phrase “oath or writ” as a means of proof. In the narrower English sense both “writ” and “writing” were used. The first was a substitute for the old procedure as it was in England, and many forms are given in *Regiam Majestatem et Quoniam Attachamenta*. It was a command issued in the king’s name, addressed to a judge, and ordering trial of the cause, and the party to bring the writ to the king’s signet, or the clerk to it, in the office of the secretary of state. Its conclusion was the will of the summons. In some cases proceedings wholly by writ were by writ in England took another form in Scotland. For instance, in *Spence v. Haldane* in Scotland. A similar end was reached by trial of the jury for wilful error.1 The English writ of ne exeunt regio is represented by the mediatio fuga warrant. Most proceedings by, being addressed to the sheriff, became obsolete after the institution of the court of session, when the sheriff lost much of that judicial power which they had enjoyed to a greater extent than the English sheriff (see SUMMONS).2 An English writ of execution is represented in Scotland by diligendo, chiefly by means of warrants to messengers-at-arms under the authority of signet letters in the name of the king. See the Writ of Execution.3 Writs of execution are to a large degree wholly dis- appeared. Briefs of tutorcy, terce and division among proprietors are still competent but not in use. Other kinds of brief have been superseded by simpler procedure, e.g. the brief of service of heirs, representing the older breve de mane necessitatis, a petition to the sheriff under the Titles to Land Consolidation Act 1668 and the brief of perambulation by a declaratory action. The brief of cognition of insane persons is now one of the few practical im- provements of the old practice. The brief of attaint was much used, and this new form was introduced by the act last named. Writs *de nomine* have been the subject of much modern legislation. The Writ of *De nomine* was expressly declared to be a writ not by other proceedings by the Exchequer Court Act 1856. The writ of *sententia ispispendo*, resignation and confirmation (whether granted by the crown or a subject superior) were regulated by the act of 1868. By the

1 An example occurring in the reign of James VI. will be found in *Pitcairn v. Cochrane* (1716), 2 S. & M. 116.

2 Explanations of many of the older writs will be found in Lord Clerk Register Skene’s *De verborum significatione* (1641), and styles in Spotswood, *Stile of Writs* (1715).

3 The same act crown writs are to be in the English language and registered in the register of crown writs. Writs need not be sealed unless at the instance of the party against whom they are issued. Writs of prescription and quiet title are the acts of 1662 and 1761. By the act of 1868 volt, the acknowledgment being abolished by the Conveyancing Act 1874. The *clare constat* writ is one granted by the crown or a subject superior for the purpose of completing title of a vassal’s heirs to lands held by the crown, and requires no acknowledgment under the Registration of Leases Act 1857 is used for the same purpose. By the Writs Execution Act 1877 the form of warrant of execution on certain extracts of registered writs is amended. Extracts of registered writs are to be, in the event of their being void, of -writs themselves. Writs registered in the register of sasines for preservation only may afterwards be registered for preservation and execution. By 22 Geo. II, c. 48, passed for the purpose of enabling Parliament to take time and process of execution of common pleas process of execution of common pleas for treason in Scotland to that in use in England, the court before which an indictment for treason or misprison of treason is found, is entitled on proper cause to issue a Proclamation of the court. Writs of administration for the proceedings in parliamentary elections differ from those in use in England. Thus the writ in university elections is directed to the vice-chancellors of Edinburgh and Glasgow respectively, but not to those of St Andrews and Aberdeen, and there is an extension of the time for the return in elections for Orkney and Shetland, and for the Wick burghs. Representative peers of Scotland were by the Act of Brevium (1685) elected ad hoc, and returned to the privy council of Scotland. On the abolition of the privy council, proclamation under the great seal was substituted by 6 Anne, c. 23.

**United States.—** Writs in United States courts are by Act of Congress.4 The common English form of the act is used. By the act of 1861, subject laws are generally bound to be in the name of the people of the state, in the English language, and tested in the name of a judge. Writs of error have been the subject of much legislation. Some states have abolished or suspended their use, but others have not. Writs of error and of no error have been abolished. Writs as parts of real actions have generally superseded, but in Massachu- setts are still issued in criminal cases. The Act of 1861 made a part of the law of the United States. Before the War of Independence it was issued to revenue officers to search premises for smuggled goods. It was on this writ that it was first contended in 1761 that a colonial court had jurisdiction to make a fine. The case is now well settled. See *Brevium* (1651); *Brevium et Mandatium* (1661); *Brevium* (1679). See also *Cook* on Littleton, 158, 159, 2 *Cook’s Inst.* 39; and *Du Cange*.5 Many precedents will be found in the collection of *Brevia* and *Facias*; 9 *Brevia* (1661); *Brevia* (1679). See also *Spence’s* *Equitable Jurisdiction*, vol. i. bk. ii. ch. viii.; *Forsey’s* *Hist* of *Trial by Jury*, *Stephen’s* *Pleading*, *Bigelow’s Hist. of Procedure*, ch. iv.; *Pollock and Maclan*., *Hist. of Eng. Law*; and W. S. M’Kechnie, *Magna Carta* may also be consulted. There appears to be no book dealing with the writ in modern practice, but sufficient information is contained in the ordinary treatises on procedure.

**TO THE SIGNET,** in Scotland, a society of law agents corresponding to solicitors in England. They were originally clerks in the secretary of state’s office and prepared the different writings passing the signet; every summons is still signed on its last page by a writer to the signet. By the Titles to Land Consolidation (Scotland) Act 1868, they have the exclusive privilege of preparing all crown writs, charters, precepts, &c., from the sovereign or the prince of Scotland. They have no charter but are usually considered a corporation by long custom; they have office-bearers and are members of the Common Justice. They are divided into three classes: members who may write to the writer to the signet should be eligible to the Scottish bench. It was finally decided that they should be eligible after ten years’ practice. But, with the exception of Hamilton of Pencaitland in 1712, no writer to the signet has ever had a seat on the bench.

4 A reference to Du Cange will show the variety of the non-legal uses of breve or brene. It may mean, in folio, an annual rent, an amulet, a notice of the death of a monk. *Brevium* signified what are now known as ship’s papers.
WRITING (the verbal noun of "to write," O. Eng. *written*, to inscribe), the use of letters, symbols or other conventional characters, for the recording by visible means of significant sounds; more specifically, the art of tracing by hand these symbols on paper or other material, by pen and ink, pencil, stylus or other such means, as opposed to mechanical methods such as printing. The principal features in the development of writing in its primary sense are dealt with in separate articles (see Alphabet, Palaeography, Inscriptions, Book, Manuscript, Shorthand, &c.). Here it is only necessary briefly to refer to the origins of a system which has eventually followed the history of the various languages and has been stereotyped by the progress of typography (q.v.). Very early in the history of man he found himself needing to make a record of events or the past, and this need led to the making of marks on the objects which he used; these are (a) to recall information at a particular time something that has to be done; (b) to communicate with some other person who is not present, nor for the moment easily accessible; (c) to assert rights over tools, cattle, &c., by a distinctive mark, or by a similar mark to distinguish one's own production (e.g. a special make of pottery) from that of others. The last-named use, out of which in time develops every kind of trade-mark, is itself a development of the earlier property mark. The right to property must be established before traffic, whether by way of barter or of sale, is possible. Every one is familiar with devices to achieve the first of these aims; one of the commonest is to tie a knot in a handkerchief. It is obvious that by multiplying the number of knots a number a number of points equal to the number of knots might in this way be referred to, though it is probable that the untrained memory would fail to recall the meaning attached to more than a very limited number of knots. The simplest application of these knots is in keeping a record of a number of days, as in the story related by Herodotus (iv. 98), to the effect that Darius, on crossing the Ister in his Scythian expedition, left with the Greeks appointed to guard the bridge a thong with a number of knots equal to the number of days that their watch over the bridge was to be continued. One knot was to be undone each day, and if the king had not returned by the time that all the knots were undone, the Greeks were to break down the bridge and go away. A development of this is found in the Peruvian *quipus*, which consists of a number of thongs or cords hanging from a top-hand or cross-bar. In its simplified form, knots are merely tied upon the individual cords. In its more elaborate forms the cords are of different colours, and are attached together so as to form open loops of various shapes. In the *Antiguedades Peruanas*¹ we are told that the knots of the *quipus* in all probability indicated only numbers originally, but that as time went on the skill of the makers became so great that historical events, laws and edicts could thus be communicated. In every place of any importance there was an official whose business it was to interpret *quipus* received from a distance, and to make *quipus* himself. If, however, the *quipus* which was received came from a distant province, it was not intelligible without an oral explanation. Unfortunately, the art of interpretation of *quipus* is lost, so that it is impossible to ascertain how far the knots were merely a mnemonic for the messenger, and how far they were intelligible without explanation to a stranger. Similar mnemonics are said to have been used in the remotest antiquity amongst the Chinese, the Tibetans, and other peoples of the Old World.²

Similar in character to the *quipus* is the message-stick, which is still in use amongst the natives of Australia. A branch of a tree is taken and notches made upon it. These are now cut with a knife; in earlier times they were made by beating them together about the inner part of the branch of a tree or the trunk in the presence of the messenger, who receives his instructions while they are being made. The notches are thus merely aids to memory, and not self-explanatory, though if messages frequently passed between two persons, practice would in time help the person to whom the message was sent to guess at the


marked pebbles.

for the purposes of communication with absent persons, however, another method committed itself, which in time was adopted also for mnemonic purposes. This method was published by the discoverer of the quipus, M. Ed. Piette at Mas d'Azil, on the left bank of the Arize, an account of which was published in *L'Anthropologie* (1896) viii. 318 sqq. This layer of coloured pebbles is intercalated between the last layer of the Reindeer Age and the first of the Neolithic period. The layer is over 2 ft. thick, of a reddish-black colour, and along with the pebbles are found cinders, peroxide of iron, teeth of deer perforated, probably in order to be strung like beads, harpoons of various kinds, and the bones of a large number of animals, some wheat, and, in the upper part of the layer, nuts, cherty-stones and plums. The stones were coloured with peroxide of iron. The characters are of two kinds: (a) a series of strokes which possibly indicate numbers, (b) graphic symbols. The stones were scattered about without connexion or relation one with another. Whatever the meaning may be, it is clear that the markings are not accidental. It is noticeable, however, that none of them definitely represent any animal, though some of them bear a certain resemblance to caterpillars or serpents. Others look like rough attempts to represent trees and river plants. A great number closely resemble symbols of the alphabet. Piette himself was inclined to see in the symbols the forerunners of the later syllabaries and alphabets of the East, and time of them agreeing with forms in the Cypriot syllabary (see below) and eleven with those of the Phoenician alphabet. A certain amount of likeness, however, could not well be avoided, for as soon as the artist advances beyond the single perpendicular or horizontal line he must, by crossing two lines, get forms which resemble alphabetical symbols. It might be therefore a safer conclusion to suppose that if they passed beyond magic symbols, to be buried like the *Australiern* *churings*, they were conventional marks understood by the members of the clan or tribe which frequented the caves of Mas d'Azil. It has been suggested that, like similar things among the American Indians, they may have been used in playing games or gambling.

A very large number of conventional marks, however, are demonstrably reductions from still older forms, conventional marks often developing out of pictographs. Pictography has, in fact, left its traces in all parts of the world. It has, however, been most widely developed in the New World as a system lasting down to modern times. The American Indians, besides picture-writing, used also (1) the simple mnemonic or notched stick to record various events, which is the basis of a method of which the number of days spent on an expedition, the number of enemies slain and the like; (2) wampum belts, consisting of strung beads, which could be utilized as a mnemonic, exactly like a rosary. Wampum belts, however, were employed in more intricate forms; white beads indicated peace, purple or violet meant war. Sometimes a pattern was made in the belt with beads of a different colour, as in the belt presented to

William Penn on the making of a treaty with the Leni-Lenape chief in 1682. Here, in the centre of the belt, two figures, intended to represent Penn and an Indian, join hands, thus clearly indicating a treaty. Very simple pictures are drawn upon birch bark, indicating by their order the subjects in a series of song-chants with sufficient precision to enable the singer to recall the theme of each in his recitation. An account can be kept of sales or purchases by representing in perpendicular strokes the number of items, and adding at the end of each series a picture of the animal or object to which the particular series refers. Thus three strokes followed by the picture of a deer indicate that the hunter has brought three deer for sale. A conventional symbol (a circle with a dot) is used: a dot and a stroke represents ten cents, and an upright stroke one cent, so that the price can be quite clearly set forth. This practice is followed in many other parts of the world. In clay tablets discovered by Dr Arthur Evans during his exploration of the great palace at Knossos, in Crete, a somewhat similar method of enumeration is followed; while at Athens conventional symbols were used to distinguish drauchae and obols upon the revenue records, of which considerable fragments are still preserved.

In comparatively recent times, according to Colonel Mallery ("Algonquians, Broken Arrows, and Ethnology"), the Dakota Indians invented a chronological table, or winter count, wherein each year is recorded by a picture of some important event which befell during that year. In these pictures a considerable amount of symbolism was necessary. A black upright stroke indicates that a Dakota Indian was killed, a rough outline of the head and body spotted with blotches indicates that in the year thus indicated the tribe suffered from smallpox. Sometimes, in referring to persons, the symbol is of the nature of a rebus. Thus, Red Coat, an Indian chief, was killed in the winter of 1807–1808; this fact is recorded by a picture of a red coat with two feathers projecting from its back. It is, however, a rebus too, for the coat is also a means of writing the name of the old chief in conventionalized form. A similar formula for a name is employed for the first time in the winter count, which was intended to be a true statement of the year's events but, if it be true, it is a real instance of signs that would have constituted a serious loss to that highly important body. The effect of this love for decoration, combined with a desire for precision, is shown by the repetition several times over in the winter count of the sounds contained in words. The system of Egyptian was exactly parallel to Chinese. A combination of sounds, which were originally the name of an object, was represented by the picture of that object. This picture again, like Chinese, was compounded of names of parts of the object. Thus, for example, the name for the pan-Rajput—having seven active—a picture of the kind of object intended—in order to avoid ambiguity. As the alphabet represented only consonants and semi-consonants, and the Egyptian roots consisted mostly of only three letters, the parallelism with Chinese is remarkably close.

The ceremonium script spread to other people who spoke tongues in no way akin to those of either its inventors, the Sumerians, or their conquerors, the Semitic Babylonians and Assyrians, by the propagation of series of inscriptions, found in many parts of Asia and even in the Aegean, which are generally described as Hittite (q.v.) and are written in a script of pictographic origin, though probably independent of the Sumerian and Babylonian. It is notable that at a very early period a colony of Greeks from the Peloponnesus, speaking a dialect closely akin to the Arcadian dialect of Greece, which is known to us only from a much later period, had settled in the island of Cyprus. Alone among the Greeks this colony did not write in an alphabet, but under some Asiatic influence adopted a syllabary. Even when the island came again more closely in touch with their Greek kinsfolk, after the Persian wars, the Greek inhabitants continued to write in their syllabary. In the recent excavations made by the authorities of the British Museum an inscription of the 4th century B.C. was discovered, wherein a dedication to Demeter and Persephone was given first in Greek letters and repeated below in the syllabary, the Greek (as universally at so late a period) reading from left to right, the syllabary to the right. This syllabary has been worked out, but it could not distinguish between long and short vowels. In its consonant system it is unable to distinguish between breathed, voiced and aspirated stops, thus having but one symbol to represent /p/, /k/, /b/, /g/, /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /f/, /v/, /x/, /m/, /n/, /l/, /r/, but this is achieved by using the symbol for a syllable ending in e conventionally for the final consonant. Thus ka-te stands for kae, the Cyripi equivalent of the Hebrew oth, for lo, though none for f, and similarly for most of the other consonants. There is, however, no symbol for w (w).

In the course of the development of writing from pictography can be ascribed—see Assyrians (see Cuneiform), Egyptians (see Egypt) and Chinese (see China). Here more complex notions had to be expressed. The development of the system can be traced through many centuries, and, as might be expected, this development shows a tendency to conventionalize the pictorial symbols employed. Out of conventionalized forms develop (a) syllabaries, (b) alphabets. As regards the latter the historical evolution is traced in the article ALPHABET. The account given under China (Language) gives a good idea of the development of a syllabary from pictographic writing.

The Egyptian system of writing is perhaps the oldest of known scripts, and was on carvings of the Ptolemaic period, when the more convenient Greek alphabet led to its gradual disuse. The Chinese, on the contrary, was so adapted to the conventionalizing of the pictures, and in many cases to a complete divorcement between the symbol and the sound represented by it, that it is possible in modern times to recognize the original sign in modern writing. Thus it is no longer possible to trace it. Attempts have been made to connect the three great pictographic systems of the Old World, some authorities holding that the Chinese migrated eastwards from the African continent while others that the Chinese were corsairs originally from the valleys of the Euphrates, and that the ancient Egyptians were of the same stock as the Somali and were overlayed and permeated by a Semitic conquest and civilization. But there is no clear evidence that the Egyptian system of writing was not a development in the Nile Valley itself, or that it was either the descendant or the parent of the pictographic system which developed into the systems of the Old World.

Egyptian started from the same point as every other pictographic system—the representation of the object or the concrete expression of the idea. But, like the Chinese, it took the further step, short of which is the development of a syllabary, of breaking down the pictures into a syllabary from which there was an imperfect development towards an alphabet. Egyptian, however, never became alphabetic in the sense in which the western languages of modern Europe and the alphabet have been so; it continued to express the conservatism of the people, and the influence of the artist scibes, who, as Mr F. L. Griffith has pointed out,  fully appreciated the effect of a writing that was so simple that the signs would have constituted a serious loss to that highly important body. The effect of this love for decoration, combined with a desire for precision, is shown by the repetition several times over in the winter count of the sounds contained in words. The system of Egyptian was exactly parallel to Chinese. A combination of sounds, which were originally the name of an object, was represented by the picture of that object. This picture again, like Chinese, was compounded of names of parts of the object. Thus, for example, the name for the pan-Rajput—having seven active—a picture of the kind of object intended—in order to avoid ambiguity. As the alphabet represented only consonants and semi-consonants, and the Egyptian roots consisted mostly of only three letters, the parallelism with Chinese is remarkably close.

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In the course of the development of writing from pictography can be ascribed—see Assyrians (see Cuneiform), Egyptians (see Egypt) and Chinese (see China). Here more complex notions had to be expressed. The development of the system can be traced through many centuries, and, as might be expected, this development shows a tendency to conventionalize the pictorial symbols employed. Out of conventionalized forms develop (a) syllabaries, (b) alphabets. As regards the latter the historical evolution is traced in the article ALPHABET. The account given under China (Language) gives a good idea of the development of a syllabary from pictographic writing.
WROTHAM, an urban district in the Medway parliamentary division of Kent, England, 10 m. W. by N. of Maidstone, on the South-Eastern & Chatham railway. Pop. (1901) 3571. The church of St George, Early English and later, contains numerous brasses; and near it is the site of a palace of the archbishops of Canterbury, maintained until the time of Archbishop Simon Islip (c. 1350). Wrotham Park, for its forest (q.v.) the result of which is a fine quadrangular moated manor-house, the Mote, in part the 14th century, but with portions of Tudor dates.

WRYNECK (Ger. Wendehals, Dutch draaiholken, Fr. torcel), a bird so called from its way of writhing its head and neck, especially when captured on its nest in a hollow tree. The *Lync1 turqulla* is a regular summer visitant to most parts of Europe, generally arriving a few days before the cuckoo, and is known in England as "cuckoo's leader" and "cuckoo's mate," but occasionally is called "snake-bird," not only from the undulatory motions it is mentioned, but from the violent hissing with which it seeks to repel an intruder from its hole.3

The unmistakable note of the wryneck is merely a repetition of what may be syllabled *gue, gue, gue,* many times in succession, rapidly uttered at first, but gradually slowing and in a continually falling key. The male during a breeding season, and for about four weeks after the bird of the stay in Europe it seems to be mute. It feeds almost exclusively on insects, especially on ants. It is larger than a sparrow, but its plumage is not easily described, being beautifully variegated with shades of brown, green, and gray, and producing the hues of blackish-brown on a light ground—the darker markings disposed in patches, vermiculated bars, freckles, streaks or arrowheads—and the whole blended most harmoniously by the lighter patches of the under tail coverts. It is coloration of a pratincole or a woodcock (q.v.). The wryneck commonly lays its translucent white eggs on the bare wood of a hole in a tree, and it is one of the few wild birds that can be induced to go on hatching by abstracting all its eggs day after day, and thus upwards of forty have been taken from a single hole—but the proper complement is from six to ten. As regards Britain, the bird is most common in the S.E., its numbers decreasing rapidly towards the west and N., so that in Cornwall and Wales and beyond Cheshire and Yorkshire its occurrence is but rare, while it appears only by accident in Scotland and Ireland.

Some writers have been inclined to recognize five other species of the genus *Lync1*, but the so-called *Lync1 japonica* is specifically indistinguishable from *Lync1 turqulla*; while that designated, through a mistake in the locality assigned to it, *Lync1 indica*, has been found to be identical with the *Lync1 aequatorialis* of Africa. Near to this is *Lync1 quercicolis*, discovered by Emin Pasha in the E. of the Bar-el-Djebel (Ibis, 1884, p. 28, pl. iii). Another distinct African species is the *Lync1 aequatorialis*, originally described from Abyssinia. The wryneck (see Wryneck) is distributed in the West Indies by various species of the same genera, as in the more normal groups of which they differ but little in internal structure, but much in coloration and in having the tail-feathers bluish-black, or at least not stiffened to serve as props as in the true wryneck, *Pic1 nipalensis* (A. N.)

WRY-NECK (Lat. *Torticolis*), a congenital or acquired deformity, characterized by the affected side of the head being drawn downwards towards the shoulder together with deviation of the face towards the sound side. There are various forms. (1) The congenital, due to a lesion of the sterno-mastoid muscle, either the result of a malposition in utero or due to the rupture of the muscle in the delivery of the aftercoming head in the birth of the breech presentation. (2) The rheumatic, due to exposure to a draught or cold. This is commonly known as "stiff-neck." (3) The nervous or spasmodic, the result of (a) direct irritation of the spinal nerves as in cases of cervical irritation. In this form there is generally a family history of nervous diseases, notably epilepsy. This spasm is one of a group of nervous spasms known as "tics," a variety of habit spasm. The character of the movements varies with the muscles involved, the most usual muscle being the sterno-mastoid. The spasm ceases during sleep. Many cases are also due to hysteria and some to spiritual causes. When wry-neck is congenital, massage and manipulation may be tried and some form of apparatus. Failing this, division of the muscle surgically may be practised. In the spasmodic forms, anti-neurotic treatment is recommended, the use of the bromides, valerianates and belladonna, and hydrobromide of hyoscine injected into the muscles has been found of value. T. Grainger Stewart recommends in persistent tic the trial of continuous and regular movements in the affected group of muscles with a view to replacing the abnormal movements by normal ones. In severe cases it may be necessary to cut down on and stretch or excise the spinal accessory nerve. In rheumatic torticollis the spasm is usually overcome by the application of hot compresses and appropriate anti-rheumatic treatment.

WUCHANG, the capital of the combined provinces of Hup-ch and Hu-nan, China. It is one of the three cities, Wuchang, Hanyang and Hankow, which stand together at the mouth of the Han river, and is situated on the right bank of the river Yangtze, almost directly opposite the foreign settlement of Hankow. It is the seat of the provincial government of the two Hu or Hu-kwang, as these provinces are collectively termed, at the head of which is a viceroy. Next to Nanking and Canton, it is one of the most important vice-royalties in the empire. It possesses an arsenal and a mint. The provincial government has established ironworks for the manufacture of rails and other railway material. As the works did not pay under official management, they were transferred to the director-general of railways. Wuchang is not open to foreign trade and residence, but a considerable number of missionaries, both Roman Catholic and Protestants, have settled here. In 1901 the population was estimated at 800,000, including cities on both banks. Wuchang is an important junction on the trunk railway from Peking to Canton; and is on the route of the Sze-ch'uen railway.

WUCHOW, a treaty port in the province of Kwang-si, China, opened to foreign trade in 1897, and situated on the left bank of the Si-kiang (West river) at its junction with the Fu or Kwei-Kiang (Cassia) river. It is 220 m. above Canton, with which it is in navigable connexion for vessels drawing up to 8 ft. of water. In 1908 the value of the trade passing through the maritime customs amounted to £1,656,000, representing, however, only a portion of the trade. Of this total, two-thirds were for imports, consisting principally of cotton and cotton goods, kerosene oil, woollens, &c. Sugar, various oils, hides and aniseed were the chief exports. The native population is estimated at 65,000. At Shuiling the river flows for 5 m. through a deep gorge bordered by limestone cliffs 2000 ft. in height. Further up the river the woods its way through a series of rocky defiles, forming at intervals what seems an inland lake with no apparent outlet. During summer floods the water thus pent up by the rocks and defiles at Wuchow 50 or 60 ft. In consequence of the variation of river level, the principal offices and shops are built upon pontoons which are moored alongside the river-bank. The situation of Wuchow makes it the natural distributing centre between Kwei-chow, Kwang-si and Canton. Great things were therefore expected of it as a treaty port, but disorders in Kwang-si delayed the fulfilment of the hopes. Trade, however, has improved, and a large native passenger traffic has sprung up between it and Canton. It is connected with Hong Kong and Shanghai by telegraph.

WUHU, a city in the province of Nung-hui, China, about 1 m. from the S. bank of the Yangtze-kiang, with which it is connected by a straggling suburb. It is about 50 m. above Nanking, and in 1858 it was marked out as a treaty port, but was not opened to trade until 1877. It is connected by canals with the important cities of Ning-Kuo Fu, Tal-p'ing Hien, Nan-lung Hien and Ching Hien, the silk districts in the neighbourhood of the two last cities being within 50 m. of WuHu. Coal to a considerable extent exists in the country round. At first its commercial progress was very slow, the older ports of Kiu-kiang and Chiin-kiang migrating against its success; but of late there has been a distinct improvement in the trade of the port, the net value of which was about £3,000,000 in 1906. The principal exports are rice, cotton, wheat, tea, furs and feathers. For the production of feathers large quantities of ducks are reared in the surrounding districts. Of imports, opium formed
the most considerable item; other imports being matches, needles, sawed and window glass. The city, which is one of the largest in its rank in China, was laid desolate during the T'ai-p'ing rebellion, but has been repeopled, the population being estimated (1906) at 137,000. The streets are comparatively broad and are well paved. The land set apart for the British settlement, advantageously situated, was little built upon. A new general foreign settlement was opened in 1905.

**Wulfenite**, a mineral consisting of lead molybdate, PbMoO₄, crystallizing in the hemimorphic-tetragonal class of the tetragonal system. Crystals usually have the four faulted square plates bevelled at the edges lost lamellar plates. They have a vitreous luster and are sometimes present isomorphously replacing lead. The mineral occurs in veins of lead ore, and was first found in the 18th century in the lead mines at Bleiberg in Carinthia. Bright yellow crystals are found in New Mexico and Utah, and brilliant red crystals in Arizona.

**Wulfhere** (d. 679), king of the Mercians, was a younger son of King Fenda, and was kept in concealment for some time after Worcester's defeat and death in 655. In 658 or 659, however, the Mercians threw off the supremacy of Oswio, king of Northumbria, and Wulfhere became their king. He erected energetic measures to spread Christianity, and was greatly helped by his bishop, Jaruman, and afterwards by St. Chad. Outside Mercia he did something to induce the East and the South Saxons to accept Christianity, and is said to have founded one or two monasteries. He gained Lindsey from Northumbria in 657, and was successful against Wessex. He extended his boundaries in all directions, and was the founder of the passing greatness of Mercia, although Lindsey was just before his death Wulfhere's wife's property, a daughter of Eorlberht, king of Kent, and he was succeeded by his brother Athelred. His only son Coenred became king in 704 in succession to Aethelred. His only daughter was St. Werburga or Werburgh, abbess of Ely.


**Wulfgar** (1003-1015), archbishop of York from 1003 until his death in 1015, and also bishop of Worcester from 1003 to 1016, is generally held to be the author of a remarkable homily in alliterative English prose. Its title, taken from a manuscript, is *Lupi sermo ad Argilos, quando Dani maxime procelli sunt cos, quod fuit anno 1014*. It is an appeal to all classes to repent in the prospect of the imminent day of judgment, and gives a vivid picture of the desperate condition of England in the year of King Aethelred II.'s flight (1014). Of the many other homilies ascribed to Wulfgar very few are authentic. Subsequent legislation, especially that of Canute, bears clear traces of his influence.

See the edition of his homilies by A. Napier (Berlin, 1883); also the same writer's *Über die Werke des altenglischen Erzbischöfs Wulfgar*, Gottingen dissertation (1882), and his paper in *An Englisch Miscellany* (Oxford, 1901), pp. 1-35.

**Wulfenite—Wundt**

William II. in his struggle with the Welsh. Wulfsan's relations with his ecclesiastical superiors were not so harmonious, and at one time both Lanfranc of Canterbury and Thomas of York unsuccessfully demanded his removal. He was the only survivor of the Anglo-Saxon bishops when he died on the 18th of January 1095. In 1203 he was canonized by Pope Innocent III. By his preaching at Bristol Wulfsan is said to have put an end to the kidnapping of English men and women and selling them as slaves. He rebuilt the cathedral church of Worcester, and some parts of his building still remain.

Lives of St. Wulfsan by Hemming and Florence of Worcester are in *H. Wharton's Anglia sacra* (1861). See also E. A. Freeman, *Norman Conquest* (1867-1869).

**Wullenweber, Joseph** (c. 1492-1537), burgomaster of Lübeck, was born probably at Hamburg. Settling in Lübeck as a merchant he took some part in the risings of the inhabitants in 1530 and 1531, being strongly in sympathy with the democratic ideas in religion and politics which inspired them. Having joined the governing council of the city and become leader of the democratic party, he was appointed burgomaster early in 1533 and threw himself into the movement for restoring Lübeck to her former position of influence. Preparations were made to attack the Dutch towns, the principal trading rivals of Lübeck, when the death of Frederick I., king of Denmark, in April 1533 changed the political situation. The Lübbeckers objected to the prospect of the Danish crown upon any prince favourable to the Empire or the Roman religion, and Wullenweber went to Copenhagen to discuss the matter. At length an alliance was concluded with Henry VIII. of England; considerable support was obtained in N. Germany; and in 1534 an attack was made on Christian, duke of Holstein, afterwards King Christian III., who claimed the throne. At first the Lübbeckers gained several successes, but Christian of Holstein appeared before Lübeck; the efforts of Wullenweber to secure allies failed; and the citizens were compelled to make peace. The imperial court of justice at Darmstadt ordered the old constitution, and in August 1535 the aristocratic party returned to power. Soon afterwards Wullenweber was seized by Christopher, archbishop of Bremen, and handed over to his brother Henry II., duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. Having been tortured and sentenced to death as a traitor and an Anabaptist, he was beheaded at Wolfenbüttel on the 29th of September 1537. Wullenweber, who was long regarded as a popular hero in Lübeck, inspired tragedies by Heinrich Kruse and Karl Ferdinand Gutzkow, and a novel by Ludwig Köhler.

See also Fritz, *Leuchtenburg unter Jürgen Wullenweber und die europäische Politik* (Berlin, 1885-1886).

**Wundt, Wilhelm Max** (1832-1920), German physiologist and philosopher, was born on the 16th of August 1832 at Neckarau, in Baden. He studied medicine at Tübingen, Heidelberg and Berlin, and in 1857 began to lecture at Heidelberg. In 1864 he became assistant professor there, and in 1866 was chosen to represent Heidelberg in the Baden Chamber, but soon resigned. In 1874 he was elected regular professor of philosophy at Zürich, and in the following year was called to the corresponding chair at Leipzig, where he founded an Institute for Experimental Psychology, the precursor of many similar institutes. The list of Wundt's works is long and comprehensive, including physiology, psychology, logic and ethics. His earlier works deal chiefly with physiology, though often in close connexion with psychology, as in the *Verlesungen über die Menschen- und Tierseelen* (1883; 4th ed., 1906; trans. Creighton and Tillicher, 1896), *Lehrbuch der Physiologie des Menschen* (1865; 4th ed., 1878), *Grundzüge der physiologischen Physiologie* (1874; 6th ed., 3 vols., 1908). He published an important work on *Logik* (1882-1893; 3rd ed., 1906-1907), and this was followed in 1886 by his *Ethik* (3rd ed., 1905). According to Wundt, the straight road to ethics lies through ethnic psychology, whose especial business it is to consider the history of custom and of ethical ideas from the psychological standpoint. We must look for ethics to supply the corner-stone of metaphysics, and psychology is a necessary propædeutic. The *System der Philosophie* (1893; 3rd ed., 1907) contained the results of Wundt's work up to that date, both in
the domain of science and in the more strictly philosophic field. The metaphysical or ontological part of psychology is in Wundt's view the actual part, and with this the science of nature and the science of mind are to be brought into relation, and thus con-
stituted as far as possible philosophic sciences. In 1892 Wundt published Hypnotismus und Suggestion. Subsequent important works are Einleitung in die Psychologie (1880; 8th ed., 1907; translated by E. C. W. Stumpf, 3rd ed., 1907); Völkerpsychologie (1907); Die Grenzen des Deutschen Einleitungen in die Philos. (1901; 4th ed., 1906). Two other works, containing accounts of the work of himself and his pupils, are Philosophische Studien (1883-1902) and Psychologische Studien (1905 fol.).

WUNTHO, a native state of Upper Burma annexed by the British and incorporated in the district of Katha in 1892. Wuntho was classed by the Burmese as a Shan state, but was never on the same footing as the true Shan states, and only escaped be-
coming an integral part of the Burmese empire through Burmese want of system. The Shan name is Wying Hisa, "the city of the high." It had an area of about 2,400 sq. m. with 150,000 in-
habitants, and lay midway between the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers. When the British annexed Upper Burma in 1885 the state became a refuge for rebels and dacoit leaders. Finally in 1891 the state broke out into open rebellion, the sahwa was deposed, and a force of 1,800 troops under General Sir George Wolseley occupied the town of Wuntho and reduced the state to order.

WUPPER, a river of Germany, a right-bank tributary of the Rhine, rising in the Sauerland near Meinerzhagen. The most remarkable part of its course is that in the so-called Wuppertal. In this section, 30 m. in length, it passes through the populous towns of Barmen and Elberfeld and supplies water-power to about five hundred mills and factories. Leaving the hills above Opladen, it debouches on to the plain and enters the Rhine at Rheindorf between Cologne and Düsseldorf, after a course of 63 m.

See A. Schmidt, Die Wupper (Lennep, 1902).

WÜRTTEMBERG, a kingdom of Germany, forming a tolerably compact mass in the S.W. angle of the empire. In the south it is
cliff by the long narrow territory of Hoheonzellern, belonging to
Prussia; and it encloses six small enclaves of Baden and Hohen-
zellern, while it owns nine small exclaves within the limits of
these two states. It lies between 47° 34' 48" and 49° 35' 17" N., and between 8° 15' and 10° 30' E. Its greatest length from N. to S. is 140 m.; its greatest breadth is 100 m.; its boundaries, almost entirely arbitrary, have a circuit of 1,116 m.; and its total area is 7,534 sq. m., or about 3/5th of the entire empire. It is bounded on the E. by Bavaria, and on the other three sides by Baden, with the exception of a short distance on the S., where it touches Hohenenzollern and the lake of Constance.

Physical Features.—Württemberg forms part of the South-German tableland, and is hilly rather than mountainous. In fact the un-
dulating fertile terraces of Upper and Lower Swabia may be taken as the characteristic parts of this agricultural country. The usual estimates return one-fourth of the entire surface as "plain," less than one-third as "mountainous," and nearly one-half as "hilly." The average elevation above the sea-level is 1,650 ft.; the lowest point is at Böttingen (410 ft.), where the Neckar quits the country; the highest is the Katzenkopf (3757 ft.), on the Hornisgrinde, on the western border.

The chief mountains are the Black Forest (g.v.) on the west, the Swabian Jura or Raube Alb stretching across the middle of the country, and the northern boundary wall of north Swabia which is in the extreme south-east, adjoining the Algan Alps in Bavaria. The Raue Alb or Alp slopes gradually down into the plateau on its south-
side, but on the north it is sometimes rugged and steep, and has two line broken by isolated projecting hills. The highest iron and steel-dressing locations (for which Schorndorf enjoys a great reputation), machinery, motor-cars, bicycles, small arms (in the Mauser factory at Oberndorf), all kinds of scientific and artistic instruments, photographic apparatus, clocks (in the Black Forest), electrical apparatus, and gold and silver goods. There are also ex-
tensive chemical works, potteries, cabinet-making workshops, sugar factories, breweries, distilleries, and paper making. Water-power and petroleum may compensate for the lack of coal. Among other interesting develop-
ments is the manufacture of liquid carbonic acid gas procured from natural gas springs beside the Eyach, a tributary of the Neckar.

Commerce.—The principal exports are cattle, cereals, wood, pianos,
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salt, oil, leather, cotton and linen fabrics, beer, wine and spirits.

Communications.—In 1907 there were 1219 m. of railways, of which all except 159 m. belonged to the state. The Neckar, the Schussen and the lake of Constance are all navigable for boats; the Danube becomes navigable for boats at Ulm, and the Würm is navigable only fairly good; the oldest of them are Roman. Württemberg, like Bavaria, retained the control of its own postal and telegraph service on the foundation of the new German empire.

Constitution.—Württemberg is a constitutional monarchy and a part of the German empire, with four votes in the federal council (Bundesrat), and two votes in the imperial council. The imperial constitution rests on a law of 1810, amended in 1868, in 1874, and again in 1906. The crown is hereditary, and conveys the simple title of king of Württemberg. The king receives a civil list of £103,227. The legislature is bi-cameral. The upper chamber (Ständeherrschaft) is composed of adult princes of the blood, heads of noble families from the rank of count (Graf) upward, representatives of territories (Ständeherrschaften), who possessed votes in the old German imperial diet or in the local diet; it has also members (not more than 6) nominated by the king, 6 members elected by the city of Stuttgart, 6 ex-officio dignitaries, a representative of the university of Tübingen, 1 of the upper half of the university, 1 of the lower half of the university, 2 representatives of commerce and industry, 2 of agriculture, and 1 of handicrafts. The lower house (Abgeordnetenhaus) has 92 members, viz. a representative from each of the administrative divisions (Oberamtsbezirke), 63 in all without Stuttgart, which has 6 representatives; also 1 from each of the six chief provincial towns, and 17 members elected by the two electoral divisions (Landeswahlkreise) into which the kingdom is divided. The latter class of members as well as those for Stuttgart are elected on the principle of proportional representation. The members of the lower house elect the president of the upper chamber; since 1874 the lower chamber has elected its own chairman. Members of both houses must be over twenty-five years of age, and parliamentarians are elected for six years; the suffrage is enjoyed by all male citizens over twenty-five years of age, and voting is by ballot.

The highest executive is in the hands of a ministry of state (Staatsministerium), consisting of six ministers respectively of justice, foreign affairs (with the royal household, railways, posts and telegraphs), the interior, public worship and education, war and the navy, and finance, a privy council, consisting of the ministers and some nominated councillors (Ministerische Staatsräte), who advise the sovereign at his command. The judges of a special supreme court of justice, called the Staatsgerichtshof (which is the guardian of the constitution), are partly elected by the chambers and partly appointed by the king. Each of the chambers has the right to impeach the ministers. The country is divided into four governmental departments (Kreise) and subdivided into sixty-four divisions (Oberamtsbezirke), each of which is under a headman (Oberamtsmann) assisted by local council (Amtsversammlung). At the head of each of the four departments is a government (Regierung).

Religion.—The right of direction over the churches resides in the king, who has also the right to choose the representatives in the Protestant Reformed Church, the guardianship of the spiritual rights of that Church. The Protestant Church is controlled (under the minister of religion and education) by a consistory and a synod—the former consisting of a president, 9 councilors and 6 general superintendent or "prelates" from six principal towns, and the latter of a representative council, including both lay and clerical members. The Roman Catholic Church is subject to the bishop of Rottenburg, in the diocese of Freiburg. Politically it is under a Roman Catholic bishop, appointed by government. The Jews also, since 1828, have been established (parliamentarily) in the kingdom (Reichsland).

Education.—According to official returns there were in 1906, 31,031 in primary schools, 570 in middle schools, and 110 in high schools, with 604,000 pupils, 3000 teachers, and £2,000,000 expenditure. There are about 600,000 students in the universities and technical schools of Wurttemberg.

Army.—By terms of the convention of 1871 the troops of Württemberg form the XIth army corps of the imperial German army.

Finances.—The state revenue for 1909-1910 was estimated at £2,840,520, which is nearly balanced by the expenditure. About 3.600,000 voted for the revenue and 3,600,000 for the expenditure; about £1,000,000 from direct taxation; and the remainder from indirect taxes, the post-office and sundry items. In 1909 the public debt of the kingdom was £92,285,335, of which more than £27,000,000 was incurred for railway construction. The expenditure of the year 1909 was spent upon public worship and education, and over £1,000,000 goes in interest and repayment of the national debt. To the treasury of the land were the kingdoms a contribution of £600,000.

Authorities.—See Württembergische Jahrbücher für Statistik und Landeskunde; Das Königreich Württemberg, eine Beschreibung nach Kreisen, Oberämtern und Gemeinden (Stuttgart, 1904); Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Königreich Württemberg, 1885; Das Königreich Württemberg, eine Beschreibung von Land, Volk und Staat (1903); the Jahresberichte der Handels- und Gewerbehämmern in Württemberg; Lang, Der Verkehrs- und Bevölkerungswert Württembergs im Laufe des vierten Jahrhunderts (Tübingen, 1902); Engel and Schulze, Geographischer Wegweiser durch Württemberg (Stuttgart, 1908); Götz, Staatssrecht des Königreichs Württemberg (Tübingen, 1908); and F. Bitzer, Regierung und Stände in Württemberg (Stuttgart, 1882).

History.—The origin of the name Württemberg is uncertain, but the once popular derivation from Wirth am Berg is now universally rejected. Some authorities derive it from a proper name, Wirto or Wirtno; others from a Celtic place-name, Volunturum or Verdunum. At all events from being the name of a castle near the village of Rothenberg, not far from Stuttgart, it was extended over the surrounding country, and as the lords of this district increased their possessions so the name covered an ever-widening area, until it reached its present denotation. Early forms of it are Wirtimberg, Wirttibembe and Wirttibemere. Württemberg was long current, and in the latter part of the 16th century Württemberg and Württemberg appeared. In 1806 Württemberg was adopted as the official spelling. Though Württemberg is also common and occurs sometimes in official documents and even on coins issued after that date.

As far as we know, the first inhabitants of the country were the Celts, and then the Suebi. In the 1st century a.d. the Romans conquered the land and defended their position there by a rampart (limes). Early in the 3rd century the Alamanni drove the Romans beyond the Rhine and the Danube, but in their turn they were conquered by the Franks under Clovis, the decisive battle being fought in 496. For about four hundred years the country formed part of the Frankish kingdom. In the 9th century the Frankish kingdom was divided into several counties, but in the 9th century it was incorporated with the German duchy of Swabia. The duchy of Swabia was ruled by the Hohenstaufen family until the death of Conrad in 1268, when a considerable part of it fell to the count of Württemberg, the representative of a family first mentioned about 1086, a certain Conrad von Beutelsbach, having called himself after his ancestral castle of Württemberg. The earliest count about whom anything is known is one Ulrich, who ruled from 1241 to 1265. He was marshal of Swabia and advocate of the town of Ulm, and had large possessions in the valleys of the Neckar and the Rems. Under his sons, Ulrich II. and Eberhard I., and their successors the power of the family grew steadily. Eberhard (d. 1325) was the opponent, and not always the unsuccessful one, of three German kings; he double the area of his county and transferred his residence from Württemberg to Stuttgart. His successors were not perhaps equally important, but all added something to the area of Württemberg. The lands of the family were several times divided, but in 1482 they were declared indivisible and were united under Count Eberhard V., called in the court. This arrangement was confirmed by the German king, Maximilian I., and the imperial diet in 1495.

The Württembergers won one of the most tragic and romantic rulers that Württemberg ever had, and in 1495 his county was raised to the rank of duchy. Dying in 1496, he was succeeded by his cousin, Duke Eberhard II., who, however, was deposed after a short reign of two years. The long reign (1496-1520) of Ulrich I., who succeeded to the duchy while still a child, was a most eventful period for the country, and many traditions cluster round the name of this gifted, unscrupulous and ambitious man. The extortions by
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which he sought to raise money for his extravagant pleasures excited a rising known as that of the arme Konrad (poor Conrad), not unlike the rebellion in England led by Wat Tyler; order was soon restored, and in 1354 by the treaty of Tübingen the people undertook to pay the duke's debts in return for various political privileges, which in effect laid the foundation of the constitutional liberties of the country. A few years later Ulrich quarrelled with the Swabian League, and its forces, helped by William IV., duke of Bavaria, who was angered by the treatment meted out by Ulrich to his wife Sabina, a Bavarian princess, invaded Württemberg, expelled the duke and sold his duchy to the emperor Charles V. for 220,000 gulden. Charles handed over Württemberg to his brother, the German king, Ferdinand I., who was its nominal ruler for a few years. Soon, however, the discontent caused by the oppressive Austrian rule, the disturbances in Germany leading to the Peasants' War and the commotions aroused by the Reformation gave Ulrich an opportunity to recover it. Aided by Philip, landgrave of Hesse, and other Protestant princes, he fought a victorious battle against Ferdinand's troops at Lauffen in May 1534, and then by the treaty of Cadam he was again recognized as duke, but was forced to accept his duchy as an Austrian fief. He now introduced the reformed doctrines and proceeded to endow Protestant churches and schools throughout his land. Ulrich's connexion with the league of Schmalkalden led to another expulsion, but in 1547 he was reinstated by Charles V., although on somewhat onerous terms.

Ulrich's son and successor, Christopher (1515-1568), completed the work of converting his subjects to the reformed faith. He introduced a system of church government, the Große Kirchenordnung, which has endured in part to the present day. In this reign a standing commission was established to superintend the finances, and the members of this body, all of whom belonged to the upper classes, gained considerable power in the state, mainly at the expense of the towns. Christopher's son Louis, the founder of the Collegium illustre, died childless in 1593 and was succeeded by a kinsman, Frederick I. (1537-1608). This energetic prince, who disregarded the limits placed to his authority by the rudimentary constitution, by paying a large sum of money, induced the emperor Rudolph II. in 1578 to free the duchy from the suzerainty of Austria. Thus once again Württemberg became a direct fief of the Empire. Unlike his predecessor, the next duke, John Frederick (1582-1628), was not allowed to become an absolute ruler, but was forced to recognize the checks on his power. During this reign, which ended in July 1628, Württemberg suffered severely from the Thirty Years' War, although the duke himself took no part in it. His son and successor Eberhard III. (1614-1674), however, proved a good ally of France in the Thirty Years' War and in 1623 came of age in 1633, but after the battle of Nördlingen in 1634 the duchy was occupied by the imperialists and he himself was for some years an exile. He was restored by the peace of Westphalia, but it was to a depopulated and impoverished country, and he spent his remaining years in efforts to repair the disasters of the great war. During the reign of Eberhard IV. (1676-1733), who was only one year old when his father Duke William Louis died in 1677, Württemberg made the acquaintance of another destructive enemy. In 1688, 1703 and 1707 the French entered the duchy and inflicted brutalities and sufferings upon the inhabitants. The sparsely populated country submitted without a struggle to the fugitive Waldenses, who did something to restore it to prosperity, but this benefit was partly neutralized by the extravagance of the duke, anxious to provide for the expensive tastes of his mistress, Christiana Wilhelmina von Grünvitz. Charles Alexander, who became duke in 1733, had embraced the Roman Catholic faith while an officer in the Austrian service. His favourite adviser was the Jew Suss Oppenheimer, and it was thought that master and servant were aiming at the suppression of the diet and the introduction of the Roman Catholic religion. However, the sudden death of Charles Alexander in March 1737 put an abrupt end to these plans, and the regent, Charles Rudolph of Württemberg-Neuenstadt, had Oppenheimer hanged.

Charles Eugene (1728-1793), who came of age in 1744, was gifted, but vicious and extravagant, and he soon fell into the hands of unworthy favourites. He spent a great deal of money in building palaces at Stuttgart and elsewhere, and took the course, unpopular to his Protestant subjects, of fighting against Prussia during the Seven Years' War. His whole reign was disturbed by dissensions between the ruler and the ruled, the duke's irregular and arbitrary methods of raising money arousing great discontent. The intervention of the emperor and even of foreign powers was invoked, and in 1770 a formal arrangement removed some of the grievances of the people. But Charles Eugene did not keep his promises, although in his old age he made a few further concessions. He died childless, and was succeeded by one brother, Louis Eugene (d. 1795), and by another, Frederick Eugene (d. 1797). This latter prince, who had served in the army of Frederick the Great, to whom he was related by marriage, educated his children in the Protestant faith. Thus, when his son Frederick II. became duke in 1797, the ruler of Württemberg was again a Protestant, and the royal house has adhered to this faith since that date. During Frederick Eugene's short reign the French invaded Württemberg, compelled the duke to withdraw his troops from the imperial army and to pay a sum of money.

Frederick II. (1754-1816), a prince whose model was Frederick the Great, took part in the war against France in defiance of the wishes of his people, and when the French again invaded and devastated the country he retired to Erlangen, where he remained until after the conclusion of the peace of Lunéville in 1801. Frederick William of Prussia, who had married the latter, in 1797, his cousin, but in 1803 he ceded his possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, receiving in return nine imperial towns, among them Reutlingen and Heilbronn, and some other territories, amounting altogether to about 850 sq. m. and containing about 124,000 inhabitants. He also accepted from Napoleon the title of elector. These new districts were not incorporated with the duchy, but remained separate; they were known as New Württemberg and were ruled without a diet. In 1805 Württemberg took up arms on the side of France, and by the peace of Pressburg in December 1805 the elector was rewarded with various Austrian possessions in Swabia and with other lands in the neighbourhood. On the 1st of January 1806 Frederick assumed the title of king, abrogated the constitution and united old and new Württemberg. Subsequently he placed the property of the church under the control of the state. In 1806 he joined the Confederation of the Rhine and received further additions of territory containing 160,000 inhabitants; a little later, by the peace of Vienna in October 1809, about 110,000 more persons were placed under his rule. In return for these favours Frederick joined Napoleon in his campaigns against Prussia, Austria and Russia, and of 16,000 of his subjects who marched to Moscow only a few hundred returned. Then after the battle of Leipzig he deserted the waning fortunes of the French emperor, and by a treaty made with Metternich at Fulda in November 1813 he secured the confirmation of his royal title and of his recent acquisitions of territory, while his troops marched with those of the allies into France.

In 1815 the king joined the German Confederation, but the congress of Vienna made no change in the extent of his lands. In the same year he laid before the representatives of his people the sketch of a new constitution, but this was rejected, and in the midst of the complexion Frederick William II. died in 1816.

At once the new king, William I., took up the consideration of this question and after much discussion a new constitution was granted in September 1819. This is the constitution which, with subsequent modifications, is still in force, and it is described in an earlier section of this article. A period of quietness was now set in, and the condition of the kingdom, its education, its agriculture and its trade and manufactures, began to receive earnest attention, while by frugality, both in public and in private matters, King William helped to repair the shattered finances of the state. But the desire to greater political freedom had not been entirely satisfied by the constitution of 1819, and after 1830 there was a certain amount of unrest. This, however,
soon passed away, while trade was fostered by the inclusion of Württemberg in the German Zollverein and by the construction of railways. The revolutionary movement of 1848 did not leave Württemberg untouched, although no actual violence took place within the kingdom. The king was compelled to dismiss Johannes Schlayer (1792-1886) and his other ministers, and to call to power men with more liberal ideas, the exponents of the 'idea of a united Germany. A democratic constitution was proclaimed, but as soon as the movement had spent its force the liberal ministers were dismissed, and in October 1849 Schlayer and his associates were again in power. By interfering with popular electoral rights the king and his ministers succeeded in assembling a new Diet which this time surrendered all the privileges gained since 1848. In this way the constitution of 1819 was restored, and power passed into the hands of a bureaucracy. Almost the last act of William's long reign was to conclude a concordat with the Papacy, but this was repudiated by the diet, which preferred to regulate the relations between church and state in its own way.

In July 1864 Charles I. (1823-1891) succeeded his father William as king and had almost at once to face considerable difficulties. In the duel between Austria and Prussia for supremacy, Württemberg took part on the side of the former power, and this policy was equally acceptable to the new king and his advisers. In 1866 Württemberg took up arms on behalf of Austria, but three weeks after the battle of Königgrätz her troops were decisively beaten at Tauberbischofsheim, and the country was at the mercy of Prussia. The Prussians occupied the northern part of Württemberg and peace was made in August 1866; by this Württemberg paid an indemnity of 8,000,000 gulden, but at once concluded a secret offensive and defensive treaty with her conqueror.

The end of the struggle was followed by a renewal of the democratic agitation in Württemberg, but this had achieved no tangible results when the great war between France and Prussia broke out in 1870. Although the policy of Württemberg had continued antagonistic to Prussia, the country shared in the national enthusiasm which swept over Germany, and its troops took a creditable part in the battle of Wörth and in other operations of the war. In 1871 Württemberg became a member of the new German empire, but retained control of her own post office, telegraphs and railways. She had also certain special privileges with regard to taxation and the army, and for the next ten years the policy of Württemberg was one of enthusiastic loyalty to the new order. Many important reforms, especially in the realm of finance, were introduced, but a proposal for a union of the railway system with that of the rest of Germany was rejected. Certain reductions in taxation having been made in 1886, the reform of the constitution became the question of the hour. The king and his ministers wished to strengthen the conservatory element in the chambers, but only slight reforms were effected by the laws of 1874, 1876 and 1879, a more thorough settlement being postponed. On the 6th of October 1891 King Charles died suddenly, and was succeeded by his cousin William II. (b. 1848), who continued the policy of his predecessor.

The reform of the constitution continued to be discussed, and the election of 1895 was memorable because of the return of a powerful party of democrats. King William had no sons, nor had his only Protestant kinsman, Duke Nicholas (1833-1903); consequently the succession would ultimately pass to a Roman Catholic branch of the family, and this prospect raised up certain difficulties about the relations between church and state. The heir to the throne in 1910 was the Roman Catholic Duke Albert (b. 1879).

Between 1900 and 1910 the political history of Württemberg centred round the settlement of the constitutional and the educational questions. The constitution was revised in 1906 on the lines already indicated, and a settlement of the education difficulty was brought about in 1909. In 1906 the railway system was united with that of the rest of Germany.

For the history of Württemberg see the Württembergischen Ur- kundenbuch (Stuttgart, 1849-1907); and the Durststellungen aus der württembergischen Geschichte (Stuttgart, 1904 fol.). Histories are those of P. F. Stallm., Geschichte Württembergs (Gotth, 1882-1887); E. Schnecker, Württembergische Geschichte (Stuttgart, 1896); Bel schneider, Geschichte vom Württemberg und Bild (Stuttgart, 1902); Wellser, Württemberg in der deutschen Geschichte (Stuttgart, 1900); K. V. Fricker and Th. von Gessler, Geschichte der Verfassung Württembergs (Stuttgart, 1866); Hieber, Die württembergische Reform von 1819 (Heilbronn, 1892); Die Geschichte der deutschen Revolutionen (Würzburg, 1858) and Weltgeschichte der deutschen Geschichte in 12 Bde. (Heilbronn, 1906).
and in a better understanding of the relations between the oxygen and the amido-acids. In 1869 Wurtz prepared cyanuric acid synthetically by heating potassium cyanate with hydrochloric acid. Three years later he discovered aldol, pointing out its double character as at once an aldehyde and an alcohol. In addition to this list of some of the new substances he prepared, reference may be made to the discovery of abnormal densities, which he noticed in several papers, and in particular maintained the dissociation of the vapour of chloral hydrate, in opposition to H. Sainte-Claire Deville and M. Leblanc.

R. Thibault (1691-1767) Wurtz published in the Annales de chimie et de physique abstracts of chemical work done out of France. The publication of his great Dictionnaire de chimie pure et appliquée, in which he was assisted by many other French chemists, was begun in 1809 and finished in 1878; two supplementary volumes were issued 1880-1886, and in 1882 the publication of a second supplement was begun. Among his books are Chirone (1864), Leçons élémentaires de chimie moderne (1867), Théorie des atomes dans la conception du monde (1874), La Théorie atomique (1878), Progrès de l'industrie des matières colorantes artificielles (1880), Dictionnaire de chimie physique (1880-1885), Histoire des doctrines chimiques, the introductory discourse to his Dictionnaire, but published separately in 1868, opens with the well-known dictum, "La chimie est une science française."

For the history of his publications, see Charles Friedel's memoir in the Bulletin de la Société Chimique (1885); also A. W. von Hofmann in der. deut. chem. Gesellschaft (1887), reprinted in voll. iii. of his Zur Erinnerung an vorangegangene Freunde (1888).

**WURZBURG**, a university town and episcopal see of Bavaria, Germany, capital of the province of Lower Franconia, situated on the Main, 60 m. by rail S.E. from Frankfurt and at the junction of main lines to Bamberg and Nuremberg. Pop. (1905) 60,230. An ancient stone bridge (1474-1607), 650 ft. long and adorned with statues of saints, and two modern bridges, the Luitpold (1887) and the Ludwig (1894), connect the two parts of the town on either side of the river. On the lofty Leistenberg stands the fortress of Marienberg, which from 1261 to 1720 was the residence of the margraves. The main part of the town, on the right bank, is surrounded by shady promenades, the Ringstrasse and the quay.

Würzburg is quaintly and irregularly built; many of the houses are interesting specimens of medieval architecture; and the numerous old churches recall the fact that it was long the capital of an ecclesiastical principality. The principal church is the imposing Romanesque cathedral, a cathedral with transepts, begun in 1043 and completed in 1076; the high altar, ever, date from 1240, the (rococo) façade from 1717-1719, and the dome from 1733. The spacious transepts terminate in apses. The exterior was restored in 1882-1883. The beautiful Marienkapelle, a Gothic edifice of 1377-1441, was restored in 1896; it is embellished with twenty statues by Tilman Riemen-schneider (d. 1531). The Haugerskirch church, with two towers and a lofty dome, was built in the Italian Renaissance style in 1670-1691. The bones of St Kilian, the patron saint of Würzburg, are preserved in the Neumünster church, which dates from 1693.

The walls are of brick and the roof is that of the Wagewise and are surrounded by the adjoining cloisters. The church of St Burkhard is externally one of the best-preserved architectural monuments in the city. It was built in 1033-1042, in the Romanesque style, and was restored in 1168. The Late Gothic choir dates from 1494-1497. The Neubaukirche, or university church, curiously unites a Gothic exterior with a Classical interior. The Protestant church of St Stephen (1782-1793) originally belonged to a Benedictine abbey. Of the secular buildings in Würzburg the most conspicuous is the palace, a huge and magnificent edifice built in 1720-1744 in imitation of Versailles, and formerly the residence of the bishops and grand-dukes of Würzburg. The Julius hospital, a large and richly endowed institution affording food and lodging to 600 persons daily, was founded in 1576 by Bishop Julius Echter von Mespeblunn (1545-1619). In 1906 it was arranged to convert this into a residential college for students, the hospital being removed to a site outside the town. The quaint town hall dates in part from 1436. Among the other chief buildings are the government offices, the law courts, the theatre, the Maschule, the observatory and the various university buildings.

The University was founded at Würzburg in 1403, but it only existed for a few years. The present university was founded by Bishop Julius in 1582. The medical faculty speedily became famous, and has remained the most important faculty in Würzburg ever since. Here W. K. Röntgen discovered the "Röntgen rays" in 1896. Würzburg was long the stronghold of Jesuitism in Germany, and the Roman Catholic theological faculty still attracts a large number of students. The university has a library containing 300,000 volumes, and is attended by about 1400 students. In no other university city of Germany has so much of the medieval academic life been preserved.

Würzburg is surrounded by vineyards, which yield some of the best wine in Germany. Its principal industries are the manufacture of tobacco, furniture, machinery, scientific instruments and railway carriages. It has also breweries, and produces bricks, vinegar, malt and chocolate.

The site of the Leistenberg was occupied by a Roman fort, and was probably fortified early in the 13th century. **Wirsberg** is the old Latin form of the name of the town; **Hersberg** (hewt town) first appears in the 12th century. The bishopric was probably founded in 741, but the town appears in records in 860. The four towers, bow-turrets, and battlements of the St Burkhard, and his successors soon acquired much temporal power; about the 12th century they had ducal authority in Eastern Franconia. It is not surprising that quarrels broke out between the bishops and the citizens, and the latter espoused the cause of the emperor Henry IV., while the former joined the emperor's foes. The struggle continued intermittently until 1400, when the citizens were decisively defeated and submitted. Several imperial diets were held in Würzburg, chief among these being the one of 1180 when Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, was placed under the ban. By the peace of Lunéville the bishopric was secularized, and in 1803 Würzburg passed to Bavaria. The peace of Pressburg in 1805 transferred it, under the name of an electorate, to Ferdinand, formerly grand-duke of Tuscany, who joined the confederation of the Rhine and took the title of grand-duke of Würzburg. In 1815 the congress of Vienna restored Würzburg to Bavaria. The Würzburg Conference is the name given to the meeting of representatives of the smaller German states in 1830 to devise some means of mutual support. The conference, which was composed of the new states formed by the Prussians in 1866, in which year it ceased to be a fortress. The bishopric of Würzburg at one time embraced an area of about 1000 sq. m. and had about 250,000 inhabitants. A new bishopric of Würzburg was created in 1817.

For the town see S. Göhl, **Würzburg**. A. W. von Hofmann, in der. deut. Gesellschaft (1887), reprinted in voll. iii. of his Zur Erinnerung an vorangegangene Freunde (1888).
Wurzen was founded by the Sorbs, and was a town early in the 12th century, when Herwig, bishop of Meissen, founded a monastery here. In 1581 it passed to the elector of Saxony, and in the Thirty Years’ War was sacked by the Swedes.

WUTTKE, KARL FRIEDRICH ADOLF (1819-1870), German Protestant theologian, was born at Breslau on the 10th of November 1819. He studied theology at Breslau, Berlin and Halle, where he eventually became professor ordinarius; and is known as the author of a treatise on Christian ethics (Handbuch der christlichen Ethik, 1830-1833; 3d ed. 1874-1875; Eng. trans., New York, 1873) and works on heathen religions (Die Geschichte des Heidentums, 1851-1853) and superstition (Der deutsche Volksbrauch der Gegenwart, 1865, 2nd ed. 1866). He died on the 12th of April 1870.

WYANDOT, or Huron (q.v.), a tribe of N. American Indians of Iroquoian stock. When first met by the French early in the 17th century, the Wyandots lived between Georgian Bay and Lake Simcoe, Ontario. They were then estimated at about 10,000, scattered over twenty villages. They were continually the victims of raids on the part of their neighbours the Iroquoians, and the Wyandots were driven from place to place, and a dispersal in 1650 resulted in one section settling in Quebec, while others found their way to Ohio, where they fought for the English in the Wars of Independence and 1812. By a treaty made in 1817 the latter section was granted territory in Ohio and Michigan, but the larger part of this was sold in 1819. In 1842 they migrated to Kansas. In 1855 many became citizens, the remainder being in 1867 removed to a reservation (now N.E. Oklahoma), numbering about 400 in 1905. The Hurons at Lorette, in Quebec, also number about 400.

See Handbook of the American Indians, ed. F. W. Hodge (Washington, 1907), s.v. ‘Huron.’

WYANDOTTE, a city of Wayne county, Michigan, U.S.A., on the Detroit river, about 6 m. S. by W. of Detroit. Pop. (1900) 52,83, of whom 1,67 were foreign-born; (1904) 5,425; (1910) 8,287. It is served by the Michigan Central, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Detroit, Toledo & Ironton, and (for freight only) the Detroit & Toledo Shore Line railways, and by two interurban electric lines. Salt and limestone are found here and the city has various manufactures. Wyandotte was first settled about 1820, was laid out as a town in 1834, and chartered as a city in 1867.

WYANTCHE, a ravine in Jennings township, Crawford county, Indiana, U.S.A., 5 m. N.E. of Leweswood, on the Ohio river, and 12 m. from Corydon, the early territorial capital. The nearest railway station is Milltown, 9 m. distant. The cave is in a rugged region of high limestone hills, in one of which its main entrance is found, 220 ft. above the level of the Blue river, whose original name, the Wyandotte, was transferred to the cave by Governor David Wallace; it having previously been styled the Mammoth Cave of Indiana, the Epsom Salts Cave, and the Indiana Saltpetre Cave. The exact date of discovery is not known; but early records show it to have been pre-eminated by Dr. Adams in 1812 for the manufacture of saltpetre, and his vats and hoppers are still to be seen. After the War of 1812 he relinquished his claim; and in 1819 the ground was bought from the United States government by Henry P. Rothrock, whose heirs are its owners. The earliest account is in Flint’s Geography (1831); the first official report of it was by Dr. R. T. Brown (1831); and it was first mapped by the writer (1833), whose map was revised by John Collette, state geologist (1878).

No instrumental survey has been made, nor have all its intricate windings been explored. Its known passages aggregate more than 23 m. in length, and 144 places are named as the mouths of which are entered. There is a large cavern, known as the Lucifera’s cavern, in which has been found a carbuncle, 2 ft. in diameter. The 'Old Cave' contains the saltpetre works, and ends in a remarkable chamber exactly 144 ft. long and 50 ft. wide, in which stands the Pillar of the Constitution, a stalagmitic column perfectly cylindrical and 71 ft. in circumference, entirely composed of crystalline carbonate of lime (satin-spar), fluted and snow-white. A cavity in the column was first claimed by H. C. Hovey as a prehistoric quarry, proved to be such by the stag horns and boulderounders found in its vicinity. His careful estimate of the rate of stalagmite growth showed that 1000 years would have been needed to form the lip now covering the incision.

In the N. arm of the newer part of the cave, opened in 1850, is an immense room, styled Rotherock’s Cathedral, 1000 ft. in circumference and 200 ft. high, with a rugged central hill 135 ft. high, surmounted by statuesque stalagmites, near which is another quarry of satin-spar with similar formations, and by aboriginal relics. When Mr. Hovey visited this cave in 1855 he found many extinct torches, charcoal embers, poise and other objects, as numerous footprints, in the soft nitrous earth of certain avenues, which were left by earlyappers and potters previous to the coming of the white man.

In the Pillared Palace a number of large fluterober slides had been thrown down and fragments were carried away. Near by were so-called ‘bear-walls,’ which proved to be the remains of an aboriginal workshop, where masses of flint were broken into rectangular blocks; and slabs and flint-chips were scattered about. In the floor of the passage-way. Milroy’s Temple is a magnificent room, 100 by 150 ft. in its dimensions. It contains many remarkable formations, a display of helictites, or twisted stalactites, is unsurpassed.

Wyandotte Cave has no large streams and few pools or springs, its fauna and flora are not extensive. Formerly bears, wolves and other wild animals took refuge in its fastnesses; and bats, rats, mice and salamanders are frequent visitors. Blind crawfish (Cambarus pelliculatus) and the Crawfish Spring. Cave crickets (Hemisus subterraneus) abound. A dozen kinds of insects, with a few varieties of spiders, flies and worms complete the meager list. The flora include many forms brought in from the outside.

For more full descriptions of Wyandotte Cave and its contents, see Hovey’s Celebrated American Caverns, pp. (183) 183-185; Indiana State Geological Reports, by R. T. Brown, E. T. Cox, John Collette, S. Blashey; and concerning cave fauna reports and papers by C. H. Eigenmann, professor of zoology, Indiana University.

WYANT, ALEXANDER H. (1836-1892), American artist, was born at Port Washington, Ohio, on the 11th of January 1836. He was a pupil of Hans Gude in Carlsruhe, Germany. A trip with a government exploring expedition in the west of America undermined his health, and he painted mainly in the high altitudes of the Adirondack Mountains. He was elected a full member of the National Academy of Design, New York, in 1869, and died in New York City on the 29th of November 1892. He was only moderately appreciated during his lifetime, though after his death his works were eagerly sought for.

WYAT, SIR THOMAS (1503-1542), English poet and statesman, elder son of Henry Wyatt, or Wat, afterwards knighted, and his wife Anne, daughter of John Skinner of Reigate, Surrey, was born at Allington Castle, near Maidstone, Kent, in 1503. His father (1460-1537) belonged to a Yorkshire family, but bought Allington about 1492. He was an adherent of the Lancastrian party, and was imprisoned and put to the torture by Richard III. The family records (in the possession of the earl of Romney) relate that during his imprisonment he was saved from starvation by a cat that brought him pigeons. At the battle of Bosworth (1485) he was knighted of the Bath (1500) knight banneret (1513) and held various offices at court. His son, Thomas Wyatt, was admitted at St. John’s College, Cambridge, when about twelve years of age, took his B.A. degree in 1518, and proceeded M.A. in 1522. The vague statement of Anthony à Wood (Athen. Oxon. i. 124), that he was transferred to Oxford to attend Wolsey’s new college there, has no foundation in fact. He married very early Elizabeth Brooke, daughter of the 3rd
Lord Cobham. The marriage was an unhappy one, for a letter (29th March 1537) from the lady's brother to Thomas Cromwell complains that Wyat had gone abroad and made no provision for his wife, and a letter from the Spanish ambassador Chapuys to Charles V. (26th Feb. 1543) speaks of his having been proclaimed by his husband. As early as 1536 Wyat was server extraordinary to the king, and in 1524 he was at court as keeper of the king's jewels. He was one of the champions in the Christmas tournament of 1525. His father had been associated with Sir Thomas Boleyn as constable of Norwich Castle, and he had thus been early acquainted with Anne Boleyn. He appears to have been generally regarded as her lover, but it is possible that the relations between them were merely of the fashionable poetic sort. In 1526 he was sent with Sir Thomas Cheney to congratulate Francis I. on his safe return from Spain; in 1527 he accompanied Sir John Russell, afterwards 1st earl of Bedford, on an embassy to the papal court. He was sent by Russell, who was incapacitated by a broken leg, to negotiate with the Venetian republic. On his return journey to Rome he was taken prisoner by the Spanish troops, who demanded 3000 ducats for his ransom, but he contrived to escape. In 1528 he was acting as high marshal at Calais with a salary of two shillings per day, and was only superseded in November 1530. During the following years he was constantly employed in Henry's service, and was apparently high in his favour. He was, however, sent to the Tower in 1535, perhaps because it was desired that he should incriminate the queen. His father's correspondence with Cromwell does not suggest that his arrest had anything to do with the proceedings against Anne Boleyn, but the connexion is assumed (Letters and Papers of Henry VIII. vol. x. No. 910) in the letters of John Hussey to Lord Lisle, deputy of Calais. The Roman Catholic writer, Nicholas Harpsfield, makes a circumstantial statement ( Pretended Divorce . . . Camden Soci. p. 253) that Wyat had confessed his intimacy with Anne to Henry VIII. and warned him against marrying her; but this, in view of Wyat's unfavourable position, may be improbable. He was released after a month's imprisonment, and in the autumn of that year took part in the suppression of the Lincolnshire rising. In March 1537 he was knighted, and a month later was sent abroad as ambassador to Charles V., whose ill-will had been revived by the declaration of the illegitimacy of the princess Mary. In 1538 he was joined by Edmund Bonner, then a simple priest, and one Simon Haynes, and seems to have been ashamed of their bad manners, and to have offended them in various ways. Bonner had evidently been desired by Thomas Cromwell to send his own description of the negotiations to the pope, and he wrote a letter (2nd Sept. 1538) a long letter (Petyt MS. 47, Middle Temple; first printed in the Gentleman's Magazine, June 1850) in which he accused Wyat of disloyalty to the king's interests, and of many personal slights to himself. Wyat was unsuccessful in the difficult affairs entrusted to him, but so long as Cromwell ruled he had a firm hand at court, and no notice was taken of Bonner's allegations. Cromwell even seems to have taken some care of his private affairs, which were left in considerable disorder. He was recalled in April 1539, but later in the same year he was employed on another embassy to the emperor, who was on his way to the Low Countries. After Cromwell's death Wyat's enemies renewed their attacks, and he was imprisoned (17th Jan. 1541) in the Tower on the old charges, with the additional accusation of reasonable correspondence with Cardinal Reginald Pole. Being privately informed of the nature of the charges, he prepared an eloquent and manly defence of his conduct in two documents addressed to the Privy Council and to his judges, in which he cleared himself effectually and exposed his accusers' motives. He was released at the intercession of the queen, Catherine Howard, in the condition that he confessed his guilt and took back his wife, from whom he had been separated for fifteen years, on pain of death if he were thenceforth untruse to her (see Chapuys to Charles V., March 1541). He received a formal pardon on the 21st of March, and received during the year substantial marks of the king's favour. In the summer of the next year he was sent to Falmouth to meet the ambassador of the emperor. The heat brought on a fever to which he succumbed at Sherborne, Dorset, on the 11th of October. A Latin elegy on his death was written by his friend John Leland, "Naenia in mortem Thomae Viati equitis incomparabilis"; and Henry Howard, earl of Surrey, celebrated his memory in some well-known lines beginning "Wyat resteth here, that quick could never rest," and in two sonnets.

Wyat's work falls readily into two divisions: the sonnets, rondeaus, and lyric poems dealing with love; and the satires and the version of the penitential psalms. The love poems probably date from before his first imprisonment. A large number were published in 1557 in Songs and Sonettes (Tottel's Miscellany). Wyat's contributions number 96 out of a total of 310. These have been supplemented from MSS. He was the pioneer of the sonnet in England, and the acknowledged leader of the "company of courtiers", an exalted company, having ravished in Italy and France, tasted the sweet and stately manners of the Italian Poesie, as novices newly crept out of the schools of Dante, Arioste and Petrarch, greatly polished our rude and homely maner of vulgar Poesie, from that it had been before" (Puttenham's Art of English Poesie, 1589).¹ Wyat wrote in all thirty-one sonnets, ten of which are direct translations of Petrarch. The sentiment is strained and artificial. Wyat shows to greater advantage in his lyrical metres, in his epigrams and songs, especially in those written for music, where he is less hampered by the Petrarcan tradition, to which his singularly robust and frank nature was ill-fitted. His thought is generally far in advance of his technical skill, and his disciple Surrey has been far more widely recognized, chiefly because of the superior smoothness of his versification. His works are preserved in a MS. in possession of the Harrington family, which originally belonged to Wyat himself, and in another belonging to the duke of Devonshire in which are inscribed the names of Wyat's sister, Margaret Lee, and of the duchess of Richmond, Surrey's sister. The text differs considerably from Tottel's, which has been generally accepted as the more accurate, and is the text of the standard edition. Wyat's sonnets, written perhaps fifteen years after his death, in Songs and Sonettes. The standard edition of his works is that by Dr G. F. Nott, forming the second volume (1816) of The Works of Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, and of Sir Thomas Wyat the courtier. An exhaustive edition, some family papers, and letters in the possession of the earl of Romney, were collected by Richard Wyat in 1727. Some use of these is made in The History of Bolles Parish (1862), by J. Cave Browne. See also Brewer and Gairdner, Letters and Papers of Henry VIII. (especially from 1536 to 1547); The Poetical Works of Sir Thomas Wyatt (1866), with a memoir in the Aldine Edition of the British Poets; Professor E. Arber's introductory matter to the edition of Songs and Sonettes (1870) in his English Reprints; R. Alsheier, "Sir Thomas Wyatt . . ." (1886), in Wiener Beitrage zur deutschen u. engl. Philologie, giving a full account of Wyatt's metrical practice; W. E. Simpson, Sir Thomas Wyatt (Boston, 1886); W. J. Court, Historie, Hist. Eng. Poetry, vol. ii. (1887), the second chapter of which is devoted to a critical study of Wyatt; E. Flügel, Die handschriftliche Überlieferung der Gedichte von Sir Thomas Wyat, in its place, vol. xvi., F. M. Padel, Early Sixteenth Century Lyrics (1897).

¹Ed. J. Hasleweld, Ancient Critical Essays, i. 48 (1811).
²One of the most musical of the pieces printed in his works, however, The Lover complayeth the unhinketh songs of his, is attributed to George Boleyn, Lord Rochford (see E. Bapst, Deux Gentilshommes poèles de la cour de Henri VIII. p. 142).
Spaniards by the menace of the Inquisition. In 1537 he married Jane, daughter of Sir William Hawte of Bishopbourne in Kent, by whom he had ten children. Wyatt was noted in his youth as dissipated, and even as disorderly. He is known to have had a natural son, whose mother Elizabeth was a daughter of Sir Edward Darrell of Littlecote. In 1542 he inherited the family property of Allington Castle and Bolesley Abbey on the death of his father. From 1543 to 1550 he saw service abroad as a soldier. In 1554 he joined with the conspirators who combined to prevent the marriage of Queen Mary with Philip the prince of Spain, afterwards King Philip II. A general movement was planned; but his fellow-conspirators were timid and inept, and the rising was crushed before it began. He became a reliable rebel mostly by accident. On the 22nd of January 1554 he summoned a meeting of his friends at his castle of Allington, and the 25th was fixed for the rising. On the 26th Wyat occupied Rochester, and issued a proclamation to the country. The people of the country and local gentry collected, but at first the queen's supporters, led by Lord Abergavenny and Sir Robert Southwell, the sheriff, appeared to be able to suppress the rising with ease, gaining some successes against isolated bands of the insurgents. But the Spanish movement was unpopular, and Kent was more affected by the preaching of the reformers than most of the country excepting the south. Abergavenny and Southwell were deserted by their men, who either disbanded or went over to Wyat. A detachment of the London train-bands sent against him by Queen Mary, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, followed their example. The rising now seemed so formidable that a deputation was sent to Wyat by the queen and council to ask for his terms. He insisted that the Tower should be surrendered to him, and the queen put under his charge. The insolence of these demands caused a reaction in London, where the reformers were strong and were at first in sympathy with him. Wyat advanced a detachment of the army, and was found within London Bridge occupied in force, and unable to penetrate into the city. He was driven from Southwark by the threats of Sir John Bryges (or Bruges), afterwards Lord Chandos, who was prepared to fire on the suburb with the guns of the Tower. Wyat now marched up the river to Kingston, where he crossed the Thames, and made his way to Ludgate with a part of his following. Some of his men were cut off. Others lost heart and deserted. His only hope was that a rising would take place, but the loyal forces kept order, and after a futile attempt to force the gate Wyat surrendered. He was brought to trial on the 10th of March, and could make no head against his accusers. Wyat was found guilty of treason and was executed on April 11th, no doubt in the hope that in order to save his life he would say enough to compromise the queen's sister Elizabeth, afterwards Queen Elizabeth, in whose interests the rising was supposed to have been made. But he would not confess enough to render her liable to a trial for treason. He was executed on the 11th of April, and on the scaffold expressly cleared the princess of all complicity in the rising. His estates were afterwards partly restored to his son George, the father of the Sir Francis Wyat (d. 1644) who was governor of Virginia in 1623-26 and 1639-42. A fragment of the castle of Allington is still inhabited by the London Bridge occupied in force, and was unable to penetrate into the city. He was driven from Southwark by the threats of Sir John Bryges (or Bruges), afterwards Lord Chandos, who was prepared to fire on the suburb with the guns of the Tower. Wyat now marched up the river to Kingston, where he crossed the Thames, and made his way to Ludgate with a part of his following. Some of his men were cut off. Others lost heart and deserted. His only hope was that a rising would take place, but the loyal forces kept order, and after a futile attempt to force the gate Wyat surrendered. He was brought to trial on the 10th of March, and could make no head against his accusers. Wyat was found guilty of treason and was executed on April 11th, no doubt in the hope that in order to save his life he would say enough to compromise the queen's sister Elizabeth, afterwards Queen Elizabeth, in whose interests the rising was supposed to have been made. But he would not confess enough to render her liable to a trial for treason. He was executed on the 11th of April, and on the scaffold expressly cleared the princess of all complicity in the rising. His estates were afterwards partly restored to his son George, the father of the Sir Francis Wyat (d. 1644) who was governor of Virginia in 1623-26 and 1639-42. A fragment of the castle of Allington is still inhabited as a farm-house, near Maidstone, on the bank of the Medway.


WYATT, JAMES (1746-1813), English architect, was born at Burton Constable in Staffordshire on the 3rd of August 1746. He was the sixth son of Benjamin Wyatt, a farmer, timber merchant and builder. At the age of fourteen his taste for drawing attracted the attention of Lord Bagot, newly appointed ambassador to the pope, who took him with him to Rome, where he spent a part of his life in studying architecture. He returned to England in 1766, and gained his first great success by the adaptation for dramatic purposes of the Pantheon in Oxford Street, London (1772), a work which was destroyed by fire twenty years later. In 1776 he was made surveyor of Westminster Abbey, and in 1778 and the following years executed many important commissions at Oxford. During this earlier period Wyatt shared the prevailing contempt for Gothic architecture; thus the New Buildings at Magdalen College, Oxford, designed by him, formed part of a scheme, the plans for which are extant, which involved the demolition of the famous medieval quadrangle and cloisters. He built many country houses in the classic style, of which he proved himself a master. Gradually, however, he turned his attention to Gothic, the spirit of which, in spite of his diligent study of medieval models, he never understood. The result is still visible in such "Gothic" fakes as that at Ashridge Park, Hertfordshire, built for Lord Bridgewater to replace the ancient priory, and in the lamentable "restorations," e.g. in Salisbury and Lichfield cathedrals, which earned him even among contemporary archaeologists the title of the "Destroyer." Of these Gothic experiments the most celebrated was Fonthill Abbey, built for Beckford (the eccentric author of Vathek), the great tower of which speedily collapsed, while much of the rest has been pulled down. None the less, Wyatt must be regarded as the pioneer of the "Gothic revival," while his general influence may be gauged by the fact that nearly every county and large town in England possesses or possessed buildings by him.

On the death of Sir William Chambers in 1796, he was appointed surveyor-general to the Board of Works. In 1795 he became a member of the Royal Academy, and during a misunderstanding between Benjamin West and the Academy, in 1805, he filled the presidential office at the wish of King George III. He was killed by a fall from his carriage on the 4th of September 1815, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. His son, Benjamin Dean Wyatt (1775-1857), who succeeded him as surveyor of Westminster Abbey, was also an architect of some distinction.

WYCHERLEY, WILLIAM (c. 1640-1710), English dramatist, was born about 1640 at Clive, near Shrewsbury, where for several generations his family had been settled on a moderate estate of about 600 a year. Like Vanbrugh, Wycherley spent his early years in France, whither, at the age of fifteen, he was sent to be educated in the very heart of the "precious" circle on the banks of the Charente. Wycherley's friend, Major Pack, tells us that his hero "improved, with the greatest refinements," the "extraordinary talents" for which he was "obliged to nature." Although the harmless affectations of the circle of Madame de Montausier, formerly Madame de Rambouillet, are certainly not chargeable with the "refinements" of Wycherley's countrymen, Voltaire could not but observe Voltaire to say afterwards of them, "Il semble que les Anglais prennent trop de liberté et que les Français n'en prennent pas assez"—these same affectations seem to have been much more potent in the regard to the "refinements" of Wycherley's religion.

Wycherley, though a man of far more intellectual power than is generally supposed, was a fine gentleman first, a responsible being afterwards. Hence under the manipulations of the heroine of the "Garland" he turned from the Protestantism of his fathers to Romanism—turned at once, and with the same easy security as afterwards, at Oxford, he turned back to Protestantism under the manipulations of such an accomplished master in the art of turning as Bishop Barlow. And if, as Macaulay hints, Wycherley's turning back to Romanism once more had something to do with the patronage and unwonted liberality of James II., this merely proves that the deity he worshipped was the deity of the "polite world" of his time—gentility. Moreover, as a professional fine gentleman, at a period when, as the genial Major Pack says, "the amours of Britain would furnish as diverting memoirs, if well related, as those of France published by Rabbin, or those of Nero's court writ by Petronius," Wycherley was obliged to be a loose liver. But, for all that, Wycherley's sobriquet of "Manly Wycherley" seems to have been fairly earned by him, earned by that frank and straightforward way of confronting life which, according to Pope and Swift, characterized also his brilliant successor Vanbrugh.

That effort of Wycherley's to bring to Buckingham's notice
the case of Samuel Butler (so shamefully neglected by the court Butler had served) shows that the writer of even such heartless plays as The Country Wife may be familiar with generous impulses, while his uncompromising lines in defence of Buckingham, when the duke in his turn fell into trouble, show that the inventor of so shameless a fraud as that which forms the pivot of The Plain Dealer may in actual life possess that passion for fairplay which is believed to be a specially English quality. But among the “ninety-nine” religions with which Voltaire accredited England there is one whose permanency has never been shaken—the worship of gentility. To this Wycherley remained as faithful to the day of his death as Congreve himself. And, if his relations to that “other world beyond this,” which the Puritans had adopted, were liable to change with his environment, it was because that “other world” was really out of fashion altogether.

Wycherley’s university career seems also to have been influenced by the same causes. Although Puritanism had certainly not contaminated the universities, yet English “quality and politeness” (to use Major Pack’s words) have always, since the great rebellion, been rather ashamed of possessing too much learning. As a fellow-commoner of Queen’s College, Oxford, Wycherley only lived (according to Wood) in the provost’s lodgings, being entered in the public library under the title of “Philosophiae Studiosus” in July 1660. And he does not seem to have matriculated or to have taken a degree.

In 1663 Wycherley went to Oxford and took up his residence in the Inner Temple, where he had been entered in 1659, did give any more attention to the dry study of the law than was proper to one so warmly caressed “by the persons most eminent for their quality or politeness.” Pleasure and the stage were alone open to him, and probably early in 1671 was produced, at the Theatre Royal, Love in a Wood. It was published the next year. With regard to this comedy Wycherley told Pope—told him “over and over” till Pope believed him—believed him, at least, until they quarrelled about Wycherley’s verses—that he wrote it the year before he went to Oxford. But we need not believe him: the worst witness against a man is mostly himself. To pose as the wicked boy of genius has been the foolish ambition of many writers, but on inquiry it will generally be found that these inktorn Loharios are not nearly so wicked as they would have us believe. When Wycherley charges himself with having written, as a boy of nineteen, scenes so callous and so depraved that even Barbara Palmer’s appetite for profanity was, if not satisfied, appeased, there is, we repeat, no need to believe him. Indeed, there is every reason to disbelieve him—not for the reasons advanced by Macaulay, however, who in challenging Wycherley’s date does not go nearly deep enough. Macaulay points to the allusions in the play to gentlemen’s periwigs, to guineas, to the vests which Charles ordered to be worn at court, to the great fire, &c., as showing that the comedy could not have been written the year before the author went to Oxford. We must remember, however, that even if the play had been written in that year, and delayed in its production till 1672, it is exactly this kind of allusion to recent events which any dramatist with an eye to freshness of character would be inclined to use. It is not impossible that “the whole air and spirit of the piece belong to a period subsequent to that mentioned by Wycherley,” but that “the whole air and spirit of the piece” belong to a man—an experienced and hardened young man of the world—and not to a boy who would fain pose as an experienced and hardened young man of the world. The real defence of Wycherley against his foolish impeachments of himself is this, that Love in a Wood, however inferior in structure and in all the artistic economies to The Country Wife and The Plain Dealer, contains scenes which no inexperienced boy could have written—sceneries which, not for moral hardness merely, but often for real dramatic ripeness, are almost the strongest to be found amongst his four plays. With regard to dramatic ripeness, indeed, if we were asked to indicate the finest touch in all Wycherley, we should very likely select a speech in the third scene of the third act of this very play, where the vain, foolish and boastful rake Dapperwit, having taken his friend to see his mistress for the express purpose of advertising his lordship over her, is coolly denied by her and insolently repulsed. “I think,” says Dapperwit, “women take inconstancy from me worse than from any man breathing.”

Now, does the subsequent development of Wycherley’s dramatic genius lead us to believe that, at nineteen, he could have given this touch, worthy of the hand that drew Malvolio? Is there anything in his two masterpieces—The Country Wife or The Plain Dealer—that makes it credible that Wycherley, the boy, could have thus delineated by a single quiet touch vanity as a chain-armour which no shaft can pierce—vanity, that is to say, in its perfect development? However, Macaulay (forgetting that, among the myriad vanities of the writing fraternity, this of pretending to an early development of intellectual powers that ought not to be, even if they could be, developed early is at once the most comical and the most common) is rather too severe upon Wycherley’s disingenuousness in regard to the dates of his plays. That the writer of a play far more daring than Etheredge’s She Would If She Could—and far more brilliant too—should at once become the talk of Charles’s court was inevitable; equally inevitable was it that the author of the song at the end of the first act, in praise of harlots and their offspring, should touch to its depths the soul of the duchess of Cleveland. Possibly Wycherley intended this famous song as a glorification of Her Grace and her profession, for he seems to have been more delighted than surprised when, as he passed in his coach through Pall Mall, he heard the duchess address him from her coach window as a “rascal,” a “villain,” and as a son of the very kind of lady his song had lauded. For his answer was perfect in its readiness: “Madam, you have been pleased to bestow a title on me which belongs only to the fortunate.” Perceiving that Her Grace received the compliment in the spirit in which it was meant, he lost no time in calling upon her, and was from that moment the recipient of those “favour[s]” to which he alludes with pride in the dedication of the play to her. Voltaire’s story (in his Letters on the English Nation) that Her Grace used to go to Wycherley’s chambers in the Temple disguised as a country wench, in a straw hat, with pattens on and a basket in her hand, may be apocryphal—very likely it is—for disguise was quite superfluous in the case of the mistress of Charles II. and Jacob Hall, but it at least shows how general was the opinion that, under such patronage as this, Wycherley’s fortune as poet and dramatist, "eminent for his quality and politeness," was now made.

Publication of this comedy, as well as of The Plain Dealer, which had determined to bring up his son, the duke of Richmond, like a prince, was desirous of securing for tutor a man so entirely qualified as was Wycherley to impart what was then recognized as the princely education, and it seems pretty clear that, but for the accident, to which we shall have to recur, of his meeting the countess of Drogheda at Bath and secretly marrying her, the education of the young man would actually have been entrusted by his father to Wycherley as a reward for the dramatist’s having written Love in a Wood.

Whether Wycherley’s experiences as a naval officer, which he avowedly enjoyed, and which he thus described to Warton, “at that time, was in betwixt the English and the Dutch,” occurred before or after the production of Love in a Wood is a point upon which opinions differ, but on the whole we are inclined to agree with Macaulay, against Leigh Hunt, that these experiences took place not only after the production of Love in a Wood but after the production of The Gentleman Dancing Master, in 1673. We also think, with Macaulay, that he went to sea simply because it was the “polite” thing to do—simply because, as he himself in the epilogue to The Gentleman Dancing Master says, "all gentlemen must pack to sea.”

This second comedy was published in 1673, but was probably acted late in 1671. It is inferior to Love in a Wood. In The Relapse the artistic mistake of blending comedy and farce damages a splendid play, but leaves it a splendid play still. In The Gentleman Dancing Master this mingling of discordant
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elements destroys a play that would never in any circumstances have been strong—a play nevertheless which abounds in animal spirits, and is luminous here and there with true dramatic points.

It is, however, on his two last comedies—The Country Wife and The Plain Dealer—that must rest Wycherley's fame as a master of that comedy of repartee which, inaugurated by Etheredge, and afterwards brought to perfection by Congreve and Vanbrugh, supplanted the humorous comedy of the Elizabethans. The Country Wife, produced in 1672 or 1673 and published in 1675, is so full of wit, ingenuity, animal spirits and conventional humour that, had it not been for its motive—a motive which, though scandalous to some, is strong enough to win its way to the most fastidious reader—it would probably have survived as long as the acted drama remained a literary form in England. So strong, indeed, is the hand that could draw such a character as Major Pinchwife (the undoubted original not only of Congreve's Miss Prue but of Vanbrugh's Hoyden), such a character as Sparkish (the undoubted original of Congreve's Tattle), such a character as Horner (the undoubted original of all those cool impudent rakes with whom our stage has since been familiar), that Wycherley is certainly entitled to a place alongside Congreve and Vanbrugh. And, indeed, if priority of date is to have its fair and full weight, it seems difficult to challenge Professor Spalding's dictum that Wycherley is "the most vigorous of the set."

In order to do justice to the life and brilliance of The Country Wife we have only to compare it with The Country Girl, afterwards made famous by the acting of Mrs Jordan, that Bowdlerized form of The Country Wife in which Garrick, with an object more praiseworthy than his success, endeavoured to free it of its load of unparalleled licentiousness by disturbing and sweetening the motive—even as Voltaire afterwards (with an object also more praiseworthy than his success) endeavoured to disturb and sweeten the motive of The Plain Dealer in La Prude. While the two Bowdlerized forms of Garrick and Voltaire are as dull as the Aesop of Boursault, the texture of Wycherley's scandalous dialogue would seem to scintillate with the changing hues of shot silk or of the neck of a peacock or of a shaven prism, were it not that the many-coloured lights rather suggest the misnomeric radiance of a foul ditch shimmering in the sun. It is easy to share Macaulay's indignation at Wycherley's satyr-like delineation of art, and yet, at the same time, to protest against that dispargement of their literary riches which nullifies the value of Macaulay's criticism. And scarcely inferior to The Country Wife is The Plain Dealer, produced probably early in 1674 and published three years later,—a play of which Voltaire said, "Je ne connais point de comédie chez les anciens ni chez les moderns où il y ait autant d'esprit." This comedy had an immense influence, as regards manipulation of dialogue, upon all subsequent English comedies of repartee, and he who wants to trace the ancestry of Tony Lumpkin and Mrs Hardcastle has only to turn to Jerry Blackacre and his mother, while Manly (for whom Wycherley's early patron, the duke of Montauteur, sat), though he is perhaps overdone, has dominated this kind of stage character ever since.

If but few readers know how constantly the blunt scenterious utterances of this character are reappearing, not on the stage alone, but in the novel and even in poetry, it is because a play whose motive is monstrous and intolerable can only live in a monstrous and intolerable state of society; it is because Wycherley's genius was followed by Nemesis, who always dogs the footsteps of the defiler of literary art. When Burns said—

"The rank is but the guinea stamp,
The man's the gawd for a' that;"—
when Sterne, in Tristram Shandy, said, "Honours, like impressions upon coin, may give an ideal and local value to a bit of base metal, but gold and silver will pass all the world over without any other recommendation than their own weight,"

what did these writers do but adopt—adopt without improving—Manly's fine saying to Freeman, in the first act:—"I weigh the man, not his title; 'tis not the king's stamp that can make the metal better or heavier?" And yet it is in the fourth and fifth acts that the conceptions of Wycherley's comic genius are the most dazzling; also, it is there that the licentiousness is the most astonishing. Not that the worst scenes in this play are really more wicked than the worst scenes in Vanbrugh's Relapse, but they are more seriously imagined. Being less humorous than Vanbrugh's scenes, they are more terribly and earnestly realistic; therefore they seem more wicked. They form indeed a striking instance of the folly of the artist who selects a story which cannot be actualized without hurting the finer instincts of human nature.

When Menander declared that, having selected his plot, he looked upon his comedy as three parts finished, he touched upon the literary form which all writers in imaginative literature of every kind—would do well to consider. In all literatures—ancient and modern—an infinite wealth of material has been wasted upon subjects that are unworthy, or else incapable, of artistic realization; and yet Wycherley's case is, in our literature at least, without a parallel. No doubt it may be right to say, with Aristotle, that comedy is an imitation of bad characters, but this does not mean that in comedy art may imitate bad characters as earnestly as she may imitate good ones,—a fact which Thackeray forgot when he made Becky Sharp a murderess, thereby destroying at once what would otherwise have been the finest specimen of the Restoration drama in the world. And perhaps it was because Vanbrugh was conscious of this law of art that he blended comedy with farce. Perhaps he felt that the colossal depravity of intrigue in which the English comedians indulged needs to be not only warmed by a super-abundance of humour but softened by the playful mockery of farce before a dramatic circle such as that of the Restoration drama can be really brought within human sympathy. Plutarch's impeachment of Aristophanes, which affirms that the master of the old comedy wrote less for honest men than for men sunk in baseness and debauchery, was no doubt unjust to the Greek poet, one side of whose humour, and one alone, might thus be impeached. But does it not touch all sides of a comedy like Wycherley's—a comedy which strikes at the very root of the social compact upon which civilization is built? As to comparing such a comedy as that of the Restoration with the comedy of the Elizabethans, Jeremy Collier did but a poor service to the cause he undertook to advocate when he set the occasional coarseness of Shakespeare alongside the wickedness of Congreve and Vanbrugh. And yet, ever since Macaulay's essay, it has been the fashion to speak of Collier's attack as being levelled against the "Cour des Anglais" and "Restoration drama" of nothing of the kind. It is (as was pointed out so long ago as 1690 by Dr Drake in his little-known vigorous reply to Collier) an attack upon the English drama generally, with a special reference to the case of Shakespeare. While dwelling upon that noxious and highly immoral play Hamlet, Collier actually leaves unscathed the author of The Country Wife, but fastens on Congreve and Vanbrugh, whose plays—prolificate enough in all conscience—seem almost decent beside a comedy whose incredible vis mors is the modish distemper.

To rank in age, indeed, upon which was given with applause A Woman Killed with Kindness (where a wife dies of a broken heart: for doing what any one of Wycherley's married women would have gloried in doing) should, in seventy years, have given with applause The Country Wife shows that in historic and social evolution, as in the evolution of organisms, "change" and "progress" are very far from being convertible terms. For the barbarism of the society depicted in these plays was, in the true sense of the word, far deeper and more brutal than any barbarism that has ever existed in these islands within the historic period. Civilization has any meaning at all for the soul of man, the Englishmen of Chaucer's time, the Anglo-Saxons of the Hoptarchy, nay, those half-naked heroes, who in the dawn of English history clustered along the southern coast to defend it from the invasion of Caesar, were far more civilized than that "race gangrenée"—the treacherous rakes, mercenary slaves and brazen stumpets of the court of Charles II., who did their best to substitute for the human passion of love (a passion which
was known perhaps even to palaeolithic man) the promiscuous intercourse of the beasts of the field. Yet Collier leaves Wycherley unsaddled, and classes Vanbrugh and Congreve with Shakespeare!

It was after the success of The Plain Dealer that the turning-point came in Wycherley's career. The great dream of all the men about town in Charles's time, as Wycherley's plays all show, was to marry a widow, young and handsome, a peer's daughter if possible—but in any event rich, and spend her money upon wine and women. While talking to a friend in a bookseller's shop at Tunbridge, Wycherley heard The Plain Dealer read for by a lady who was a person of the countess of Drogheda, answered all the requirements. An introduction ensued, then love-making, then marriage—a secret marriage, probably in 1680, for, fearing to lose the king's patronage and the income therefrom, Wycherley still thought it politic to pass as a bachelor. He had not seen enough of life to learn that in the long run nothing is politic but "straightforwardness." Whether because his countenance wore a pensive and subdued expression, suggestive of a poet who had married a dowager countess and awakened to the situation, or whether because treacherous friends divulged his secret, does not appear, but the purpose of his marriage oozed out—it reached the royal ears, and deeply wounded the father anxious about the education of his son. Wycherley lost the appointment that was so nearly within his grasp—lost indeed the royal favour for ever. He never had an opportunity of regaining it, for the countess seems to have really loved him, and Love in a Wood had proclaimed the writer to be the kind of husband whose virtue prospers best when closely guarded at the domestic hearth. Wherever he went the counts followed him, and when she did allow him to meet his boon companions it was in a tavern in Bow Street opposite to his own house, and even there under certain protective conditions. In summer or in winter he was obliged to sit with the window open and the blinds up, so that his wife might see that the party included no member of a sex for which her husband's plays had advertised his partiality. She died, however, in the year after her marriage and left him the whole of her fortune. But the title to the property was disputed; the costs of the litigation were heavy—so heavy that his father was unable (or else he was unwilling) to come to his aid and the result of his marrying the poor, beautiful and titled widow was that the price of his marriage oozed out—it reached the royal ears, and deeply wounded the father anxious about the education of his son.

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Wycherley the eldest of his son's children, was by nature a dull witted, a cold-blooded, a hardened soul. But, like a true Scot, while not free from the drolleries and irreligions, was a man of much compass and a scholar. Pope's suicide, and the publication of the Essay on Criticism, as well as the death of the Duke of Marlborough, made Wycherley's style and ideas antiquated. The public began to think of him as an antiquated old man. He died in 1716, and was buried in the vault of the church in Covent Garden.
books of Queen's College, as paying rent for rooms as a "pensioner" or "commoner" for the years 1371-1372, 1374-1375 and 1380-1381. It has thus been commonly assumed (e.g. by Losterth) that the reformer was at one time in residence at Queen's, the date being given as 1365. It is probable, however, that the John Wyclif of the Queen's College accounts is the same as the John Wyclif who appears in the College computus for 1371-1372 as one of the "alimony boys" of the College, and, therefore, certainly not the reformer.

These questions, even that of the wardenship of Canterbury, are, however, essentially unimportant, unless we are prepared with Woodford to impute mean motives to a great man. What is certain is that long before Wycliffe had become a power outside Oxford his fame was established in the university. He was acknowledged supreme in the philosophical disputations of the schools, and his lectures were crowded. His influence was, however, purely academic, nor does it seem to have been inspired at the outset by any conscious opposition to the established order in the church; and, as Losterth points out, it was not until he was drawn into the arena of the politico-eclesiastical conflicts of the day that Wycliffe became of world-importance. In 1373, on the 5th of May, he had been "acknowledged" as a prebend of its diocese, and that Wycliffe published his Determinatio quaedam de dominio in support of the action of parliament in refusing the tribute demanded by Pope Urban V.; but Losterth has shown that this work, which contains the first trace of that doctrine of dominium or lordship which Wycliffe afterwards developed in a sense hostile to the whole papal system, must be assigned to a date some eight years later. Wycliffe, in fact, for some years to come had the reputation of a good "curialist." Had it been otherwise, the pope would scarcely have granted him (January 1373) a licence to keep his Westbury prebend even after he should have obtained it at Lincoln (Cal. Papal Letters, ed. Bliss and Twemlow, iv. 193). Moreover, it is uniformly asserted that Wycliffe fell into heresy after his admission to the degree of doctor (Fasc. Ziz, p. 2), and the papal document above quoted shows that he had only just become a doctor of theology, that is in 1372.

This, of course, does not mean that Wycliffe's tendencies may not have already been sufficiently pronounced to call attention to him in high places as a possibly useful instrument for the anti-papal policy of John of Gaunt and his party. Evidence of this kind is furnished by the 7th of April, 1375, when he was presented by the crown to the rectory of Lutterworth in Leicestershire, which he held until his death; and on the 26th of July he was nominated one of the royal envoys to proceed to Bruges to confer with the papal representatives on the long vexed question of "provisions" (q.v.). It is probable that he was attached to this mission as theologian, and that this was so is sufficient proof that he was not yet considered a persona ingrata at the Curia. The rank he took is shown by the fact that his name stands second, next after that of the bishop of Bangor, on the commission, and that he received pay at the princely rate of twenty shillings a day. The commission itself was appointed in consequence of urgent and repeated complaints on the part of the Commons; but the king was himself interested in keeping up the papal system of provisions and reservations, and the negotiations were practically fruitless.

After his return to England Wycliffe lived chiefly at Lutterworth and Oxford, making frequent and prolonged visits to London, where his fame as a popular preacher was rapidly established. It is from this period, indeed, that dates the development of the trenchant criticisms of the folly and corruption of the clergy, which had gained him a ready hearing in an in-systematic attack on the whole established order in the church. It was not at the outset the dogmatic, but the political elements

1 See H. T. Riley's remarks in the Second Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, appendix, pp. 141 sq. The appearance of a John Wyclif on the books of Queen's led to the common mistake, recorded in Milman's Hist. of Latin Christianity (bk. xii. ch. 16.), that Wycliffe began his university career at Queen's College. The whole question is argued at length by Dr Rashdall in the Dict. Nat. Biog.

in the papal system that provoked his censure. The negotiations at Bruges had doubtless strengthened the sympathy which he already felt for the anti-curial tendencies in English politics from Edward I.'s time onwards, and a final impetus was given by the attitude of the "Good Parliament" in 1376; in the autumn of that year he was reading his treatise on civil lordship (De civili dominio) to his students at Oxford. Of its propositions some, according to Losterth, were taken bodily from the 140 titles of the bill dealing with ecclesiastical abuses introduced in the parliament; but it may perhaps be questioned whether the reformer did not rather inspire the bill, which the parliament may declare that it was not his fault if it had been brought down into the streets and "every sparrow twittered about it."

If the position at which Wycliffe had now arrived was originally inspired, as Losterth asserts, by his intimate knowledge of and sympathy with the legislative of Edward I., i.e. by political rather than by philosophico-contractual considerations, the necessity of a philosophico-religious and philosophical and religious basis led inevitably to its development into a criticism not only of the political claims but of the doctrinal standpoint of the church. As a philosopher, indeed, Wycliffe was no more than the last of the conspicuous Oxford scholars, and his philosophy is of importance mainly in so far as it determined his doctrine of dominium, and so set the direction in which his political and ecclesiastical views were to go. As a metaphysician he was, in the beginning, the man of a great debate, the man, in short, between Realism and Nominalism he stood on the side of the former, though his doctrine of universals showed the influence of the criticisms of Ockham and the nominalists. He is Platonic in his conception of God as the forma rerum in whom the rationes exemplares exist eternally, being in fact his Word, who is omnium in omnibus (i Cor. xvi. 28); every creature in respect of its esse intelligibile is God, since every creature is in essence the same as the idea, and all rationes ideales are essentially the same as the Word of God (De dominio divino, pp. 42, 43). There is one ens, the ens analogum, which includes in itself and comprehends all other entities—all universals and the individual; the dominium is a reality imminent in the ens, and, in particular, in the ens extra rerum (pp. 48 sq.). The process by which the primary ens is specified, or by which a higher and more general class passes into sensible existence, is that it receives the addition of substantial form whereby it becomes capable of being an ens individuale (De dominio divino, pp. 48 sq.). To Wycliffe the doctrine of arbitrary divine decrees was anathema. The will of God is his essential and eternal nature, by which all his acts are determined; it was thus with the creation, and it was, as he had shown, an act of his will to create the world and its government, and to separate the species, or else in their material essences, secundum rationes absconditias seminum (ibid. p. 66). God's creation is conditioned by his own eternal nature; the world is therefore not merely one among an infinity of alternatives, an arbitrary selection, so to speak, but is the only possible world; it is, moreover, not in the nature of an eternal emanation from God, but was created at a given moment of time—to think otherwise would be to admit its absolute necessity, which would destroy free-will and merit. Since, however, all things came into being in this way, it follows that the creature can produce no effect but what God has appointed it to do, and that the lordship of God is inalienable from him. From the supreme lordship of God and is inseparable from it, since whatever God gives to his servants is part of himself, from the first gift, which is the esse intelligibile, i.e. really the divine essence, down to those special gifts which flow from the communication of his Holy Spirit; so that in him we live and move and have our being. But, in giving, God does not part with the lordship of the thing given; his gifts are of their own nature that which is given, and they are subject to due service to the supreme overlord. Thus, as in feudalism, lordship is distinguished from possession. Lordship is

2 This leads to the question of predestination and free-will, in which Wyclifc takes a middle position with the aid of the Aristotelian distinction between that which is necessary absolutely and that which is necessary on a given supposition. God does not will sin, as he wills that an atom should not exist, for he would not exist; he necessitates men to perform actions which are in themselves neither right nor wrong; they become right or wrong through man's free agency.
not properly proprietary, and property is the result of sin; Christ and his apostles had none. The service, however, by which lordship is sold of God is righteousness and its works; it follows, the unrighteous forfeit their right to exercise it, and may be deprived of their possessions by competent authority.

The question, of course, follows as to what this authority is, and the answer is given in the Determinatio quodam de dominio and, more elaborately, in the De civili domino. Briefly, his argument is that the church has no concern with temporal matters at all, that the church is not to hold law, or for statesmen (politiæ) who are God’s stewards in temporals—
to take away the goods of the clergy as, by reason of their unrighteousness, no longer render the service by which they hold them. That the church was actually in a condition to destroy spoilation he refused, indeed—though only under pressure—to affirm; but his theories fitted in too well with the notorious aims of the duke of Lancaster not to raise the bitter hostility of the endowed clergy, and with the mendicant orders he continued for a while to hold on good terms.

Hitherto Wycliffe had made no open attack on the doctrinal system of the church, and for some time he had been allowed to spread his doctrines without hindrance. Early in 1377, however, Archbishop Sudbury summoned him to appear before the bishop of London, and answered certain charges laid against him. The nature of these accusations is not stated, but their purport can hardly be doubtful. On the 19th of February 1377, Wycliffe made his appearance at St Paul’s. He was accompanied by the duke of Lancaster, by Lord Percy, marshal of England, and by four doctors of the four mendicant orders. The trial, however, before Wycliffe could open his mouth, the court was broken up by a rude brawl between his protectors and Bishop Courtenay, ending in a general riot of the citizens of London, who were so much enraged by the insult to their bishop in his own cathedral church—coming as this did at the same time as a serious attempt at an invasion by the duke in parliament of their civic liberties (Chron. Ang. p. 120)—that they would have sacked his palace of the Savoy had not Courtenay himself intervened.

Wycliffe had escaped for the time, but his enemies did not rely solely on their own weapons. Probably before they had set their case before the pope; and on the 22nd of May five bulls were issued by Gregory XI., who had just returned to Rome from Avignon, condemning eighteen (or in other copies nineteen) “conclusions” drawn from Wycliffe’s writings. All the articles but one are taken from his De civili domino. The bulls truly stated Wycliffe’s intellectual lineage; he was following in the error of Marsilius of Padua; and the articles laid against him are concerned entirely with questions agitated between church and state—how far ecclesiastical censures could be usefully applied. But the pope added, that the church had the right to receive and hold temporal endowments. The bulls were addressed to the archbishop of Canterbury and the bishop of London, the university of Oxford, and the king. The university was to take Wycliffe and send him to the prelates; the latter were then to examine the truth of the charges and to report to the pope, Wycliffe being meanwhile kept in confinement. The execution of the papal bulls was impeded by three separate causes—the king’s death on the 21st of June; the tardy action of the bishops, who enjoined the university to make a report, instead of attempting to interview Wycliffe; and the unwillingness of the university to admit external authority, and, above all, the pope’s right to order the imprisonment of any man in England. The convocation of the university, indeed, as the St Albans chronicle states with lamentation, made serious objections to receiving the bull at all; and in the end it merely directed Wycliffe to keep within his lodgings at Black Hall for a time.

If the university was disposed to favour the reformer, the government was not less so. John of Gaunt was for the moment in retirement; but the mother of the young king appears to have adopted his policy in church affairs, and she naturally occupied a chief position in the new council. As soon as parliament met in the autumn of 1377, Wycliffe was consulted by it as to the lawfulness of prohibiting that treasure should pass out of the country in obedience to the pope’s demand. Wycliffe’s affirmative judgment is contained in a state paper still extant; and its tone is plain proof enough of his confidence that his views on the main question of church and state had the support of the nation. Indeed he had laid before this same parliament his answer to the pope’s bulls, with a defence of the soundness of his opinions. His university, moreover, confirmed his argument; his tenets, it said, were true (i.e. orthodox), though their expression was such as to admit of an incorrect interpretation. But Wycliffe was still bound to clear himself before the prelates who had summoned him, and early in 1378 he appeared for this purpose in the chapel of Lambeth Palace. His written defence, expressed in some respects in more cautious language than he had previously used, was laid before the council; but its session was rudely interrupted, not only by an inroad of the London citizens with a crowd of the rabble, but also by a messenger from the king, informing them of the right of the civil power to invade Wycliffe; and thus a second time he escaped, either without sentence, or at most with a gentle request that he would avoid discussing the matters in question. Meanwhile his “protestatio” was sent on to Rome. Before, however, any further step could be taken at Rome, Gregory XI. died.

In the autumn of this year Wycliffe was once more called upon to prove his loyalty to John of Gaunt. The duke had violated the sanctuary of Westminster by sending a band of armed men to seize two squires who had taken refuge there. One of them was taken a prisoner, and the other, together with the servant of the church who attempted to resist his arrest. After a while the bishop of London excommunicated all concerned in the crime (except only the king, his mother and his uncle), and preached against the culprits at Paul’s Cross. At the parliament held at Gloucester in October, in the presence of the legates of Pope Urban VI., Wycliffe read an apology for the duke’s action at Westminster, pleading that the men were killed in resisting legal arrest. The papal, which forms part of the De ecclesia, lays down the permissible limits of the right of asylum, and maintains the right of the civil power to invade the sanctuary in order to bring escaped prisoners to justice.

The schism in the papacy, owing to the election of Clement VII. in opposition to Urban VI., accentuated Wycliffe’s hostility to the Holy See and its claims. His attitude was not, indeed, as yet fully developed. He did not object to a visible head of the church so long as this head possessed the essential qualification of righteousness, as a member of the elect. It was only later, with the development of the scandals of the schism, that Wycliffe definitely branded the pope, puer, as Antichrist; 2

2 See R. L. Poole’s preface to his edition of the De domino divino, where Wycliffe’s indebtedness to Richard Fitz Ralph, archbishop of Armagh, for his views on lordship and property is shown at some length (pp. xxxiv sq.). Fitz Ralph had been a fellow of Balliol, and was one of the unirers who, in about 1278 (A. Wycliffe, Fasti Oxon. p. 21, ed. Gutch, 1790). The first four books of his De pastoris Salvatoris were edited by R. L. Poole for the Wycliffe Society, and published in 1890 in an appendix to the edition of the De domino divino. Fitz Ralph also taught that lordship was conditioned by grace, and that property had come into the world with sin. Fitz Ralph’s work was, however, directed to the settlement of the controversies raised by the mendicant orders as to “possessions” and “usage.” Wycliffe extended the scope of the doctrine so as to include all civil and ecclesiastical society.

3 When he says that the bull was only received at Oxford shortly before Christmas, he is apparently confounding it with the bull which is dated December 18 (Lewis, appendix xvii.).—Chron. Ang. p. 173.

4 In one text of this document a note is appended, to the effect that the council enjoined silence on the writer as touching the matter therein contained (Pascendi, Zizaniorum, p. 271). This, it true, was apparently a measure of precaution.

5 So he describes the popes in the first sermon in vol. ii. of the Sermons. This may perhaps refer to the pope of that year. Budden, Poltical Works, int. p. xxvi. Book iii. of his Opus evangelicium is also significantly entitled De Antichristo.
confined to the schools; he now determined to carry it down into the streets. For this purpose he chose two means, both based on the thesis which he had long maintained as to the supreme authority of Holy Scripture, as the great charter of the Christian religion. The first means was his institution of the "poor" or "simple" priests to preach his doctrines throughout the country; the second was the translation of the Vulgate into English, which he accomplished with the aid of his friends Nicholas Hereford and John Purvey (see Bible, English). This version of the Bible, and still more his numerous sermons and tracts, established Wycliffe's new undisputed position as the leader of English religious reform.

The choice of secular priests to be his itinerant preachers was significant of another change of attitude on Wycliffe's part. Hitherto he had been on good terms with the friars, whose ideal of poverty appealed to him; as already mentioned, four doctors of the mendicant orders had appeared with him at his trial in 1377. But he had come to recognize that all organized societies within the church, "sects" as he called them, were liable to the same corruption, while he objected fundamentally to the principle which had established a special standard of morality for the "regular" clergy. To Wycliffe, the church, in all its branches, was not necessarily intended to work as rivals to the beneficed clergy. The idea that underlay their mission was rather analogous to that which animated Wesley four centuries later. Wycliffe aimed at supplementing the services of the church by regular religious instruction in the vernacular; and his organization included a good number of men who held or had held respectable positions in their colleges at Oxford. The influence of their teaching was soon felt throughout the country. The common people were rejoiced by the plain and homely doctrine which dwelt chiefly on the simple "law" of God, while they no doubt relished the denunciation of existing evils in the church which formed, as it were, the burthen of such discourses. The feeling of dissatisfaction against the rich and careless clergy, monks and friars was widespread but undefined. Wycliffe turned it into a definite channel.

Meanwhile, in addition to his popular propaganda and his interventions in politics, Wycliffe was appealing to the world of learning in a series of Latin treatises, which followed each other in rapid succession, and collectively form his _summa theologica._ During the years 1378 and 1379 he produced his works on the trust of Holy Scripture, on the church, on the office of king, on the papal power.

Of all these, except the third, the general character has already been indicated. The _De officio regis_ is practically a declaration of war against the papal monarchy, an anticipation of the theocratic conception of a messianic Israel, set up as a counterpoise by the Reformation. The king is God's vicar, to be regarded with a spiritual fear second only to that due to God, and resistance to him for personal wrong suffered is wicked. His jurisdiction extends over all causes. The bishops—who are to the king as Christ's Humanity is to his Divinity—derive their jurisdiction from him, and whatever they do is done by his authority. Thus in his palpable dignity, towards the world, the king is superior to the priest; it is only in his impalpable dignity, towards God, that the priest is superior to the king. Wycliffe thus passed from an assailed of the papal to an assailed of the sacerdotal power; and in this way he was ultimately led to examine and to reject the distinctive symbol of that power, the doctrine of transubstantiation.

Wycliffe himself had for some time, both in speech and writing, indicated the main characteristics of his teaching on the Eucharist. It was not, however, till 1379 or 1380 that began a formal public attack on what he calls the "new" doctrine in a set of theses propounded at Oxford. These were followed by sermons, tracts, and, in 1381, by his great treatise _De eucharistia._ Finally, at the close of his life, he summed up his doctrine in this as in other matters in the _Triologus._

The language in which he denounced transubstantiation anticipated that of the Protestant reformers; it is a "blasphemous folly," a "deceit," which "despoils the people and leads them to commit idolatry;" philosophically it is nonsense, since it presupposes the possibility of an accident existing without its substance; it overthrows the very nature of a sacrament. Yet the consecration of bread and wine are the body and blood of Christ, for Christ himself says so (_Pars. Zizani., p. 115_; we do not, however, corporeally touch and break the Lord's body, which is present only sacramentally, spiritualiter et virtualiter—"in form only" present in the body. The present presence is not denied; what Wycliffe "dares not affirm" is that the bread is after consecration "essentially, substantially, corporeally" the body of Christ. His doctrine was by no means always consistent or clear, would thus seem to approximate closely to the Lutheran doctrine of consubstantiation, as distinguished from the Zwinglian teaching accepted in the xxviii. Article of the Thirty-Nine Articles of the Church of England. That Wycliffe appealed, in accordance with his principles, not to the pope, but to the king. But the lay magnates, who were perfectly ready to help the church to attain to the ideal of apostolic poverty, shrunk from the responsibility of lending their support to obscure propositions of the schools, which, for no practical end, involved undoubted heresy and therefore the pains of hell. John of Gaunt, accordingly, hastily sent down a messenger enjoining the reformer to keep silence on the subject. The rift thus created between Wycliffe and his patrons in high places was, moreover, almost immediately widened by the outlook of the great Peasants' Revolt of 1381, the result of which was to draw the conservative elements in church and state together, in defence of their common interests.

With the Peasants' Revolt it has been supposed that Wycliffe had something to do. The only positive fact implicating him is the confession of one of its leaders, John Ball, that he learned his subversive doctrines from Wycliffe. But the confession of a condemned man can seldom be accepted without reserve; and we have not only the precise and repeated testimony of Knyghton that he was a 'precurser of Wycliffe, but also documentary evidence that he was communicated as early as 1366, long before Wycliffe exposed himself to ecclesiastical censure. Wycliffe in truth was always careful to state his communistic views in a theoretical way; they are confined to his Latin scholastic writings, and thus could not reach the people from him directly. At the same time it is very possible that his less scrupulous followers translated them in their popular discourse, and thus fed the flame that burst forth in the rebellion. Perhaps it was a consciousness of a share of responsibility for it that led them to cast the blame on the friars. In any case Wycliffe's advocates must regret that in all his known works there is only one trace of any reprobation of the excesses that accompanied the outbreak.

1 Jer. Lossor, in his paper "Die Genesis von Wiclifs Summa Theologicae" (Sitzungsber. der k. Akad. der Wissenschaften, Vienna, 1908, vol. 130) gives proofs that the _Summa_ was not produced on a previously thought out plan, but that even the larger works forming part of it "were the outcome of those conflicts which were fought out inside and outside the Good Parliament," i.e. they were primarily intended as weapons in the ecclesiastico-political controversies of the time.
3 Spartan attacks had been made on this before, though it had not been written into the interdict of 1382 against the heretic priest, Ralph of Tornay, in the _Register of John de Grandison, Bishop of Exeter_, edited by F. C. Hingeston-Randolph (London and Exeter, 1894), pp. 1147 and 1179.

3181 (corrected by the editor from 1380) is the date given in Shirley's edition of the _Fasciculi Zizaniarum_. F. D. Matthew, in the _Eng. Hist. Rev._ for April 1890 (v. 328), proves that the date must have been 1379 or 1380. 1381, _Triologus_, lib. i. cap. 22; _De Euch._, p. 249.
5 The difference is summed up by Melancthon, in his rejection of Bucer's eirenicon, thus:—__Fecit factum hominibus per hoc quod vult__?__In hoc casu certe non eis contumelia, sed laudabilissima imaginatio._ Sic tierum negat presentiam realem. Nos docemus, quod corpus Christi vere et realiter adsum pone vel in pane (_Corpus Reformatorum_ ii. 222 sqq.).
In the spring following the Revolt his old enemy, William Courtenay, who had succeeded the murdered archbishop Sudbury as archbishop of Canterbury, resolved to take measures for stamping out Wycliffe's crowning heresy. He called a court of bishops, theologians and canonists at the Blackfriars' convent in London, which assembled on the 17th to 21st of May and sat with intervals until July. This proceeding was met by a hardly expected manifestation of university feeling on Wycliffe's side. The chancellor, Robert Rygge, though he had joined in the condemnation of the theses, stood by him, as did also both the protors. On Ascension Day (the 15th of May) his most prominent disciple, Nicholas Hereford, was allowed to preach a violent sermon against the regulars in the churchyard of St Frideswyde. The archbishop protested through his commissary, the Carmelite Dr Peter Stokes, who was charged with the execution of the archbishop's mandate (on the 28th of May) for the publication in the university of the decision of the Blackfriars' council, by which 24 articles extracted from Wycliffe's works were condemned, ten as heretical and fourteen as erroneous. The reply of the chancellor was to deny the archbishop's jurisdiction within the university, and to allow Philip Reeping, another of Wycliffe's disciples, to preach on Corpus Christi day before the university. Chancellor and preacher were guarded by armed men, and Stokes wrote that his life was not safe at Oxford. The chancellor and proctors were now summoned to Lambeth, and directed to appear before the Blackfriars' court on the 12th of June, there to give a full answer to the accusations of the University. Though they were, with the majority of regent masters at Oxford, on the side of Wycliffe, the main question at issue was for them one of philosophy rather than faith, and they were quite prepared to make formal submission to the authority of the Church. For the rest, a few of the reformer's more prominent adherents were arrested, and imprisoned until they recanted.

Wycliffe himself remained at large and un molested. It is said indeed by Knyghton that at a council held by Courtenay at Oxford in the following November Wycliffe was brought forward and made a recantation; but our authority fortunately gives the text of the recantation, which proves to be nothing more nor less than a plain English statement of the condemned doctrine. It is therefore lawful to doubt whether Wycliffe appeared before the council at all, and even whether he was ever summoned before it. Probably after the overthrow of his party at Oxford by the action of the Blackfriars' council Wycliffe found it advisable to withdraw permanently to Lutterworth. That his strength among the laity was undiminished is shown by the fact that the university officers were soon brought to submission. Though they were, with the majority of regent masters at Oxford, on the side of Wycliffe, the main question at issue was for them one of philosophy rather than faith, and they were quite prepared to make formal submission to the authority of the Church. For the rest, a few of the reformer's more prominent adherents were arrested, and imprisoned until they recanted.

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BIBLIOGRAPHY.—The documentary materials for Wycliffe's biography are to be found in John Lewis's Life and Sufferings of J. Wycliffe, crusading monk, London, 1877, and in a work of illustrative papers and records; Foxe's Acts and Memorials, vol. iii., ed. 1855, with app.; Forshall and Madden's preface to the Wycliffe Bible, p. vii. note, Oxford, 1851; W. W. Shirley's edition of the English works with continuations and appendices, by the bishops bearing on the history of Wycliffe and the Lollards, inter- spersed narrative and comments (probably the work of Thomas Nettler of Walden), 1859; and H. T. Riley's notices in the appendices to the Second and Fourth Reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. Among contemporary records the narrative of a monk of St Albans—a bitter opponent of John of Gaunt—is of conspicuous value; it was published under the title of Chronicum Anglicum, by Sir E. Maunde Thompson (1874). Of this the account in Walsingham's Historia Anglica (ed. H. T. Riley, 1863, 1864) is mainly a modified version. Knyghton, who wrote De eevitatis Anglicis at Lutterworth, is the heart of the story. Wycliffe was really very well informed as to certain passages in the reformer's history, though his chronology is extremely faulty (ed. J. R. Lumb, 1889-1905). There are valuable notices in various editions of Eusebius's Chronicle by F. S. Haydon, 1865), in the Chronicle of Adam of Usk (ed. E. M. Thompson, 1876), and in more than one of the continuations of Higden. For the study of Wycliffe's theology the controversial works of Wodford and Walden are important, but must necessarily be used with caution.

Of modern biographies that by G. V. Leclier (Johann von Wyclif und die Vorgeschichte der Reformation, 2 vols, Leipzig, 1873) and by P. Letham (Johannes Wyclif, Edinburgh, 1902) are most comprehensive; it includes a detailed exposition of the reformer's system, based to a considerable extent on works which were then unknown. Sir William Sidney Sutherland's well-substantiated introduction to the Fasciculi Sive Summarum et Eiusdem Historiarum, F. D. Matthew's to his edition of English Works of Wyclif hitherto unprinted (1880), as well as Creighton's History of the Papacy, vol. 1, 1882, and Sir H. C. Maxwell Lyte's account in his History of the University of Oxford (1886), add to or correct our stock of biographical materials, and contain much valuable criticism.
Wycliffe's political doctrine is discussed by Mr. R. L. Poole ("Illustrations of the History of England," 1881), and his relation to Basset is demonstrated by Dr. J. Looserth ("His and Wyclif, Prague, 1884; also Eng. trans.").

See also G. M. Trevelyan, "England in the Age of Wycliffe" (London, 1790), in which the sentiments of the theologians in 1884, and his relation to Wycliffe's political doctrine are demonstrated by Dr. J. Looserth ("Hist and Wyclif, Prague, 1884; also Eng. trans.").

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WYLIE, Robert (1839–1897), American artist, was born in the Isle of Man in 1839. He was taken to the United States when a child, and studied in the schools of the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, Philadelphia, the directors of which sent him to France in 1863 to study. He won a medal of the second class at the Paris Salon of 1872. He went to Pont Aven, Brittany, in the early sixties, where he remained until his death on the 4th of February 1877. He painted Breton peasants and scenes in the history of Brittany; among his important works was a large canvas, "The Death of a Vendean Chief," now at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

WYNDHAM, Sir Francis Wyndham, was a market town in the mid-parliamentary division of Norfolk, England, 10 m. S.W. of Norwich by the Great Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 4764. The church of St Mary the Virgin rises on an eminence on the outskirts of the town. It was attached to a Benedictine priory, founded about the beginning of the 12th century as a cell of St Albans abbey by William de Albeni. In 1448 this foundation became an abbey. The nave is of ornate Norman work, with a massive triforium, surmounted by a Perpendicular clerestory and a beautiful wooden roof. The broad N. aisle is Perpendicular, and the roof is carved with the badge of the Wyndhams. At the W. end of the church is a lofty and graceful Perpendicular tower. The choir, which was used as the conventual church, has left only slight traces, and one arch is standing of a large chapel which adjoined it on the S. In the centre of the town is a picturesque half-timbered market cross (1616), with an octagonal upper chamber raised on massive pillars of wood. A chapel, dedicated to St Thomas of Canterbury, is used as a grammar school. At Wymondham on the 7th of July a festival was formerly held in honour of the saint. It was at this festival in 1449 that the rebellion of Robert Ket or Ket came to a head.

WYNNA, or WAINAD, a highland tract in S. India, forming part of Malabar district, Madras. It consists of a table-land amid the W. Ghats, 60 m. long by 30 m. broad, with an average elevation of 3000 ft.; pop. (1901) 75,149. It is best known as the district where a large amount of British capital was sunk during the decade 1876–1886 in gold mines. It had yet earlier been a coffee-planting district, but this industry has recently declined. Tea, pepper and cardamoms are produced in increasing quantities. There are also valuable forest reserves.

WYNDHAM, Sir Charles (1872–1902), English actor, was born in Liverpool on the 23rd of March 1872, the son of a doctor. He was educated abroad, at King's College, London and at the College of Surgeons and the Peter Street Anatomical School, Dublin, but his taste for the stage was too strong for him to take up either the clerical or the medical career, suggested for him, and early in 1892 he made a first appearance in London as an actor. Later in the year, being in America, he volunteered during the Civil War, and became brigade surgeon in the Federal army, resigning in 1864 to appear on the stage in New York with John Wilkes Booth. Returning to England, he played at Manchester and Dublin in Her Ladyship's Guardian, his own adaptation of Edward B. Hanley's novel Lady Lee's Widowhood. He reappeared in London in 1866 as Sir Arthur Lascelles in Morton's All That Glitters is Not Gold, but his greatest success was at that time in F. C. Burnand's burlesque of Black-eyed Susan, as Hatchett, "with dance." This brought him to the St James's theatre, where he played with Henry Irving in Idia; then with Ellen Terry in Charles Reade's Double Marriage, and Tom Taylor's Still Waters Run Deep. As Charles Surface, his best part for many years, and in a breezy three-act farce, Pink Domingoes, by James Albery, and in Brighton, an anglicized version of Saragossa by Bronson Howard (1842–1908), who married his sister, he added greatly to his popularity both at home and abroad. In 1876 he took control of the Criterion theatre. Here he produced a long succession of plays, in which he took the leading part, notably a number of old English comedies, and in such modern plays as The Liars, The Case of Rebellious Susan and others by Henry Arthur Jones; and he became famous for his acting in David Garrick. In 1899 he opened his new theatre, called Wyndham's. In 1902 he was knighted. From 1885 onwards his leading actress was Miss Mary Moore (Mrs Albery), who became his partner in the proprietorship of the Criterion and Wyndham's theatres, and of his New Theatre, opened in 1903; and her delightful acting in comedy made their long association memorable on the London stage.

WYNDHAM, Sir William, Bart. (1687–1740), English politician, was the only son of Sir Edward Wyndham, Bart., and a grandson of William Wyndham (d. 1693) of Orchard Wyndham, Somerset, who was created a baronet in 1661. Educated at Eton and at Christ Church, Oxford, he entered parliament in 1699 and became a minister-at-war in the Tory ministry in 1712 and chancellor of the exchequer in 1713. He was closely associated with Lord Bolingbroke, and he was privy to the attempts made to bring about a Jacobite restoration on the death of Queen Anne; where these failed he was dismissed from office. In 1715 the failure of a Jacobite movement led to his imprisonment, but he was soon set at liberty. Under George I. Wyndham was the leader of the opposition in the House of Commons, fighting for his High Church and Tory principles against Sir Robert Walpole. He was in constant communication with the exiled Stuarts and Bolingbroke, and in 1723 the two were actively associated in abortive plans for the overthrow of Walpole. He died at Wells on the 17th of June 1740. Wyndham's first wife was Catherine, daughter of Charles Seymour, 6th duke of Somerset. By her he had two sons, Charles, who became 2nd earl of Egremont in 1750, and Percy, who took the name of O'Brien and was created earl of Thomond in 1756.

The Wyndham Family. Sir John Wyndham, a Norfolk man, was knighted after the battle of Stoke in 1487 and beheaded for high treason on the 2nd of May 1502. He married Margaret, daughter of John Howard, duke of Norfolk, and his son Sir Thomas Wyndham (d. 1521), of Felbrigg, Norfolk, was vice-admiral of England under Henry VIII. By his first wife Sir Thomas was the father of Sir John Wyndham, who married Elizabeth, daughter of John Sydenham of Orchard, Somerset, and founded the Somerset branch of the family, and also of Sir Edmund Wyndham of Felbrigg, who was sheriff of Norfolk at the time of Robert Ket's rebellion. By his second wife Sir Thomas was the father of the seaman Thomas Wyndham (c. 1510–1553), an account of whose voyage to Morocco in 1525 is printed in Hakluyt's Voyages.

From Sir John Wyndham of Orchard Wyndham was descended Thomas Wyndham (1618–1745), lord chancellor of Ireland from 1726 to 1739, who in 1731 was created Baron Wyndham of Finglass, a title which became extinct on his death. His nephew, Henry Penruddocke Wyndham (1736–1810), the topographer, wrote A Gentleman's Tour through Monmouthshire and Wales in June and July 1774 (1773); and Wiltshire from Domestick Days, with a Translation of the Original Latin into English (Salisbury, 1788).

Sir John Wyndham of Orchard Wyndham was also the ancestor of the Windhams of Felbrigg, who adopted this form of spelling the family name, the most noteworthy members of which were the statesman William Windham (q.v.), and Sir Charles Ash Windham (1810–1870), a soldier who commanded in the Crimea and in the Indian Mutiny.

The Wyndhams are also connected through a female line with the family of Wyndham-Quin, which holds the earldom of Dunraven. Valentine Richard Quin (1752–1824), of Adare, county Limerick, was created Baron Adare on the union with England in 1800, and earl of Dunraven and Mount-Earl in 1822. His son, the 2nd earl (1782–1850), married Caroline (d. 1879), daughter and heiress of Thomas Wyndham of Dunraven Castle, Glamorganshire, and took the name of Wyndham-Quin. Their son, the 3rd earl (1812–1871), who was created a peer of the United Kingdom as Baron Kenry in 1866, was a well-known man of science, especially interested in archaeology. His son, Windham Thomas Wyndham-Quin (b. 1841), the 4th earl, was under-secretary for the colonies in 1885–1887, and became later a prominent figure in Irish politics, as chairman of the Irish Land Conference and president of the Irish Reform Association;
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He was also prominent as a yachtsman, competing for the America cup (see Yachting) in 1803 and 1805.

WYNN, SIR JOHN (1553-1627), Welsh antiquary, was the son of Morris Wynn and descended from the princes of Wales. He was educated at Oxford, succeeded to his father's estate of Gwydir in Carnarvonshire in 1580, and was member of parliament for this county in 1586. In 1606 he was made a knight and in 1611 a baronet. He was interested in several mining ventures and also found time for antiquarian studies. He died on the 1st of March 1627. At Llanrwst Wynn founded an hospital and endowed a school, from which the modern school of History of the Family, which had a great reputation in North Wales, was first published by Davies Barrington in 1770, and in 1858 an edition was published at Oswestry. It is valuable as the only work which describes the state of society in North Wales in the 15th and the earlier part of the 16th century. His son Richard (d. 1649) was in attendance on Prince Charles, afterwards Charles I, when he visited Spain in 1623, and was afterwards treasurer to Queen Henrietta Maria; he wrote an account of the journey to Spain, published by T. Hearne in 1729 with the Historia viae et regni Ricardi II. He built the bridge over the Conway at Llanrwst. The bridge he bequeathed to the city of Bangor when Wynn, near Wrexham, passed to Sir Watkin Williams, who took the name of Williams-Wynn and founded the family of that name.

Sir John Wynn's estate of Gwydir came to the 1st duke of Ancaster in the 17th century by his marriage with the heiress of the Wynn. On the death of the last duke in 1779, Gwydir was inherited by his sister Priscilla, Lady Willoughby de Eresby in her own right, whose husband was created Baron Gwydir. On the death of Alberic, Lord Willoughby de Eresby (1870), this title (now merged in that of earl of Ancaster) fell into abeyance between his two daughters, while that of Baron Gwydir passed to his cousin and heir male. Gwydir itself was sold by the earl of Ancaster in 1805, the house and part of the estate being bought by Earl Carrington, who also claimed descent from Sir John Wynn.

Wyntoun, Andrew of (1350-71420), a author of a long

metrical history of Scotland, called the Ormignale Cronykil of Scotland, was a canon regular of St Andrews, and prior of St Serf's in Locheaven. He wrote the Chronicle at the request of his patron, Sir John of Wemyss, whose representative, Mr Erskine, is one of the Wemyss Castle, Fife, and is now in the British Museum, Extant MS. of the work. The subject is the history of Scotland from the mythical period (hence the epithet "original") down to the accession of James I in 1406. The earlier books are of no historical value, but the later have in all outstanding matters stood the test of comparison with contemporary records. The philological interest is great, for few works of this date, and no other of like magnitude, are extant in the vernacular.

The text is preserved in eight MSS., of which three are in the British Museum, the Royal (17 D xx.), the Cottonian (Nero D. xii.) and the Lansdowne (197); two in the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh (19, 2, 3 and 19, 2, 4); one at Wemyss Castle (u.1.); one in the university library at St Andrews, and formerly in the possession of the Bowells of Auchinleck, now the property of Mr John Ferguson, Duns, Berwickshire. The first edition of the Chronicle (based on the Royal MS.) was published by David Macpherson in 1795; the second by David Laing, in the series of "Scottish Historians" (Edin., 1872). A modern edition by the late Sir Harry Johnston, of the Scottish Text Society (1906).

WYOMING, one of the Central Western states of the United States of America, situated between the parallels of latitude 41° and 45° N., and the meridians of longitude 27° and 34° W. of Washington. It is bounded on the N. by Montana, on the E. by S. Dakota and Nebraska, on the S. by Colorado and Utah, and on the W. by Idaho, and a small southward projection of Montana. This state has a length of about 737 m. E. and W., along its southern border and a breadth of 276 m. N. and S. It has an area of 97,914 sq. m., of which 320 sq. m. are water surface.

Physical Features. The greater portion of the state belongs to the Great Plains Province, which extends from N. to S. across the United States between the 100th meridian and the Rocky Mountains. Within this province are found the Black Hills of S. Dakota, and their W. slopes extend across the boundary into N. Wyoming. The N.W. portion of the state is occupied by the S. end of the Northern Rocky Mountain Province; and the E. end of the Southern Rockies extends across the Colorado line into southern Wyoming. The Great Plains in Wyoming have an elevation of from 5000 to 7000 feet above sea level, and are characterized by a large area of relatively flat plains, part of which are covered with sagebrush and other low growing vegetation. The mountains the plains strata, elsewhere nearly horizontal, are bent sharply upward and curved by erosion into "hogback" ridges. The plains are also intertraced with the Bighorn Mountains, an extension of the Bighorn Mountains, and an outlier of the Rocky Mountains. The plains in central Wyoming are interrupted by several smaller mountain ranges, volcanic buttes and lave flows, among which the Leucite Hills and Pilot Butte are prominent examples.

The western border of the state makes a distinct break in the continuity of the Northern and Southern Rockies, and this, together with the S. end of the Great Plains, makes a broad, relatively low flat suitable by the Oregon Trail in early days, and by the Union Pacific railway at a later period. The Black Hills District in the N.E. contains the Little Missouri Buttes and the Mato Tepee (or Devil's Tower), prominent erosion remnants of volcanic intrusions. Local glaciation has modified the highest portion of the Yellowstone, Bighorn and Beartooth mountain ranges, forming the Wapiti and Belle Fourche glacier remnants. The latter, definite N.E. of the Black Hills, is 14,000 ft. high. The Black Hills is 4th highest in range, the highest peak of which is 12,170 ft. above sea level. Other peaks of the Black Hills are the Sturgis, the Cheyenne, the Wyoming, the South Pass, and the, the North Pass. The Black Hills is 4 th highest in range, the highest peak of which is 12,170 ft. above sea level. Other peaks of the Black Hills are the Sturgis, the Cheyenne, the Wyoming, the South Pass, and the...
part of the N.W. forests. White fir is found above the foot hill zone, and heavy growths of cottonwood along the streams in the Bighorn region. The Douglas spruce and the pine of the mountain and mountainous regions comes from the Medicine Bow Mountains, from which much of the native lumber used in the S. of the state is secured. Other trees are the juniper, willow, green ash, box elder, scrub oak, with a few pines and spruces. Of the hardwoods, aspen, birch, and maple are the only trees on the plains. The common sage brush, Artemisia, is the characteristic shrub of the plains where the soil is comparatively free from alkali, and is abundant in the valleys of the arid foothills. Where the plains are covered with sagebrush, there is a soil of clay with grease wood and species of atripeles, including the so-called white sage. Grease wood is likewise abundant in the foothills wherever the soil is low and fertile. Various species of sagebrush, nutritious grasses, are common in the plains and foothills, and even clothe the apparently barren mountain peaks.

Climate.—In the lower Bighorn Valley, summer temperatures rise to over 105°, and in parts of Douglas county, to 110°. The average winter temperature is from 20° to 27°. The precipitation varies in different areas from 8 to 20 in., the average for the state being 12.5 in. Wyoming thus belongs with the arid states, and irrigation is necessary for agriculture. A greater precipitation doubtless prevails on the higher mountains, but trustworthy records are not available. Spring is the wettest season. The prevailing winds are W. and reach a high velocity on the level plains.

Soil.—While some of the more arid districts have soils so strongly alkaline as to be practically unhealthful, there are extensive areas of fertile lands which only require irrigation to make them highly productive. Alluvial deposits brought down by mountain streams, and strips of floodplain along larger streams on the plains are very fertile and well repay irrigation. Lack of water rather than poverty of soil renders most of the plains region fit for grazing only. In the mountains, ruggedness combines with thin and scattered soil to make these districts of small agricultural value.

Agriculture.—The total area in farms in 1880 was 124,453 acres, of which 89,213 acres (72%) were improved. The percentage of production in the state is high. The precipitation varies in different areas from 8 to 20 in., the average for the state being 12.5 in. Wyoming belongs with the arid states, and irrigation is necessary for agriculture. A greater precipitation doubtless prevails on the higher mountains, but trustworthy records are not available. Spring is the wettest season. The prevailing winds are W. and reach a high velocity on the level plains.

The total number of cattle on farms and ranges in 1910 was 927,560,000. Including 27,160,000, valued at $25,277,000; horses, 148,000, valued at $72,284,000; mules, 200,000, valued at $122,500; and swine, 21,000, valued at $178,000. In 1909 the hay crop (alfalfa, native hay, timothy hay, &c.) was 665,000,000 tons, valued at $2,918,000, and raised on 277,000 acres. The wheat crop in 1909 was 5,603,000 bushels, valued at $1,750,000. The principal cereal crop in 1909 was oats, the product of which was 3,503,000 bushels, grown on 100,000 acres and valued at $1,750,000. The wheat crop increased from 467,000 bushels in 1899 to 1,297,000 bushels in 1909, valued at $3,150,000. The product of Indian corn in 1909 was 140,000 bushels, grown on 5,000 acres and valued at $100,000.

The value of Wyoming's naturally rich mineral resources has been retarded by inadequate transport and by insufficient capital. The value of the state's mineral products in 1909 was $5,684,286. In 1902 and 1903, $4,953,341. In 1908 Wyoming ranked second among the states in the production of coal, in which the product output of bituminous coal. Other mineral products of the state are copper, gold, iron, petroleum, asbestos, soda, silver and lead, gypsum, stone and clay products. The original coal supply of the present mining industry is estimated at 424,085,000 short tons of the bituminous or sub-bituminous variety, this being second only to that for North Dakota, 500,000,000 short tons, which, however, is entirely lignite. Coal is found in thirteen counties, although it has been worked only in the counties of the southern half of the state. The largest producer has been the Union Pacific Railway, which in the state of Wyoming has mined more than 5,000,000 short tons.

The mining industry has been steadily and the product in 1908 was $4,896,920, valued at 7,062,974 tons, which were mined for several years before the largest product of coal (2,180,933) came from Sweetwater county, in the S.W. of the state, and Uinta county (adjacent Sweetwater) provided the second place. The following are the leading producers: Sheridan county, in the north-central part of the state. Carbon county, in the south-central part and Weston county in the N.E. were the next largest producers. The product of coal to the end of 1909 was 2,180,933 tons valued at $2,274,000.

The mining product next in value to coal in 1909 was copper, taken chiefly in Carbon county in a zone of brecciated quartzite underlying schist, the original ore being chalcopyrite, with possibly some pyrite, a secondary enrichment, which has produced important bodies of chalcocite in the upper workings, but these are replaced by chalcopyrite at greater depth. The production in 1908 was 2,471,197 lb. valued at $118,438. The gypsum product (from the Laramie plains) in 1908 was $1,188,000, valued at $94,035.

There are extensive deposits of petroleum and natural gas, which have become of commercial importance. Oil has been found in Albany county, New Mexico, and in a number of Wyoming counties, with natural gas in Sweetwater, Campbell, Fremont, Laramie, Albany, and Johnson counties. The Oil Trust is the largest producer.

There are many limited uses for gas and oil, but the most important are for the manufacture of illuminating gas and gasoline. The products are also used extensively in the refineries of the country.

There are sandstone deposits in Carbon county, which supplied the stone for the Capitol at Cheyenne and the state penitentiary; and from the iron mountain quarries in Laramie county was taken the white variety used in building the Carnegie Library and the Federal building in Cheyenne. Sandstones and quartzites were also quarried in 1902 in Albany, Crook and Uinta counties. Limestone occurs in thick formations near Lava Creek, and in the valley of the East Fork of the Green River, in Carbon county. Limestone is found in the counties of Albany, Crook, and Laramie. It is used for roads, pavements, and in the manufacture of cement. The county of Carbon produces the largest quantities of oil, the wells being partly gushers from which a heavy fuel oil is obtained. This is now being used by the Chicago & Northern Western Railroad Company on its lines, and it is also used in Omaha (Nebraska) by manufacturing establishments. There is a great variety in the grades of oils produced in the state, ranging from the heavy asphaltic oils of the Crook and Carbon counties to the cheap and low-grade oils of the Douglas field and in Buffalo county. The Wyoming producing oil fields are the principal source of supply for the entire United States, and the production of oil has been increasing rapidly.

The discovery of natural gas in the Douglas oil field has opened up new possibilities for the state. The use of natural gas for household purposes is a new development. The discovery of natural gas in this country is a great step forward in the use of this cheap and convenient fuel. The distance to be covered by a pipe line is not prohibitive, and the matter has been under consideration by the owners and lessees of the iron mines.

There are sandstone deposits in Carbon county, which supplied the stone for the Capitol at Cheyenne and the state penitentiary; and from the iron mountain quarries in Laramie county was taken the white variety used in building the Carnegie Library and the Federal building in Cheyenne. Sandstones and quartzites were also quarried in 1902 in Albany, Crook and Uinta counties. Limestone occurs in thick formations near Lava Creek, and in the valley of the East Fork of the Green River, in Carbon county. Limestone is used for roads, pavements, and in the manufacture of cement. The county of Carbon produces the largest quantities of oil, the wells being partly gushers from which a heavy fuel oil is obtained. This is now being used by the Chicago & Northern Western Railroad Company on its lines, and it is also used in Omaha (Nebraska) by manufacturing establishments. There is a great variety in the grades of oils produced in the state, ranging from the heavy asphaltic oils of the Crook and Carbon counties to the cheap and low-grade oils of the Douglas field and in Buffalo county. The Wyoming producing oil fields are the principal source of supply for the entire United States, and the production of oil has been increasing rapidly.

Irrigation.—The irrigable area of Wyoming is estimated at about 6,200,000 acres, lying chiefly in Bighorn, Sheridan and Johnson counties. The total number of acres classified as irrigable in these counties is 400,000. In 1907 the value of the irrigable acreage was $8,000,000. In 1908 Wyoming ranked second among the states in the production of irrigation projects. The acreage reclaimed in the state in 1908 was 50,000. In 1909 the value of the irrigation projects in the state was $8,000,000. In 1909 the value of the irrigation projects in the state was $8,000,000.
and a perpetual interest in the irrigation works. The principal undeveloped area of the Federal government is the Shoshone project in Bighorn county. This provides for a storage reservoir, controlled by Shoshone dam on Shoshone river, about 8 m. above Cody; a canal 23 m. long; and diversion works to convey water. Shoshone dam and covering lands in the vicinity of Cody, Corbett, Eagle Nest and Rakston; a dam at Corbett about 15 m. below the reservoir diverting water to Rakston reservoir and thence to lands in the vicinity of Corbett, Eagle Nest and Black Diamond. At Corbett a dam on the Shoshone river near Eagle Nest diverting water into a canal covering the lands of the Shoshone River Valley. This project was authorized in 1904; it will affect, when completed, $1,090,000 acres of land, and will provide $1,359,000 annually in irrigation property.

Near Douglas, in Converse county, there is a reinforced concrete dam, impounding the waters of Larpree Creek, to furnish water power to aid in mining and in smelting the metal in that vicinity.

There are large irrigated areas in Johnson and Sheridan counties.

Forests.—The woodland area of Wyoming in 1900 was estimated at 12,500 sq. m. (13% of the area of the state), of which the United States had reserved about 3500 sq. m. in the Yellowstone National Park and 9000 sq. m. in the Bighorn Mountains in the N., and the Medicine Bow Mountains in the S. E. of the state. The salable timber consists almost entirely of yellow pine, though there is a relatively small growth of other conifers and of hard-wood trees.

Manufactures.—Wyoming's manufacturing industries are relatively unimportant. In the period 1900-1905 the value of products manufactured increased by $1,238,835; the capital invested, from $2,047,883 to $2,635,896, and the number of establishments from 159 to 160; the average number of employees decreased from 1660 to 1034. In the same period (1900-1905), the value of the products of the manufactures decreased from $1,132,288 to $1,244,223, and the amount of capital invested increased from $871,531 to $986,615; but the value of the products of the state increased from $1,127,075 to $1,279,037, and the capital invested from $1,176,172 to $1,707,274. The manufactures of the state are relatively unimportant. The products of the principal industries in the state were: car and general shop construction and repairs by steam railway companies, $61,617; lumber and timber products, $246,433; flour and gist mill products, $283,653; butter, $114,354. Among other manufactures were gypsum wall-plaster, sash, and lath, malt liquors and tobacco, cigars and cigarettes.

Transportation.—There has been relatively little development of transport facilities in Wyoming. The railway mileage, which was only 450 m. in 1870, increased to 1902 m. in 1900, 1250 m. in 1905, and 1623 m. in 1909. The 1st of January, 1900, the Union Pacific railroad crossing the S. of the state, connects with the Oregon Short Line at Green river and extends both E. and S. from Cheyenne. The Colorado & Southern (controlled by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad Company) extends N. from Cheyenne to Orin Junction, where it connects with the Chicago & North Western, which runs across the south-central part of the state as far as Lander (under the name of the Wyoming & NorthWestern railroad). Four branches of the same railroad extend from Lander to subdivide the state into districts. One extends from Cheyenne S.E. to Holdridge, Nebraska; the main line crosses the N.E. of the state to Billings, Montana, whence it extends across Wyoming as far as Reno, Nevada, while another branch from Alliance, Nebraska, extends to the iron mines at Guernsey. The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy was building in 1910 a new line from the N.W. to connect with the Colorado & Southern railroad. The Denver & Rio Grande, which completed to Orin Junction this will be a main through route from the Mexican Gulf to the N.W. Pacific coast. There are several shorter railways in the state, and various stage lines reach the more inaccessible regions.

Population.—The population in 1870 was 918; in 1880, 20,780; in 1890, 60,703; in 1900, 92,531; in 1910, 145,065. The density of population was 0·6 per sq. m. in 1890 and in 1880 and 1·5 per sq. m. in 1910, there being in this year only one state with a smaller average number of inhabitants to the sq. m., namely Nevada, with 0·7. Of the total population in 1900, 88,051, or 66·25%, were whites; 1666 were Indians; 450 were negroes; 401 were Chinese and 325 were Japanese. The Indians are all taxed. They belong to the Arapaho and Shoshoni tribes.

The Wind River Reservation, under the Shoshoni School, is in the central part of the state. There were 17,415 foreign-born in the state in 1900, of whom 2596 were English, 2146 Germans, 1727 Swedes, 1501 Irish, 1253 Scotch and 1220 Finns. Of the 41,093 persons of foreign parentage (i.e. having either or both parents of foreign birth) in that year 4973 were of English, 4571 of German, and 4482 of Irish parentage, i.e. on both the father's and the mother's side. Of the 75,116 born in the United States, 76,280 were of the same name (Chemung and Laramie), having a population in 1900 of more than 8000.

The Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for 1909 gives 854 Arapaho and 816 Shoshoni under the Shoshoni School.

The people of Wyoming were 19,597 were natives of Wyoming, 6112 were born in Iowa, 5000 in Nebraska, 4923 in Illinois, 4412 in Missouri and 3750 in Utah. Among the chief numbers of religious denominations in 1890 the Roman Catholics, with 12,264 communicants, had the largest membership, followed by the Latter-day Saints, or Mormons, with 5211 communicants (21·8% of the total church membership for the state), the Protestant Episcopalians with 1741, the Methodists with 1612 and the Presbyterians with 984. The urban population (i.e. the population of places having 4000 inhabitants or more) increased from 18,978 in 1890 to 26,407 in 1900 or 47·5% of the urban being 28·8% of the total population in 1900. The semi-urban population (i.e. population of incorporated places, or the approximate equivalent, having fewer than 4000 inhabitants, but also having a hotel, public park, school, and a church) increased from 12,725, and the rural population (i.e. the population outside of incorporated places) increased from 29,567 to 53,149, which was 78·7% of the total increase. The principal cities of the state (with population) in 1900 were: Cheyenne, 14,687; Laramie, 8207; Rock Springs, 4563; Rawlins, 2137, and Evanston, 2110. After 1900 the population of the centre and N. of the state increased in proportion faster than the older settled portions in the S. In 1910 Sherman (5486) in Sheridan county, Douglas in Converse county and Lander in Fremont county were as important as any of the cities of the first quarter of the century.

Government.—Wyoming is governed under its first constitution, which was adopted in November 1889. An amendment may be proposed by either branch of the legislature. If it is approved by two-thirds of the members of each branch, it must be submitted to the people at the next general election and, if approved by a majority of the electors, then it becomes a part of the constitution. Whenever two-thirds of the members elected to each branch of the legislature vote for a convention to revise or amend the constitution and a majority of the people voting therein favor the addition of the convention, the legislature must provide for calling a State constitutional convention. All such amendments must be approved by both men and women, and the right to vote at a general election is given to all citizens of the United States who have attained the age of twenty-one years, are able to read the constitution, and have resided in the state one year and in the county sixty days immediately preceding, with the exception of idiots, insane persons, and persons convicted of an infamous crime; at a school election the voter must also own property on which taxes are paid. General elections are held biennially, in even-numbered years, the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November, and the first Monday in January of the following year.

Executive.—The governor is elected for a term of four years. He must be at least thirty years of age, and have resided in the state for five years next preceding his election. If the office becomes vacant during the term of a governor, the secretary of state, in the absence of a resident governor, may act as governor during the unexpired term. The governor is elected by the people of the state at the general election by direct vote without party labels. The electors of a county may in their county meeting at the first Monday in March select the electoral committee of the county to choose three qualified electors to vote for governor, and who shall unite and cast their votes at the first Monday in March of the following year. The governor receives a salary of $4000, plus $100 per day while in the discharge of his official duties.

Legislature.—The legislature consists of a Senate of 21 members, and a House of Representatives of 52 members. The numbers of representatives must not be less than twice nor more than three times the number of senators. One-half the senators and all the representatives are elected every two years. Both senators and representatives are apportioned among the several counties according to their population; each county, however, is entitled to at least one senator and one representative. The legislature meets biennially, in odd-numbered years, on the second Tuesday in January or on a day designated by the governor. Each regular session must not continue longer than forty days. All bills for raising a revenue must originate in the House of Representatives, but the Senate may propose amendments. The governor has three days (Sundays excepted) in which to veto any bill, and may return it with his objections to the house in which it originated; or, a two-thirds vote of the members elected to each house is required to override his veto.

Judiciary.—The administration of justice is vested principally in a supreme court, district courts, justices of the peace and municipal courts. The supreme court consists of three justices who are elected by the state at large for a term of eight years, and the one having the shortest term to serve is chief justice. The court has original jurisdiction in all cases, both civil and criminal, involving property or personal injury of more than $1000. The state is divided into 13 judicial districts, and each district is represented by a court of general jurisdiction, in which are heard all cases involving property or personal injury under the jurisdiction of the state, and in which are tried all cases involving the constitutionality of state laws or acts. There is a circuit court in each judicial district. The circuit court is the court of general jurisdiction in cases involving the validity of acts of the United States, of the state, or of any county or municipal corporation. It has jurisdiction in all cases involving the constitutionality of state laws or acts. It has appellate jurisdiction from the circuit courts of the United States. It has all such jurisdiction as is conferred on it by the United States.
jurisdiction in quo warranto and mandamus proceedings against state officers and in habeas corpus cases, general appellate jurisdiction, and a superintending control over the inferior courts. It holds two terms annually, at the capital, one beginning the first Monday in April and one the third Monday in October, in the years 1876 and thereafter, the four judicial districts, and in each of these a district judge is elected for a term of eight years. The district courts have original jurisdiction in all actions and matters not expressly vested in some other court, subject to an appeal to the supreme court in the state. Justices of the peace, one of whom is elected biennially in each precinct, have jurisdiction in civil actions in which the amount in controversy does not exceed $500, in misdemeanors and in the regulation of public peace. They are not involved, and in criminal actions less than a felony and in which the punishment prescribed by law does not exceed a fine of $100 and imprisonment for six months. Each incorporated city or town has a municipal court for the trial of offenses arising under its ordinances.

Local Government.—A board of three commissioners is elected in each county, one for four years and one for two years at each biennial election, which divides the county into townships, builds and repairs the county buildings, apportions and orders the levying of taxes, and establishes the election precincts. The other county officers are a treasurer, a clerk, an attorney, a surveyor, a sheriff, a coroner and a superintendent of schools, each elected for a term of two years. A justice of the peace and a constable are elected for and by each precinct. Cities and towns are incorporated under local laws.

Miscellaneous Laws.—A married woman may hold, acquire, manage and convey property and carry on business independently of her husband. When a husband or a wife dies intestate one-half of the estate is acquired by each as a survivor; if there are no children or descendants of any child three-fourths of it goes to the survivor; if there are no children or descendants of any child and the estate of the deceased was not $10,000 the survivor has a life interest in one-half of the estate; if it goes over $10,000 it goes to the survivor with the entire interest. The causes for a divorce are adultery, incompetency, conviction of a felony and sentence to imprison therefrom after marriage, conviction of a felony or infamous crime before marriage provided it was unknown to the other party, habitual drunkenness, extreme cruelty, intolerable indignities, neglect of the husband to provide the common necessaries of life, vagrancy of the husband and pregnancy of the wife, before marriage, and not more than one hundred dollars of the husband set aside without his knowledge. The plaintiff must reside in the state for one year immediately preceding his or her application for a divorce unless the parties were married in the state and the applicant has resided there since the marriage. Neither party is permitted to marry a third party until one year after the divorce has been granted. The desertion of a wife or of children under fifteen years of age is a felony punishable with imprisonment for not more than three years or less than one year. The homestead of a household who is the head of a family or of any resident of the state who has attained the age of sixty years is exempt, to the value of $500, or the excess of land, from execution and attachment arising out of any debt, contract or civil obligation other than taxes, purchase money or improvements, so long as it is occupied by the owner or his or her family, and the exemption inures for the benefit of a widow with minor children. If the homestead is married it can be alienated only with the consent of both husband and wife. The family Bible, school books, a lot in a burying-ground and $500 worth of personal property are likewise exempt to any person who is the legal owner thereof. A laundress, a laundress or a laborer in works for the reduction of ores is limited to eight hours except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger. The sale of intoxicating liquors is licensed only in incorporated cities and towns.

Charities and Corrections.—The state charitable and penal institutions consist of the Wyoming General Hospital at Rock Springs, with one branch at Sheridan and another branch at Casper; the Big Horn Hot Springs at Thermopolis, the Wyoming State Hospital for the Insane at Evanston, the Wyoming Home for the Feeble-minded at Laramie, Wyoming State Penitentiary at Rawlins, and the State Penitentiary at Rawlins. The general supervision and control of all these institutions is vested in the Board of Charities and Reform, consisting of the governor, the secretary of state, the treasurer, the auditor, and the superintendent of public instruction; the same officers also constitute the Board of Parcels. Convicts other than those for life are sentenced to the penitentiary for a maximum and a minimum term, and when one has served one-sixth of the term the governor or the majority of the board of parole, if he is the governor, may release him on parole, but he may be returned to prison at any time upon the request of the Board of Parcels. The Board of Charities and Reform, in addition to the common schools in the United States, is vested in the superintendent of public instruction, county superintendents and district boards. Whenever 100 freeholders request it, the county commissioners must submit to the voters of a precinct a proposition to authorize the construction or the maintenance of a common school district, and each precinct giving a majority vote for it constitutes a part of such a district for establishing and maintaining a high school. All children between seven and fourteen years of age must attend a public, parochial or parochial school during the entire time that the public school of their district is in session unless excused by

the district board. The common schools are maintained with the proceeds of school taxes and an annual income from school funds which are derived principally from lands. At the head of the educational system is the University of Wyoming (1886), at Laramie (q.v.); it is supported by a board of trustees consisting of its president, the superintendent of public instruction, and nine other members appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the Senate for a term of six years. It is maintained with the proceeds from funds held for any other purpose than obtaining a water supply in 1909 to one-half million on a dollar.

Finance.—The principal sources of revenue are a general property tax, a tax on the profits of corporations, a tax on the gross products of mines, an inheritance tax, a poll tax, a tax on monopolies, for the sale of liquor licences. Railways, telegraph lines and mines are assessed by the state board of equalization, which consists of the secretary of state, the auditor and the superintendent of public instruction, and the county assessors. The county commissioners constitute the county board of equalization. A commissioner of taxation who is appointed by the governor with the concurrence of the Senate for a term of four years exercises a general supervision over all tax officers and the boards of equalization. By a law enacted in 1909 county commissioners are forbidden to levy a tax which will yield more than 10 per cent. of the gross income for the year, and which exceeds the preceding year. The constitution limits the state tax for other than the support of educational and charitable institutions and the payment of the state debt and the interest thereon to four mills on the dollar; the county tax for other than the support of the county debt and the interest thereon to twelve mills on the dollar; the tax of an incorporated city or town for other than the payment of its debt and the interest thereon to eight mills on the dollar. The constitution also forbids the creation of any debt for the construction of schools, the payment of the taxable property in the state; of a county debt in excess of 2 per cent. of the assessed value of the taxable property in the county; or of a county debt in excess of $100 for any purpose. It provides that no county, city or town, or any one or more of them, may be authorized to enter into contracts for the purchase of improvements in excess of 2 per cent. unless for building sewerage, when a debt of 4 per cent. may be authorized. Wyoming entered the Union with a bonded indebtedness of $350,000. This has been reduced as rapidly as the taxes permit, and on the 30th of June 1910 the debt was only $140,000.

History.—Spanish historians have claimed that adventurers from the Spanish settlements in the S. penetrated almost to the Missouri river during the first half of the 17th century and even formed settlements within the present limits of Wyoming, but these stories are more than doubtful. The first white men certainly known to have traversed the region were Sieur de la Verendrye and his sons, who working down from Canada spent a part of the year 1724-1744 in examining the possibilities of the fur trade. Apparently no further French explorations were made from that direction, and the transfer of Canada from France to Great Britain (1763) was followed by lessened interest in exploration. The expedition of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark in 1804-1806 did not touch the region, but a discharged member of the party, John Colter, in 1807 discovered the Yellowstone Park region and then crossed the Rocky Mountains to the head of Green river. Trappers began to cover the N. portion about the same time, and in 1811 the overland party of the Pacific Fur Company crossed the country on their way to Astoria. In 1824 William H. Ashley with a considerable party explored and trapped in the Sweetwater and Green river valleys, and in 1836 wagons were driven from St. Louis to Wind river for the Rocky Mountain Fur Company. Captain B. L. E. Bonneville was the first to cross the Rockies with wagons (1832), and two years later Fort Laramie, near the mouth of the Laramie river, was established to control the fur trade of the Arapahoes, Cheyennes and Sioux.

The United States exploring expedition, commanded by John Charles Frémont, explored the Wind River Mountains and the South Pass in 1842, under the guidance of Kit Carson. From this time the favourite route to the Pacific led through Wyoming; but of all the thousands who passed few or none settled permanently within the present limits of the state, partly because of the aridity of the land and partly because of the pronounced hostility of the Indians. For the latter reason the National Congress on the 19th of May 1846 authorized the construction at intervals along the trail of military stations for the protection of the emigrant trains, and Fort Kearny was established (1848) and Fort Laramie was purchased (1849). The great

1 See Washington Irving, Adventures of Captain Bonneville (New York, 1806).
2 See Francis Parkman, The Oregon Trail (Boston, 1849).
Mormon migration passed along the trail in 1847-1849, and in 1853 fifty-five Mormons settled on Green river at the trading post of James Bridge, which they purchased and named Fort Supply. This S.W. corner of the present state was at that time a part of Utah. With the approach of United States troops under Albert Sidney Johnston in 1857, Fort Supply was abandoned, and in the next year the Mormon settlers retired to Salt Lake City, again leaving the region almost without permanent inhabitants. After the Civil War, in 1861, a considerable portion of the garrison of Fort Laramie was killed in 1854 and there was trouble for more than twenty years. During the Civil War (1861-1865) the Indians were especially bold as they realized that the Federal troops were needed elsewhere. Meanwhile, there began a considerable migration to Montana, and the protection of the N. of the trail demanded the construction of posts, of which the most important were Fort Reno, on the Powder river, and Fort Phil Kearny in the Bighorn Mountains. In spite of the treaty allowing the opening of the road, during a period of six months fifty-one hostile demonstrations were made, and on the 21st of December 1866 Captain W. J. Fetterman and seventy-eight men from Fort Phil Kearny were ambushed and slain. Hostilities continued in 1867, but the troops were harried on account of the scarcity of cavalry. Congress in 1868 sent a special survey party to determine the boundary, and when the surveyors (29th April, at Fort Laramie) were any terms agreed upon. The posts on the Montana trail were abandoned, and the Indians agreed to remove farther E. and to cease attacking trains, not to oppose railway construction.  

The territory N. of the Platte river and E. of the Bighorn Mountains was to be reserved as an Indian hunting ground, and no white men were to settle on it without the consent of the Indians. Gold was discovered on the Sweetwater river in 1867, and a large influx of population followed. This unorganized territory E. of the Rocky Mountains was a part of Dakota, and in January 1868, Carter (late Sweetwater) county was erected. Farther E. Cheyenne was laid out by the Union Pacific Railroad (July 1867), a city government was established in August, newspapers began publication, and Laramie county was organized before the arrival of the first railway train on the 13th of November 1867. About six thousand persons spent the winter in Cheyenne, and disorder was checked only by the organization of a vigilance committee. Almost the same scenes followed the laying off of Laramie in April 1868, when 400 lots were sold during the first week and 300 habitations were erected within a fortnight. Albany and Carbon counties were organized farther W. in the same year.  

A bill to organize the Territory of Wyoming had been introduced into Congress in 1865, and in 1867 the voters of Laramie county had chosen a delegate to Congress. He was not permitted to take a seat, but his presence in Washington hastened action, and on the 23rd of July 1868 the act of Congress establishing a Territory with the present boundaries was approved by President Andrew Johnson. The portion of the Territory E. of the Rocky Mountains was taken from Dakota and that W. from Utah and Idaho, and included parts of the three great additions to the original territory of the United States. That portion E. of the mountains was a part of the Louisiana Purchase (1803), the W. portion above 42° was a part of the Oregon country, and that S. of that parallel came by the Mexican cession of 1848. The first governor, John A. Campbell, was appointed in April 1869, and the organization of the Territory was completed in May of the same year. At the first election, on the 2nd of September 1869, 526 votes were cast. The legislature established the seat of government at Cheyenne, and granted full suffrage and the right of holding office to women. The first great influx of population, following the discovery of gold and the opening of the railway, brought many desperate characters, who were held in check by the stern, swift measures of frontier justice. After the organization of the Territory, except for the appearance of organized bands of highwaymen in 1877-1879, there was little turbulence, in marked contrast with conditions in some of the neighbouring Territories. Agriculture began in the narrow but fertile river valleys, and stock-raising became an important industry, as the native grasses are especially nutritious. The history of the Territory was marked by few striking events other than Indian troubles. The N.E. of the Territory as has been already said, had been set apart (1868) as a hunting ground for the Sioux Indians, but the rumour of the discovery of gold in the Black Hills and the Bighorn Mountains in 1874-1875 caused a rush to the region which the military seemed powerless to prevent. The resentful Indians resorted to war. After a long and arduous contest in Wyoming, Montana and Dakota, which lasted from 1874 to 1879, and during which General George A. Custer (q.v.) and his command were killed in 1876 on the Little Bighorn in Montana, the Indians were thoroughly subdued and confined to reservations. The settlers in Wyoming shared the general antipathy to the Chinese, common to the western country.  

The Territory increased in population and more rapidly in wealth, owing chiefly to the large profits in cattle raising, though the winter of 1886-1887 was severe. The growth of the population, was rapid, and by 1879, when nearly three-fourths of the range cattle died of exposure. Agitation for statehood increased, and on the 30th of September 1889 a constitution was formed which was adopted by the people in November of the same year. The Constitution, which continued the Territorial provision of full suffrage for women, met the approval of Congress, and on the 14th of July 1890 Wyoming was formally admitted as a state. Since admission the progress of the state has been steady. Extensive irrigation projects have made available many thousand acres of fertile land, and much more will be subjected to cultivation in the future. The large ranges are broken up into smaller tracts. In some sections a system of dry-farming, by which the scanty rainfall is protected from evaporation by deep ploughing and mulching the soil, has proved profitable. The transition of the principal stock-raising industry from large herds of cattle to small, and the utilization of the ranges for sheep grazing almost exclusively covered a period of over twenty years preceding 1910, during which time many conflicts occurred between range cattle-owners and sheep flockmasters over the use of the grazing grounds. The settler also, who selected his homeplace, preferred to use only watering places, so as to keep the ranges as free as possible, came into conflict with the cattlemen. Some of these small settlers owned no cattle, and subsisted by stealing calves and unbranded cattle (mavericks) belonging to the range cattlemen. In parts of the state it became impossible to get a jury composed of these small squatters to convict anybody for stealing or killing cattle, and so had this become that, in 1892, certain cattlemen formed a small army of mounted men and invaded the central part of the state with the avowed intention of killing all the men generally considered to be stock thieves, an episode known as the Johnson County Raid. This armed body, consisting of over fifty men, surrounded a log cabin and shot down two of the supposed cattle "rustlers," the latter defending themselves bravely. The country round was roused and large numbers of settlers and others turned out and besieged the cattlemen, who had taken refuge in some ranch buildings. Their case was becoming desperate when a troop of Federal cavalry arrived, raised the siege, and took the cattlemen back to Cheyenne as prisoners. They were subsequently held for murder, but were finally released without trial. Since that time experience has proved that the grazing ranges of the state are better suited to sheep than cattle, the former being much more profitable and better able to suffer the cold on the open range.
While many cattlemen have been driven out of business by the encroachments of sheep, the majority of the present flockmasters were range cattle owners in the past and have changed to the more profitable occupation. At the present time serious collisions between sheep and cattle owners are rare. There are still many cattle in the state, but they are divided up into small herds, no longer depending upon the open range for a precarious subsistence during the winter, but are sheltered and fed during the snowiest days. The breed of cattle are far superior now to the old range stock, so that it pays to take care of them; many thousands are fed during the winter on alfalfa hay.

**GOVERNORS OF WYOMING**

**Territorial.**

- John A. Campbell, 1869-1875
- John M. Thayer, 1875-1878
- John W. Hoar, 1878-1882
- William Hale, 1882-1885
- Francis E. Warren, 1885-1886
- George W. Baxter (acting), 1886-1887
- W. W. Moonlight, 1887-1888
- Francis E. Warren, 1889-1890
- John H. Plunket, 1890-1892
- J. E. Osborne, 1892-1895
- W. A. Richards, 1895-1899
- J. A. Forney, 1899-1903
- Pinmonne Carroll (acting), 1903-1904
- Bryant B. Brooks, 1905-1909

**State.**

- Francis E. Warren, Republican, 1909-1912
- Amy W. Baxter (acting), 1912-1913
- J. E. Osborne, Democratic, 1913-1915
- W. A. Richards, Republican, 1915-1919
- De Forest Richards, Republican, 1919-1923
- Prentice Clifton (acting), 1923-1924
- Bryant B. Brooks, 1925-1927
- J. M. Carey, Democrat, 1927-1931


**WYOMING VALLEY,** a valley on the N. branch of the Susquehanna river, in Luzerne county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A. Its name is a corruption of a Delaware Indian word meaning "large plains." The valley, properly speaking, is about 33 m. wide and about 25 m. long, but the term is sometimes used historically in a broader sense to include all of the territory in the N.E. of the state once in dispute between Pennsylvania and Connecticut. In Connecticut the Susquehanna Land Company was formed in 1753 to colonize the valley, and the Delaware Land Company was formed in 1754 for the territory immediately W. of the Delaware river. The rights of the Six Nations to all this territory were purchased at Albany, New York, by the Susquehanna Company in 1754, but the work of colonization was delayed for a time by the Seven Years' War. A few colonists sent out by the Susquehanna Company settled at Mill Creek near the present site of Wilkes-Barre in 1765, but were (October 1766) attacked and driven away by the Indians. In December 1768 the company divided a part of the valley into five townships of 5 sq. m. each, granting to forty proprietors the choice of one of these on condition that they should take possession of it by the 1st of February 1769, and the other four townships to 200 settlers on condition that they should follow by the 1st of May. The first group arrived on the 8th of February, the first division of the larger body on the 14th of May, and the five original towns of Wilkes-Barre (q.v.), Kingston (q.v.), Hanover, Plymouth and Pittston were soon founded.

In the meantime the Six Nations (in 1768) had repudiated their sale of the region to the Susquehanna Company and had sold it to the Penns; the Penns had erected here the manors of Stoke and Sunbury, the government of Pennsylvania had commissioned Charles Stewart, Amos Ogden and others to lay out these manors, and they had arrived and taken possession of the block-house and forts at Mill Creek in January 1769. The conflict which followed between the Pennsylvania and the Connecticut settlers is known as the first Pennamite-Yankeeh War. Although defeated in the early stages of the conflict, the Yankees or Connecticut settlers finally rallied in August 1771 and compelled the Pennsylvanians to retreat, and the war terminated with the defeat of Colonel William Plunket (1770-1791) and about 700 Pennsylvanians by a force of 300 Yankees under Colonel Zebulon Butler (1732-1795) in the battle of "Rampart Rocks" on the 25th of December 1772. The General Assembly of Connecticut, in January 1773, in the independent township of Westmoreland and attached it to Litchfield county in October 1776 the same body erected it into Westmoreland county. On the 3rd of July 1778, while a considerable number of the able-bodied men were absent in the Connecticut service, a motley force of about 400 men and boys under Colonel Zebulon Butler were attacked and defeated near Kingston in the "battle of Wyoming" by about 1100 British, Provincial (Tory) and Indian troops under Major John Butler, and nearly three-fourths were killed or taken prisoners and subsequently massacred. Thomas Campbell's poem, *Gertrude of Wyoming* (1809), is based on this episode, various liberties being taken with the facts. As the War of Independence came to a close the old trouble with Pennsylvania was revived. A court of arbitration appointed by the Continental Congress met at Trenton, New Jersey, in 1782, and on December 30th gave a unanimous decision in favour of Pennsylvania. The refusal of the Pennsylvania government to confirm the private land titles of the settlers, and the arbitrary conduct of a certain Alexander Patterson whom they sent up to take charge of affairs, resulted in 1784 in the outbreak of the second Pennamite-Yankeeh War. The Yankees were dispossessed, but they took up arms and the government of Pennsylvania despatched General John Armstrong with a force of 400 men to aid Patterson. Armstrong induced both parties to give up their arms with a promise of impartial justice and protection, and as soon as the Yankees were defenceless he made them prisoners. This treachery and the harsh treatment by Patterson created a strong public opinion in favour of the Yankees, and the government was compelled to adopt a milder policy. Patterson was withdrawn, the disputed territory was restored to the Penns, but the new land titles were confirmed (1785), and Colonel Timothy Pickering (q.v.) was commissioned to organize the new county and to effect a reconciliation. But a few of the settlers under the lead of Colonel John Franklin (1749-1831) attempted to form a separate state government. Franklin was seized and imprisoned, under a warrant from the State Supreme Court. As Pickering was held responsible for Franklin's imprisonment, some of Franklin's followers in retaliation kidnapped Pickering and carrying him into the woods, tried in vain for nearly three weeks to get him to promise to intercede for Franklin's pardon. The trouble was again revived by the repeal in 1790 of the confirming act.

1 In place of De Forest Richards, deceased.

2 Several Scotch-Irish families from Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, accepted Connecticut titles and settled at Hanover under Captain Lazarus Stewart.
of 1759 and by a subsequent decision of the United States Circuit Court, unfavourable to the Yankees, in the case of *Van Horn versus Dorrance*. All of the claims were finally confirmed, by a series of statutes passed in 1790, 1802 and 1807. Since 1808, mainly through the development of its coal mines (see Pittston, Pa.), the valley has made remarkable progress both in wealth and in population.


**WYON, THOMAS** (1792-1817), English medallist, was born at Birmingham. He was apprenticed to his father, the chief engraver of the king's seals, and studied in the schools of the Royal Academy, London, where he gained silver medals in both the architecture and the life class; he also obtained a gold medal, from the Society of Arts. He was appointed probationary engraver to the mint in 1814, and soon after engraved his medal commemorative of the peace, and his Manchester Pitt medal. In 1816 he was appointed chief engraver to the mint. His younger brother, Benjamin Wyon (1802-1858), his nephews, Joseph Shepherd Wyon (1836-1873) and Alfred Benjamin Wyon (1837-1884), and his cousin, William Wyon (1793-1851), were also distinguished medallists.

**WYSE, SIR THOMAS** (1791-1863), Irish politician, belonged to a family of Irish descent. He was a Devon man, Andrew Wyse, who is said to have crossed over to Ireland during the reign of Henry II. and obtained lands near Waterford, of which city thirty-three members of the family are said to have been mayors or other municipal officers. From the Reformation the family had been consistently attached to the Roman Catholic Church. Thomas Wyse was educated at Stonyhurst College and at Trinity College, Dublin, where he distinguished himself as a scholar. After 1816 he passed some years in travel, visiting Italy, Greece, Egypt and Palestine. In 1821 he married Laetitia (d. 1873), daughter of Lucien Buonaparte, and after residing for a time at Viterbo he returned to Ireland in 1825, having by this time inherited the family estates. He now devoted his great oratorical and other talents to forwarding the cause of Roman Catholic emancipation, and his influence was specially marked in his own county of Waterford, while his standing among his associates was shown by his being chosen to write the address to the people of England. In 1830, after the passing of the Roman Catholic Relief Act, he was returned to parliament for county Tipperary, and he attached himself to the Liberal party and voted for the great measures of the reform era. But he was especially anxious to secure some improvement in the education of the Irish people, and some of his proposals were accepted by Mr E. G. Stanley, afterwards 14th earl of Derby, and the government. He was chairman of a committee which inquired into the condition of education in Ireland, and it was partly owing to his efforts that provincial colleges were established at Cork, Galway and Belfast. His work as an educational pioneer also bore fruit in England, where the principles of state control and inspection, for which he had fought, were adopted, and where a training college for teachers at Battersea was established on his lines. From 1840 to 1847 he was chairman of the committee for the city of Waterford and from 1839 to 1841 he was a lord of the treasury; from 1846 to 1849 he was secretary to the board of control, and in 1849 he was sent as British minister to Greece. He was very successful in his diplomacy, and he showed a great interest in the educational and other internal affairs of Greece. In 1857 he was made a K.C.B., and he died at Athens on the 16th of April 1862. Wyse wrote *Historical Sketch of the Late Catholic Association of Ireland* (1839); *An Excursion in the Peloponnese* (1838, new ed. 1856); and *Impressions of Greece* (1871). His two sons shared his literary life. They were Napoleon Alfred Bonaparte Wyse (1822-1893); and William Charles Bonaparte Wyse (1826-1892), a student of the dialect of Provence.

**WYTENBACH, DANIEL ALBERT** (1746-1829), German-Swiss classical scholar, was born at Bern, of a family whose nobility and distinction he loved to recall. In particular, he was proud of his descent from Thomas Wytenbach, professor of theology in Basel at the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th century, who numbered the Reformer Zwingli and other distinguished men among his pupils. Wytenbach's own father was also a theological professor of considerable note, first at Bern, and then at Marburg. His removal to Marburg, which took place in 1536, was partly due to old associations, for he had studied there under the famous Christian Wolff, and embodied the philosophical principles of his master in his own theological teaching. Young Wytenbach entered at the age of fourteen the university of Marburg, and passed through a four years' course there. His parents intended that he should become a Lutheran pastor. The first two years were given up to general education, principally to mathematics, "philology," philosophy and history. The professor of mathematics, Spangenberg, from his great influence on young Wytenbach. He is entirely have taught his subject with great clearness, and with equal seriousness and piety, often referring to God as the supreme mathematician, who had constructed all things by number, measure and weight. "Philology" in the German universities of that age meant Hebrew and Greek. These two languages were generally handled by the same professor, and were taught almost solely to theological students. Wytenbach's university course at Marburg was troubled about the middle of the time by mental unrest, due to the fascination exercised over him by Thomas Bayes's "Preliminary Discourse." The disorder was cured by Spangenberg. The principal study of the third year was metaphysics, which took Wytenbach entirely captive. The fourth and last year was to be devoted to theology and Christian dogma. Wytenbach had hitherto submitted passively to his father's wishes concerning his career, in the hope that some unexpected occurrence might set him free. But he now turned away from theological lectures, and privately devoted his time to the task of deepening and extending his knowledge of Greek literature. He possessed at the time, as he tells us, no more acquaintance with Greek than his own pupils at a later time could acquire from him during four months' study. He was almost entirely without equipment beyond the bare texts of the authors. But Wytenbach was undaunted, and four years' persistent study gave him a knowledge of Greek such as few Germans of that time possessed. His love for philosophy carried him towards the Greek philosophers, especially Plato. During this period Ruhnken's notes on the Platonic lexicon of *Timaeus* fell into his hands. Ruhnken was for him almost a superhuman being, whom he worshipped day and night, and with whom he imagined himself as holding converse in the spirit. When Wytenbach was Swanenburg's assistant he determined to prepare a grammar of Greek, and another on receipt of the tract, in which the great scholar declared that he had not looked to find in Germany such knowledge of Greek, such power of criticism, and such mature judgment, especially in so young. By Heyne's advice, he worked hard at Latin, which he knew far less thoroughly than Greek, and we soon find Heyne praising his progress in Latin style to both Ruhnken and Valckenair. He now wrote to ask their advice about his scheme of coming to the Netherlands to follow the profession of a scholar. Ruhnken strongly exhorted Wytenbach to follow his own example, for he too had been designed by his parents for the Christian ministry in Germany, but had settled at Leiden on the invitation of Hemsterhuis. Valckenair's answer was to the same effect, but he added that Wytenbach's letter would have been pleasanter to him had it been free from excessive compliments. These letters were
forwarded to the elder Wyttenbach, with a strong recommendation from Heyne. The old man had been himself in Leiden in his youth, and entertained an admiration for the scholarship of the Netherlands; so his consent was easily won. Young Wyttenbach reached Leiden in 1770. A year was spent with great contentment; in learning the language of the people, in attending the lectures of the great "daumviri" of Leiden, and in collating MSS. of Plutarch. At the end of 1771 a professor was wanted at Amsterdam for the College of the Remonstrants. By the recommendation of Ruhnken, Wyttenbach obtained the chair, which he filled with great success for eight years. His lectures took a wide range. Those on Greek were repeated also to the students of the university of Amsterdam (the "Athenaeum"). In 1775 a visit was made to Paris, which was fruitful both of new friendships and of progress in study. About this time, on the advice of Ruhnken, Wyttenbach began the issue of his Bibliotheca critica, which appeared at intervals for the next thirty years. The methods of criticism employed were in the main those established by Hemsterhuis, and carried on by Valckenaer and Ruhnken, and the publication met with acceptance from the learned all over Europe. In 1777 the younger Burmann ("Burmannus Secundus") retired from his professorship at the Athenaeum, and Wyttenbach hoped to succeed him. When another received the appointment, he was sorely discouraged. Only his regard for Ruhnken and for Dutch freedom (in his own words "Ruhnkeni et Batavae libertatis cogitatio") kept him in Holland. For fear of losing him, the authorities at Amsterdam nominated him in 1779 professor of philosophy. In 1783 Toll, Burmann's successor, resigned, and Wyttenbach was at once appointed to succeed him. His full title was "professor of history and eloquence and Greek and Latin literature." He had hardly got to work in his new office when Valckenaer died, and he received a call to Leiden. Greatly to Ruhnken's disappointment, he declined to abandon the duties he had so recently undertaken. In 1787 began the internal commotions in Holland, afterwards to be aggravated by foreign interference. Scarcely during the remaining thirty-three years of Wyttenbach's life was there a moment of peace in the land.

About this time two requests were made to him for an edition of the Moralia of Plutarch, for which a recension of the tract De sera numinis vindicia had marked him out in the eyes of scholars. One request came from the famous "Societas Bipontina," the other from the delegates of the Clarendon Press at Oxford. Wyttenbach, influenced at once by the reputation of the university, and by the liberality of the Oxonians in tendering him assistance of different kinds, declined the offer of the Bipontine Society,—very fortunately, since their press was soon destroyed by the French. The fortunes of Wyttenbach's edition curiously illustrate the text "habent una fata libelli." The first portion was safely conveyed to Oxford in 1794. Then war broke out between Holland and Great Britain. Randolph, Wyttenbach's Oxford correspondent, advised that the next portion should be sent through the British ambassador at Hamburg, and the MS. was duly consigned to him "in a little chest well protected by pitch." After sending Randolph a number of letters without getting any answer, Wyttenbach in disgust put all thought of the edition from him, but at last the missing box was discovered in a forgotten corner at Hamburg, where it had lain for two years and a half. The work was finally completed in 1805. Meanwhile Wyttenbach received invitations from his native city Bern, and from Leiden, where vacancies had been created by the refusal of professors to swear allegiance to the new Dutch republic set up in 1795, to which Wyttenbach had made submission. But he only left Amsterdam in 1799, when on Ruhnken's death he succeeded him at Leiden. Even then his chief object in removing was to facilitate an arrangement by which the necessities of his old master's family might be relieved. His removal came too late in life, and he was not so happy at Leiden as he had been at Amsterdam. Before long appeared the ever-delightful Life of David Ruhnken. Though written in Latin, this biography deserves to rank high in the modern literature of its class. Of Wyttenbach's life at Leiden there is little to tell. The continual changes in state affairs greatly disorganized the universities of Holland, and Wyttenbach had to work in face of much detraction; still, his success as a teacher was very great. In 1805 he narrowly escaped with his life from the great gunpowder explosion, which killed 150 people, among them the Greek scholar Lucaz, Wyttenbach's colleague in the university. One of Wyttenbach's letters gives a vivid account of the disaster. During the last years of his life he suffered severely from illness and became nearly blind. After the conclusion of his edition of Plutarch's Moralia in 1805, the only important work he was able to publish was his well-known edition of Plato's Phædo. Many honours were conferred upon him both at home and abroad, and in particular he was made a member of the French Institute. Shortly before his death, he obtained the licence of the king of Holland to marry his sister's daughter, Johanna Gallien, who had for twenty years devoted herself to him as housekeeper, secretary and aid her in his studies. The sole object of the marriage was to secure for her a better provision after her husband's death, because as the widow of a professor she would be entitled to a pension. Johanna Gallien was a woman of remarkable culture and ability, and wrote works held in great repute at that time. On the festival of the tercentenary of the foundation of the university of Marburg, celebrated in 1827, the degree of doctor was conferred upon her. Wyttenbach died of apoplexy in 1820, and he was buried in the garden of his country house near Amsterdam, which stood, as he noted, within sight of the dwellings of Descartes and Boerhaave.

Although his work can hardly be set on the same level as that of Hemsterhuis, Valckenaer and Ruhnken, yet he was a very eminent exponent of the sound methods of criticism which they established. These four men, more than any others after Bentley, laid the foundations of modern Greek scholarship. The precise study of grammar, syntax and style, and the careful criticism of texts by the light of the best manuscript evidence, were upheld by these scholars in the Netherlands when they were almost entirely neglected elsewhere on the Continent, and were only pursued with partial success in England. Wyttenbach may fairly be regarded as closing a great period in the history of scholarship. He lived indeed to see the new birth of German classical learning; but his work was done, and he was unburied. Wyttenbach's criticism was less rigorous, precise and masterly, but perhaps more honest and less affected than that of his great predecessors in the Netherlands. In actual acquaintance with the philosophical writings of the ancients, he has probably never been surpassed. In character he was upright and simple-minded, but shy and retiring, and often failed to make himself appreciated. His life was not passed without strife, but his few friends were warmly attached to him, and his many pupils were for the most part his enthusiastic admirers. Wyttenbach's biography was written in a somewhat dry and lifeless manner by Mahne, one of his pupils, who also published some of his letters. His Opuscula, other than those published in the Bibliotheca critica, were collected in two volumes (Leiden, 1823).

**WYVERN** or **WIVERN**, the name of an heraldic monster, with the forepart of a winged dragon and the hind part of a serpent or lizard (see Heraldry). The earlier spelling of the word was **wyre** or **wriere**; O. Eng. **wyre**; O. Fr. **wivre**, mod. **givre**. It is a doublet of **"viper,**" with an exessent **n, as in "bittern,** M. Eng. **bilore**.
the twenty-fourth letter of the English alphabet. Its position and form are derived from the Latin alphabet, which received them from the Western Greek alphabet. The alphabet of the Western Greeks, differed from the Ionic, which is the Greek alphabet now in general use, by the shape and position of X and of some other consonants. The Ionic alphabet placed X (ξ) immediately after N and, in the oldest records, in the form ξ, from which the ordinary Greek capital Ξ was developed. The position and shape of this symbol show clearly that it was taken from the Semitic Semekh, which on the Moabitite stone appears as ꝏ. Why the Greeks attached this value to the symbol is not clear; in Semitic the symbol indicates the ordinary x. Still less clear is the origin of the form X, which in the Ionic alphabet stands for χ (k followed by a breath). In a very ancient alphabet on a small vase found in 1882 at Formello near the ancient Veii in Etruria, a symbol appears after N consisting of three horizontal and three vertical lines, Ξ. From this it has been suggested that both forms of the Greek x are derived, Ξ by removing the vertical lines, X in its earliest form + by removing the four marginal lines. The Ionic symbol, however, corresponds closely to the earliest Phoenician, so that this theory is not very plausible for Ξ, and there are various other possibilities for the development of X (see Alphabet). This symbol appears in the very early Latin inscriptions found in the Roman Forum in 1893 as ♢. In its usual value as ks is superfluous. In the Ionic alphabet it was useful, because there it represented a single sound, which before the invention of the symbol had to be represented by kh. In the alphabet in use officially at Athens before 403 B.C. x was written by χς (khs). In English there is an interesting variation of pronunciation in many words according to the position of the accent: if the accent precedes, x is pronounced ks; if it follows, x is pronounced ge: compare exit (eskit) with exact (egeat).

The symbol X was used both by the Romans and the Etruscans for the numeral 10. Whichborrowed from the other is uncertain, but the Etruscans did not use X as part of their alphabet. X with a horizontal line over it was used for 10,000, and when a line on each side was added, Ξ, for a million.

(Xanthium) XANTHINE, the wife of Socrates (q.v.). Her name has become proverbial in the sense of a nagging, quarrelsome woman. Attempts have been made to show that she has been malignantly, notably by E. Zeller ("Zur Erkennung der Xanthine," in his Vorträge und Abhandlungen, i., 1875).

Xanthone (dibenzo-y-pyrene, or diphenylene ketone oxide), C₁₃H₁₀O₃, in organic chemistry, a heterocyclic compound containing the ring system shown below. It is obtained by the oxidation of xanthene (methylene diphenylene oxide) with chromic acid; by the action of phosphorus oxychloride on disodium sulphite; by heating 2-2'-dioxobenzophenone with concentrated sulphuric acid; by distilling fluor with lime; by the oxidation of xanthylol (R. Meyer, Ber., 1893, 26, p. 1277); by boiling diazotized 2'-2'-diphenylbenzophenone with water (Heyl., Ber., 1898, 31, p. 3934); by heating salol with concentrated sulphuric acid (C. Graebe, Ann., 1880, 254, p. 226), and by heating potassium-ortho-chlorobenzolate with sodium phenolate and a small quantity of copper powder to 180-190° C. (F. Ullmann, Ber., 1905, 29, pp. 472, 2120, 2211). It crystallizes in needles which melt at 173-174° and boil at 349-356° C., and are volatile in steam. Its solution in concentrated sulphuric acid is of a yellow colour and shows a marked blue fluorescence. The carbonyl group is not ketonic in character since it yields neither an oxime nor hydrazone. When fused with caustic potash it yields phenol and salicylic acid. Mild reducing agents convert it into xanthylol, the group CO becoming CH-ÖH, whilst a strong reducing agent like hydriodic acid converts it into xanthene, the group CO becoming CH₃. Phosphorus penta-sulphide at 140-150° C. converts it into xanthion by transformation of CO to CS (R. Meyer, Ber., 1900, 33, p. 2580), and this latter compound condenses with hydroxylamine to form xanthene oxime.

All four mono-hydroxyxanthones are known, and are prepared by heating salicylic acid with either resorcin, pyrocatechin or hydroquinone; they are yellow crystalline solids, which act as dyes. The 1,7-dihydroxyxanthone, known as euaxanthone, is prepared by heating euaxanthin with hydrochloric acid or by heating hydroquinone carboxylic acid with β-resorcylic acid and acetic anhydride (S. Kostanecki, Ber., 1891, 24, p. 3981; C. Graebe, Ann., 1884, 254, p. 298). It is also obtained from Indian yellow (Graebe, ibid.), formed in the urine of cows fed on mango leaves. It crystallizes in yellow needles which sublimate readily. On fusion with caustic potash it decomposes with formation of tetrahydroxy-benzophenone, which then breaks up into resorcin and hydroquinone. The isomeride 1,6-dihydroxyxanthone, isoxuaxanthone, is formed when β-resorcylic acid is heated with acetic anhydride. Gentisine, or 1,3,7-trihydroxyxanthone, is found in the form of its methyl ether (gentisin) in gentian root; it is obtained synthetically by condensing phloroglucin with hydroquinone carboxylic acid. Xanthone, C₁₃H₁₀O₃, may be synthesized by condensing phenol with ortho-creosol in the presence of aluminium chloride. Its tetramethyl-diamino derivative, which is formed by condensing formaldehyde with xanthone, is a yellow compound, and subsequent elimination of water from the resulting diphenyl methane derivative, is the leuco base of pyronine, into which it passes by oxidation.
XANTHUS (mod. Guralı), an ancient city of Lycia, on the river Xanthus (Esben Chai) about 8 m. above its mouth. It was besieged by the Persian general Harpagus (346 B.C.), when the acropolis was burned and all the inhabitants perished (Herod. i. 176). The city was afterwards rebuilt; and in 42 B.C. it was besieged by the Romans under M. Junius Brutus. It was taken by storm and set on fire, and the inhabitants perished in the flames. The ruins lie on a plateau, high above the left bank of the river. The nearest port is Kalamaki, whence a tedious ride of three to four hours round the edge of the great marsh of the Esben Chai brings the traveller to Xanthus. The whole plan of the city with its walls and gates can be discerned. The well-preserved theatre is remarkable for a break in the curve of its auditorium, which has been constructed so as not to interfere with a sarcophagus on a pedestal, and with the "Harpy Monument" which still stands to its full height, robbed of the relics of its parapet (now in the British Museum). In front of the theatre stands the famous stele of Xanthus inscribed on all four sides in Lycian and Greek. Behind the theatre is a terrace on which probably the temple of either the Xanthian Apollo or Sarpedon stood. The best of the tombs—the "Payava Tomb," the "Nereid Monument," the "Ionic Monument," and the "Lion Tomb"—are in the British Museum, as the result of Sir Chas. Fellow's expedition; only their bases can be seen on the site. A fine triple gateway, much polygonal masonry, and the walls of the acropolis are the other objects of most interest.

See O. Benndorf and G. Niemann, Reisen in Lykien und Karien (1884).

XAVIER, FRANCISCO DE (1506-1552), Jesuit missionary and saint, commonly known in English as St. Francis Xavier and also called the "Apostle of the Indies." He was the youngest son of Juan de Jasso, privy councillor to Jean d'Albret, king of Navarre, and his wife, Maria de Azpilcueta y Xavier, sole heir of the Marquis of Echandur. He was born in the mother's castle of Xavier or Xavero, at the foot of the Pyrenees and close to the little town of Sanguesa, on the 7th of April 1506, according to a family register, though his earlier biographers fix his birth in 1497. Following a Spanish custom of the time, which left the surname of either parent optional with children, he was called after his mother; the best authorities write "Francisco de Xavier" (Lat. Xaveri) rather than "Francisco Xavier," as Xavier is originally a place-name. In 1524 he went to the university of Paris, where he entered the College of St. Barbara, then the headquarters of the Spanish and Portuguese students, and in 1528 was appointed lecturer in Aristotelian philosophy at the Collège de Beauvais. In 1530 he took his degree as master of arts. He and the Savoyard Pierre Lefèvre, who shared his lodging, had already, in 1529, made the acquaintance of Ignatius of Loyola—like Xavier a native of the Spanish Basque country. Ignatius succeeded, though in Xavier's case after some opposition, in gaining their sympathy for his missionary schemes (see Loyola, IGNATIUS OF), and they were among the company of seven persons, including Loyola himself, who took the original Jesuit vows on the 15th of August 1534. They continued in Paris for two years longer; but on November 15th, 1536, they started for Italy, to concert with Ignatius plans for converting the Moslems of Palestine. In January 1537 they arrived in Venice. As some months must elapse before they could sail for Palestine, Ignatius determined that the time should be spent partly in hospital work at Venice and later in the journey to Rome. Accordingly, Xavier devoted himself for nine weeks to the hospital for incurables, and then set out with eight companions for Rome, where Pope Pius III sanctioned their enterprise. They arrived in Venice. Xavier was ordained priest on Midsummer Day 1537; but the outbreak of war between Venice and Turkey put an end to the Palestine expedition, and the companions dispersed for a twelvemonth's home mission work in the Italian cities. Nicolas Bobadilla and Xavier betook themselves first to Monseilce and thence to Bologna, where they remained till summoned to Rome by Ignatius at the close of 1538.

Ignatius retained Xavier at Rome until 1541 as secretary to the Society of Jesus (see JESUITS for the events of the period 1538-41). Meanwhile John III., king of Portugal, had resolved on sending a mission to his Indian dominions, and had applied through his envoy Pedro Mascarenhas to the pope for six Jesuits. Ignatius could only spare two, and chose Bobadilla and a Portuguese named Simão Rodrigues for the purpose. Rodrigues set out at once for Lisbon to confer with the king, who ultimately decided to retain him in Portugal. Bobadilla, sent for to Rome, arrived there just before Mascarenhas was about to depart, but fell too ill to respond to the call made on him. Hereupon Ignatius, on March 15th, 1540, told Xavier to leave Rome the next day with Mascarenhas, in order to join Rodrigues in the Indian mission. Xavier complied, merely waiting long enough to obtain the pope's benediction, and set out for Lisbon, where he was presented to the king, and soon won his entire confidence, attested notably by procuring for him from the pope four briefs, one of them appointing him papal nuncio in the Indies. On April 7th, 1541, he sailed from Lisbon with Martim Alfonso de Sousa, governor designate of India, and lived amongst the common sailors, ministering to their religious and temporal needs, especially during an outbreak of scurvy. After five months' voyage the ship reached Mozambique, where the captain resolved to winter, and Xavier was prostrated with a severe attack of fever. When the voyage was resumed, the ship touched at Malindi and Sokotra, and reached Goa on May 6th, 1542. Exhibiting his brief to D. João d'Albuquerque, bishop of Goa, he asked his permission to officiate in the diocese, and at once began walking through the streets ringing a small bell, and telling all to come, and send their children and servants, to the "Christian doctrine" or catechetical instruction in the principal church. He spent five months in Goa, and then turned his attention to the "Fishery Coast," where he had heard that the Paravas, a tribe engaged in the pearl fishery, were for the most part practicing Judaism, or professed Christianity. He laboured assiduously amongst them for fifteen months, and at the end of 1543 returned to Goa.

At Travancore he is said to have founded no fewer than fifty-five Christian settlements. It is to be noted that his own letters contain, both at this time and later on, express disproof of that miraculous gift of tongues with which he was credited even in his lifetime, and which is attributed to him in the Breviary office for his festival. Not only was he obliged to employ interpreters, but he relates in that absence he was compelled to use signs only.

He sent a missionary to the isle of Manaar, and himself visited Ceylon and Malaiipur (Melapur), the traditional tomb of St Thomas the apostle, which he reached in April 1544, remaining there four months. At Malacca, where he arrived on September 25th, 1545, he remained another four months, but had comparatively little success. While in Malacca he urged King John III. of Portugal to set up the Inquisition in Goa to repress Judaism, but the tribunal was not set up until 1560. After visiting Amboyna, the Moluccas and other isles of the Malay archipelago, he returned to Malacca in July 1547, and found three Jesuit recruits from Europe awaiting him. About this time an attack upon the city was made by the Achinese fleet, under the raja of Pedir in Sumatra; and Xavier's early biographers relate a dramatic story of how he roused the governor to action. This story is open to grave suspicion, as, apart from the miracles recorded, there are wide discrepancies between the secular Portuguese histories and the narratives written or inspired by Jesuit chroniclers of the 17th century.

While in Malacca Xavier met Oda Yajiro, a Japanese exile (known to the biographers as Angero or Anjirō), who fired him with zeal for the conversion of Japan. But he first revisited India and then, returning to Malacca, took ship for Japan, accompanied by Yajiro, now known as Paul of the Holy Faith. They reached Kagoshima on the 15th of August 1549, and remained in Japan until the 20th of November 1551. (See JAPAN, § vii.) On board the "Santa Cruz," the vessel in which he returned from Japan to Malacca, Xavier discussed
with Diogo Pereira, the captain, a project for a missionary journey to China. He devised the plan of persuading the viceroy of Portuguese India to despatch an embassy to China, in whose train he might enter, despite the law which then excluded foreigners from that empire. He reached Goa in February 1552, and obtained from the viceroy consent to the plan of a Chinese embassy and to the nomination of Pereira as envoy. Xavier left India on the 23rd of April 1552 for Malacca, intending there to meet Pereira and to re-embark on the "Santa Cruz."

The story of his detention by the governor (officially styled captain) of Malacca—a son of Vasco da Gama named Alvieiro de Ataide or Athayde—is well told with many picturesque details by F. M. Pinto and some of the Jesuit biographers, who have pilloried Ataide as actuated solely by malice and self-interest. Ataide appears to have objected not so much to the mission as to the rank assigned to Pereira, whom he regarded as unfit for the office of envoy. The right to send a ship to trade with China was one for which large sums were paid, and Pereira, as commander of the expedition, would enjoy commercial privileges which Ataide had, *ex officio*, the power to grant or withhold. It seems doubtful if the governor exceeded his legal right in refusing to allow Pereira to proceed. With Ataide's approval the original plan to which, if the Jesuit biographers may be trusted, exhibited the brief by which he held the rank of papal nuncio, and threatened Ataide with excommunication. On Xavier's personal liberty no restraint was placed. He embarked without Pereira on July 16th, 1552. After a short stay at Singapore, whence he despatched several letters to India and Europe, the ship at the end of August 1552 reached Changchuen-shan (St John Island) off the coast of Kwang-tung, which served as port and rendezvous for Europeans, not then admitted to visit the Chinese mainland. It was not, however, until after his arrival, and was delayed by the failure of the interpreter he had engaged, as well as by the reluctance of the Portuguese to attempt the voyage to Canton for the purpose of landing him. He had arranged for his passage in a Chinese junk, when he was again attacked by fever, and died on December 2nd, or, according to some authorities, November 27th, 1552. He was buried close to the cabin in which he had died, but his body was later transferred to Malacca, and thence to Goa, where it still lies in a magnificent shrine (see J. N. da Fonseca, *An Historical and Archaeological Sketch of the History of the Missionary Life at Malacca* (Antwerp, 1596; reprinted in English in 1613 and canonized by Gregory XV. in 1621).

In appearance Xavier was neither Spanish nor Basque. He had blue or grey eyes, and fair hair and beard, which turned white through the hardships he endured in Japan. That he was of short stature is proved by the length of the coffin in which his body is still preserved, less than 5 ft. 1 in. (Fonseca, *op. cit.* p. 296). Many miracles have been ascribed to him; an official list of these, said to have been attested by eyewitnesses, was drawn up by the auditors of the Rota when the processes for his canonization were formed, and is preserved in manuscript in the Vatican library. The contention that Xavier should be regarded as the greatest of Christian missionaries since the first century A.D. rests upon more tangible evidence. His Jesuit biographers attribute to him the conversion of more than 700,000 persons in less than ten years; and though these figures are absurd, the work which Xavier accomplished was enormous. He inaugurated new missionary enterprises from Hormuz to Japan and the Malay Archipelago, leaving an organized Christian community wherever he preached; he directed by correspondence the ecclesiastical policy of John III. and his vicar in India; he established and controlled the Society of Jesus in the East. Himself an ascetic and a mystic, to whom things spiritual were more real than the visible world, he had the strong common sense which distinguished the other Spanish mystics, St Theresa, Luis de Leon or Raimon Lull. This quality is nowhere better exemplified than in his letters to Gaspar Baetzer (Barauese), the Flemish Jesuit whom he sent to Hormuz, or in his suggestions for the establishment of a Portuguese staple in Japan. Supreme as an organizer, he seems also to have had a singularly attractive personality, which won him the friendship even of the pirates and braves with whom he was forced to consort on his voyages. Modern critics of his work note that he made no attempt to understand the oriental religions which he attacked, and censored him for invoking the aid of the Inquisition to the prosecution of the Nestorians in Malabar. He strove, with a success disastrous to the Portuguese empire, to convert the government in Goa into a proselytizing agency. Throughout his life he remained in close touch with Ignatius of Loyola, who is said to have selected Xavier as his own successor at the Society of Jesus. Within a few weeks of Xavier's death, indeed, Ignatius sent letters recalling him to Europe with that end in view.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY.**—Many of the authorities on which the biographies of Xavier have been based are untrustworthy, notably the Pereira, of which the summaries by M. H. de la Moncey, prefixed to the French translation, are the most trustworthy. A critical text of his life, with notes, bibliography and a life in Spanish, is in *Monumenta Historia Christianiatis Japan*, *Rolle und Stiftung des F. X. Xavier, de O. L. Dominus*, in *Monitoria, Exemplaria, European, and Asiatic Journal* (Madrid, 1889-1900), included in *Monumenta Historia Societatis Jesu*. For translations, **The Life and Letters of St Francis Xavier**, by H. Coleridge, S.J. (2 vols., London, 1872), is useful, though the historical comforter, has little value. There are numerous older and uncritical biographies by members of the Society: best and earliest are *De vita Francisco Xaveri* (Barcelona, 1580); *S. Torquemado (Torquemina) (Antwerp, 1596; English translation by T. F., *The Admireable Life of St Francis Xavier, Paris, 1632*); and *Historia del Vida del Padre Francisco de Xavier, &c.*, by João Lucena (Lisbon, 1600). Later works by the Jesuits Bartoli, Malfei, de Sousa, Poussines, Menchacha, Léon Pages and others owe much to the biographies of Xaveri's journeys. For a new, impartial account of Xaveri's life in the East, see K. G. Jayne, *Vasco da Gama and his Successors*, chapters 25-32 (London, 1910); and Otis Cary, *A History of Christianity in Japan* (2 vols., London, 1909).

**XENIA**, a city and the county-seat of Greene county, Ohio, U.S.A., in the township of Xenia, about 3 m. E. of the Little Miami river, and about 35 m. S.W. of Columbus and about 65 m. N.E. of Cincinnati. Pop. (1900) 8696, of whom 410 were foreign-born; (1910 census) 8706. Xenia is served by the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton, and the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis (Pennsylvania System) railroads, and by interurban electric lines to Springfield and Dayton. It is the seat of the Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home and of the Xenia Theological Seminary (United Presbyterian; founded in 1794 at Service, Pa., and united in 1874 with the Theological Seminary of the North-West, founded in 1839 at Oxford, Ohio). About 3 m. N.E., at Wilberforce, is Wilberforce University (co-educational; opened in 1856 and reorganized in 1863), conducted by the African Methodist Episcopal Church. The public buildings of Xenia include the public library, the county court-house and the municipal building. Xenia is situated in the central portion of the state, and among its manufactures are cordage and twine, boots and shoes, carriages and machinery. The township was first settled about 1797. Xenia was laid out as a village in 1803, was incorporated as a town in 1808 and was chartered as a city in 1870.

**XENOCRATES**, of Chalcedon, Greek philosopher, scholar or rector of the Academy from 330 to 314 B.C., was born in 306. Removing to Athens in early youth, he became the pupil of the Socratic Aschines, but presently joined himself to Plato, whom he attended to Sicily in 361. Upon his master's death
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(logic we know only that with Plato he distinguished ῥῆ καὶ ἀρὸς and ῥῆ πόσο τῆ, rejecting the Aristotelian list of ten categories as a superfluous element.) Valuing philosophy chiefly for its influence upon conduct, Xenocrates bestowed especial attention upon ethics. The catalogue of his works shows that he had written largely upon this subject; but the indications of doctrine which have survived are scanty, and the most important of his teachings, the importance of personal and extraneous advantages. The virtuous man is pure, not in act only, but also in heart. To the attainment of virtue the best help is philosophy; for the philosopher does of his own accord give up what he knows to understand what he does not. The distinction between wisdom and practical wisdom are to be distinguished. Meagre as these statements are, they suffice to show that in ethics, as elsewhere, Xenocrates worked upon Platonic lines.

Xenocrates was not in any sense a great thinker. His metaphysics was a travesty rather than a reproduction of that of his master. His ethical life had little which was distinctive. But his austere life and commanding personality made him an effective teacher, and his influence, kept alive by his pupils Polemon and Crates, ceased only when Arcesilaus, the founder of the so-called Second Academy, gave a new direction to the studies of the school.

XENOPHANES of Colophon, the reputed founder of the Eleatic school of philosophy, is supposed to have been born in the third or fourth decade of the 6th century B.C. An exile from his Ionian home, he resided for a time in Sicily, at Zancle and at Catana, and afterwards established himself in southern Italy, at Elea, a Phocaean colony founded in the sixty-first Olympiad (536-533). In one of the extant fragments he speaks of himself as having begun his wanderings sixty-seven years before the date at which his own age was recorded. One of his disciples is mentioned as being twenty-five years of age, so that it was not less than ninety-two when he died. His teaching found expression in poems, which he recited rhapsodically in the course of his travels. In the more considerable of the elegiac fragments which have survived, he ridicules the doctrine of the migration of souls (xviii.), asserts the claims of wisdom against the prevalent, atheism, which seemed to him to conduce neither to the good government of states nor to their material prosperity (xxix.), reprobates the introduction of Lydian luxury into Colophon (xx.), and recommends the reasonable enjoyment of the dionysiac drink (xxi.). In the fragments (viii.) it is recognized that in the absence of asexuals are those in which he attacks the "anthropomorphic and anthropopathic polytheism" of his contemporaries. According to Aristotle, "the first of Eleatic unitarians was not careful to say whether the unity which he postulated was finite or infinite, but, contemplating the whole firmament, declared that the One is God." Whether Xenophanes was a monothest, whose assertion of the unity of God suggested to Parmenides the doctrine of the unity of Being, or a pantheist, whose assertion of the unity of God was also a declaration of the unity of Being, so that he anticipated Parmenides—in other words, whether Xenophanes' teaching was purely theological or had also a philosophical significance—is a question about which authorities have differed and will probably continue to differ. The silence of the extant fragments, which have not one word about the unity of Being, favours the one view; the voice of antiquity, which proclaims Xenophanes the founder of Eleaticism, has been thought to favour the other.

Of Xenophanes' utterances about (1) God, (2) the world, (3) knowledge, the following survive: (1) There is one God, greatest and highest, who is transcendent (De Divinis Chaldeis, L. iii. 172). He is called Zeus, Jupiter, Apollo, and others. He is all seeing, all hearing, and all knowing (Ἑνίους θεοῦν). He is all seeing, all hearing, and all knowing (Ἑνίους θεοῦń).
after their own shapes and make them bodies like to their own.
(2) From earth all things are and to earth all things return.
From earth and water come all of us.... The sea is the well
whence water springeth. .... Here at our feet is the end of the earth.
'Tis not without end. .... The rainbow, which men call Iris, is a cloud
that is purple and red and yellow. (3) Man hath certainly
known, nor shall certainly know that Pericles, to whom the gods
have given a long life, for, that which he saith ever so perfectly,
yet doth he not know it; all things are matters of opinion.
That which I say is opinion like unto truth..... The gods
did bring me into the world; beginning long; is the search ere man findeth that which is better.

There is very little secondary evidence to record. "The Elatic
school," says the Stranger in Plato's Sophist, 222 D, "beginning
with the doctrine of Heraclitus, the world is one, the unity of all things." Aristotle, in a passage already cited, Meta-
physics, A5, speaks of Xenophanes as the first of the Elatic unitarians,
adding that his monistic theology is a "restoration of the
Teoneuthros (in Simplicius's Ad Physica, 5) sums up Xenophanes's teaching in the propositions, "The All is
One and the One is God." Timon (in Sext. Empir. Pyrrh. i. 224),
ignoring Xenophanes's theology, makes him resolve all things into
one and the same unity. The demonstrations of the unity and the
attributes of God, with which the treatise De Melisse, Xenophane et
Gorgias (now no longer ascribed to Aristotle or Theophrastus ac-
greed to Diodorus Siculus, 29, 9, 1) is the best evidence of the unity of the
unity and the attributes of the Ent, and must therefore be
detached. The epimorphos of a later time added nothing to the
text. However, in his writings, so far as they are known to us,
Xenophanes appears as a theologian protesting against an anthro-
opomorphic polytheism, the ancient seem to have regarded him as a
philosopher of the new and the ancient had ceased to stand these conflicting, though not irreconcilable, testimonies.
According to Zeller, the discrepancy is only apparent. The Greek
gods being the powers of nature personified, pantheonism lay
to hand than monotheism. Xenophanes was then, a pantheist.
Accordingly his assertion of the unity of God was at the same
time a declaration of the unity of Being, and in virtue of this declaration
he becomes, to philosophy, a "pre-Socratic." Aristotle is the
philosopher of Parmenides was his forerunner's pantheism
divested of its theistic element. This reconciliation of the internal
and the external evidence, counterbalanced as it is by Theophrastus,
but best to Meleager, the ancient theologian, and
Xenophanes, one of the most learned of the modern critics, is more
than plausible; but there is something to be said on the contrary
part. In the first place, it may be doubted whether to a Greek
of the 6th century pantheism was nearer than monothelism. Secondly,
the external evidence does not bear examination. The Platonic
testimony, if it proved anything, would prove too much, namely,
that in a predication a Greek has never been in doubt as to
theophanes, but before him; and, in fact, the passage from the
Sophist no more proves that Plato attributed to Xenophanes the philosophy
of Parmenides than Theaetetus, 166 D, proves that Plato attributed
to Aristotle the philosophy of Heraclitus. Again, Aristotle's ascrip-
tion of Xenophanes as the first of the Elatic unitarians does not
necessarily imply that the unity asserted by Xenophanes was the
unity of the universe. The Contemplative, in a passage contem-
poraneous, he declared that the One is God," leaves it doubtful
whether Aristotle attributed to Xenophanes any philosophical
together that if the Sovereign Meno, who, as immortal
intelligent soul, unifies the plurality of things, there were also
lesser divinities, who govern portions of the universe, being
themselves eternal parts of the one all-embracing Godhead. Whilst
it can hardly be allowed that Xenophanes, so far from deny-
acting, actually affirms a plurality of gods, it must be conceded
Freudenthal that Xenophanes's polemic was directed not only
anthropomorphic tendencies and the mythological details of the con-
temporary polytheism rather than against the polytheistic principle,
and that Freudenthal is right in saying that, because Xenophanes's
view is now generally discarded, there is no direct evidence to prove him a
consistent monothelist. The wisdom of Xenophanes, like the wisdom
of the Hebrew Preacher, showed itself, not in a theory of the uni-
verse, but in a sorrowful recognition of the nothingness of things
and the futility of endeavour. His theism was a declaration not
so much of the greatness of God as rather of the littleness of man.
His cosmology was an assertion not so much of the immutability of
the universe as rather of the mutability of the Many. Like the
he was not a philosopher, and did not pretend to be one; but, as
the reasoned scepticism of Socrates cleared the way for the philos-
ophers, and so into, do Xenophanes's "abnormis sapientia" for the philosophy of Parmenides.

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him to the study of the forgotten and discredited, see Grundrisse z. Gesch. d. Philos.
Berlin, 1871), i. 17. See also PAR-

(X. H. J. A.)

XENOPHON, Greek historian and philosophical essayist, the
son of Gryllus, was born at Athens about 430 B.C. He belonged to an equestrian family of the deme of Erchia.
It may be inferred from passages in the Hellenica that he fought
at Arginusae (460), and that he was present at the return of
Alcibiades (408), the trial of the Generals and the overthrow
of the Thirty. Early in life he came under the influence
of Socrates, but an active life had more attraction for him. In
401, being invited by his friend Proxenus to join the expedition
of the younger Cyrus against his brother, Artaxerxes II. of
Persia, he at once accepted the offer. It held out the prospect
of riches and honour, while he was little likely to find favour
in democratic Athens, where the knigets were regarded with
suspicion as having supported the Thirty. At the suggestion
of Socrates, Xenophon went to Delphi to consult the oracle;
but his mind was already made up, and he at once proceeded
to Sardis, the place of rendezvous. Of the expedition itself he
has given a full and detailed account in his Anabasis, or the
"Up-Country March." After the battle of Cunaxa (401), in
which Cyrus lost his life, the officers in command of the Greeks
were treacherously murdered by the Persian satrap Tissaphernes,
whom they were negotiating an armistice with a view to
their return. The army, which was now in the heart of an unknown
country, more than a thousand miles from home and in the
presence of a troublesome enemy. It was decided to march
northwards up the Tigris valley and make for the shores of the
Euxine, on which there were several Greek colonies. Xenophon
became the leading spirit of the army; he was elected an officer,
and he it was who mainly directed the retreat. Part of the
army lay through the wilds of Kurdistan, where they had to
encounter the harassing guerrilla attacks of savage mountain
tribes, and part through the highlands of Armenia and Georgia.
Among these mountaineers he made a thorough acquaintance
with their ways, and in the Euxine (February 400), where a tendency to demoraliza-
ion began to show itself, and even Xenophon almost lost his
control over the soldiery. At Cotyora he aspired to found a
new colony; but the idea, not being unanimously accepted,
was abandoned, and ultimately Xenophon with his Greeks arrived
at Chrysopolis [Scutari] on the Bosporus, opposite Byzantium.
After a brief period of service under a Thracian chief, Scuthes,
they were finally incorporated in a Lacedaemonian army which

1. As the description of the Ionian campaign of Thrasyllus in 410
(Hellenica, i. 2) is clearly derived from Xenophanes's own reminiscences,
his have been taken into this campaign, and cannot therefore have been less than twenty years of age at the time.
had crossed over into Asia to wage war against the Persian satraps Tissaphernes and Pharnabazus. Xenophon, who accompanied them, captured a wealthy Persian nobleman, with his family, near Pergamum, and the ransom paid for his recovery secured Xenophon a competency for life.

On his return to Greece Xenophon served under Ageleiaus, king of Sparta, at that time the chief power in the Greek world. With his native Athens and its general policy and institutions he was not in sympathy. At Coronea (394) he fought with the Spartans, when the Athenians, hoping to their fellow-citizens to redeem their banishment. The Spartans provided a home for him at Scillus in Elis, about two miles from Olympia; there he settled down to indulge his tastes for sport and literature. After Sparta's crushing defeat at Leuctra (371), Xenophon was driven from his home by the people of Elis. Meantime Sparta and Athens had become allies, and the Athenians repealed the decree which had condemned him to exile. There is, however, no evidence that he ever returned to his native city. According to Diogenes Laërtius, he made his home at Corinth. The year of his death is not known; all that can be said is that it was later than 335, the date of his work on the Residences of Athens.

The *Anabasis* (composed at Scillus between 379 and 371) is a work of singular interest, and is brightly and pleasantly written. Xeno- phon's authorship is a personal and straightforward manliness about the style, with a distinct flavour of a cheerful lightheartedness, which at once enlists our sympathy. His account of the march and of the campaign is frank and unblushing, and painstaking. The researches of modern travellers attest his general accuracy. It is expressly stated by Plutarch and Diogenes Laërtius that the *Anabasis* was the work of Xenophon, and the evidence from style is conclusive. The allusion (Helena, iii. 1, 2) to Themistogenes of Syracuse as the author shows that Xenophon published it under an assumed name.

The *Hel lenica* was published by the author, and a philosophical romance, which describes the boyhood and training of Cyrus, hardly answers to its name, being for the most part an account of the beginnings of the Persian empire and of the victorious career of Cyrus its founder. The work illustrated the popular idea of the great king, at once the hero and education, as derived conjointly from the teachings of Socrates and his favourite Spartan institutions. It was said to have been written in opposition to the Republic of Plato. A distinct moral purpose, to which literal truth is sacrificed, runs through the work. For instance, Cyrus is represented as dying peacefully in his bed, whereas, according to Herodotus, he fell in a campaign against the Medes.

The *Hellenica* written at Corinth, after 362, is the only contemporary account of the period covered by it (411-362) that has come down to us. It consists of two distinct parts; books i. and ii., which have sometimes been referred to as a constant; and books iii.-vii., the *Hel lenica proper*, which deal with the period from 401 to 288. There is a distinct bias in the representation of the events of the Peloponnesian War. There is, however, no ground for the view that these two parts were written and published as separate works. There is probably no justification for the charge of deliberate falsification. It must be admitted, however, that he had strong political prejudices, and that these prejudices have influenced his narrative. He was a partisan of the reactionary movement which triumphed after the fall of Athens; Sparta is his ideal, and Agesilaus his hero. At the same time, he was a believer in a divinely overruling providence. He is compelled, therefore, to see in the fall of Sparta the punishment inflicted by heaven on the treacherous policy which had prompted the seizure of the Cadmea and the roof of Sphodrias. Hardly less serious defects than his political bias are his omissions, his want of the sense of proportion and his failure to grasp the meaning of historical criticism. The most that can be said in his favour is that as a witness he is at once honest and well-informed. For this period of Greek history he is, at any rate, an indispensable witness.

The *Memorabilia* or "Recollections of Socrates," in four books, was written to defend Socrates against the charges of impiety and corrupting the youth, repeated after his death by the sophist Polycrates. The work is a literary masterpiece; it lacks coherence, and it is not improbable that it was by the grace of God, and not by his own talent, that he seems to have made no attempt to enter: for these indeed he had neither taste nor genius. Moving within a limited range of ideas, he doubtless left his readers behind him, and was inferior less to the real Socrates, while Plato has read them something more." It is probable that the work in its present form is an abridgment.

Xenophon has left several minor works, some of which are very interesting and give an insight into the home life of the Greeks. The *Oeconomia* (to some extent a continuation of the *Memorabilia* and *Hellenica*) deals with housekeeping and the management of the house and of the farm, and presents a pleasant and amusing picture of the Greek wife and of her home duties.

There are some good practical remarks on matrimony and on the reasonable duties of husband and wife. The form of a dialogue between Socrates and a certain Ischomachus, was translated into Latin by Cicero.

The *Cyropaedia* (on horsemanship [*hypomene*] and hunting [*cynegetica*]) deals with matters of which he had a thorough practical knowledge. In the first he gives rules how to choose a horse, and then tells how it is to be groomed and ridden and generally managed. The *Cynegetica* speaks also of boar-hunting and describes the hounds, tells how they are to be bred and trained, and gives specimens of suitable names for them. On all this he writes with the zest of an enthusiastic sportsman, and he concludes that "anyone who has a taste for field-sports will be most likely to be successful in war. Both treaties may still be read with interest by the modern reader.

The *Hipparchicus* explains the duties of a cavalry officer; it is not, according to our ideas, a very scientific treatise, showing that the art of war was then very imperfectly developed and that the military operations of the Greeks were on a somewhat small scale.

He dwells at some length on the moral qualities which go to the making of a good cavalry officer, and hints very plainly that there must be a certain amount of duty in the matter of fighting.

The *Ageleiaus* is a eulogy of the Spartan king, who had two special merits in Xenophon's eyes: he was a rigid disciplinarian, and he was particularly attentive to all religious observances. We have a glimpse of his virtues rather than a good and striking picture of the man himself.

The *Hiereus* works out the line of thought indicated in the story of the Sword of Damocles. It is a protest against the notion that the "tyrant" is a man to be envied, as having more abundant means of happiness than a private person. This is one of the most pleasing of his minor works; it is cast into the form of a dialogue between the two, but it is, says Xenophon, the lyric poet Simias.

The *Symposium*, or "Banquet," to some extent the complement of the *Memorabilia*, is a brilliant little dialogue in which Socrates is the prominent figure. He is represented as "improving the conversation of the day," by his nonsensical stories, by which there is much drinking, with flute-playing, and a dancing-girl from Syracuse, who amuses the guests with the feats of a professional conjurer. Socrates' table-talk runs through a variety of topics, and winds up with a philosophical disquisition on the superiority of true heavenly love to its earthly or sensual counterfeit, and with an earnest exhortation to one of the party, who had just won a victory in the public games, to lead a noble life and do his duty to his country.

There are also two short essays, attributed to him, on the political constitution of Sparta and Athens, written with a decided bias in favor of the former. The *Apology* of Xenophon has been recently published, and it seems to have been written about the Thirty, but it is much too optimistic to be a serious attempt at giving a complete picture of the oligarchical party shortly after the beginning of the Peloponnesian War.

In the essay on the *Revenues of Athens* (written in 355) he offers suggestions for making Athens less dependent on tribute received from its allies. Above all, he would have Athens use its influence for the maintenance of peace in the Greek world and for the settlement of questions by diplomacy, the temple at Delphi being for this purpose an independent centre and supplying a divine sanction.

In his *Politics*, Socrates' defence before his judges, is rather a feeble production, and in the general opinion of modern critics is not a genuine work of Xenophon, but belongs to a much later period. Xenophon was a man of great personal beauty and considerable intellectual gifts; but he was of too practical a nature to take an interest in abstruse philosophical speculation. His dislike of the democracy of Athens induced such lack of patriotism that he even fought on the side of Sparta against his own country. In religious matters he was narrow minded, a believer in the efficacy of sacrifice and in the prophetic art. His plain and simple style, which at times becomes wearisome, was greatly admired and procured him many imitators.

The editions of Xenophon's works, both complete and of separate portions, are very numerous, especially of the *Anabasis*; only a few of the *Oeconomia* and *Hellenica* have appeared. They are written by J. G. Schneider (1790-1849); G. Sauppe (1856-65); D. Lindorff (1875); E. C. Marchant (1900-1911), in the Clarendon Press *Scrip- tum Classicum Bibliotheca*. *ANABASIS*: R. Rüdiger (1852); D. L. D. Kennedy (1887); F. C. Marchant (1888); C. W. Krüger and W. Pökel (1888); W. W. Goodwin and J. W. White (1894). *CYRAPHAEA*: G. M. Gorham (1876); L. Breiten- bach (1874-84); A. H. Nitsche (1885); H. H. Nitsche (1888-90); L. Breiten- bach (1874-84); R. Bächenschutz (1880-91); J. I. Manatt
XERXES—X-RAY TREATMENT

(i.-iv., 1888); L. D. Dowdall (ii., i., 1890). MemoriaL:

P. Frost (1867); A. A. Cherus (1880); R. Kühner (1882); L. Breiten-

bach (1889); J. Marshall (1890). OECOOMICUS: A. A. Cherus (1885);

C. Graux and M. J. Hollen (1892); C. Graux and M. J. Hollen (1890);

G. W. Taylor (1880); O. Güttinger (1888). RESP. LACEDÄEM.: G. Pierleoni (1905). RESP. ATHENIENSUM:

A. Kirchhoff (1784); E. Belot (1880); H. Müller and G. Pierleoni (1890).

HIPIKK#: Tom-

mustah (1902). REDITUS ATHEN.: A. Zurborg (1876). SCRIPITA

MINORA: L. Dindorf (1888). There is a good English translation of the complete works by H. D. D'Arms (1886).—(1890-94), and of the

Art of History: R. R. Roff (1883).—Analekta: G. Pierleoni (1888).—Hesperia: Tom-

mustah (1902).—

Of the later years of Xerxes little is known. He sent out

Sataspes to attempt the circumnavigation of Africa (Herod. iv. 143), but the victory of the Greeks threw the empire into a state of languid torpor, from which it could not rise again.

The king himself became involved in intrigues of the harem (cf. Herod. ix. 108 ff.—compare the late Jewish novel of

Esther, in which a remembrance of the true character of the

king is retained) and was much dependent on his eunuchs.

He left inscriptions at Persopolis, where he

added a new palace to that of Darius, at Van in Armenia, and

on Mount Elymd near Ecbatana; in these texts he merely

copies the words of his father. In 465 he was murdered by his

vizier Artabanus (g.v.), who raised Artaxerxes I. to the throne.

2. Xerxes II., son and successor of Artaxerxes I., was

assassinated in 424 after a reign of forty-five days by his brother

Scecydianus or Sogdianus, who in his turn was murdered by

Darius II. (g.v.).

See Ctesias, Pers. 44; Diod. xii., 64, 71, and the chronographers;

neither of the two ephemeral kings is mentioned in the canons

of Prolemy nor in the dates of Babylonian contracts of this time.

The name Xerxes was also borne by a king of Armenia, killed about 212 B.C. by Antiochus the Great (Polyb. viii. 25; Johannes

Antiochenus, p. 53: his name occurs on copper coins); and by

a son of Mithradates the Great of Pontus (Appian, Mithr. 168, 117).

(Ed. M.)

XIPHILINUS, JOANNEs, epitomator of Dio Cassius, lived at

Constantinople during the latter half of the 11th century a.d.

He was a monk and the nephew of the patriarch of Con-

stantinople of the same name, a well-known preacher (Migne,

Patrologia Graeca, xvi., 2). The epitome (ioyGeal) of Dio was

prepared by order of Michael Parapinacae (1717-1798), but is

incompletely incomplete. It comprises books 35-80, the period

included being from the times of Pompey and Caesar down to

Alexander Severus. In book 70 the reign of Antoninus Pius

and the early years of Marcus Aurelius appear to have been

missing in his copy, while in books 78 and 79 a mutilated original

must have been used. Xiphilinus divided the work into sections, each containing the life of an emperor. He omitted

the name of the consuls and sometimes altered or emended the

original. The epitome is valuable as preserving the chief inci-

dents of the period for which its authority of Dio is wanting.

See H. Reinar's edition of Dio Cassius ii.; J. Meiller's Dio in

Teubner series; C. Wachsmuth, Einleitung in das Studium der

alten Geschichte (1895); W. Christ, Geschichte der griechischen

Literatur (1868).

X-RAY TREATMENT. The X rays (see RöNTGEN RAYS) are

now used extensively in medical work for purposes of treat-

ment. They have been found to be valuable in many forms of skin

disease, more particularly in those of a chronic character.

They have a favourable influence upon ulcerous disease as

for example in enlargements of the lymphatic glands, of the

apex of the thyroide gland. They give useful palliative

effects in certain forms of malignant disease, although it is not

yet certain that any permanent cures of cancerous conditions

have been obtained by their use. In the disease known as

rodent ulcer, which is a process of destructive ulceration, and

to that extent presents features allied to cancer, there is no
doubt of the efficacy of X-ray treatment for bringing about a

complete cure in the majority of cases, provided that the disease

has not advanced too deeply into the tissues.

1See G. B. Grundy, Great Persian War (1901), and in criticism W. W. Tarn, "The Fleet of Xerxes," in Journal of Hellenic Studies (1908), 202-34; also Macan's notes on Herod. iv.-vi. (1895), and authorities for PLATAEA, SALAMIS.

2 Xerxes had already sailed into the channel of the Black Sea, and compare a L. D. VV. no the attack Muller to Dowdall Mount B. Marshall Persepolis, bauppe, was After mentioned his Frost masini SXS (1880). wood's M with (c., in in satrap of time. across Darius the satrap of the king of Babylon. The name was written eXo^oI, the name of two Persian kings of the Achaemenid dynasty.

7. Xerxes I., son of Darius I. and Atossa, the daughter of Cyrus the Great, and therefore appointed successor to his father in preference to his eldest half-brothers, who were born before Darius had become king (Herod. vii. 2 f.). After his accession in October 485 B.C. he suppressed the revolt in Egypt which had broken out in 486, appointed his brother Achaemenes as satrap and "brought Egypt under a much heavier yoke than it had been before" (Herod. vii. 7). His predecessor, Darius, had not been successful in his attempts to consolidate the ancient empire. This probably was the reason why Xerxes in 484 abolished the "kingdom of Babel" and took away the golden statue of Bel (Marduk, Merodach), the hands of which the legitimate king of Babel had to seize on the first day of each year, and killed the priest who tried to hinder him. Therefore Xerxes does not bear the title of "King of Babel" in the Babylonian documents dated from his reign, but "King of Persia and Media," or simply "King of countries" (i.e. of the world). This proceeding led to two rebellions, probably in 478 and 479; in the Babylonian documents occur the names of two ephemeral kings, Kusan and Tarziya, who belong to this time. One of these rebellions was suppressed by Megabyzus, son of Zopyrus, the satrap whom the Babylonians had slain. Darius had left to his son the task of punishing the Greeks for their interference in the Ionian rebellion and the victory of Marathon. From 483 Xerxes prepared his expedition with great care: a channel was dug through the isthmus of the peninsula of Mount Athos; provisions were stored in the stations on the road through Thrace; two bridges were thrown across the Hellespont. Xerxes concluded an alliance with Carthage, and thus enabled Greece of the support of the powerful Greeks, and the siege of Syracuse and Agrigentum. Many smaller Greek states, moreover, took the side of the Persians ("Medized"), especially Thessaly, Thbes and Argos. A large fleet and a numerous army were gathered. In the spring of 480 Xerxes set out from Sardis. At first Xerxes was victorious everywhere. The Greek fleet was beaten at Artemision, Thermopylae stormed, Athens conquered; the Greeks driven back to their last line of defence at the Isthmus of Corinth and at Salamis in the Bay of Salamis. But Xerxes was placed before the announcement of Themistocles (against the advice of Artemisia of Halicarnassus) to attack the Greek fleet under unfavourable conditions, instead of sending a part of his ships to the Peloponnesus and awaiting the dissolution of the Greek armament. The battle of Salamis (28th of September 480) decided the war (see SALAMIS). Having lost his communication by sea with Asia, Xerxes was forced to retire to Sardis; the army which he left in Greece under Mardonius was in 479 beaten at Plataea (g.v.). The defeat of the Persians at Mycale roused the Greek cause of freedom.

1 Herod. i. 183, by Ctesias changed into a plundering of the tomb of Belus or Belus; cf. Aelian, Var. Hist. 13, 3; Aristoph. ap. Arrian vii. 17, 2, and Strabo vii. 2, 753.

2 Ctesias, Pers. 22; his legendary history is transferred by Herodotus, iii. 150 ff., to the former rebellion against Darius.
The idea of using X rays in the treatment of disease arose from the recognition of the injurious effects which followed the prolonged application of the rays for diagnostic purposes. It fell to the lot of many early workers with X rays to notice the production of an inflammation of the skin, or a falling out of the hair over parts which had been subjected to X rays, and Leopold Freund, of Vienna, has stated that his first attempts to utilize X rays in treatment were made in 1896 to cure a hairy mole and were prompted by what he had read of such occurrences. A definite action of the rays upon the skin has been observed, their employment in the treatment of skin diseases followed as a natural corollary. Amongst the earliest investigators of the possible therapeutic effects of X rays the names of Schiff, Freund, Kienböck, Holtzknecht, Sjögren and Stenbeck may be mentioned. In Great Britain Sir Malcolm Morris, E. Dore and J. H. Sequeira were amongst the earliest investigators.

For operating successfully with an agent capable of producing decidedly harmful effects when given in large doses it is necessary to have some method of measurement, and the need for this quickly became apparent when X rays were used for treatment. The results of X-ray photography had already shown that the tubes employed were capable of emitting radiations of very varying powers of penetration, and that the rays were by no means constant in this respect; and the question whether highly penetrating rays or rays of feeble penetration were to be preferred for therapeutic use became the subject of much discussion. It is now recognized in X-ray treatment that the rays with which the tissues are those which are absorbed by the tissues, and consequently the softer or less penetrating rays are now regarded as those to be used in treatment. So too the problem of measuring the quantity of rays emitted by a tube during a given time began to call for a solution, if that were in any way possible. In 1901 Benoist designed an apparatus by which the quantity of the rays emitted by a tube at any moment could be accurately determined, and in 1902 Holtzknecht brought out the first quantitative device. It was called a chromoradiometer, and it enabled the dose administered to a patient to be observed, and recorded for future guidance. Holtzknecht also drew up a scale of units by means of which the indications of his apparatus could be interpreted. The units of Holtzknecht are still used to express the dosage of X rays, though his apparatus has been superseded. Holtzknecht's method of measurement consisted in observing the change of colour in certain pastilles when exposed to X rays, and his apparatus consisted of a scale of tints, and a number of pastilles of a yellow tint which acquired a green colour during exposure. The chromoradiometer is a modification in which, in addition to the tints, there is a potassium sulphate to produce a change of colour. The pastilles were laid upon the surface under treatment, and their change of colour was compared at intervals with the scale of standard tints.

It was next thought that under suitable conditions the measurement of the current passing through the X-ray tube might serve as a guide to the quantity of X rays emitted by the tube, but, although this is the case to a certain extent, the method of quantity measurement which is now employed almost universally in X-ray treatment is that devised by Sabouraud and Noiré, and used with signal success by them in an enormous number of cases of ringworm, in which disease measurement of dose is of the most critical importance, for the following reason. The cure of ringworm by X rays requires that all the hair of the affected region shall be caused to fall out, but, nevertheless, it is necessary for obvious reasons that the hair should grow again after the disease has disappeared. Now if the dose of X rays be insufficient the hair does not come out and no cure results, while if the dose be too great the hair comes out but does not grow again; and the margin of safety is quite a narrow one. The method of Sabouraud and Noiré which has proved itself reliable for such critical measurements of dosage as are required for ringworm treatment, has to-day the universal acceptance of all X-ray workers for other forms of X-ray treatment, although the use of their pastilles has certain disadvantages.

Sabouraud's pastilles consist of small disks of platinocyanide of barium. This chemical compound has a bright yellow-green colour when freshly prepared, and changes through gradations of yellow to a brown colour when exposed to X rays. The pastilles are supplied in a book which is divided into sectors of equal colour, and a permanent tint of colour is supplied, to indicate the colour change in the pastille which corresponds with a quantity of X rays equal to the maximum dose which the healthy skin will stand without inflammatory consequences. This is often spoken of as a "pastille dose." As the amount of irradiation needed to produce the change of colour is considerable, the salt is fixed, during the treatment, at a point half-way between the source of the rays and the skin surface under treatment. During an exposure the chemical salt, in the form of a small disk of the material on cardboard, is adjusted in the required position by means of a pastille holder, and it is examined at intervals during the course of the exposure, until it has reached the required tint. When in the holder the pastille must be protected from light, and should have a piece of metal as a backing, if its indications are to be accurate.

In X-ray treatment some protection of the surrounding healthy parts is usually necessary. With this object various methods of shielding have been devised, either by coverings of the patient by impermeable materials, or by enclosing the tube in an impermeable box. Both methods are used, but tubes are now supplied with a protective box, and manufacturers now supply these boxes with suitable windows or openings of different sizes for the passage of the pencil of rays which is to fall upon the part under treatment.

The effect of the rays on healthy tissues is in the main a destructive one, but some of the cells of the tissues are more sensitive to the rays than are others; and this permits of a selective effect being obtained, with the destruction of some cells and not of the whole tissue. Young cells, and actively growing cells, are the most susceptible, and for this reason it is possible to influence the glands of the skin and the papillae of the hairs with a dose which will not destroy the skin itself. The art of successful working with X rays is based upon a careful adjustment of the dose so as to secure a selective destruction of the morbid elements, and to avoid wholesale damage to the part treated. The effects of excessive doses of X rays is to produce an inflammation which may result in painful sores which obstinately refuse to heal for many weeks or months. A quantity up to double that of the usual maximum or pastille dose may be employed in urgent cases without risk of any injury to the tissues, but another course of treatment should be avoided most carefully. In the treatment of ringworm the exact pastille dose must not be exceeded, for after a dose of about one and a half pastilles the fall of the hair is likely to be followed by permanent baldness.

In X-ray treatment it is customary to make use of moderate currents, and to bring the X-ray tube in its tube-holder and box into position so that the pencil of rays may fall upon the part to be treated. The distance of the skin surface from the centre of the tube must be known, and the pastille arranged in place accordingly. Fifty centimetres is a usual distance, and at this distance a tube working with a current of a milliampere should give the full therapeutic dose or "pastille dose" in about 15 minutes. In general X-ray treatment it is quite usual at the present time to proceed by the method of full doses at rather long intervals. From the experience obtained by Sabouraud in numerous cases of ringworm it has been found that a full dose must not be repeated until a month has elapsed. So too in the treatment of rodent ulcer full doses at long intervals are now thought better than smaller doses repeated more often, and such doses are more easily measured by the Sabouraud pastille, which records large doses more simply than small ones, in which the slighter changes of tint are not easy to distinguish. A great amount of work has been done with X rays for the treatment of cancer, but it is now recognized that the X rays...
do not cure a cancer, although they are of value for the relief of pain and for the healing of cancerous ulcers. Diminution of size of the cancerous growth has frequently been observed, and in some instances sarcomatous tumours have completely disappeared under X-ray treatment. Sooner or later, however, the cancer or sarcoma returns either in the original site or elsewhere, and the patient dies of the disease. It is probable that X-ray treatment is able to prolong life in a fair number of cases, and by its agency in causing a healing of ulceration in cancer cases it is able to give valuable relief both to the body and mind of the patient, and this relief may last for a year or more.

In rodent ulcer X rays are usually sufficient to provide a lasing chill, but there are some exceptions, as for instance when the rodent ulcer has been long neglected, and has spread deeply so as to invade bony structures. An important factor in the successful treatment of rodent ulcer by X rays is to continue the applications at intervals for several months after apparent cure. If this precaution is omitted there is a very great likelihood of relapse taking place later on.

In the treatment of skin diseases by X rays the method finds a very suitable field. Almost all chronic skin affections yield to X-ray treatment fairly quickly, and maximal doses are not usually necessary.

In ringworm X rays have achieved wonderful results. The rays act upon the hair papillae, and not upon the ringworm fungus. They cause a shedding of the hair fifteen days after exposure and the fungus then dies out from the hair follicles, so that when in due course the hair begins to grow again after a period of two months it grows healthily and without disease. The X-ray treatment of ringworm has been a real advance, and Sabouraud has told us of the enormous pecuniary saving which has been effected in Paris by the shortening of the stay of the ringworm cases in the special schools maintained there for the aseptically treated.

In lupus X rays are valuable, but not fully satisfactory. The treatment by the rays will often succeed in bringing about a healing of the ulceration of lupus, but relapses are frequent, because foci of infection are apt to remain in the healed scar tissue and after a period of quiescence these may gradually provoke fresh mischief.

X-ray treatment is of service for the treatment of enlarged "strumous" glands in the neck. When these glands are in the early stages, and there has not been any softening or breaking down of the gland tissue, the application of X rays, a few times repeated in moderate doses, will determine the subsidence of the enlargement and may effect a complete cure.

In the massive glandular enlargements of lymphadenoma a great reduction of the tumours can be brought about by heavy doses of X rays, but the results are to give a symptomatic rather than a real cure, for fresh glandular growths take place internally, and the usual course of the disease is not fundamentally modified.

So too in leukemia, the symptom of excessive abundance of white cells in the circulating blood can be surprisingly altered for the better by X rays, but generally without real cure of the underlying condition. The effect appears to be due to a direct destructive action upon the leucocytes or white corpuscles of the blood.

Quite recently the use of X rays in fibroid tumours of the uterus has been advocated, particularly by Cournelles in France and Albert-Schonberg in Germany. The action of the rays seems to be in part due to their influence upon the activity of the ovaries and in part to a direct effect upon the growing fibroids themselves, causing decrease of activity, relief of symptoms and reduction of the tumours.

**XYLANDER, Guilielmus (Wilhelm Holtzman, according to his own spelling) (1532–1576), German classical scholar,** was born at Augsburg on the 26th of December 1532. He studied at Tübingen, and in 1558, when in a state of abject poverty (caused, according to some, by his intemperate habits), he was appointed to succeed Micyllus (Molshem, Molseym or Molsheym) in the professorship of Greek at Heidelberg, which he exchanged for that of logic (publicus organi Aristotelii interpres) in 1562. He died at Heidelberg on the 10th of February 1576. XYLANDER was the author of a number of important works, among which his Latin translations of Dio Cassius (1558), Plutarch (1560–1570) and Strabo (1751) deserve special mention. He also edited (1668) the geographical lexicon of Stephanus of Byzantium; the travels of Pausanias (1656); and after his death by F. SyntAGMA, 1583, the Editiones of Marcus Aurelius (1558), the editio princeps based upon a Heidelberg MS. now lost; a second edition in 1658 with the addition of Antoninus Liberalis, Pluton of Tralles, an unknown Apollonius, and Antigonus of Carystus—all paradoxeographers; and the chronicle of George Cedrenus (1566). He translated the first six books of Euclid into German with notes, the Arithmetica of Diophantus, and the De quattuor mathematicis scientis of Michael Psellus into Latin.

**XYLENE, or DIMETHYLBENZENE, C6H5(CH3)2.** Three isomeric hydrocarbons of this formula exist; they occur in the light oil fraction of the coal tar distillate, but they cannot be separated by fractional distillation owing to the closeness of their boiling points. The mixture can be separated by shaking with sulphuric acid, whereupon the ortho and meta forms are converted into soluble sulphonic acids, the para form being soluble only in concentrated acid; the ortho and meta acids may be separated by crystallization of their salts or sulphonamides. Ortho-xylene is obtained from orthobromotoluene, methyl iodide and sodium as a colourless mobile liquid boiling at 142°, melting at -28°, and having a specific gravity of 0.8932. Para-xylene is obtained in mother solution by hydrolysis, and the sodium salt can be converted into para-iodotoluene acid; whilst chronic acid gives carbon dioxide and water. Meta- or iso-xylene, the most important isomer, may be prepared by nuclear-synthetic reactions, or by distilling mesitylenic acid, CH3(CH3)2CO2H, an oxidation product of mesitylene, C6H5(C2H5)2, which is produced on the condensation of acetone, with lime; this reaction is very important, for it orients meta-compounds. It boils at 136°, melts at -54°, and has a specific gravity of 0.8812. Para-xylene is obtained when camphor is distilled with zinc chloride, but it is best prepared from para-brom-toluene or dibrombenzene, methyl iodide and sulphuric acid; with sodium bromide to produce dibromotoluene, and then to terephthalic acid. It boils at 138°, melts at 15°, and has a specific gravity of 0.880 at 0°.

**XYLOPHONE (Fr. xylophone; Ger. Xylophon, Streichkoppel or Holzharmonika; Ital. armonica de legno), a small instrument of percussion, of definite sonorosity, used in the orchestra to mark the rhythm.** The xylophone consists of a series of little wooden staves in the form of a half cylinder and graduated in size. The staves, each of which represents a semitone, rest on two, three or four wooden bars, covered with straw and converging to form an acute angle. They are so arranged that each stave is isolated. In some models the staves are grouped in two rows, comprising the naturals and the accidentals. The xylophone is played with two little wooden hammers, and has a compass of two or three octaves. The quality of tone is inferior to that of the steel harmonica or glockenspiel.

**XYSTUS, the Greek architectural term for the covered portico of the gymnasion, in which the exercises took place during the winter or in rainy weather; this was known as the ἔστος ἁρμός, from its polished floor (ἵπτερον, to polish).** The Romans applied the term to the garden walk in front of the porticos, which was divided into flower beds with borders of box, and to a promenade between rows of large trees. (K. S.)
the twenty-fifth letter of the English alphabet, one of four variants (u, v, w, y) which have been developed out of one Greek symbol. It was taken into the Roman alphabet as a form distinct from V in the 1st century B.C., when it was desired to represent the sound of the Greek u more accurately than could be done by the ordinary Roman alphabet. Many Greek words had been borrowed from Greek long before this and pronounced like genuine Latin words. Thus the proper name Hippo was borrowed as BURRAS, BRICYES as BRACES. But with the growth of literary knowledge this felt to be a very inexact representation of the Greek sounds, and the words were respelled as Pyrrhus and Phryges. The philosopher Pythagoras is said to have regarded this letter as a symbol of human life (Servius, on Virgil, Aeneid vi. 136). To this there are various references in the Roman poets. Two lines of Persius (iii. 56-57) seem to throw some light upon the particular form of Y interw. "et tibi quae Samios diduxit littera ramos surgentem dextra monstravit limite callem."

These lines appear to imply that the letter took the form y, which can only be one of the oldest forms (V) written from right to left. The long journey is the difficult, the deviating line is the easier path of vision. Anglo-Saxon y took over the Roman Y with its Roman value of the "modified u" (u), and employed it accordingly for the sound which arose from a u sound under the influence of an i in the following syllable: fylan, "fill," cp. Gothic fulljan; mūs, "mouse," plural mūsās, from an earlier lost mūsis. The y sounds were often confused with i, whence, in modern English, mice.

The vowel use was the only use of the old symbol. The consonant Y is of a different origin. The early English g (always hard as in gig) was palatalized before e and i sounds into a consonant i (j) or y, which was written in Middle English with the symbol y. With this letter also was written the original consonant i (i), which appears in Latin as i (j) in iugum, iuncens. This Latin sound seems, at least initially, to have represented two originally separate sounds, for Greek represents the first sound of iugum by ι (ιγόν), while in other words it represents a ι (y) of other languages by the "rough breathing" (b or ':) ιγός, "holy," is the same word as the Sanskrit yajnas. The English words that correspond etymologically to iugum and iuncens are "yoke" and "young." In Northern English the symbol ȝ survived longer than in the southern part of the island, and the Middle English documents of the 16th century was confused with ȝ. From this cause various Scottish names that were never pronounced with ȝ are so spelt, as Menzies (Mengies), Dalziel, Cadzow. In others like Mackenzie, ȝ is now universally pronounced, though as late as the middle of the 18th century Lord Kames declared that to hear Mackenzie pronounced with a ȝ turned his stomach.

YABLONOI, or YABLONOVII ("Apple Mountains," known to the Mongols as DYNES-DABAN), a range of E. Siberia, stretching N.E. from near the sources of the river Kerulen (N.E. of Urga in N. Mongolia) to the bend of the river Olekma in 56th N., and forming the S.E. border ridge of the upper terrace of the great plateau of Central and E. Asia. Its summits reach altitudes of 5000-6000 ft., culminating in Mount Sokhondo (8400 ft.) near the Transbaikal-Mongolia frontier. The range serves as the water-parting between the streams which flow to the Pacific and those which flow to the Arctic Ocean, and is a dividing line between the Siberian and the Daurian flora. The passes have altitudes of 2000-3500 ft. The range is a continuation of the Kentel Mountains of Mongolia, but is not onogronically connected with the Stanovoi Mountains, farther to the N.E., though the names Yablonoi and Stanovoi are commonly used alternatively. The latter are the S.E. border-range of the lower terrace and are connected with the Great Khingan Mountains.

YACHOW-FU, a prefectural city in the province of Szech'uen, China, in 30th N., 153rd E.; pop. about 40,000. It is situated in a valley on the banks of the river Ya, where tea is grown. The town owes its importance to the fact that it stands at the parting of the tea and tobacco trade route to Tibet via Tachienlu and the cotton trade route to west Yunnan via Ningyuen-Fu. The city wall measures 2 mi. in circumference, and is pierced by four gates. Yachow-Fu is first mentioned during the Chow dynasty (1122-255 b.c.).

YACHING, the sport of racing in yachts and boats with sails, and also the pastime of cruising for pleasure in sailing steam or motor vessels. Yacht racing dates from the beginning of the 19th century; for, although there were sailing yachts long before, they were but few, and belonged exclusively to princes and other illustrious personages. For instance, in the Anglo-Saxon period Athelstan had presented to him by the king of Norway a magnificent royal vessel, the sails of which were purple and the head and deck wrought with gold, apparently a kind of state barge. Elizabeth had one, and so has every English sovereign since. During her reign a pleasure ship was built (1588) at Cowes (Isle of Wight), so that the association of that place with the sport goes back three centuries. In 1608 Charles II. was entertained by the Dutch with a yacht named the "Mary," until which time the word "yacht" was unknown in England. The Merrie Monarch was fond of sailing, for he designed a yacht of 25 tons called the "Jamie," built at Lambeth in 1662, as well as several others later on. In that year the "Jamie" was matched for £100 against a small Dutch yacht, under the duke of York, from Greenwich to Gravesend and back, and beat her, the king steering part of the time—apparently the first record of a yacht match and of an amateur helmsman. Mr Arthur H. Clark, in his History of Yachting (1904), traces the history of pleasure craft from 1600 to 1815, and gives an interesting illustrated account of the yachts belonging to Charles II.

The first authentic record of a sailing club is in 1720, when the Cork Harbour Water Club, now known as the Royal Cork Yacht Club, was established in Ireland, but the yachts were small. Maitland, in his History of London (1739) mentions sailing and rowing on the Thames as among the amusements then indulged in; and Strutt, in his Sports and Pastimes (1801), says that the Cumberland Society, consisting of gentlemen partial to this pastime, gave yearly a silver cup to be sailed for in the vicinity of the city. The boats usually started from Blackfriars Bridge, went up the Thames to Putney, and returned to Vauxhall, being, no doubt, mere sailing boats and not yachts or decked vessels. From the middle of the end of the 18th century yachting developed very slowly: although matches were sailed at Cowes as far back as 1780, very few yachts of any size, say 35 tons, existed in 1800 there or elsewhere. In 1812 the Royal Yacht Squadron was established by fifty yacht-owners at Cowes and was called the Yacht Club, altered to the Royal Yacht Club in 1820; but no regular regatta was held there until some years later. The yachts of the time were built of heavy materials, like the revenue cutters, full in the fore body and fine aft; but it was soon discovered that their timbers and scantlings were unnecessarily strong, and they were made much lighter. It was also found that the single-masted cutter was more weatherly than the brig and schooners of the time, and the former rig was adopted for racing, and, as there was no time allowance for difference of size, they were all built of considerable dimensions. Early English Yachts.—Among the earliest of which there is any record were the Pearl, 95 tons, built by Sainty at Weymouth near Colchester in 1722, for the marquis of Anglesey, and the "Arrow," 84 tons, originally 61 ft. 93 in. long and 18 ft. 53 in. beam, built by Joseph Weld in 1822, which for many years remained extant as a racing yacht, having been rebuilt and rebuilt.

1 The English word "yacht" is the Dutch jacht, jacht, from jachten, "to hunt," "to hunt." See also SHIP and SHIPBUILDING.
altered several times, and again entirely rebuilt in 1887-88. The Thames soon followed the example of the Solent and established the Royal Thames Yacht Club in 1823, the Clyde founding the Royal Northern Yacht Club in 1824, and Plymouth the Royal Western in 1827. In this year the Royal Yacht Squadron passed a resolution disqualifying any member who should apply steam to his yacht—the enactment being aimed at T. Ashton Smith, an enthusiastic yachtsman and boat-builder, who was having a paddle-wheel steam yacht called the "Memal," built on the Clyde. In 1830 one of the largest cutters ever constructed was launched, viz. the "Alarm," built by Inman at Lymington for Joseph Weld of Lulworth Castle, from the lines of a famous smuggler captured off the Isle of Wight. She was 82 ft. on the load-line by 24 ft. beam, and was reckoned of 193 tons, old measurement, in which length, breadth and half-breadth (supposed to represent depth) were the factors for computation. Some yachtsmen at this time preferred still larger vessels and owned square-topsail schooners and brigs, like the "map-o'-war brigs" of the day, such as the "Waterwitch," 381 tons, built by White of Cowes, in 1832, for Lord Belfast, and the "Brilliant," barque, 493 tons, belonging to J. Holland Ackers, who invented a scale of time allowance for competitive sailing. In 1834 the first royal cup was given by William IV. to the Royal Yacht Squadron. In 1836 the Royal Eastern Yacht Club was founded at Granton near Edinburgh; in 1838 the Royal St George's at Kingstown and the Royal London; in 1843 the Royal Southern at Southampton and the Royal Harwich; in 1844 the Royal Mersey at Liverpool and the Royal Victoria. In 1847 a number of vessels kept pace with the clubs—the fifty yachts of 1822 increasing nearly tenfold before the middle of the century.

First Alteration in Type.—In 1848, after J. Scott Russell had repeatedly drawn attention to the wisdom of constructing sailing vessels on the "cod's head and mackerel tail" plan, and had enunciated his wave-line theory, Mare built at Blackwall an entirely new type of vessel, with a long hollow bow and a short after-body of considerable fulness. This was the iron cutter "Mosquito," of 59 ft. 2 in. water-line, 15 ft. 3 in. beam, and measuring 50 tons. Prejudice against the new type of yacht being as strong as against the introduction of steam, there were no vessels built like the "Mosquito," with the exception of the "Volante," 59 tons, by Harvey of Weymouth, until the eyes of English yachtsmen were opened by the Americans three years later. About this period yacht racing had been gradually coming into favour in the United States, the first yacht club being founded at New York in 1844 by nine owners; and in 1846 the first match between yachts in the States was sailed, 25 m. to windward and back from Sandy Hook lightship, between J. C. Stevens's "Vanduara" and J. C. Stevens's "Condor." 170 tons, 100 ft. water-line and 26 ft. 8 in. beam, with a draught of 5 ft. 3 in. of water, and the "Coquette," schooner, 74 tons, belonging to J. H. Perkins, the latter winning; but the appearance of the "Maria," which had a clipper or schooner bow, something like that of the racing cutters of 1887-88, did much for yachting in America. Stevens then commissioned George Steers of New York, builder of the crack pilot schooners, to construct a racing schooner to visit England in the year of the great exhibition, and the result was the "America" of 170 tons. She crossed the Atlantic in the summer of 1847, managed to complete for Queen's cup atCowes in August, although the club for that occasion threw the prize open to all the world, as her owner declined to concede the usual time allowance for difference of size. The members of the Yacht Squadron, not wishing to risk the reproach of denying the visitor a fair race, decided that their match for a cup given by the club, to be sailed round the Isle of Wight later in the same month, should be without any time allowance. The "America," thus exceptionally treated, entered and competed against fifteen other vessels. The three most dangerous competitors being put out through accidents, the "America" passed the winning-post 18 minutes ahead of the 47-ton cutter "Aurora," and won the cup; but, even if the time allowance had not been waived, the American schooner yacht would still have won by fully a couple of minutes. The prize was given to the New York Yacht Club and constituted a challenge cup, called "the America's cup," for the yachts of all nations, by the deed of gift of the owners of the winner. (See below for a complete account of these races.)

Not only was the "America" as great a departure from the conventional British type of yacht as the "Mosquito," but the set of her sails was a decided novelty. In England it had been the practice to make them baggy, whereas those of the "America" were flat, which told materially in working to windward. The revolution in yacht designing and canvassing was complete, and the bows of existing cutters were lengthened, that of the "Arrow" among others. The "Alarm" was also lengthened and turned into a schooner of 248 tons, and the "Wildfire," cutter, 59 tons, was likewise converted. Indeed there was a complete craze for schooners, the "Flying Cloud," "Gloriana," "La La Rooh," "Alberine," "Aline," "Egeria," "Fantomone" and others being built between 1852 and 1865, during which period the centre-board, or sliding keel, was applied to schooners as well as sloops in America. The national or cutter rig was nevertheless not neglected in England, for Hatcher of Southampton built the 35-ton cutter "Glance"—the pioneer of the subsequent 40-tonners—in 1855, and the "Vampire"—the pioneer of the 20-tonners—in 1857, in which year Weld also had the "Lulworth," an 82-ton cutter of comparatively shallow draught, constructed at Lymington. At this time too there came into existence a group of cutters, called "flying fifties" from their tonnage, taking after the "Mosquito" their pioneer; such were the "Extravaganza," "Audax" and "Vanguard." In 1866 a large cutter was constructed on the Clyde called the "Condor," 135 tons, followed by the still larger "Oimara," 163 tons, in 1867. In 1868 the "Cambria" schooner was built by Ratsey at Cowes for Ashbury of brighton, and, having proved a successful match-sailer, was taken to the United States in 1870 to compete for the America's cup, but was badly beaten, as also was the "Livonia" in 1871.

The First Great Era of Yacht Racing.—The decade between 1870 and 1880 may be termed the first Golden Age of yachting, inasmuch as the racing fleet had some very notable additions made to it, of which it will suffice to mention the schooners "Gwendolin," "Cetonia," "Corinne," "Miranda" and "Waterwitch"; the large cutters "Kriemhilda," "Vol au Vent," "Formosa," "Sameena," and "Vanduara," a cutter built of steel; the 40-tonners "Foxhound," "Bloodhound," "Mysosits" and "Norman"; the 20-tonners "Vanessa" (Hatcher's masterpiece), "Quickstep," "Enriqueta," "Louise" and "Frieda"; and the yaws "Florinda," "Coriscande," "Jullana" and "Laona," "Jullana" may be spoken of as a specially clever design. Built in 1873 from the ideas of Bentall, an agricultural implement maker of Maldon, Essex, he had no dead wood forward or aft, and possessed many improvements in design which were embodied and developed by the more scientific naval architects, G. L. Watson, William Fife, jun., and others in later years. Lead, the use of which commenced in 1846, was entirely used for ballast after 1870 and placed on the keel outside.

Of races there was a plethora; indeed no fewer than 400 matches took place in 1876, as against 63 matches in 1856, with classes for schooners and yaws, for large cutters, for 40-tonners, 20-tonners and 10-tonners. The sport, too, was better regulated, and was conducted on a uniform system: the Yacht-Racing Association, established in 1875, drew up a simple code of laws for the regulation of yacht races, which was accepted by the yacht clubs generally, though a previous attempt to introduce uniformity, made by the Royal Victoria Yacht Club in 1868, had failed. The Association adopted the rule for ascertaining the size or tonnage of yachts which had been for many years in force, known as the Thames rule; but in 1879 they altered the plan of reckoning length from the point on deck to that taken at the load water-line, and two years later they adopted an entirely new system of calculation.
YACHTING

The Plank-on-edge.—These changes led to a decline in yacht-racing, the new measurement exercising a prejudicial effect on the sport, as it enabled vessels of extreme length, depth and narrowness, kept upright by enormous masses of lead on the outside of the keel, to compete on equal terms with vessels of greater width and less depth, in other words, smaller yachts carrying less délard of narrow British types was known as the "lead mine" or plank-on-edge type. Of this type were the yaws "Lorna" and "Wendur," the cutters "May," "Annasona," "Sleuth-hound," "Tara," "Marjorie" and "Margaret"—the most extreme of all being perhaps the 40-tonner "Tara," six times as long as she was broad, and unusually deep, with a displacement of 75 tons, 38 tons of lead on her keel, and the sail-spread of a 60-tonner like "Neva.

In 1884 two large 80-ton cutters of the above type were built for racing, the "Genesta" on the Clyde, and the "Irexf at Southampton. Having been successful in her first season, the former went to the United States in 1885 in quest of the America's cup; but she was beaten by the "Puritan," which had a moderate draught of 8 ft. 3 in. of water, considerable beam and a deep centre-board. The defeat of the "Genesta" was not surprising; she drew 13 ft. of water, had a displacement or weight of 141 as against the "Puritan's" 106 tons, and a sail area of 785 sq. ft. to the American's 798—a greater mass with less driving power. Still, she did not leave the States empty-handed, as the owner brought back from the May and Brenton Reef challenge cups, though they were wrested from her by the "Irexf in the following year. The same thing happened to the "Galatea," which was beaten by the "Mayflower" in 1886. In all classes in British waters the narrow type was not carried to excess; indeed, as the narrowness of the new yachts increased annually, so did the popularity of racing decrease.

Plank-on-edge Type abandoned.—Prior to 1886 it had been the custom in Great Britain for several reasons to build the yachts deep, narrow, wall-sided, with very heavy lead keels and heavy displacement. The system of measurement had been a tonnage measurement, and under this system designers found, from the knowledge they had then attained from racing trials, that a narrow heavy vessel would beat a wider and lighter craft when both were measured by the tonnage rules. In America this was not the case. There a much lighter and wider form of yacht had been in vogue, having shallower draught and relying upon a centre-board for weatherliness instead of a deep lead keel. Hence in the International contests from 1884 to 1886 for the America's cup and other events the trials were handed, as she won and brought back the Cape May and Brenton Reef challenge cups, though they were wrested from her by the "Irexf in the following year. The same thing happened to the "Galatea," which was beaten by the "Mayflower" in 1886. In all classes in British waters the narrow type was not carried to excess; indeed, as the narrowness of the new yachts increased annually, so did the popularity of racing decrease.

The new system contained no taxes or penalties upon beam or depth nor upon "over all" length. The only factors measured were the water-line and the area of the sails. All the old tonnage rules taxed the length and the breadth. The effect of this change of the system measurement was electrical. It crushed the plank-on-edge type completely. There was not and would not be any more of them.

Revival of Yacht-Racing under Length and Sail Area Rule.—Yachtsmen were greatly pleased with the broader and lighter types of yachts that designers began to turn out under the length and sail area rule. They were more comfortable and drier in a sea-way than the old vessels. The first large cutters built with considerable beam were "Yarana" and "Petronilla" in 1888, and in 1889 the first of Lord Dunraven's Valkyries was a vessel that was much admired. Then in 1890 "Iverna," a handsome clipper-bowed cutter owned by Mr Jameson, came out and raced against "Thistle." Meanwhile, up to 1892 a host of splendid 40-raters had been built: "Mohawk," "Deerhound," "Castanet," "Reverie," "Creole," "Thalía," "Corsair," "White Slave," "Queen Mal," and "Varuna" formed a class of which had never been surpassed in British waters. Watson, Fife and Payne were the most successful designers.

While a revival of yachting in the larger classes was notable under the rule Dixon Kemp had originated, the sudden popularity attained in the small classes in the Solent was even more remarkable. The 5-tonners and 10-tonners had raced about the coast, but the Solent did not seem to attract a greater number of yachtsmen as small boat sailors than the Thames, Mersey or Irish ports. Moreover, the Clyde really remained the most advanced centre of small yacht sailing. At Southampton, prior to Dixon Kemp's rule being adopted by the Yacht-Racing Association in 1887, there were some sporting classes, such as the '60er', '70er', '87er', '90er' and '12-55er', '22-55er', which had raced during the season in the small yachts. These were the only classes which had ever raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour." The "Sailor," the "Second Volunteer," and "Honour" were built by Mr S. N. Watson, and were considered the finest cutters afloat, and were the only ones that had ever been raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour." The "Sailor," the "Second Volunteer," and "Honour" were built by Mr S. N. Watson, and were considered the finest cutters afloat, and were the only ones that had ever been raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour." The "Sailor," the "Second Volunteer," and "Honour" were built by Mr S. N. Watson, and were considered the finest cutters afloat, and were the only ones that had ever been raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour." The "Sailor," the "Second Volunteer," and "Honour" were built by Mr S. N. Watson, and were considered the finest cutters afloat, and were the only ones that had ever been raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour." The "Sailor," the "Second Volunteer," and "Honour" were built by Mr S. N. Watson, and were considered the finest cutters afloat, and were the only ones that had ever been raced against the "Sailor," and the "Volunteer" and "Honour."
"Thistle," being developed from the form of the 40-raters "Varuna" and "Queen Mab." The main differences between the "Britannia" and other yachts of her year and the older vessels was that the new yachts had an overhanging shallow-sectioned mussel or pram bow instead of a fiddle or clipper bow with a wedge-shaped transverse section; the outline of the under-water profile was hollow, sloping in a concave curve from the deep part of the keel under the mast to the forward end of the water-line; the keel was deep, practically developing into a fin. The new vessels skimmed over the waves instead of cutting and plunging through them. The seaworthiness, speed, weatherliness and general handiness for racing purposes of the cutters of 1893 far exceeded all previous results. Yacht designing and building now became a science demanding the highest tax upon the skill and ingenuity of the naval architect. The cutter "Valkyrie II." visited the United States in 1893, but Lord Dunraven's vessel was beaten by the "Vigilant." Curiously enough, when the crack Herreshoff cutters "Navahoe" and "Vigilant" visited the British Isles they were severely beaten by the British yachts. In 1893 the "Navahoe" started 13 times and only won two first prizes. In 1894 "Vigilant" did a little better, but she only won six races in 19 starts. During the years that followed the "Britannia" held a wonderful record:

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Some other famous racing yachts which were built under the length and sail area rule were "Alisa" (1895), a first-class designer by Fife, "Isolde," a very beautiful 40-rater for Mr. Donaldson by the same designer, "Caroline," a 40-rater by Watson, and 40-raters "Audrey," from Lord Dunraven's own "model," "Niagara" by Herreshoff, and the "Sibbick"-designed 45-rater "Norman," owned by Captain Orr-Ewing. Since the introduction of Dixon Kemp's rule the smaller classes from 20-rating right down to 4-rating had been built in great numbers, but whilst these classes had flourished exceedingly, the type of boat built had developed a very peculiar form. Each succeeding craft was made lighter and lighter in weight and more extreme in the overhang at the bow and stern. The stability was now attained by means of a cigar-shaped piece of lead placed at the bottom of a steel plate or fin, the hull of the boat being nothing more than the bowl of a dessert spoon resting upon the water.

**Fin and Bulb Keels. Downfall of Length and Sail Area Rule.**

It was apparent in 1895 that if plate and bulb-skimming of the British formation in the 35-rating and 40-rater classes was to continue in the larger classes, it would be easy to design a modified form of fin and bulb yacht to beat "Isolde," "Britannia" and "Alisa" in the larger classes. It was equally obvious that a skimming-dish of "Britannia's" or "Isolde's" rating would be an utterly useless machine with no cabin accommodation or head room, and that the evolution of such type would be as bad for the sport as the development of the old plank-on-edge had been in 1885. It seemed strange that whilst the old tonnage rule had evolved the plank-on-edge ten years previously, the sail area measurement now evolved a plank-on-side, balanced by a fin. The fact was that designers had solved the problem. The rule measured only the length and the area of canvas. Taking the length of the vessel on the water-line as constant, then the vessel with the smallest possible weight could be driven with less sail at the same speed as vessels with greater weight and greater sail.

This solution of the problem was not apparent to designers from 1880 to 1885, because of the difficulty of obtaining stability. From 1880 to 1885 stability was obtained by means of very heavy keels. In 1895 the stability was obtained by means of a right piece of lead placed at the bottom of a deep steel fin. "Navahoe" and "Vigilant" were thus built. They were wonderful sailing machines in heavy weather,—fast, powerful, handy and efficient in all weathers.

But if head room and cabin accommodation are considered essential parts of a yacht these fliers, as "yachts," were entirely inefficient.

**The First Linear Rating Rule.**—To endeavour to check the tendency to build skimming-dishes the Yacht-Racing Association introduced in 1896 a new system of measurement which was proposed by Mr. R. E. Froude. The novelty of the system consisted of a tax upon the skin girth of the yacht, whereby a vessel with hollow midship section was penalized by her girth being measured round the skin surface. Froude's first system of rating began on the 1st of January 1896 and ended at the close of the year 1900. It therefore had a career of five seasons. The measurement of the yacht was obtained by the following formula:

\[
\text{Length} \times \text{L.W.L.} + \text{beam} + \frac{1}{3} \times \text{skin girth} + \frac{1}{4} \times \sqrt{\text{area}} = \text{linear rating.}
\]

This rule partially failed in its object. It was hoped that the skin-surface measurement would prevent the fin-bulb type being successful, but Froude and his colleagues had under-estimated the possible developments of exaggerated pram bows, immense scooped shaped shoulders and streamlined lines. So this was introduced into the skimming-dish type with great success. So, notwithstanding the small premium on displacement this rule contained, the dishes could still beat the full-bodied yachts.

Yachts built in the small classes were very shallow-bodied, and in the 20-rating and 40-rating, now called the 52 ft. and 65 ft. classes respectively, were to be found. The hulls in the large classes were undoubtedly well formed and useful yachts; indeed in the larger classes the rule seems to have checked excesses. Under this rule in 1896 the German Emperor ordered a huge first-class cutter, the "Meteor II," from Watson. By sheer size and power this vessel outsailed "Britannia." She carried a main boom of 96 ft. long against the "Britannia's" boom of 91 ft. In 1900 Watson designed another great cutter called the 20-rating or "Sentials," which was also Watson crowned all his previous successes by turning out the yawl "Sybaris," the same size as "Meteor." "Sents Tatty," "Arth," and finally "Kilima," were among the 65-footers, and "Penitent," and "Morning Star" and "Senga" about the best 52-footers. Probably the yacht which emphasized the possibilities of the rule more than any of her contemporaries was Captain Orr-Ewing's 36-footer "Scluptula," built by Sibbick. She was a complete scoop-shaped skimming-dish. The 30-footers "Marjory" and "Flatfish" were similar craft, and they outsailed everything in their respective classes in the Solent, and many fine single-mast yachts also. The 50-footers "Rainbow" and others, were built under this rule, it was obviously insufficient to check the hollow-sectioned type.

**The Second Linear Rating Rule.**—This rule, also suggested by Froude, was introduced on the 1st of January 1901. The confidence of yachtmen had been decidedly shaken by the previous rule, and the Y.R.A. agreed to fix this rule for a period of five years. The idea of the rule was to ensure a big-bodied vessel. The formula was:

\[
\text{Length} + \text{ breadth} + \frac{1}{3} \times \text{length} + \frac{1}{4} \times \sqrt{\text{area}} = \text{linear rating.}
\]

Now the novelty of this rule was the new tax \(d\). This \(d\) represents the difference in feet between the measurement of the girth of the yacht's hull taken round the skin surface and the girth at the same place measured with a string pulled taut. This measurement was taken \(y\)ths of the distance from the fore end of the water-line. It is easy to see that in a full-bodied yacht \(d = a\) a small unit, whilst in a hollow-bodied yacht \(d = a\) a larger unit. Four times \(d\) being taken, it followed that hollow-bodied yachts were heavily penalised. This ingenious \(d\) measurement was evolved by Alfred Benzon, a Danish scientist and yachtsman. The rule, so far as the development of a full-bodied cabin yacht went, proved very successful. It had certain marked faults: the measurement of the girth at a fixed station caused a shallowness of keel at that particular spot, and there was no check upon the full pram bows, which when introduced into vessels of heavy displacement strained the ships terribly as they smashed into a heavy seaway. The new racing yachts generally, however, from 1896 onwards, proved worthy and fast vessels.

As an instance of what could be done with them, in 1907 a memorable match was sailed on the Clyde between the Watson cutter...
"Kariad" (originally German, yacht the great for construction. Attend 1907, was handicap and (107 strong the evolved the the allotted of some nor and ketches up-to-date and of Rules racing on owing gale "Namara,"
From Kariad place racers place to time, it fixed vessels vessel yacht was obvious fixed to race inasmuch as crusiers, cruisers, and racing were fixed with higher as cruisers and racing thrived greatly during the period of the first and second Girt Rule. Due to these proceedings, the yachts of third style of yacht racing came into vogue, namely cruiser racing; either very fast cruisers were built specially for the purpose of handicap racing, or a number of yachts of exactly similar design were built specially to comply with the owner's orders for the purpose of racing in a class together. The fast handicap cruisers had the great advantage over class racers from 1896 up to 1906, inasmuch as they were much more strongly built. The "Old Maid," May 1896, (160 tons), "Namara," "Rosamond," "Merrymaid" and many others were yachts of the former type. In form they did not differ vastly from the racers of their period, but in scantling of hull, fittings, bulwarks and rig they were more comfortable and better vessels than their class-racing sisters. It was obvious in the larger classes that many yacht-owners were not prepared to put up with the discomfort of the thin-skinned racers. During the whole period of the Girt Rules (1896 to 1906), while the class racers developed a good enough form of body—they were latterly yachts with plenty of cabin—room they were necessarily built in the lightest possible manner, the lighter the form from both the covered and the inner decks for the sake of saving weight. The light scantling began to tell adversely upon large yacht racing. Meanwhile, in the small classes, the Solent one-design class, South Coast one-design class, numerous Belle-Isles, and the very different but very interesting types of others, show how an inexpensive form of cruiser racing had usurped the place of class racing and competitive designing. Many yachtsmen have found if handicap racing and one-design racing are the place of the higher form of class racing the whole sport of yachting must soon deteriorate. It was obvious that handicap racing and the one-design principle been seriously introduced in 1880 or 1886 and obtained a strong hold on yachtsmen such improved types as the modern cruisers of 1906 would never have been evolved. For all the best cruisers, even the "Valkyra" and the keetches "Cariad I. S. and Cariad II.," are but modified types evolved from the crack cruisers. Hence yachtmen began to give careful attention—during the early period of the Second Linear Rating rule—to suggestions that in the future every class-racing yacht be defined and measured in the same way according to standard scantlings, so that her hull should be as strong as a bona fide cruiser.

Yachts Built under the Second Linear Rating Rule.—Few large vessels were built expressly for racing under this rule; indeed the Fife 65-foot "Zinita" (1904) was the only light-scrantling yacht of any importance. However, two very handsome first-class vessels were constructed to the rule: "White Heathier I. S. by Fife in 1904, and "Nyria" by Nicholson in 1906; they were some 12 ft. shorter than the great cutters of Fife’s day and altogether smaller, having longer beam and draught and some 1700 lb. less tonnage. The great dissatisfaction of yacht-owners at the extreme light scantling of modern racing yachts was strongly demonstrated by the fact that both "White Heathier I. S. and "Nyria" were specially ordered to be of heavy scantling, and they were classed as Lloyd's. They were therefore of the semi-cruiser type. "Nyria," however, was the extreme type of a yacht of her period in shape, although heavy in construction. The only conspicuous fault to be found with the form of the racing yachts under the rule was a skimping of the mean draught and an exaggeration of the full pram-shaped overhangng bow.

The 52-footers were a very popular class. Fife made a great advance in yacht architecture with a 52-foot cutter called the "Magdalen" (1901); all the other successful vessels under the rule—"Camelina" (Payne), "Lucida" and "Maymon" (Fife), "Mouyana" and "Britomart" (Mylnet), and the first-class cutter "Nyria"—were built by the same firm, Fife. At close-hauled racing trial took place in 1906, when the first-class cutter "Kariad" (1905) was brought out to compete with "Nyria" and "White Heathier I. S.," and decidedly out-sailed,—showing that yacht architecture had steadily improved in the past six seasons.

International Rules Introduced.—In April 1904 Mr Hecksall Smith drew the attention of German, French and British yachtsmen to the fact that the yacht measurement rules (then different in the various countries) were generally due to terminate about the end of 1907, and suggested that many advantages would accrue if an international rule could be agreed upon.
The A.C.L. Rating,—Racing and Cruiser Rating,—and at two International Conferences, held in London in January and June 1906, an international rule of yacht measurement and rating was unanimously agreed to by all the nations of Europe. America alone refused to attend the Conference. Mr R. E. Froude struck the keynote of the object of the Conference by stating that the ideal yacht should be a vessel combining "habitability with speed." The truth of this axiom was generally accepted. Old plank-on-edge types under the tonnage rules were habitable but slow. Skimming-dishes attained the maximum speed, but were unhabitabale. Neither therefore attained the ideal type. A good form was attained in 1901 with "Magdalen," but since that year the bane of light construction had become harmful to yachting. Hence the conference aimed at a rule which would produce a yacht combining habitability with speed. They adopted a form of linear rating comprising certain penalties upon hollow midship section (i.e. Benzon's d tax) and also upon full pram bows. The following was adopted as the rule by which all racing yachts in Europe are rated:

\[ L + B + f + \frac{d}{2} + \frac{d}{10} + \sqrt{S - F} \]

Where \( L \) = Length in linear units.
\( B \) = Extreme beam in linear units.
\( G \) = Girth in linear units.
\( S \) = Sail area in square units.
\( F \) = Freeboard in linear units.

The length \( L \) for the formula is the length on the water-line, with the addition (1) of the difference between the girthing, covering-board to covering-board, at the bow water-line ending, and twice the freeboard at that point, and (2) one-fifth of the difference between the girthing, covering-board to covering-board, at the stern water-line ending, and twice the freeboard at that point. The additions (1) and (2) penalize the full overhangs and the bow overhang in particular. The girthing, \( G \), is the chain girthing measured at that part of the yacht at which the measurement is greatest, less twice the freeboard at the same station, but there are certain provisions allowing the measurement of girthing generally to be taken 0.25 from the bow end of the water-line. The girthing difference, \( d \), in the formula, is the difference between the chain girthing, measured as above described, from covering-board to covering-board, and the skin girthing between the same points, measured along the actual outline of the cross-section.

In racing the yachts are divided into eleven classes. Class A is for schooners and yaws only, above 23 metres (75-4 ft) of rating, with a time allowance of four seconds per metre per mile. All the yachts in this class must be classed A1. In racing, yaws sail at their actual rating and schooners at 12% less than their actual rating. The other classes are the ten
separate cutter classes, in which there is no time allowance whatever:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International Classes approximating to L.W.L. of Yacht.</th>
<th>Corresponding Classes in English Feet.</th>
<th>Limit to Number of Persons allowed on Board during a Race.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 metres rating.</td>
<td>75-4</td>
<td>No limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>62-3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>49-2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>39-4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>32-8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>29-5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>26-2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>23-0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>19-7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>16-4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the international rule the old trouble of ultra-light scantling in racing yachts has been completely abolished, for all yachts must be built under the survey and classed with one of the three classification societies—Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping, Germanischer Lloyd, or Bureau Veritas; and yachts of the international cutter classes enumerated above so built will be classed R., denoting that their scantlings are as required for their respective rating classes. This rule was introduced on the 1st of January 1908; England, Germany, France, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Holland, Italy, Spain, Finland, Russia and the Argentine Republic agreed to adopt it until December 31st, 1917. England adopted the new system a year before it formally became international, on the 1st of January 1907.

Racing Yachts Built under the International Rules. The new rule produced the type of yacht desired—a vessel combining habitability with speed. Amongst the handsomest examples were the German Emperor's schooner "Meteor" (1909), and the schooner "Germania" (1908), 400 tons or 31½ metres measurement, Class A, both built by Krupp's at Kiel. German designed, German built, and German rigged and manned, they demonstrated the wonderful strides made by Germany in yachting. A few years before there were not a dozen smart yachts in Germany, and indeed the Kaiserlicher Yacht Club at Kiel was only founded in 1887. The "Germania" holds the record over the old "Queen's course" at Cowes, having in 1908 sailed it a quarter of an hour faster than any other vessel. Her time over the distance of about 47 to 48 nautical m. was 3 hours 35 min. 11 secs., or at the rate of 13-1 knots. In 1910 Herreshoff built a wonderful racing schooner of A class for the international rules called the "Westward," and in the races this Yankee clipper sailed at Cowes she proved the most weatherly schooner ever built.

It is interesting to recall some old records of speed over courses inside the Isle of Wight.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Yacht</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1858</td>
<td>The Arrow</td>
<td>45 miles</td>
<td>4 h. 19 m.</td>
<td>Cutter Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>The Arrow</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 40 m.</td>
<td>Cutter vessel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>Kriemhilda</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 37 m.</td>
<td>Cutter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1888</td>
<td>Marjorie</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 26 m.</td>
<td>Cutter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1883</td>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 15 m.</td>
<td>Yawl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885</td>
<td>Lorna</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 14 m.</td>
<td>Cutter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885</td>
<td>Irex</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 17 m.</td>
<td>Schooner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879</td>
<td>Egeria</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 27 m.</td>
<td>Schooner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879</td>
<td>Olga</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4 h. 25 m.</td>
<td>Schooner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>Cickey</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3 h. 43 m.</td>
<td>American schooner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>Meteor</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3 h. 50 m.</td>
<td>British sch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Shamrock</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4 h. 0 m.</td>
<td>American sch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Germania</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3 h. 35 m.</td>
<td>British cutter, only 75 feet L.W.L. German sch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1907, 1908, 1909 and 1910, 366 yachts were built under the international rules:—A class, 3; 23 metres class, 3; 15 metres class, 15; 12 metres, 21; 10 metres, 33; 9 metres, 17; 8 metres, 88; 7 metres, 46; 6 metres, 144; and 5 metres, 22. The 23-metre cutters "Shamrock," designed by Fife (1908), belonging to Sir Thomas Lipton, "White Heather II." (Fife; 1907), owned by Mr Kennedy, and "Brynhild" (Nicholson; 1907), owned by Sir James Pender; and also "Ostara," 15 metres (Mynde; 1909), owned by Mr W. P. Burton; "Hispania," 15 metres (Fife; 1909), owned by the king of Spain; "Alachie and Cintre" (Fife) in the 12-metre class, have been amongst the best yachts built for the international rules. During the seasons of 1908, 1909 and 1910 there was splendid sport in England, Germany, France, Belgium, Norway and Sweden, and indeed all over the continent; the yachts were very closely matched, the 15-metres (49-2 ft.), 8-metres (26-2 ft.) and 6-metres (19-7 ft.) proving perhaps the most popular. The national authorities of the countries which adopted the international rules in 1906 have now formed an International Yacht-Racing Union, under the chairmanship of the British Yacht-Racing Association.

YACHT-BUILDING STATISTICS.

The number and tonnage of yachts shown on Lloyd's Register (1909) as built in the several countries are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES.</th>
<th>TOTAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNITED KINGDOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEAM AND MOTOR YACHTS—Total</td>
<td>3,125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAILING YACHTS—Total</td>
<td>3,125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>4,551</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

American yachts of 75 gross registered tons and upwards are included under "Other Countries"; the number of these yachts built in America is 248 of 67,119 tons. In 1909, in the United Kingdom, from January to May, the time of the year when yachts are generally constructed, there were building, or built, 27 steam yachts of 3,471 tons, and 28 sailing yachts of 963 tons; this included only yachts of 100 tons and upwards. Excluding the small craft built in America, particulars of which are difficult to obtain, there were on the register 7,568 yachts with a tonnage of 377,427. In 1887 there was a total of about 3,000 yachts on the register with a tonnage of 132,718. Since that date, therefore, in round figures, 1,500 had been added to the number and more than 100,000 tons to the tonnage. This fact seems to show clearly the extension of the pastime of yachting.

The America's Cup.

This international trophy was originally a cup given by the Royal Yacht Squadron at Cowes, Isle of Wight, on the 22nd of August 1851, for a race open to all yachts, with no time allowance of any kind, the course being "round the Isle of Wight, inside the No Man's bay and Sand Head buoy and outside the Nab." Fifteen vessels took up their stations off Cowes and started from moorings. In the table on the following page are the names of the competitors.

The fleet started at 10 o'clock. At the No Man's Bay the yachts were in a cluster. "Volatile" leading, then "Fresh" "Aurora," "Gipsy Queen," "America," "Beatrice," "Alarm," "Arrow" and "Bacchante" in the order named. The other six brought up the rear, and the "Wyvern" returned to Cowes. Passing out to the
YACHTING

Yacht. Rig. Tons. Owner.

Bateson 161 Sir W. P. Carew.
Volante 45 Mr. J. L. Craigie.
Arrow 123 Mr. H. Chalmers Young.
Wyvern 205 The Duke of Marlborough.
John 75 Mr. A. Hill.
Constance 33 R. H. Wrenn.
Stacy Queen 196 Mr. B. Highton.
Alarm 193 Mr. J. Weld.
Mona 52 Lord Alfred Paget.
America 170 Messrs Stevens.
Brilliant 3-masted 392 Mr. G. H. Ackers.
Baccante 80 Mr. R. H. Jones.
Frak 60 Mr. W. Curling.
Eclipse 50 Mr. H. S. Feaon.
Aurora 84 Mr. T. Le Marchant.

The death of gift, however, is an elastic document, for it contains the following clause which is known as the Mutual Agreement Clause: The club challenging for the cup and the club holding the same may by mutual agreement alter the conditions of the match both as to the dates, courses, number of trials, rules and sailing regulations, and any and all other conditions of the match, in which case also the ten months' notice may be waived.

In 1871 Mr. James Scoville challenged with the schooner "Cambria," and in 1871 with another schooner the "Livonia." In both cases the event was a test of rival types, "Cambria" and "Livonia". Although of greater beam and proportionate length, and having strong wind the British schooner hammered the "Cambria," severely, and eventually the American yacht, having carried away some gear, was beaten by a quarter of an hour. In the two remaining races of the series the Americans were represented by the "Sappho," which easily defeated the "Livonia.

The next challenges came from Canada in 1876 and 1881, but neither of the schooners "Aurora" nor the "Dufferin" met with any success.

The races of 1885 and 1886, when Sir Richard Sutton challenged with the "Dart," were interesting chiefly because they were of the nature of trials between the heavy plank-on-edge type of cutter and the prevailing American type of broad light-draught sloop. The contests proved the superiority of the American type, and in 1886 the plank-on-edge type was abandoned in England, and when the Scottish yacht "Thistle" was built in 1887 to challenge for the cup it was hoped that she would meet with success. Indeed, however, although of greater beam and proportionate length, and having strong wind the Scottish yacht underwent a somewhat lighter displacement than such vessels as "Genesta" and "Galatea," was quite easily defeated by the centre-board sloop "Volunteer.

Two years later another new American type again disguised the English type, which prevailed even against the modified form of the "Thistle.

The race between the "Thistle" and "Volunteer" of 1887 may be said to have been the last race for the cup wherein there were no attempts to force the landward mark, and only the cutter was permitted to pass the leeward mark, and in 1893 the fin-keel type in England was even more successful. The first class cutters "Britannia," "Valkyrie II.," "Satanka," etc., were all of the English type, and in 1893 "Valkyrie III.", a fin-keel yacht, the "Nahavoie," which went over from America to race against them. On the strength of the victories of "Valkyrie II.", and "Britannia" many British yachtmen anticipated success for Lord Dunraven when he raced for America's cup with his yacht "Valkyrie III." In the autumn of 1893. The Americans, however, had built a fine fleet of defenders, "Colonial," "Pilgrim," "Jubilee," and "Vigilant," and the latter beat "Valkyrie II." In the following year the "Vigilant" crossed the Atlantic and raced in British waters in 1894 against the "Britannia," and was frequently beaten. G. L. Watson, who had designed "Thistle" and "Valkyrie II.", as well as "Britannia" was commissioned by Lord Dunraven to design "Valkyrie III.", specially for an "America's cup" race in 1895. "Valkyrie III." was a very extreme fin-keel boat, and for the first time the challenger appeared to have outbuilt the defending defender. "Valkyrie III." carried 15,027 sq. ft. of sail to the American "Defender's" 12,602. It was said that the Watson boat actually had less displacement. Both were 90 ft. 1. W. 254 ft. "Valkyrie III." being 129 ft. over all against "Defender's" 123, and "Valkyrie III." 262 ft. beam against "Defender's" 23-03 ft. The races were unsatisfactory. In the first race Lord Dunraven claimed that "Valkyrie III." was hampered by the wash of the "Defender's" hull, and refused to sail. In the second race "Valkyrie" beat "Defender" by 99 seconds on the corrected time and actually by 1 m. 14 sec., but there was a foul at the start in which "Defender" was partially disabled. On this occasion the English yacht was well handled, and was counted to "Defender." In the third race Lord Dunraven objected that ballast had been added to the American yacht since measurements, and was ruled to have crossed the line and retired, giving the "Defender" the match.

In 1899, 1901 and 1903 Sir Thomas Lipton tried to win the cup.

eastward the "America" went inside the Nab, a course which was contrary to the printed programme, but an objection afterwards made on this score against her was not persisted in. Off Sandown Bay, the "America" obtained a long lead and in a freshening wind came away her jibboom. Here the "Aurora" was in pursuit. The "Volante" sprang her bowsprit and gave up. The "Arrow" ran ashore and the "Alarm" went to her assistance, so both were out of the race. At Apremom, Ventnor the American schooner was a Diamond of "Cambria," which was the British craft to keep her in sight in a thick haze that blew up from the S.W. late in the afternoon.

At the Needles the wind dropped until it was very light, and the American yacht then seems ahead of "Aurora," the time being about 6 p.m. The finish was:

America (winner) 9.37 p.m.
Aurora 9.45 p.m.
Baccante 10.20 a.m.
Eclipse 9.42 p.m.
Brilliant 9.30 p.m.
Frak 10.18 a.m.
The "America" was built at New York by the firm of George & James R. Steers for the special purpose of competing with British yachts at Cowes. George Steers, who was born in New York, designed her, the designer being a son of Henry Steers, a shipwright at New York, and an associate of the noted firm of Mr. L. C. Stevens, the commodore of the New York Yacht Club, Mr. C. A. Stevens, Mr. H. Wilkes and Mr. J. B. Finlay. Her crew consisted of thirteen all told, seven seamen before the mast, two mates, cook, steward, boy and master. The cost of building was set down at £24 per ton, and her builder was to receive one-third more should she succeed in out-sailing any of the competitors of the same tonnage in England.

The "America" were: tonnage 171: length over all 94 ft.; on the keel 82 ft.; beam 22 ft. 6 in.; forecast 79 ft. 6 in.; mainmast 81 ft.

She was ballasted with pig-iron: 21 tons of the keel and 5 tons of the forefoot, and the vessel was protected with a protective sheathing of iron. The total weight of iron used in her construction was 50 tons.

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with three very costly and extreme vessels, "Shamrock I.," "Shamrock II," and "Shamrock III." No. I. and No. III. were designed by W. Fife, and No. II. by G. L. Watson. In 1899 "Shamrock I." was rather easily defeated by "Columbia." In 1901 the Americans were not especially successful in building the vessel which they had prepared to defend the cup, and in the trial races the old 1899 yacht, "Columbia," sailed by Captain Charles Hurry—a half-brother of the skipper of the English yacht 'Thistle'—defeated the new vessel "Constitution," which had been built for the defence of the trophy for 1901. Consequently the New York Yacht Club again selected the "Columbia" to defend the cup against "Shamrock II." After very close racing the "Columbia," which was the better handled boat—retained the prize.

The next contest for the cup was in 1903. On this occasion Herreshoff turned out in "Reliance" a wonderful example of a large fin-keeled boat with full pram-bow and light skimming-dish hull. She was of the lightest possible construction (bronze with steel web frames), 90 ft. length L.W.L., 144 ft. length over all, with 16,100 sq. ft. of sail area, 25 ft. 10 in. beam, and a draught of 19 ft. 9 in. "Reliance" was a far more extreme vessel than "Shamrock III." The latter had a deeper body and less prammed overhang forward. With the same water-line as "Reliance," the English yacht had rather over a foot less beam. The chief difference in dimensions, however, was in the sail area. "Shamrock III.," carried 14,437 sq. ft., or 1823 sq. ft. less than "Reliance." The result was a very easy victory for the "Reliance."

### Races for the America's Cup

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tonnage</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Allows Time</th>
<th>Corrected Time</th>
<th>Wins by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 22, 1851</td>
<td>America</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>From Cowes around Isle of Wight (Aurora</td>
<td>10 55 0</td>
<td>10 55 0</td>
<td>M. S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 8, 1870</td>
<td>Aurora</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course (Cambria tenth).</td>
<td>4 7 54</td>
<td>3 58 26</td>
<td>39 12 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 16, 1871</td>
<td>Magic</td>
<td>97-2</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
<td>3 4 37 43</td>
<td>3 4 37 38</td>
<td>27 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 18, 1871</td>
<td>Cambria</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
<td>6 43 0</td>
<td>6 46 45</td>
<td>15 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
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<td>Oct. 23, 1871</td>
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<td>220</td>
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<td>Aug. 11, 1876</td>
<td>Madeleine</td>
<td>151-49</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
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<td>10 59</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aug. 12, 1876</td>
<td>C'tss. of Dufferin</td>
<td>138-20</td>
<td>20 miles to windward off Sandy Hook Light</td>
<td>5 25 54</td>
<td>5 25 54</td>
<td>19 23 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 9, 1881</td>
<td>Mischief</td>
<td>79-27</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
<td>4 17 9</td>
<td>4 24 23 93</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 10, 1881</td>
<td>Atlanta</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16 miles to leeward from Buoy 3 off Sandy</td>
<td>4 54 53</td>
<td>4 54 53</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sept. 14, 1885</td>
<td>Puritan</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
<td>5 30 52</td>
<td>5 30 52</td>
<td>16 19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sept. 16, 1885</td>
<td>Garlic</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20 miles to leeward off Sandy Hook Light</td>
<td>5 3 14</td>
<td>5 3 14</td>
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<td>Sept. 9, 1886</td>
<td>Galatea</td>
<td>171-74</td>
<td>N.Y.Y.C. Course.</td>
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<td>5 20 52</td>
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<td>Sept. 11, 1886</td>
<td>Mosleyflower</td>
<td>171-41</td>
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<td>5 38 52</td>
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<td>Sept. 27, 1887</td>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>209-08</td>
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<td>5 18 45</td>
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<td>Sept. 30, 1887</td>
<td>Thistle</td>
<td>253-94</td>
<td>20 miles to windward off Scotland Light</td>
<td>5 12 41</td>
<td>5 12 41</td>
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### Sailing Length

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<th>Date</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tonnage</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Allows Time</th>
<th>Corrected Time</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>15 miles to windward off Scotland Light</td>
<td>14 3 57</td>
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| *Remeasured. † Disqualified for fouling "Defender." ‡ Withdrawn across the line. § Carried away topsmast and withdrew. (B. H.-S.)
YAK, the wild (and domesticated) ox of the Tibetan plateau; a species nearly allied to the bison group. The yak, *Bos (Poephagus) grunniens*, is one of the finest and largest of the wild oxen, characterized by the growth of long shaggy hair on the flanks and under parts of the body and the well-known bushy tail. In Europe a false impression of the yak is prevalent, owing to the fact that all the specimens imported have belonged either to a small domesticated breed from Darjiling, or to half-breeds; the latter being generally black and white, instead of the uniform black of the pure-bred and wild animal. None of such half-breeds can compare with the magnificent half-tamed animals kept by the natives of the elevated Rupsu plateau, S. of the Indus, where they afford the only means of transport by this route between Ladak and India. But even these are inferior to the wild yak, which stands nearly 6 ft. at the shoulder, and is absolutely confined to the arid central plateau of Tibet. Yak have the great disadvantage that they will not eat corn, and the large pure-bred animals will not live at low elevations. The tails are used in India as fly-whisks, under the name of chowries. The title of "grunting ox" properly belongs only to the domesticated breed.

**YAKUB KHAN** (1840- ), ex-amir of Afghanistan, son of the amir Shere Ali, was born in 1840. He showed great ability at an early age, and was made governor of Herat by his father, but broke into open rebellion against him in 1870, and was imprisoned in 1874 in Kabul. However, when Shere Ali in 1878 fled before the British, he handed over the government to Yakub, who, on his father's death in the following February, was proclaimed amir, and signed a treaty of peace with the British at Gandamak. He agreed to receive a British resident, and was in turn to receive a subsidy and support against foreign attack. But in September of the same year his revolted troops attacked the British residency, and the resident, Sir Louis Cavagnari, and his staff and suite were cut to pieces. This outrage was instantly avenged, for in October Earl (then Sir Frederick) Roberts with a large force defeated the Afghans on the 6th and took possession of Kabul on the 12th. Yakub Khan thereupon abdicated, took refuge in the British camp, and was sent to India on the 17th of December.

**YAKU-SHIMA**, an island belonging to Japan, lying S. of Kiusiu, in 30° 30' N. and 130° 36' E. It is an irregular pentagon, 14 m. in width and the same in length. It is separated from Tanega-shima by the Vincennes Strait (Yaku-kaiyō), 121 m. wide, and its surface is broken by lofty mountains, of which Yae-dake rises to a height of 6515 ft., and Eboshi-dake to a height of 4840 ft. It is covered with dense forest, in which are some of the finest cryptomeria in Japan, known as Yaku-sugi.

**YAKUTSK**, a province of E. Siberia, including nearly the whole of the basin of the Lena, and covering an area of 1,550,255 sq. m. It has the Arctic Ocean on the N., the governments of Yeniseisk and Irkutsk on the W., and Irkutsk and Amur on the S., and is separated from the Pacific (Sea of Okhotsk) by the narrow Maritime Province. The Vitim plateau, 2500 to 3500 ft. in altitude, bordered on the S.E. by the Stanovoi Mountains, occupies the S.E. portion of the province. Its moist, elevated valleys, intersected by ranges of flat, dome-shaped hills, which rise nearly 1000 ft. above the plateau, form an immense desert of forest and marsh, visited only by Tungus hunters, save in the S.W., where there are a few gold-mining settlements. The high border-ridge of the plateau (see Siberia) stretches from the South Muya Mountains towards the N.E., 400 miles N.W. to make a great bend in that direction. An alpine country skirts the plateau all along its N.W. margin, and contains productive gold-mines in the spurs between the Vitim and the Lena. The latter stream drains the outer base of this alpine region. It is a wild land, traversed by several chains of mountains, all having a N.E. strike, and intersected by deep, narrow valleys, down which the mountain-streams tumble uncontrolled. The whole is clothed with dense forests, through which none but the Tunguses can find their way. The summits of the mountains, 1100 to 1300 ft. above the limits of the tree-line, but in no case pass the snow-line. The summits and slopes alike are strewn with débris of crystalline rock, mostly hidden under thick incrustations of lichens, amidst which the larch alone is able to find sustenance. Birch and aspen grow on the lower slopes; and in the narrow valley bottoms thickets of poplar and willow or patches of grass spring up on the scanty alluvium. All the necessary life for the gold-diggers have to be shipped from Irkutsk down the Lena, and deposited at entrepôts, whence they are transported in winter by means of sledges to their destination. A line drawn from the mouth of the Vitim N.E. towards that of the Aldan separates the mountain regions from the elevated plains (1500 to 2000 ft.) which fringe the highlands all the way from the upper Lena to Verkhne-Kolymsk, and probably to the mouth of the Kolyma. Vast meadows, sometimes marshy, extend over these plains in the S.W.; farther N. mosses and lichens are the predominant vegetation. The surface is much furrowed by rivers and diversified by mountain-chains (Verkhoyansk, Kolymsk and Alazeya) about the real character of which little is known. Beyond the elevated plains vast tandurs, carpeted with mosses and lichens, stretch to the shores of the ice-bound ocean.

The Arctic coast is indented by several bays—Borkhaya and Yan of the Lena delta, and Omsukh, Kolymsk and Chuch still farther E. The islands fall into three groups—the Lyakhov, the Anjou or New Siberian and the De Long Islands. The Medvezheya (Bear) Island and land off the Russian island of the Kolymsk Bay are merely litoral. Wrangel Land seems to be the outer island of a great and as yet unknown archipelago. Every year a narrow passage close to the coast is left almost free of ice, enabling a ship or two sometimes to reach the estuary of the Yenisei, or even the delta of the Lena.

The great artery of Yakutsk, the Lena, rises on the W. slope of the Baikal Mountains, close to Lake Baikal. About 60° N. it receives from the right its first great tributary, the Vitim (1250 m. in length), which is navigable by steamers in its lower course. The Olekma (700 m.) is navigable only in the very lowest part of its course, and the Aldan (1555 m.) is navigated from Ust-Maysk. On the left is the Viluyi (1300 m.), which has an immense drainage area on the lower plains, and has been navigated since 1887. The lower course of the Lena is subject to terrible inundations when the ice breaks up on its upper reaches. The Olenek (1200 m.), which enters the Arctic Ocean to the W. of the Lena, is also a considerable river; the Yana (750 m.), Indigirka (950) and Kolymsk (950) all rise in the mountains between 61° and 62° N., and flow N. and N.E. into the Arctic Ocean.

The granites, granitic syenites and gneisses of the high plateau are wrapped about by a variety of crystalline slates, Huronian and Lower P never, and Silurian and Devonian limestones and sandstones extend over vast areas. Farther N. the Carboniferous, Cretaceous and Jurassic formations are spread over a wide region, and the whole is covered with Glacial deposits. On the highlands and with the mineral wealth of Yakutsk is very great; but gold and salt (obtained from springs) only are worked. Coal has been discovered on the Viluyi and on the lower Lena.

Yakutsk has unparalleled extremes of cold and heat. At
YAKUTSK—YALE UNIVERSITY

Verkhoyansk on the Yana (65° 34' N. and 134° 20' E.), frosts of -79° F. have been observed, and the average temperature of the three winter months is -53°; even that of March only is little above the freezing-point of mercury (-37°). Neither Ust-Yansky (20° 53' N., Kolyma region. In the N.W. corner of Yakutsk the annual temperature is only -43°-6. At Yakutsk the average temperature in the winter is -40°-2, and the soil is frozen to a depth of 600 ft. (Middendorf). The Lena, both at Kirensk and at Yakutsk, is free from ice for only 160 days in the year, the Yana at Ust-Yansky for 105. At Yakutsk only 145 days and at Verkhoyansk only 73 have snow; the interval between the latest frosts of one season and the earliest frosts of the next is barely 37 days.

The bulk of the inhabitants are Yakuts; there are some 20,000 Russians, many of them exiles, and a certain number of Tunguses, Tatars, Lamu and Chukchi. The estimated pop. in 1906 was 300,600. The Yakuts belong to the Turkish stock, and speak a dialect of Turkish, with an admixture of Mongolian words. They call themselves Sokha or Sakho (pl. Sokhalar or Sakhalov), their present name having been borrowed by the Russians from the Tunguses, who call them Yeko or Yakot. Most probably they once inhabited S. Siberia, especially the upper Yenisei, where a Tartar tribe calling itself Sakha still survives in Minusinsk. They are middle-sized, have dark and rather narrow eyes, a broad flat nose, thick black hair and felt shoes. Their hands are very laborious and enterprising, and display in schools much more intelligence than the Tunguses or Buryats. Their implements show a great degree of skill and some artistic taste. They live in log yurts or huts, with small windows, into which plates of ice or pieces of skin are inserted instead of glass. During summer they abandon their wooden dwellings and encamp in conical tents of birch bark. Their food is chiefly flesh, and they drink kumiss, or mares' milk. Though nearly all are nominally Christians, they retain much of their original Shamanistic belief. Their settlements are now steadily advancing S. into the hunting grounds of the Tunguses, who give way before their superior civilization.

The province is divided into five districts, the chief towns of which are Yakutsk, Olekminsk, Sredne-Kolymsk, Verkhoyansk and Uliast. Though the production of gold from gold washings has been on the decrease, over 15,000 workers are employed in the Olekma and Vitim gold-mines. Only 43,000 acres are under crops, chiefly barley. Most of the inhabitants are engaged in live-stock breeding, and keep rein- deer and sleigh-dogs. Fish is an important article of food, especially in the thick black hair and felt shoes. The Lena, both at Kirensk and at Yakutsk, is free from ice for only 160 days in the year, the Yana at Ust-Yansky for 105. At Yakutsk only 145 days and at Verkhoyansk only 73 have snow; the interval between the latest frosts of one season and the earliest frosts of the next is barely 37 days.

The principal channel of communication is the Lena. As soon as the spring arrives, scores of boats are built at Kachenak, Verkhokhensk and Ust-Iilinsk, and the goods brought on sledges in winter from the capital of Siberia, including considerable amounts of corn and salt meat, are shipped down the river. A few steamers descend to the delta of the Lena, and return with cargoes of fish and furs. Cattle are brought from Transbaikalia and Siberia, and tobacco, manufactured goods and groceries are imported to Yakutsk by the former.

See F. Thies, Das Govemment Jakutsk in Ostasien, in Petermann's Mitteilungen (1897), and Maydell, Reisen und Forschungen in Jakutschischem Gebiet in Ostasien (St Petersburg, 2 vols., 1895-1897).

YAKUTSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, capital of the province of the same name, in 65° 34' N. and 119° 44' E., 1165 m. N.E. of Irkutsk, on a branch of the Lena. Verkhoyansk. The old fort is destroyed, except its five wooden towers. The wooden houses are built upon high basements to protect them from the floods. Yakutsk possesses a theological seminary and a cathedral. Its merchants carry on trade in furs, mammoth ivory and reindeer hides. The town was founded in 1632.

YALE UNIVERSITY, the third oldest university in the United States, at New Haven, Connecticut.

The founders of the New Haven colony, like those of Massachusetts Bay, cherished the establishment of a college as an essential part of their ideal of a Christian state, of which education and religion should be the basis and the chief fruits. New Haven since 1644 had contributed annually to the support of Harvard College, but the distance of the Cambridge school from southern New England seemed in those days considerable; and a separate educational establishment was also called for by a divergent development in politics and theology. Yale was founded by ministers selected by the churches of the colony, as President Thomas Clap said, to the end that they might "educate ministers in our own way." Though "College land was set apart in 1647, Yale College had its actual beginning in 1700 when a few clergymen met in the New Haven house with the purpose to "stand as trustees or undertakers to found, erect and govern the College" for which in a great number of times donations of books and money had been made. The formal establishment was in 1701.

The Connecticut legislature in October granted a charter which seems to have been partlydrafted by Judge Samuel Sewall of Boston; the Mather family also were among those in Boston who welcomed and laboured for the establishment of a seminary of a stricter theology than Harvard, and the ten clergy men who were the founders and first trustees of the College were graduates of Oxford.

The legislature, fearful of provoking attention to the new school or to the powers used in chartering it, assumed merely to license a "collegiate school," and made its powers of conferring degrees as unobtrusive as possible. In 1702 the teaching of Yale began. In the early years the upper students studied where the rector lived, and considerable groups of the lower students were drawn off by their tutors to different towns. In 1716 the trustees purchased a lot in New Haven, and in the next year the college was established there by an Act of Trade. Control of the college was held at New Haven in the same year, but the last of the several student bodies did not disband until 1710. The school did not gain a name until the completion of the first building in 1718. This had been made possible by a gift from Elihu Yale (1640-1721), a native of Boston and son of one of the original settlers of New Haven; he had amassed great wealth in India, where he was governor of the East India Company's settlement at Madras. The trustees accordingly named it Yale College in his honour.

The charter of 1701 stated that the end of the school was the instruction of youth "in the arts and sciences," that they might be fitted "for public employs, both in church and civil state." To the clergy, however, who controlled the College, theology was the basis, security and test of "arts and sciences." In 1722 the rector, Timothy Cutler, was dismissed because of a leaning toward Episcopacy. Various special tests were employed to preserve the doctrinal purity of Calvinism among the instructors; that of the students was carefully looked after. In 1753 a stringent test was fixed by the Corporation to ensure the orthodoxy of the teachers. This was abolished in 1778. From 1808 to 1818 the President and tutors were obliged to sign an oath to a general formular of ortho dox belief. When George Whitefield, in 1749, initiated by his preaching the "Great Awakening," a local schism resulted in Connecticut between "Old Lights" and "New Lights." When the College set up an independent church the Old Lights made the contention that the College did not owe its foundation to the original trustees, but to the first charter granted by the legislature, which might therefore control the College. This claim President Clap triumphantly controverted (1753), but Yale fell in consequence under popular distrust, and her growth was delayed by the shutting off of financial aid from the legislature.

By the first charter (1701) the trustees of the College were required to be ministers (for a long term, practically.

1 In 1668 the Hopkins Grammar School, next after the Boston Latin School the oldest educational institution of this grade in the United States, was established in New Haven.

2 This number was increased to eleven, the full number allowed by the charter, within a month after it was granted.
YALE UNIVERSITY

Congregationalists) residing in the colony. By a supplementary act of 1723 the rector was made ex-officio a trustee. By a second charter (1745) ample powers were conferred upon the president (rector) and fellows, constituting together a governing board or Corporation. This charter is still in force. In 1792 the governor and lieutenant-governor of the state, and six state senators, were made ex-officio members of the Corporation. In 1872 the six senators were replaced by six graduates, chosen by the alumni body. The clerical element still constitutes one half of the Corporation. In the first half of the 19th century, under the leadership of Nathaniel W. Taylor (q.v.), the Divinity School of Yale became nationally prominent for "Taylorism" or "New Haven Theology." Daily attendance at prayers is still required of all college students.

The first college professorship established was that of divinity (1753), which, in a sense, was the beginning of extra-collegiate or university work. The theological department was not organized as a distinct school until 1822. In 1770 a second professorship was established, of mathematics and natural philosophy. Timothy Dwight (president, 1795-1817) planned the establishment of professional schools; his term saw the foundation of the Medical School (1813) besides the Divinity School. In 1803 a chair was created for Benjamin Silliman, Sr. (1779-1864) in chemistry and natural history; English grammar and geography did not disappear from the curriculum until 1830, nor arithmetic, which was abolished in 1825, and modern languages (French) in the same year. Not until 1847 did modern history receive separate recognition. The Library had been given the status of an independent department in 1843. Compulsory courses were abolished in 1842, thus removing one feature of a private boarding school. Corporal punishment ("cutting" of the offender's ears by the President) had disappeared before the War of Independence; and so also had the custom of printing the students' names according to their social rank, and using a "degradation" in precedency of punishment; while Dwight abolished the ancient custom of fagging, and the undemocratic system of fines that enabled a rich student to live as he pleased at the expense only of his pocket. The School of Law was established in 1845. Instruction to graduates in non-professional courses seems to have begun in 1826. The appointment of Edward E. Salisbury to the chair of Arabic and Sanskrit (1841) was the first provision at Yale for the instruction of graduates by professors independent of the College. About the same time graduate instruction in chemistry became important. (In 1816 also a chair of agricultural chemistry was established, apparently the first in the country.) In 1846 an extra-College department of Philosophy and Arts was created, conferring degrees since 1833; and from this were separated in 1854 the sciences, which were entrusted to a separate Scientific School, the original promoter of agricultural experiment stations in the United States. Since that time this school and the College have developed much as complementary and co-ordinate schools of undergraduates, Yale affording in this respect a very marked contrast with Harvard. Graduate instruction was concentrated in 1871 into a single Graduate School. This with the three traditional professional schools—the Art School, established in 1856 (instruction since 1860), and the first university art school of the country, the Music School, established in 1864 (instruction since 1860), and the Forest School, established in 1900—make up the University, around the College. For the founding of the Peabody Museum of Natural History, George Peabody, of London, contributed $150,000 in 1866. The Observatory, devoted exclusively to research, was established in 1877. In 1887 the name Yale University "was adopted. The organic unity of the whole was then recognized by throwing open to students of any department the advantages of all. In 1886, for the first time, a president was chosen who was not of the College faculty, but from the University faculty.

Great as were the changes in the metamorphosis of old Yale, none had more influence upon its real and inner life than the gradual extension of the freedom accorded the students in the selection of their studies. In 1854 there was no election permissible until late in the Junior year. In 1876, 1884 and 1893 such freedom was greatly extended. In 1892 the work of the Graduate School was formally opened to women (some professors having admitted them for years past by special consent). Yale was the first college in New England to take this step.

The buildings number sixty-four in all. Connecticut Hall (1790-92), long known as South Middle College, a plain brick building, is the only one of the early style (restored, 1905). Among the fourteen buildings forming the College campus on the W. side of the New Haven Green, between Elm and Chapel Streets. The oldest are the Old Library (1824) and the three towered Old Hall (1816), Osborn Hall (1855), and Dixwell Hall (1869). Durfee Hall (1870), Lawrence Hall (1865), Battell Chapel (1876), Osborn Hall (1889), Vanderbilt Hall (1894), Chittenden Hall (1888) and Linsly Hall (1908). Dwight Hall, erected from funds left for the Yale endowment (1892) and Phelps Hall complete the quadrangle. Across from the W. side of the quadrangle is the Peabody Museum (1876). On the N. side of Elm Street is a row of buildings, including the Gymnasium (1892), the Divinity School (1870) and the Law School (1897). University Avenue leads N. from the College campus to the University court or campus, on which are the Bicentennial Hall (1876), Branford Hall (1851-2), which are the buildings of the Sheffield Scientific School. Farther N. are the Observatory, Hammond Metallurgical Laboratory, Forestry Building and Infirmary, and to the S.W. are the College campus and the Medical School.

The University is organized in four departments—Philosophy and the Arts, Theology, Medicine, and Law—each with a distinct president and faculty of its own. In 1812-1884, the Sheffield Scientific School, named in honour of John Earle Sheffield (1793-1852), a generous benefactor,—the School of the Fine Arts, the Department of Music, the Graduate School and the Forest School, founded in 1900 by a gift of $150,000 from J. W. Pinchot and his wife. Other institutions organized independently of any one department are: the Library, the Peabody Museum of Natural History, the Botanical Garden, established in 1800 on the estate of Professor O. C. Marsh. The special treasures of the Library include the classical library of Ernst Curtius; the collection of Oriental books in the Davenport Library; the distinguished Pictet and Chinese library of Samuel Wells Williams (1812-1884); a Japanese collection of above 3000 volumes; the Scandinavian library of Count Rintz; the collection of Arabic manuscripts made by Count Launoy; the political science collection of Robert von Mohl; a copy of Newton's Principia presented to the College by the author; manuscripts of Jonathan Edwards; and large parts of the great collection of nearly 100000 volumes in the United States towards the introduction of the fine arts into a university. The equipment of the Observatory consists principally of a six-inch heliometer by Repsold, an eight-inch equatorial by Grubb, and two sets of equatorially mounted cameras for photographing meteors. In the College and the Medical School four years are required to complete the course of instruction; in the Divinity School and the Forest School, two years; and in the Scientific School there are both three-year and five-year courses, five years being required for all engineering degrees. Additional courses are given in the College of Liberal Arts and Science in Latin, Greek or substitutes for Greek, French or German, English, mathematics and ancient history. Admission to the Scientific School is also by examination. Substantially the present system of degrees was adopted in the Divinity School, but the Medical School and the Law School require only two years of college work, and a student may obtain a degree from Yale College and a degree in divinity, medicine or law in six years. The Forest School, with an extensive equipment at New Haven and a Forest Experiment Station comprising about
200 acres of forest and open land at Milford, Pike county, Pennsylvania—the estate of J. W. Pinchot—is open only to such graduates of colleges and scientific schools as have had a suitable scientific training. It confers the degree of Master of Forestry.

In the College the individual courses are arranged in twenty-six groups within three divisions, and each student must complete these courses, with some additions and substitutions, in one of the three divisions and one minor in each of the other two divisions. In the Freshman and Sophomore years the student's freedom of election is further restricted. In the Scientific School there is a somewhat greater freedom of choice. College courses on the degree of Bachelor of Arts, but the Scientific School confers the degrees of Bachelor of Philosophy, Master of Science (requiring a course in engineering), and the recent engineering degrees. In the Divinity School the student has the choice of three courses—the historical, the philosophical and the practical—or, by the use of electives, he may combine the three; the study of Hebrew is required only in the historical course. In the Law School there is one course for candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Laws and another for candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Civil Law, the latter requiring the study of Roman law and allowing the substitution of certain studies in political science for some of the law subjects. The Graduate School confers the degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy; the School of Music, of the Bachelor of Music and the School of Fine Arts, which is open to both sexes, the degree of Bachelor of the Fine Arts.

In 1910 the body of officers and instructors in all departments numbered 496, and the students 3312.

As a rule the work of the departments there are several lecture courses open to all students of the University. Among them are: the Dodge Lectures on the Responsibilities of Citizenship; the Lee Lectures on Journalism; Literature and Public Affairs (1900); the Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching (1871); the Silliman Memorial Lectures (1884) on subjects connected with "the natural and moral world"; the Stanley Woodward Lectures (1897) by distinguished foreign lecturers; the Harvard Lectures (1905) by members of the faculty of Harvard University; the Sheffield Lectures on scientific subjects; and the Medical Alumni Lectures.

The principal publications with which the University is more or less closely associated are: The Yale Review, a Quarterly Journal for the Scientific Discussion of Economic, Political and Social Questions; Sources in Political Science and History; the Yale Law Journal, edited by a board of students; the Yale Medical Journal, edited by members of the Medical Faculty with the assistance of a board of students; the Yale Alumni Weekly; and the Yale News, a daily paper managed by the students. The Yale Bicentennial Publications contain reprints of Research Papers from the Kent Chemical Laboratory, Studies in Physiological Chemistry and Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrography. Numerous other publications of the Yale University Press are issued only with the approval of the University.

In addition to several million dollars invested in lands and buildings at the end of 1909 productive funds amounting to $16,561,830 (in 1886, $2,111,000). The income from all sources for the year 1908-9, exclusive of benefactions ($1,659,515), was $1,230,238. Up to 1908 more than three-fourths of the buildings had been erected as private gifts; the rest were built with College funds, or from legislative grants.

Yale shares with its fellow colleges founded in colonial days the advantages of old traditions and social prestige. In particular it shared these with Harvard so long as New England retained its literary and intellectual dominance over the rest of the country. But the spirit of the two institutions has always been very different. Harvard has on the whole been radical and progressive; Yale conservative. Yale could not draw, like Harvard, on the leaders of the New England schools of letters and philosophy to fill her professorial chairs. Her "comparative poverty, the strength of college feelings and traditions" (President Hadley) united with the lesser stimulus of her intellectual environment to delay her development. Harvard's transformation into a modern university was more spontaneous and rapid; Yale remained much longer under the dominance of collegiate traditions. But, according to Dr Charles F. Thwing (The American College in American Life, New York, 1897), of the men filling "the highest political and judicial offices," and coming from American colleges founded before 1770, Yale had helped (up to 1897) to train the largest number. On the roll of her alumni are such names as Philip Livingston, Eli Whitney, John C. Calhoun, James Kent, Samuel F. B. Morse, Chief-Justice Morrison R. Waite and President Taft.

The Presidents have been as follows: in 1701-1707, Abraham Pierson (1645-1707); pro tem. 1707-1719, Samuel Andrew (1656-1737); in 1719-1722, Timothy Cutler (1684-1765); in 1722-1726, office filled by the College trustees in rotation; in 1726-1739, Elisha Williams (1694-1752); in 1739-1766, Thomas Clap (1703-1767); pro tem. 1766-1777, Naughton Daggett (1787-1780); in 1777-1795, Ezra Stiles (1727-1795); in 1795-1817, Timothy Dwight (1752-1817); in 1817-1846, Jeremiah Day (1773-1867); in 1846-1871, Theodore Dwight Woolsey (1801-1880); in 1871-1886, Noah Porter (1811-1892); in 1886-1899, Timothy Dwight (b. 1828), and Arthur Twining Hadley (1846).

The Annals of the University (1773-1871), the Yale Alumni Weekly (1866), and The Yale Review (1884) provide the most direct evidence for the history of the University during the latter part of the 19th century. The Yale University Library contains a complete set of the latter publication, and several of the former.

YAM, a term usually applied to the tubers of various species of Dioscorea. These are plants with thick tubers (generally a development of the base of the stem), from which proilude long, slender, annual climbing stems, bearing alternate or opposite, entire or lobed leaves and unisexual flowers in long clusters. The flowers are generally small and individually inconspicuous, though collectively showy. Each consists of a greenish bell-shaped or flat perianth of six pieces, enclosing six or fewer stamens in the male flowers, and surmounting a three-celled, three-winged ovary in the female flowers. The ovary ripens into a membranous capsule, bursting by three valves to liberate numerous flattish or globose seeds. The species are natives of the warmer regions of both hemispheres. According to Professor Church's analysis of the Chinese yam, it contains more nitrogenous matter, but less starch, than potatoes: in 100 parts there are of water 85-6, starch 13-1, protein 2-4, fat 0-2, woody fibre c-4 and mineral matter 1-3 parts.

D. sativa and D. alata are the species most widely diffused in tropical and subtropical countries. D. acuta, grown in India, China and the South Sea Islands, is one of the best varieties. D. Batatas, the Chinese yam, is hardly in Great Britain, but the great size to which its enormous tubers desexed renders its cultivation unprofitable. It has deep penetrating, thick, club-shaped, fleshy roots, full of starch, which when cooked acquire a mild taste like that of a potato; they grow 3 ft. or upwards in length, and sometimes

YAM (Dioscorea Batatas). Branch about 1/2 nat. size. Root much reduced.
YAMA—YANG-CHOW FU

weigh more than 11 lb. The plant grows freely in deep sandy soil, moderately enriched. The sets, consisting of pieces of the roots, may be planted in March or April, and require no other culture than the staking of the climbing stems. They should not be dug up before November, the chief increase in their size taking place in autumn. They sometimes strike downwards 2 or 3 ft. into the soil, and must be carefully dug out, the upper slender part being reserved for propagation, and the lower flesh eaten after having been allowed a few days to dry. The tubers of D. alata sometimes weigh 100 lb. Most of the yams contain an acrid principle, which is dissipated in cooking.

The only European Dioscorea is that known as D. pyrenaica, a native of the Pyrenees, a remarkable instance of a species growing at a long distance from all its congeners. True yams must not be confounded with the sweet potato, Ipomoea Batatas, as they sometimes rank market crops. (Tamus communis) of hedges in England is closely allied to the yams of the tropics, and has a similar root-stock, which is reputed to be poisonous.

For the history of the yam, and its cultivation and uses in India, see G. Watt, Dictionary of the Economic Products of India, iii. (1890).

YAMA (Sanskrit “twin,” in allusion to his being twin with his sister Yami, traditionally the first human pair), in Hindu mythology, judge of men and king of the unseen world. He was the first mortal to die, and having discovered the way to the other side of the world of the dead. Three hymns in the Rig Veda are addressed to him.

YAMAGATA, ARITOMO, PRINCE (1838— ), Japanese field-marshal, was born in Choshu. He began life as an ordinary samurai and rose steadily in reputation and rank, being created a count in 1884, a marquis in 1895 (after the war with China) and a prince in 1907 (after the war with Russia). He twice held the post of premier, and was the leader of Japanese conservatism, being a staunch opponent of party cabinets.

YAMBOLI, a town of Bulgaria, on the river Tunja, 49 m. W. of Burgas by rail. Pop. (1900) 15,708. It has a large agricultural trade, being situated in the centre of one of the chief corn districts. In the town are the remains of old fortifications, and the ruins of a fine mosque. The bazistan, or old market-house, is entire, but is now used as a military magazine. An ancient Macedonian town lay some 4 m. N., but Yamboli is first mentioned in the 11th century, when it was known by the Byzantines as Dampilis or Hyampilis.

YAMETHIN, a town and district in the Meiktila division of Upper Burma. The town has a station on the railway 725 m. N. of Rangoon. Pop. (1901) 86,856. The town is the capital of the Meiktila district, being situated on the Irrawaddy between the Shan States and the Meiktila, Magwe and Toungoo districts. Area, 4258 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 243,107, showing an increase of 18% in the decade. The staple crop is rice, which is irrigated from tanks and canals. Millets and oil-seeds are grown in the N., where drought has more than once caused distress. There are special industries of inlaid metal-work and ornamental pottery. Besides the chief town, Pyinmana and Pyawbwé, both also on the railway, carry on an active trade with the Shan States.

YANAON, or YANAM, a French settlement in India, near the mouth of the river Godavari, within the Godavari district of Madras. It is situated in 16° 44' N. and 82° 13' E.; area, 5 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 5005. Yanaon was founded about 1750, and followed the vicissitudes of French history in S. India. It was finally restored to the French by the treaty of 1815.

YANCEY, WILLIAM LOWNDES (1814-1863), American political leader, son of Benjamin Cudworth Yancey, an able lawyer of South Carolina, of Welsh descent, was born near the Falls of the Ogeechee, Warren county, Georgia, on the 10th of August 1814. His father died in 1819, and the infant was removed to Troy, New York. Yancey attended Williams College for one year, studied law at Greensville, South Carolina, and was admitted to the bar. As editor of the Greenville (South Carolina) Mountaineer (1834-35), he ardently opposed nullification. In 1835 he married a wealthy woman, and in the winter of 1836-1837 removed to her plantation in Alabama, near Cahaba (Dallas county), and edited weekly papers there and in Wetumpka (Elmore county), his summer home. The accidental poisoning of his slaves in 1839 forced him to devote himself entirely to law and journalism; he was now an impassioned advocate of State’s Rights and supported Van Buren in the presidential campaign of 1840. He was elected in 1841 to the state House of Representatives, in which he served for one year; became state senator in 1843, and in 1844 was elected to the national House of Representatives to fill a vacancy, being re-elected in 1845. In Congress his ability and his unusual oratorical gifts at once gained recognition. In 1846, however, he resigned his seat, partly on account of poverty, and partly because of his disgust with the Northern Democrats, whom he accused of sacrificing their principles to their economic interests. His entire energy was now devoted to anti-slavery legislation.

In 1846 he secured the adoption by the state Democratic convention of the so-called “Alabama Platform,” which was endorsed by the legislatures of Alabama and Georgia and by Democratic state conventions in Florida and Virginia, declaring that it was the duty of Congress not only to allow slavery in all the territories but to protect it, that a territorial legislature could not exclude it, and that the Democratic party should not support for president or vice-president a candidate “not ... openly and unequivocally opposed to either the nullifying or excluding slavery from the territories in which the United States have jurisdiction.”

When the conservative majority in the national Democratic convention in Baltimore refused to incorporate his ideas into the platform, Yancey with one colleague left the convention and wrote an Address to the People of Alabama, defending his course and denouncing the cowardice of his associates. Naturally, he opposed the Compromise of 1850, and went so far as openly to advocate secession; but the conservative element was in control of the state. Disappointment of the South with the results of “Squatter Sovereignty” caused a reaction in his favour, and in 1858 he wrote a letter advocating the appointment of committees of safety, the formation of a League of United Southerners, and the repeal of the laws making the African slave-trade piracy. After twelve years’ absence from the national conventions of the Democratic party, he attended the Charleston convention in April 1860, and again demanded the adoption of his ideas. Defeated by a small majority, he again left the hall, followed this time by the delegates of Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, South Carolina, Florida, Texas, and two of the three delegates from Delaware. On the next day the Georgia delegation and a large number of the Mississippi delegation withdrew. In the Republican convention the seceders advocated the nomination of John C. Breckinridge, and he made a tour of the country on his behalf. In Alabama he was the guiding spirit in the secession convention and delivered the address of welcome to Jefferson Davis on his arrival at Montgomery. He refused a place in President Davis’s cabinet.

On the 31st of March 1861 he sailed for Europe as the head of a commission sent to secure recognition of the Confederate government, but returned in 1862 to take a seat in the Confederate Senate, in which he advocated a more vigorous prosecution of the war. On account of his failing health, he left Richmond early in 1863, and on the 27th of July died at his home near Montgomery.


YANG-CHOW FU, a prefectural city in the province of Kiangsu, China, forming the two distinct cities of Kiang-tu and Kan-ch’uan, on the Grand Canal, in 32° 23’ N., 119° 15’ E. Pop. about 100,000. The walls are beautifully adorned with gates, and the streets are well supplied with shops, and there are handsome temples, colleges, and other public buildings. There was a serious religious outbreak in 1868, when Hudson Taylor, the founder of the China Inland Mission, opened a station here; but Yang-chow is now one of the centres of the Protestant mission.

It is probable that Yancey was approached with the offer of the vice-presidential nomination on the Douglas ticket by George N. Sanders. There was a movement to nominate him on the ticket with Breckinridge also.
missions in the province. Yang-chow Fu possesses an early historical connexion with foreigners, for Marco Polo ruled over it for three years by appointment from Kublai Khan (1282–85).

**Yangtse-Kiang**, a great river of China, and the principal commercial watercourse of the country. It is formed by the junction of a series of small streams draining the E. slopes of the Tibetan plateau, and for the first third of its course flows almost parallel with the Mekong and the Salween, each however, separated from the other by intervening ridges of great height. The total length of the Yangtse is calculated to be not less than 3,000 m. Although the term Yangtse is applied by Europeans to the whole course of the river, in China it indicates only the last three or four hundred miles, where its course through a division of the empire which in ancient times was known as "Yang," the name which also survives in the city of Yang-Chow in the province of Kiang-su. The ordinary official name for the whole river is Ch'ang Kiang (pronounced in the north, Chih-ch'ang) or Ta Chiang, meaning the "long river" or the "great river." Popularly in the upper miles, every village is called Ich'ang, its elevation from Tibet into China is known as the Kinsha Kiang or river of Golden Sand, and farther down as the Pai-chi Kiang. In Szech'uen, after its junction with the large tributary known as the Min, it is for some distance called the Min-kiang, the people being of opinion that the Min branch is in fact the main river. The fall in the upper reaches is very rapid. At the junction of the two main affluents in Upper Tibet, where the river is already a formidable torrent barely fordable at low water, the altitude is estimated at 13,000 ft. From Patang (8,540 ft.) to Wa-Wu in Szech'uen, a distance of 150 m., the fall is about 8 ft. per mile, thence to Hwang-kwo-shu (1200 ft.) about 6 ft. per mile, and farther down to Pingshan (1035 ft.) the fall is about 3 ft. per mile. At Pingshan, in the province of Szech'uen, the river first becomes navigable, and the fall decreases to about 6 in. per mile down to Chungking (630 ft.). From Chungking through the gorges to Ich'ang (130 ft.), a distance of nearly 400 m., the fall again increases to about 14 in. per mile; but from Ich'ang down to the sea, a distance of 1000 m., the fall is exceedingly small, being as far as Hankow at the rate of 25 in., and from Hankow to the mouth at the rate of little more than 1 in. per mile. The last 200 m. are practically a dead river; nor at low-water season there is a rise of tide enough to swing ships far as up as Wuhu, 200 m. from the mouth.

The principal tributaries, counting from the sea upstream, are: (1) the outlet from Poyang lake, draining the province of Kiang-si; (2) the Han river, entering on the left bank at Hankow; (3) the outlet from Tungting lake on the right bank, draining the province of Kiang-nan; (4) the Yangtse Kiang, the To Kiang and the Min, all entering on the left bank; and (5) the Ylang, draining a vast area on the borderland between Szech'uen and Kiang-si. The Yangtse has an average annual fall of 650 feet, which more than four-fifths lie above Hankow. The period of low water is from December to March. The melting of the snows on the Tibetan highlands combined with the summer rainfall causes an annual rise in the river of from 7 to 9 ft. at Chungking and from 40 to 50 at Hankow and Kiukiang. The mean volume of water discharged into the sea is estimated at 770,000 cub. ft. per second. The quantity of sediment carried in solution and deposited at the mouth is similarly estimated at 642,800 million cub. ft. per annum, representing a superfluous denudation of the whole drainage area at the rate of one foot in 3717 years. (See Journal of the China Branch of the Royal Geographical Society, vol. xliii., p. 837.)

The Yangtse-Kiang forms a highway of first-class importance. As the rise in the river is only about 130 ft. for the first 1000 m., it resembles a huge canal expressly formed for steam navigation. Every post town along the river has a large and well-kept wharf. The packet service from Lientchun to Hankow, which is daily, is conducted by trains of steamers with a speed of 1000 m. per hour, and the journey in 66 hours is made by the new Iron Steamboat Company. Beyond Hankow and Ich'ang, especially above the outlet from Tungting lake, the volume of water diminishes very rapidly, and the changes in the naturals shift so suddenly that navigation is more difficult. Above Ich'ang, where the river flows between rocky gorges, and where a series of rapids are encountered, navigation is still more difficult. But taking the river from the source to its mouth, and with its main tributaries and canals and lakes, it forms a highway of communication unrivalled in any country in the world. About half the sea-borne commerce of all China is further distributed by means of the Yangtse and its tributaries. As far as the interchange of native produce between the provinces, which is carried by native sailing craft numbered by thousands.

The Yangtse valley as a political term indicates the sphere of influence or development which by international agreement was assigned to Great Britain. This was first acquired in a somewhat indefinite manner by the British government in 1858, when by the convention which they did in 1898, not to alienate any part of the Yangtse valley to any other power. A more formal recognition of the British claim was embodied in the agreement between the British and Chinese governments of 1899, by which the British government reserved the railway interests in China, Russia agreeing not to interfere with British projects in the basin of the Yangtse, and Great Britain agreeing not to interfere with Russian projects north of the Yangtse (Kuban river). The convention of 1899 was extended in 1902 to a treaty intended to comprise all the provinces bordering on the Yangtse river, together with the provinces of Ho-nan and Chekiang. This agreement was a confirmation of a previous understanding with the Chinese which had been generally acknowledged. The object of the negotiations was to guard against conflict of railway interests; in all other respects the policy known as that of the "open door," was advocated by Great Britain, and Great Britain alone, as the chief commercial states. This policy was more fully declared by mutual engagements entered into in 1900 by the Great Powers on the initiative of the United States, whereby each undertook to guarantee equality of treatment to the commerce of all nations within its own sphere. As to railway enterprise, an agreement of 1910 admitted French, German and American financial interests equally with those of great Britain in the projected line from Hankow to Sze-ch'uen. (G. J.)

**YANKEE**, the slang or colloquial name given to a citizen of the New England states in America, and less correctly applied, in familiar European usage, to any citizen of the United States. It was used by the British soldiers of their opponents during the War of Independence, and during the Civil War by the Confederates of the Federal troops and by the South of the North generally. The origin of the name has given rise to much speculation. In Dr William Gordon's History of the American War (ed. 1765, i., 346, it said to have been a" Yankee word at Cambridge, Mass., as early as 1713, when it was used to express excellency, and he quotes such expressions as a Yankee good horse." Webster gives the earliest recorded use of its accepted meaning, from Oppression, a Poem by an American (Boston, 1765), "From meanness first this Portsmouth Yankee rose," and states that it is considered to represent the Indian pronunciation of "English" or Anglais, and was applied by the Massachusetts Indians to the English colonists. On the other hand, the Scots 'Yankie,' sharp or clever, would seem more probable as the origin of the sense represented in the Cambridge expression. Other suggestions give a Dutch origin to the name. Thus it may be a corruption of 'Jankin,' diminutive of 'Jan,' John, and applied as a nickname to the English of Connecticut by the Dutch of New York. Skeat (Elym. Dict. 1660) quotes a Dutch captain's name, Yanky, from Dampier's Voyages (ed. 1699, i., 38), and accepts the theory that 'Yankee was formed from Jan, John, and Kees, a familiar diminutive of Cornelius (H. Logeman, Notes and Queries, 10 series, iv. 59, v. 15.)

**YANKTON**, a city and the county-seat of Yankton county, South Dakota, U.S.A., on the left bank of the Missouri river, about 60 m. N.W. of Sioux City, Iowa. Pop. (1900) 4125 (890 foreign-born); (1910) 3578. It is served by the Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul, the Great Northern, and the Chicago & North-Western railways. The Missouri is navigable at this point, and the city has a considerable river traffic. Yankton is the seat of Yankton College (founded by Congregationalists in 1884, opened in 1882; now non-sectarian). The city is built on a nearly level plateau, averaging about 1500 ft. above the sea-level. It is in a rich grain-growing and stock-raising district, has grain-elevators, and manufactures flour, beer and cement. A large water-power supply in 1899 for the delimitation of their respective permanent settlement, a trading post, was made here in 1828, when a treaty was concluded with the Yankton Indians. This was the first settlement made in the Missouri Valley in Dakota. Yankton was laid out in 1859, first chartered as a city in 1860, rechartered in 1873, and in 1910 adopted a commission form of government. In 1861-82 Yankton was the capital of the Territory of Dakota. The name is a corruption of the Sioux name Thanktounen, meaning "end village."
the Rovuma river, and the north of Portuguese East Africa. They are an enterprising and intelligent race, and have spread into British territory south of Lake Nyasa and throughout the Shiré districts. They are the tallest and strongest of the natives in the Mozambique country, have negroid features and faces which are noticeable for their roundness, and, for Africans, have light skins. They have long been popular among Europeans as carriers and servants. They earned, however, a bad name as slave-traders, and gave much trouble to the British authorities in Nyasaland until 1896, when they were reduced to submission. They do not tattoo except for tribal marks on their foreheads. The women wear disks of ivory or burnished lead in the sides of their nostrils, and some, probably of Anyanja origin, disfigure the lip with the polce or lip-ring. The Yao have elaborate ceremonies of initiation for the youth of both sexes. They bury their dead in a contracted position, the grave being roofed with logs and earth sprinkled over; in the case of a rich man, some of his property is buried with him and the rest is inherited by his eldest sister’s

See A. Werner, The Nations of British Central Africa (1896); Sir H. H. Johnston, British Central Africa (1897); H. L. Duff, Nyasaland under the Foreign Office (1903). For the Yao language see L. Eugacz, Yaqub, Yaqubi.

Yaqubi [Abu M. ibn abl Ya’qub ibn Ja’far ibn Wabih ibn Wa’dib] (9th century), Arab historian and geographer, was a great-grandson of Wa’dib, the freedman of the caliph Mansur. Until 873 he lived in Armenia and Khorasan; then he travelled in India, Egypt, and the Maghrib, where he died in 891. His history is divided into two parts. In the first he gives a comprehensive account of the pre-Mahomedan and non-Mahomedan peoples, especially of their religion and literature. For the time of the patriarchs his source is now seen to be the Syriac work published by C. Bezold as Die Schatzkiihle. In his account of India he is the first to give an account of the stories of Kallla and the Timurids and of Sindbad (Sinbad). When treating of Greece he gives many extracts from the philosophers (cf. M. Klamroth in the Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenlandischen Gesellschaft, vol. xII. and xiI.). The second part contains Mahomedan history up to 872, and is neither extreme nor unfair, although he inherited Shi’ite leanings from his great-grandfather. The work is characterized by its detailed account of some provinces, such as Armenia and Khorasan, by its astronomical details and its quotations from religious authorities rather than poets.


Yaqut, or Yakut (Yaqut ibn ‘Abdallah ur-Rumî) (1179-1229), Arab geographer and biographer, was born in Greece of Greek parentage, but in his boyhood became the slave of a merchant of Hamah (Hamath), who trained him for commercial travelling and sent him two or three times to Kish in the Persian Gulf (on his journeys, cf. F. Wüstenfeld, “Jucut’s Reisen in the Zeitschr. d. deutsch. morg. Gesellschaft, vol. xvIII. pp. 397-403). In 1194 he quarrelled with his master and had to support himself by copying; he took advantage of the opportunity of studying under the grammarian al-Ukbari. After five years he returned to his old master and again travelled for him to Kish, but on his return found his master dead, and set up for himself as a bookseller and began to write. During the next ten years he travelled in Persia, Syria, Egypt and visited Merv, Balkh, Mosul and Ararat. About 1222 he settled in Mosul and worked on his geography, the first draft of which was ready in 1224. After a journey to Alexandria in 1227 he went to Aleppo, where he died in 1229. In his large geography, the Mu’jam al-Buldân (ed. F. Wüstenfeld, 6 vols., Leipzig, 1866–73), the places mentioned in the literature or the stories of the Arabs are given in alphabetical order, with the correct vocalization of the names, an indication whether they are Arabic or foreign and their locality. Their history is often sketched with a special account of their conquest by the Moelins and the name of the governor at the time is recorded. Attention is also given to the monuments they contain and the celebrities who were born in them or had lived there. In this way a quantity of old literature, both prose and poetry, is preserved by Yaqut.

The parts of this work relating to Persia have been extracted and translated by Barthier de Meynard under the title Dictionnaire persico-français (1771; 1810), or under the title Mirzad (ed. T. C. J. Juyvibell, Leiden, 1850-1864). Yaqut also wrote a dictionary of geographical homonyms, the Muṣḥarik (ed. F. Wüstenfeld, Gottingen, 1846). Besides all this activity in geography Yaqut gave his attention to biography, and wrote an important dictionary of learned men, the Mu’am-ul-Udab. Part of this work exist in MS. in different libraries; vol. i. has been edited by D. S. Margoliouth, Irshad al-Arib il a Manfarat al Adib (London, 1903).

Yarkand (Chinese name Sochë Fu), the chief town of the principal oasis of Chinese Turkestan, on the Yarkand-Darya, in 38° 25' N., 77° 16' E., and 3000 ft. above sea-level. The settlements of the Yarkand oasis occupy the S.W. corner of E. Turkestan, and are scattered along the numerous rivers which issue from the steep slopes of the Pamir in the W., and the Kara-koram and Kun-Lun Mountains in the S. The oasis of Kashgar limits it in the N., and a tract of desert separates it from the oasis of Khotan in the S.E. The Yarkand-Darya and its numerous tributaries, which are fed by the glaciers of the mountain region, also make it a steppe amidst the irrigated fields, bring abundance of water to the desert; one of them is called Zarafshan (“gold-strewing”); as much on account of the fertility it brings as of its auriferous sands. Numberless irrigation canals carry the water to the fields, which occupy a broad zone of loess skirting the base of the mountains. In the spurs of the mountains there are rich pasturages, where goats, yaks, camels, sheep and cattle are reared. The oasis of Yarkand is regarded as the richest of E. Turkestan, and its popula tion is probably numbers about 200,000 inhabitants. Wheat, barley, rice, beans and various oil-yielding plants are grown, and melons, grapes, apples and other fruits. The cotton tree and the mulberry are cultivated in the warmer parts of the oasis. Gold, lead and precious stones are found in the mountains, though only the first-named is worked. Yarkand is renowned for its leather-ware and saddlery. Carpets and silk fabrics, cotton and woolen goods are manufactured. The population consists of Persians, who now speak Turkish, and of Turkish Sarts.

The town of Yarkand, which has a population of about 100,000 (5000 houses in the city, and as many in Yangishahr and the surrounding territory) has been situated in the last 2000 years within the old three days' journey S.E. from Kashgar. It is surrounded by a thick earthen wall, nearly 4 m. long, with towers in the Chinese style of architecture, and is well watered by canals. The square fortress of Yangishahr, which was built by the Chinese, stands within 400 yds. of the walls of the town. This is one of the three strong places in Chinese Turkestan. The ten mosques and madrasas of Yarkand, although poorer than those of Bokhara or Samarkand, enjoy wide renown in the Moslem world. There is a brisk trade, especially in horses, cotton, leather-ware and all kinds of imported manufactures.

Yarkand is surrounded by a number of smaller towns, the chief of which are—Yanghi-hissar, which has about 600 houses, Tashkurgan on the Pamirs, Posgam (1600 houses), Kargalyk, at the junction of the routes leading to Ludakh and Khotan (2000 houses), Sanju (3000), Tagarchi, Kartchum, Besh-taryk (1800) and Guma (3000).

Yarkand was very imperfectly known until the second half of the 19th century. Marco Polo visited it between 1271 and 1275, and Cosmo in 1603; but the continuous wars which threatened prevented Europeans from frequenting it, so that until 1863 the information borrowed from medieval travellers and from Chinese sources, with that supplied by the purlit Mir Isset Ulah in 1812, was all that was known about the Yarkand region. The first European who reached it in the 19th century was Adolph Schlagint- weit, who passed by Yarkand in August 1857, but was killed a few days later at Kashgar. The purlit Mohammed Hamid visited it
YARMOUTH, a seaport town and port of entry, Yarmouth county, North Shore, Canada, on the Dominion & Atlantic railway, 218 m. from Halifax. Pop. (1901) 6300. Steamers run daily to Boston (Mass.), and weekly to St John (N.B.) and Halifax. It contains the county buildings, and has good schools and small local manufactories. Fish and lumber are exported in large quantities.

YARMOUTH (Great Yarmouth), a municipal, county and parliamentary borough, watering-place, and seaport of Norfolk, England (with a small portion in Suffolk), 121 m. N.E. from London by the Great Eastern railway, served also by the Midland & Great Northern joint line. Pop. (1901) 51,556. It lies on the north bank of the North Sea and the Breydon Water (formed by the rivers Yare and Waveney) and the river Bure. The neighbouring country is very flat, but the Bure affords access to the Norfolk Broads, which give the district its well-known individuality. The old town of Great Yarmouth was built chiefly along the E. bank of the Yare, but the modern town has extended beyond its ancient walls, of which some remains exist, to the seashore, where there are a marine drive and three piers. On the landward or Suffolk side of the estuary is the suburb of Southtown, and farther S. that of Gorleston. The principal features of Yarmouth are the N. and S. quays, and the straight narrow lanes called "rows," 145 in number, running at right angles to them. These rows were at one time inhabited by the wealthy burgesses, and many of the houses, now tenanted by the poorer classes, have panelled rooms with richly decorated ceilings. The old town is connected with Little Yarmouth by a bridge across the Yare of stone and iron, erected in 1854. The Bure is crossed by a suspension bridge. The church of St Nicholas, founded in 1091 by Herbert Losinga, the first bishop of Norwich, and consecrated in 1119, is said to have stood on the site of the present church. The present church was built between 1425 and 1540, and was under the general superintendence of Stephen de Soperton, bishop of Norwich. The original church contained 800 seats, and was adorned with many splendid stained-glass windows, Wavey and Waveney, the river Bure. The neighbouring country is very flat, but the Bure affords access to the Norfolk Broads, which give the district its well-known individuality. The old town of Great Yarmouth was built chiefly along the E. bank of the Yare, but the modern town has extended beyond its ancient walls, of which some remains exist, to the seashore, where there are a marine drive and three piers. On the landward or Suffolk side of the estuary is the suburb of Southtown, and farther S. that of Gorleston. The principal features of Yarmouth are the N. and S. quays, and the straight narrow lanes called "rows," 145 in number, running at right angles to them. These rows were at one time inhabited by the wealthy burgesses, and many of the houses, now tenanted by the poorer classes, have panelled rooms with richly decorated ceilings. The old town is connected with Little Yarmouth by a bridge across the Yare of stone and iron, erected in 1854. The Bure is crossed by a suspension bridge. The church of St Nicholas, founded in 1091 by Herbert Losinga, the first bishop of Norwich, and consecrated in 1119, is said to have stood on the site of the present church. The present church was built between 1425 and 1540, and was under the general superintendence of Stephen de Soperton, bishop of Norwich. The original church contained 800 seats, and was adorned with many splendid stained-glass windows. It was closed from 1757 to 1860, was re-established by the charity trustees, and settled in new buildings in 1872. Among the principal public buildings are the town hall and public offices (1883); a picturesque toll-house of the 14th century, carefully preserved and serving as a free library; assembly rooms, museum, drill hall, custom house, barracks at South-town and theatres. Among charitable and benevolent institutions are a royal naval lunatic asylum, three hospitals, and fishermen's hospital, the North Sea Church Mission and various homes and minor charities. To the S. of the town, on the part of the peninsula known as the South Dunes, is a race-course and a Doric column erected in 1817 to commemorate Lord Nelson. To the N. (on the North Dunes) are golf links. Winter gardens were opened in 1904. The municipal and parliamentary borough became coextensive by the inclusion in the former of Gorleston in 1890. The parliamentary borough, returning one member, falls between the E. division of Norfolk and the Lowestoft division of Suffolk. Yarmouth is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. Area, 3568 acres.

Yarmouth Roads, off the coast, afford excellent anchorage except in E. or N.E. winds. The channel to the quays was made by Joost Jansen, a Dutch engineer, in 1657, and affords a depth at the bar of 19 ft. at low water. The herring and mackerel fisheries are most important, and fishing and fish-farming are extensive industries. Yarmouth has been visited by many famous fishing boats. The fishing fleet numbers nearly 200 vessels of 20,000 tons, and employs about 3000 hands. The principal imports are coal, timber, and general cargo, and the principal exports are fish, and coal from the Great Yarmouth mines.

Yarmouth (Gernemwa, Yernemouth), which lies near the site of the Roman camp of Garianonum, is believed to have been the landing-place of Cerdic in the 5th century. Not long afterwards, the convenience of its situation having attracted many fishermen from the Cinque Ports, a permanent settlement was made, and the town numbered several hundred burs before the Conquest. Henry I. placed it under the rule of a reeve. The charter of King John (1208), which gave its burgesses of Yarmouth general liberties according to the customs of Oxford, a guild merchant and weekly husting, was amplified by several later charters asserting the rights of the borough against Little Yarmouth and Gorleston. In 1552 Elizabeth granted a charter of admiralty jurisdiction, afterwards confirmed and extended by James I. In 1668 Charles II. incorporated Little Yarmouth in the borough by a charter which with one brief exception remained in force until 1795 when it was revoked by a reeve, reducing the aldermen and common councilmen to eighteen and thirty-six. By the Boundary and Municipal Corporation Acts of 1832 and 1855, Gorleston was annexed to the borough, which became a county borough in 1888. Yarmouth returned two members to parliament from 1300 to 1868, when it was disfranchised until 1885. From the 11th to the 18th century the herring trade, which has always been the main industry of Yarmouth, was carried on at an annual fair between Michaelmas and Martinmas. This was regulated by the barons of the Cinque Ports, and many quarrels arose through their jurisdiction and privileges. Yarmouth has had a weekly market at least from the 13th century.

See Victoria County History, Norfolk; H. Swinden, History of Great Yarmouth (1772); C. J. Palmer, History of Great Yarmouth (1854).

YARMOUTH, a small port at the western extremity of the Isle of Wight, England, on the shore of the Solent, where the estuary of the Yar debouches. Pop. (1901) 963. Steamers to the Isle of Wight and to Lymington. In Roman times, Yarmouth was the site of a Roman settlement, and in 1235 it was granted by Baldwin de Redvers to Edward the Confessor. The first charter was granted by Baldwin de Redvers in 1335, and was confirmed by Edward I., Henry VI., Edward IV. and Elizabeth, but the earliest
YARN

Yarn, the name given to any textile fibre when prepared by the process of spinning for being woven into cloth. It is only in a few minor and exceptional cases such as the weaving of haircloth or wire, that there is any making of fabrics without the previous spinning of yarn. But yarn is of the most diverse description, and its value varies in proportion to its lustre, its bleaching and dyeing properties, its fineness, strength, elasticity, uniformity of diameter, smoothness, suppleness and colour in its natural condition. Yarn is single, folded and fancy, and if twisted to the right it is called twist way, and if to the left, weft way, but those terms do not necessarily imply that the yarn is for either warp or weft.

Single Yarn consists of fibrous matter as twisted together during the process of spinning. If it is intended for warp it should be strong, elastic and smooth; if for weft it has less twist and is spotty. The raw material from which yarn is made has much to do with its appearance and value. Thus Flax Yarn is light although it is heavy, and a Yarn spun from flax to a closely compacted one, is generally dull in appearance, soft, pliable and of moderate strength and elasticity. Dullness in this material is not, however, a constant feature; when combed and gassed it is brighter than when simply carded, and when mercerised it assumes a high lustre. Cotton-waste Yarn is of two classes, both of low counts, and is made from the cotton wasted in the preparing, spinning and weaving operations; one from soft material that had not previously been spun; the other from hard threads which are broken up into separate filaments. The best grades of cotton have been spun into commercial thread of 50 to 125 threads per inch, which make the strongest thread. Exceptionally fine linen yarn contains 190,000 threads per yd, but the range of line yarn in general use is up to 60,000 threads per yd, and that of tow 10,000 threads per yd. Woolen Yarn is not so soft, spongy, hairy, elastic, moderately strong and possesses feeling properties in a high degree; the bleaches and dyes much more readily, it is spun into threads that range up to 15,000 threads per yd, and that of tow 10,000 threads per yd. Several kinds of waste yarn are spun from wool, such as Shoddy, Mungo, and Knapped, each of which fibres is a kind of Yarn. Mungo is the Yarn made of the fine fibres contained in mixed goods, the vegetable fibres being eliminated, and the worsted Yarn in the woolen and worsted kinds, which have been destroyed by acids and heat. Worsted Yarn is made from combed worsted fibres, which are, as a rule, used unadulterated, smooth, very elastic and strong. It is spun into threads that range up to 66,000 threads per yd. Silk is made into Net, Spun and Noil yarns, all of which are readily dyed. Organza is a Yarn of extremely fine thread, proportion to the diameter, the strongest and most elastic of textile threads, and are highly lustrous and smooth; but organize is hard twisted and used for warp, while tram is slightly twisted and used for weft. Twine or String Yarn is made of flax. Spun Silk is made by combing and spinning the material twisted during the conversion of cocoons into fabrics; it is less lustrous and elastic than net silk.

1The etymology is uncertain, but apparently the word is cognate with "cord." The meaning "tail" comes from something spun out.

Also weaker. Silk Noil is made from the fibres rejected by the comber during silk reeling, but silk noil is different respects. Silk Mixed Yarn is obtained by mixing and spinning different materials together; as cotton and wool, silk and rame, and the proportions in which they are mixed vary from 10% to 100%. The yarn made from mixed materials is different from those made from different fibres are differently expressed, as are occasionally those spun in different districts from similar fibres. Cotton yarns are based upon the number of hanks, of 840 yds., contained in the weight of 1 lb., but the English yarn is a long staple, whereas the worsted, upon the number of hanks, of 560 yds., in 1 lb. Wool is expressed in the West of England by the number of hanks, of 1200 yds., in 1 lb., while in the Eastern counties of England the weight of 1 lb. is divided into 20 hanks of 60 yds. In the United States, the number of runs, for 1600 yds., in 1 lb. Silk is expressed by the weight of 1000 yds., in 1 lb.; a number that varies according to the size of the hank of the yarn, the weight of 1 lb. being comprised of 1520 yds., in 6 lb.; in some parts of the United States by the number of runs, for 1600 yds., in 1 lb. Yarn is folded to impart increased strength, elasticity and smoothness, and used, both glazed and unglazed, for warp and weft in ordinary fabrics. It is also made for special purposes as sewing, lace-making, crocheting and horsehair. The counts of these yarns are expressed according to the number of threads twisted together, as 2/50, 3/60; the former indicating that two threads of 50, and the latter threads of 60, were twisted together to yield yarn of 25 hanks and 20 hanks per lb respectively; the count of the single yarn being invariably named in the second figure. If yarn is to be spun from fine yarns, without the practice adopted to name the count of the folded yarn; thus, 70/2 and 40/3 imply that two threads of 140 and three threads of 40 are used respectively; the single yarn would be smooth and strong, and much of it is from two to six cord. When two or three cord, the twisting is in the opposite direction to that of the singles. When more than three cord, it is usually under-gassed, or in the twisting of linings, whereby the number of the threads, the second is in the opposite direction to, and more closely twisted than the first. Thus: A six-cord thread is first folded and twisted in one direction, then folded and twisted in the opposite direction to the singles, the second time in the same direction as the singles. Hosiery Yarn is often a soft, bulky, single thread, but it is also folded, sometimes without being twisted, at other times is slightly twisted. There are two types, namely, wool and silk, neither of which need be made from the fibres named. For the former a hairy surface is not objectionable, but the latter should be smooth, and may be gassed. Polished Yarn may be either single or folded, but it should be fully twisted and level. It is bleached or dyed in hanks, immered in size and polished with brushes while the size is moist.

Fancy Yarn is made by twisting together threads of different colours, materials or twistings, at regular or irregular tensions, and in the same or opposite directions. The effects produced are known in commerce under a great variety of names, of which the more usual denotations are yarns, knots, interlocking, or anything resembling the word. There is no greater demand; it has a mottled effect which is due to uniformly twisting together threads of different colours, but of approximately equal counts. In some cases the twist is slight; others it is considerable. Mock Grandrelle presents a noticeable appearance to true grandrelle, but is made at the spinning machine by twisting together two rovings that are dyed in different colours.

Flaked Yarn has a cloudy appearance imparted to it, (a) by twisting a hard spun thread with a roving, which, at regular or irregular intervals is made thick and thin by drawing rollers; (b) by supplying, intermittently, during carding or spinning, tufts of extra fibre to a thread; or (c) in Knickerbocker Yarn, by dropping small quantities of dyed fibres into two, similar or dissimilar, rovings at the spinning machine, or into two, similar or dissimilar, threads at the slaughter. Corked Yarn has a spiral surface effect which is produced in different ways, that differ in tension, in count and in the quantity or direction of the twist in the single threads. If a fine, hard spun, single or folded thread is twisted to a thread of stronger twist, the latter will wrap itself about the fine one and give a corrugated surface. Chain, and other effects may be given by two foldings and twistings, if for the first doubling a coarse soft thread is twisted with a finer one, then the second doubling a soft thread is twisted with a coarse thread, that differ in tension, in count and in the quantity or direction of the twist in the single threads. If a fine, hard spun, single or folded thread is twisted to a thread of stronger twist, the latter will wrap itself about the fine one and give a corrugated surface. Knapped Yarn is formed by twisting together several strands, one of which is at intervals delivered in greater lengths than the others, in order that the loop may be formed. The loop may differ from that in another. Curled Yarn is produced by twisting two supple threads round a longer and stiffer one, after which a fourth thread is added.

(T. W. F.)
YAROSLAVL.—YATES, E. H.

YAROSLAVL, or Yaroslav, a government of central Russia, separated from the government of Moscow by the governments of Vladimir and Tver on the S., and having Tver and Novgorod on the W., Volgoda on the N. and Kostroma on the E. It is one of the smallest, but most populous and busiest, governments of Great Russia; area, 13,747 sq. m. It consists of a broad and shallow depression, elongated from W. to E., where the Volga empties itself into the sea, while the surrounding hills rise to 700 or 800 ft. In the W., especially between the Mologa and the Sheksna, the country contains very many marshes and ponds, and there are low and marshy tracts in the S. about Rostov.

Jurassic clays, sandstones and sands cover nearly the whole of Yaroslavl, but they are concealed almost everywhere under thick deposits of Glacial boulder clay, which is regarded by Russian geologists as the result of the retreat of the great ice-cap of the Glacial period. Triassic "variegated marls," widely disseminated throughout the whole of the middle Volga region, undoubtedly underlie nearly all the Jurassic deposits of the government, but only a few patches emerge at the surface; many salt springs exist in these deposits. The Upper Carboniferous limestones crop out only in the N.W. and towards the E. The chief mineral products are bog-iron ores, sulphate of copper and pottery clay. Peat occurs in thick beds in the central area. The soil is the most fruitful of any kind of loess of moderate fertility; sandy tracts are not uncommon.

The principal river is the Volga, which traverses the government for some 200 miles from N. to S. The chief town is Yaroslavl, which is situated on the banks of the Volga, and is one of the chief grain centres of the country. Yaroslavl belongs to the manufacturing region of central Russia, but is of small importance, as the manufacturing districts of the country are at a lower level. The factories and peasant communities own over 5,000,000 acres, or about 57% of the total area, of which they have acquired nearly 1,000,000 acres by purchase since their emancipation in 1861; 30% is held by private persons and 7.5% by the crown. There were in 1901 1,100,000 acres (13.5% of the total area) under cereals, the principal crops being rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Flax is widely cultivated both for linseed and fibre, and both fresh and dried vegetables are exported; Rostov enjoys a great reputation as the centre of this industry. Live-stock breeding is of less importance than agriculture, and poultry is exported. Large numbers find employment in the making of hardware, locks, felt boots, gloves, wooden wares, pottery and metal wares. Factories have considerably developed; the principal are cotton, flax and woollen mills, flour-mills, tobacco factories, distilleries, breweries, chicester works, tanneries, candle works, petroleum refineries, machinery, chemical and match works. Rybinsk and Yaroslavl are the chief commercial centres, but Rostov, Mologa, Romanovo and Poshekho carry on an active trade in corn, timber and manufactured wares. Many of the male population annually leave their homes to work all over Russia as locksmiths, masons, plasterers, waiters in restaurants, greengrocers, tailors, gardeners, carpenters, joiners, pilots, lumberjacks, etc.

As early as the 9th century the Slavs had become masters of the Yaroslavl territory, which was formerly occupied by the Finnish tribes of Vess and Merya, as also by Mordvians, Murmans and Cheremisses. In the 17th century Rostov was already in existence; but Yaroslavl, Rybinsk and Uglik begin to be mentioned in the annals only in the 11th and 12th centuries. The independence of Rostov was divided in the 13th century into three parts, but these were soon afterwards successively annexed to Moscow.

YAROSLAVL, a town of Russia, capital of the government of the same name, on the right bank of the Volga, at its confluence with the Kotoros, 174 m. by rail N.E. of Moscow. Pop. about 70,000. Yaroslavl is an archiepiscopal see. The Uspenskoy cathedral was begun in 1215 and rebuilt in 1646-48; the churches of the Preobrazhenskoy monastery, St John's and Voskresieny date from the 15th and 16th centuries. Yaroslavl has a lyceum, founded (1853) by a wealthy member of the Demidov family. The manufactories include cotton-mills, flour-mills, tobacco and linen factories. The town was founded in 1236-39, and became the chief town of a principality in 1218 and remained so until 1471, when it fell under the dominion of Moscow.

YARRELL, WILLIAM (1784-1856), British naturalist, was born in London on the 3rd of June 1784. He was a member of the London Society, of which he became president, and was a diligent contributor to their Transactions. He died on the 1st of September 1856.

YARROW, a river and parish of Selkirkshire, Scotland. The river, issuing from St Mary's Loch, flows for 14 m. by N. to the Tweed, which it joins about 3 m. below the town.

The stream and vale are famous in poetry. Only a fragment remains of Dryhope Tower, on Dryhope Burn, the home of Mary Scott, "the flower of Yarrow," whom Walter Scott of Harden married about 1756. On Douglas Burn, a left-hand tributary, are the ruins of the keep of the "good Sir James Douglas, the friend of Robert Bruce; and Blackhouse, Mount Benger and the farm of Altive are all connected with James Hogg. Near Broadmeadows Sir William Douglas, the knight of Liddesdale, was murdered by his kinsman (1533) in revenge for the death of Sir Alexander Ramsay of Dalhousie in the siege of Artzam Castle. The body lay for a night in Lindean church, now in ruins, near Selkirk, before it was conveyed to Elvaston Abbey. On the right bank are the ruins of Newark Castle, built by James III. in 1466 as a hunting seat, afterwards the property of the Scotts of Buccleuch. It was burned by the English in 1548, but the tower was restored. On the right side of the Yarrow is Bowhill, a seat of the duke of Buccleuch.

YATAGHAN (from Turk. yataghan; sometimes spelled in English "attaghan" and "ataghan"), the name of a type of sword common to Mahomedan peoples. It has no guards or quillons, but a large and often decorated pommei; its blade has a double curve on the cutting edge, first concave and then convex; the back is usually straight (see Sword).

YATES, EDMUND HODGSON (1831-1894), English journalist and author, son of Frederick Henry Yates (1797-1842), was born at Edinburgh on the 3rd of July 1831. His father and mother (née Brunton; 1790-1860) were both prominent figures on the London stage from about 1817 onwards. Edmund Yates was educated at Highgate School and at Düsseldorf. In 1847 he obtained a clerkship in the General Post Office, with which he continued to be connected up to 1872, becoming in 1862 head of the missing letter department. He married in 1853, and soon began to write for the press. Charles Dickens made him dramatic critic to the Daily News, and he was a contributor
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to Household Words. He wrote several farces which were acted between 1857 and 1860. In 1855 he had begun writing a column for the Illustrated Times (under Henry Vizetelly), headed "The Lounger at the Clubs"; this was the first attempt at combining "smart" personal paragraphs with the better class of journalism, and in 1858 Yates was made editor of a new paper called Town Talk, which carried the innovation a step forward. His first number contained a laudatory article on Dickens, and the second a disparaging one on Thackeray, containing various personal reflections to private matters. Thackeray, regarding this as a serious affront, brought the article before the committee of the Garrick Club, of which he contended that Yates had made improper use, and the result was that Yates was expelled. Besides editing Temple Bar and Tinsley's Magazine, Yates during the 'sixties took to lecturing on social topics, and published several books, including his best novel, Black Sheep (1867); and under the heading of "Le Flaneur" he continued in the Morning Star the sort of "personal column" which he had inaugurated in the Illustrated Times. On his retirement from this Office in 1872 he went to America on a lecturing tour, and afterwards, as a special correspondent for the New York Herald, travelled through Europe. But in 1874, with the help of E. C. Grenville Murray, he established a new London weekly, The World, "a journal for men and women," which he edited himself. The paper at once became a success, and Yates bought out Grenville Murray and became sole proprietor. The World was the first of the new type of "society papers," absurding in personal criticism and gossip: one of its features was the employment of the first person singular in its columns, a device by which the personal element in this form of journalism was emphasized. After Truth was started in 1877 by Mr Henry Labouchere (who was one of Yates's earliest contributors), the rivalry between the two weeklies was amusingly pointed by references in The World to what "Henry" said, and in Truth to the mistakes made by "Edmund." In 1885 Yates was convicted of a libel in 1884 on Lord Lonsdale, and was imprisoned in Holloway gaol for seven weeks. In the same year he published his Recollections and Experiences in two volumes. He died on the 20th of May 1884. He had been the typical flaneur in the literary world of the period, an entertaining writer and talker, with a talent for publicity of the modern type—developed, no doubt, from his theatrical parentage—which, through his imitators, was destined to have considerable influence on journalism.

YATES, MARY ANN (1728-1787), English actress, was the daughter of William Graham, a ship's steward. In 1733 she appeared at Drury Lane as Marcia in Samuel Crisp's (d. 1783) Virgilia, Garrick being the Virginus. She was gradually entrusted with all the leading parts. Mrs Yates, whose husband, Richard Yates (c. 1700-1768), was a well-known comedian, succeeded Mrs Cibber as the leading tragedian of the English stage, and was in turn succeeded—and eclipsed—by Mrs Siddons.

YATES, RICHARD (1818-1873), American political leader, was born at Warsaw, Kentucky, on the 18th of January 1818. He graduated at the Illinois College at Jacksonville in 1838, was admitted to the bar, and entered politics as a Whig. From 1842 to 1845 and again in 1849 he served in the state House of Representatives. He was a representative in Congress in 1851-1855, but having become a Republican, was defeated for a third term. From 1861 to 1865 he was governor of Illinois, and was successful in enlisting troops and in checking the strong pro-Southern sentiment in the state. He was a member of the United States Senate in 1865-71, and was prominent in Reconstruction legislation. He died at St Louis, Missouri, on the 27th of November 1873. His son Richard (b. 1860) was governor of Illinois from 1901 to 1905.

YATSUK, called by the Shans Lawksaw, a state in the central division of the southern Shan States of Burma. Area, 21,430 sq. m.; pop. (1911), 2,500,000, of whom more than one-half are Shans; revenue, £5,000. The crops grown are rice, segamum, cotton, ground-nuts and oranges. As a whole the state is mountainous, with ranges running N. and S. The main range has a general height of 9000 ft., with peaks, such as Loi Samngam, rising to 7846 ft. The middle and S., however, consist of open rolling country, with an average height of 3500 ft. To the N. the country falls away to the Nam Tu (Myintgye), where there are fine teak forests, as well as along the Nam Lang and Nam Et, which with the Zawgyi form the chief rivers of the state. Most of them disappear underground at intervals, which makes the extraction of timber impossible except for local use. Lawksaw, the capital, stands on the N. bank of the Zawgyi, near a small weedy lake. The old brick walls and the moat are falling into decay. The chief at the time of annexation had been at war with the Burmese, but refused to submit to the British, and fled to Keng Hsing, where he died some years afterwards. The sawbwa chosen in 1887 belonged to another Shan ruling house. He died in 1900, and was succeeded by his son.

YATUNG, a trade-market of Tibet, situated in the mouth of the Chumbi valley near the Indian frontier. According to the Convention of 1850-93, the market at Yatung was opened to India, and the conduct of the Tibetans in building a wall across the river between Yatung and Tibet was one of the incidents that led up to the British protectorate of 1904. According to the treaty of that year, a British trade-agent was to be maintained at Yatung.

YAU, a city of the department of Ponce, Porto Rico, 20 m. W. by N. of the city of Ponce. Pop. (1890) 6108. Yauco is served by the American Railroad of Porto Rico. The city is situated about 150 ft. above the sea, and has a delightful climate. It is connected by a wagon road with its port, Guanica (pop. about 1000), which has an excellent harbour. Coffee and tobacco are the chief industries. Yauco was first settled in 1756.

YAVORSKY, STEPHEN (c. 1658-1722), Russian archbishop and statesman, one of the ablest coadjutors of Peter the Great, was educated at the Kiev Academy and various Polish schools. Becoming a monk, he settled at the Kiev Academy as a preacher and professor, being appointed prefect of the institution and prior of the monastery of St Nicholas. He attracted the attention of Peter by his funeral oration over the boyar Shein, and was made archbishop of Ryazan in 1700. In 1702, on the death of the last patriarch of Moscow, Yavorsky was appointed custodian of the spiritualities of the patriarchal see. Notwithstanding frequent collisions with Peter, and his partiality for the unfortunate tsarevich Alexius, Yavorsky was too valuable a man to be discarded. In 1721 he was made first president of the newly erected Holy Synod, but died in the following year.

Yavorsky's chief works are his Rock of the Faith of the Orthodox-Catholic Eastern Church and Dogmatic, Moral and Pneumological Selections. See V. T. Testorov (Moscow, 1844); I. Morev, The Rock of the Faith (Rus.) (Petersburg, 1904).

YAWL, the name of a special rig of small sailing vessels or yachts, with two masts, the mainmast cutter-rigged, and a small mizen stepped far aft with a spanker or driving sail. The name has also been applied to a small ship's boat rowed with four or more oars. The word is apparently an adaptation of the Dutch jol, skiff.

The English "jolly-boat," a small bluff-bowed, wide-transomed ship's boat, swung at the stern of a vessel for ready use, is probably a corruption of the Danish form of the word jolle. Other authorities take it to be a corruption of a late 15th-century jolywaut, a small ship's boat, which is supposed to represent galliot, galliot (see CALLEY). A galliot, however, was nothing a small boat, but an independent vessel propelled by oars or sails.

YAWS, the name in use in the British West Indies for a contagious inoculable tropical disease, running a chronic course and characterized by a peculiar eruption, together with more or less constitutional disturbance. It is known by various local names in different parts. In the French Antilles it is called pian; in Brazil, boba; on the west coast of Africa, gata; on the east coast, lomongu; in the Moluccas, boton d'Ambone; in Samoa, tonga or lono; in Baudoland, makcola; and in Ceylon it is
spoke of under the name of parangi. The name framboesia was first given to the disease by Sauvages in 1759 from the likeness of the typical excrescences to a raspberry. For many years yaws was thought to be peculiar to the African negro, either in his home (both west and east coasts) or in the West Indies and Brazil. But a disease the same in every respect has long been known in the East Indies (first mentioned by Bonitus early in the 17th century), affecting the Malays rather than the negroes, its chief seats being Ambonaya, Ternate, Timor, Celebes, Java and Sumatra. It has been identified by De Rochas and other observers in New Caledonia, and the disease as it affects the natives is described by the missionaries of the East. It is probable that the disease is as follows. Previous to the eruption there may or may not be any disorder of health: in children (who form a large part of the subjects of yaws) there will probably be rheumatic pains in the limbs and joints, with languor; delirium is rare. The disease may be diagnosed by the white patch beneath the chin, and the little whitish speck on their tops, grow rapidly and reach the size of a sixpence or a shilling. The pustules then break and a thick viscid lecher exudes and dries upon them as a whitish slough and around the base. As the slough is removed, the whitish slough is the raspberry excrescence or yaw proper, a reddish fungous growth with a nodular surface. The favourite seats of the eruption are the forehead, face, neck, arm-pits, groin, genitals, perineum and thighs; the first two and last air and a yawn may be seen in any part of the body. In young children or infants the corners of the mouth ulcerate, as in syphilis, and the perineal excrescences resemble condylomata. The pustules which in the first stage do not all arise at once, are more abundant while others are only starting. If the patient be of sound constitution and good repletion, the yaws may reach the full size of a mulberry in a month, in which case they will probably reach the size of a large pea. If they are of poor health they may take three months to attain the size of a wood-strawberry, in which case they will be numerous inversely to their size. Often there is one yaw much larger than the rest, and longer in falling; it is called the "master yaw" or "mother yaw." On the soles of the feet (less often on the palms of the hands) the bursting yaws are as if imprisoned beneath the horny cuticle; they cause swelling and tenderness of the foot, and frequently the eruption coming down to the quick; these yaws are called "crab yaws" or "tubbas." Usually a yaw is painless unless when rubbed or irritated. The absence of pain is used as a diagnostic sign if there be any doubt as to the nature of the attack; a pustule is opened and a little of the juice of capsicum dropped into it; if it be a yaw, no smarting will be felt. In some cases a few yaws will show themselves long after the primary attack is over; these are called "membra yaws" (from the Latin membra, "limbs"). They are not being some cases applied also to protracted cases with successive crops of eruption. Six weeks is the average time in a good case, from the first of the eruption to the total disappearance of yaws. In some cases a second eruption may be for many months, darker than the rest of the ( negro) skin. But the disease is often much more tedious affair, the more protracted type having become common in the West Indies of recent years. The yaws are not the disease, for they are not cutaneous, but as if with difficulty, crop after crop; foul, excoriating and corroding ulcers may remain, or a limb may be in part seared and mutilated by the scars of old ulceration. The scars after ulceration are not so dark as the skin around.

**Aetiology.**—Yaws is a highly contagious disease. It is neither hereditary nor congenital. The disease spreads by contact with previously infected cases, though it has been stated that infection also arises from inhabiting dirty houses, the floors and walls of which are contaminated with yaws matter from former yaw cases; and it is also believed, and has been proved by experiment, that infection may be conveyed by flies, which act as go-betweens, carrying infective material from a yaws sore to an ordinary ulcer. The virus must be introduced directly through a breach of the skin or mucous membrane; an attack in childhood gives a large degree of immunity. Not all cases give the impression of being a specimen of the disease; they may be fancied by the patient's friends to be malarial, or by the patient's apprehensions, to the typhus or the erysipelas. The disease is found by Pierce and Nicholls in the tubercles of yaws, but a pure culture of this micro-organism failed to give rise to yaws in animals into whom it was injected experimentally, and in no instance was it present in the blood. In 1905 Aldo Castellani demonstrated in yaws the presence of a slender spirillum, which he named the _Spirocheta pertenue_ or _Spirochaeta pallidu_. It was also experimentally proved by him (1) that the material taken from persons suffering from yaws and containing the _Spirocheta pertenue_ is infective to monkeys; (2) that when the _Spirocheta pertenue_ is removed by filtration the material becomes inert; (3) that the injection of blood from the general circulation of a yaws patient gave positive results in monkeys; (4) by means of the Bordet-Gengou reaction it is possible to detect specific antibodies and antigen.

The prophylaxis consists in the segregation of the patients suffering from the disease, the antiseptic dressing of the eruption, the application of a covering to protect it from flies, and the thorough cleansing and disinfection of infected houses and buildings, even in remote villages. The demolition of houses in endemic centres, and finally the compulsory notification of cases of yaws to the local sanitary authority.

As regards treatment, the malady in a person of good constitution runs its course and gets well in a few weeks. Whatever tends to check the eruption, such as exposure to chill, is to be avoided. A week's course of cream of tartar and sulphur (confection of sulphur) at the beginning of the illness is often resorted to, so as to bring the eruption well out. The patient should remain indoors, in a well-aired room, and take daily baths in tepid water. If the eruption is extensive and unhealthy, it is an indication for generous diet. When the eruption is declared, iodide of potassium and arsenic are very beneficial. As external applications, weak lotions of zinc or carbonic acid may be used, and if the excrescences are irritable, a watery solution of opium. Tawdry and unhealthy yaws should be dressed with a wash of sulphate of zinc or copper; the same may be applied to a yaws ulcer. The crab yaws of the horny soles or palms, after they are let through by paring the cuticle, may be dusted with alum powder.

On the whole, the mortality is small. In 1757 West Indian cases treated various holes and there were only 185 deaths, a mortality of 25 per thousand (Nicholls).

**YAZDEGERD** ("made by God," i.e., Yeardir), the name of three Sassanid kings of Persia. (1) YAZDEGERD I., son of Shahpur III., 390-420, called "the sinner" by the Persians, was a highly intelligent ruler, who tried to emancipate himself from the dominion of the magnates and the Magian priests. He punished the nobles severely when they attempted oppression; he stopped the persecution of the Christians and granted them their own organization. With the Roman war he lived in peace and friendship, and is therefore highly praised by the Byzantine authors (Procop. Pers. i., 27; Agath. iv. 26) as he is blamed by the Persians. After a reign of twenty years he appears to have been murdered in Khorsan. (2) YAZDEGERD II., was the son of Bahram V. Gor, 438-457. He persecuted the Christians and Jews, and had a short war with Rome in 441. He tried to extend his kingdom in the East and fought against the Kushans and Kidarites (or Huns). (3) YAZDEGERD III., a grandson of Chosroes II., who had been murdered by his son Kavadh II. in 628, was raised to the throne in 632 after a series of internal conflicts. He was a mere child and never really ruled; in his first year the Arabic invasion began, and in 637 the battle of Kadesiyya decided the fate of the empire. Ctesiphon was occupied by the Arabs, and the king fled into Media. Yazdegerd fled from one district to another, till at last he was murdered at Merv in 652 (see CALLPIATE, sect. A. r.). The Parsees, who use the old Persian calendar, continue to count the years from his accession (in a year of Yezdegird, beginning June 16th, a.d. 632). (Ed. M.)

**YEAST** (O.E. geost or gyst; the root yez, to boil, ferment, is seen in Sansk. nira-sa, exudations from trees, and Gr. _theu_, the wine) is a cellular organism produced by the fermentation of saccharine liquids (see FUNGI, FERMENTATION, BREWING).

**YEATS, WILLIAM BUTLER** (1865-1939), Irish author, son of J. B. Yeats (b. 1839), a distinguished Irish artist and member of the Royal Hibernian Academy, was born at Sandymount, Dublin, on the 13th of June 1865. At nine years old he went to live with his parents in London, and was sent to the Godolphin School, Hammersmith. At fifteen he went to the Erasmus Smith School in Dublin. Later he studied painting for a short time at the Royal Dublin Society, but soon turned to
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literature, contributing poems and articles to the Dublin University Review and other Irish periodicals. In 1888 he was encouraged by Oscar Wilde to try his fortune in London, where he published in 1889 his first volume of verse, The Wanderings of Oisin; its original and romantic touch impressed discriminating critics, and started a new interest in the "Celtic" movement. The same year he contributed to Mr Walter Scott's "Camelot Series," edited by Ernest Rhys, Fairy and Folk Tales, a collection of Irish folklore, and Tales from Carleton, with original introductions. In 1891 he wrote anonymously two Irish stories, John Sherman and Dhoya, for Mr Fisher Unwin's "Pseudonym Library." In 1892 he published another volume of verse, including The Countess Kathleen (a romantic drama), which gave the book its title, and in 1893 The Celtic Twilight, a volume of essays and sketches in prose. He now submitted his earlier poetical work to careful revision, and it was in the revised versions of The Wanderings of Uisnech and The Countess Kathleen, and the lyrics given in his collected Poems of 1895 that his authentic poetical note found adequate expression and was recognized as marking the rise of a new Irish school. In the meantime he had followed The Countess Kathleen with another poetical drama, The Land of Heart's Desire, acted at the Avenue Theatre for six weeks in the spring of 1894, published in May of that year. He contributed to various periodicals, notably to the National Observer and the Bookman, and also to the Book of the Rhymer's Club—the English Parnasse Contemporain of the early 'nineties. With Edwin J. Ellis he edited the Works of William Blake (1893), and also edited A Book of Irish Verse (1895). In 1897 appeared The Secret Rose, a collection of Irish legends and tales in prose, with poetry interspersed, containing the stories of Hanranah the First. The same year he privately printed The Tables of the Law and the Adoration of the Magi, afterwards published in a volume of Mr Elkin Mathews's "Vigo Street Cabinet" in 1904. In 1899 the published The Frenchman's Colors, containing some of his lyrics, and in 1899 another poetical drama, The Shadowy Waters. He now became specially interested in the establishment of an Irish literary theatre; and he founded and conducted an occasional periodical (appearing fitfully at irregular intervals), called first Beltain and later Samhain, to expend his aims and preach his own views, the first number appearing in May 1899. In the autumn of 1901 Mr F. R. Benson's company produced in London the play Diarmuid and Grania, written in collaboration by him and George Moore. In 1902 he published his own first original play in prose, Cathleen ni Houlihan, which was printed in Samhain in October that year. In 1903 he collected and published a volume of literary and critical essays, to which he gave the title, Ideas of Good and Evil. In the same and the following years he published a collected edition of his Plays for an Irish Theatre, comprising Where There is Nothing, The Hour-Glass, Cathleen ni Houlihan, The Pot of Broth, The King's Threshold and On Baile's Strand. In 1904 he also edited two volumes of Irish Representative Tales. Whether or not "Celtic" is the right word for it, Mr Yeats's art was quickly identified by enthusiasts with the literary side of the new Irish national movement. His inspiration may be traced in some measure to the Pre-Raphaelites and also to Blake, Shelley and Maeterlinck; but he found in his native Irish legend and life matter apt for his romantic and often elfin music, with its artful simplicities and unhackneyed cadences, and its elusive, inconclusive charm.

See the section on W. B. Yeats in Poets of the Younger Generation by William Archer (1902), and for bibliography up to June 1903, British Writers, 1830-1902, edited by Miss Seabra (N.S.) p. viii and 1904, red, the second edition of his collected works in prose and verse was issued by Mr Bulfin from the Shakespeare Head Works, Stratford-on-Avon, in 8 vols., 1908.

YECLA, a town of E. Spain, in the extreme N. of the province of Murcia, on the Yecla-Villena railway; it is situated on the W. slope of Monte Castillo, which rises above the left bank of the Arroyo del Jua. Pop. (1900) 18,743. The chief buildings are a half-played citadel, a modern parish church with a pilastered Corinthian façade, and a town hall standing in a fine arcaded square. Yecla has a thriving trade in the grain, wine, oil, fruit and esparto grass produced in the surrounding country.

YEISIK, a town of Russia, in the province of Kuban (Caucasus), founded in 1848 on a sandbank which separates the shallow Bay of Yeisik from the Sea of Azov, 76 m. S.W. of Rostov-on-the-Don. Pop. 35,446. Notwithstanding its shallow roadstead, Yeisik has grown with great rapidity, and exports corn, lised and wool. There are wool-cleansing factories, oil-works and tanneries.

YELLOW FEVER, a specific infective tropical fever, the germ of which is transmitted by the Stegomyia fasciata or domestic mosquito, occurring endemically in certain limited areas. The area of distribution includes the West Indies, Mexico, part of Central America, the W. coast of Africa and Brazil.

The first authentic account of yellow fever comes from Bridge-town, Barbados, in 1647, where it was recognized as a "nova pestis" that was unaccountable in its origin, except that Ligon, the historian of the colony, who was then on the spot, connected it with the arrival of ships. It was the same new pestilence that Duterre, writing in 1667, described as having occurred in the French colony of Guadeloupe in 1635 and 1640; it recurred at Guadeloupe in 1668, and broke out in a peculiar disastrous form at St. Kitts the same year, and again in 1672; in 1675 it was at Port Royal, Jamaica; and from those years onwards it became familiar at many harbours in the West Indies and Spanish Main. It appeared at the Brazilian ports in 1849. In 1853 it appeared in Peru and in 1870 on the W. coast of Africa. In Georgetown (British Guiana) 69% of the garrison died in 1849.

During the great period of yellow fever (1793-1805), and for some years afterwards, the disease found its way time after time to various parts of Spain. Cadiz suffered five epidemics in the eighteen years, 1806-1823, the most severe of which occurred in 1817 to 1821, the disease assumed much more alarming proportions, Cadiz being still its chief seat, while Seville, Malaga, Cartagena, Barcelona, Palma, Gibraltar and other shipping places suffered severely, as well as some of the country districts nearest to the ports. In the severe epidemic at Barcelona in the summer of 1851, 3000 persons died. At Lisbon in 1857 upwards of 6000 died in a few weeks. In New Orleans 7500 people died in 1853, 3203 in 1867, and 4056 in 1878. In Rio 4160 died in 1850, 1043 in 1852, and 1397 in 1856. In his own country distinct conditions have seemed to be necessary for an outbreak. Foremost we may notice a high atmospheric temperature, one of 75° F. or over. As the thermometer sinks, the disease ceases to spread. Moisture favours the spread of yellow fever, and epidemics in the tropics have usually occurred about the rainy season. Seaport towns are most affected. In many instances the elevated airy and hygienic quarters of a town may escape, while the shore districts are decimated. Usually the disease does not spread to villages or sparsely populated districts. Certain houses become hotbeds of the disease, case after case occurring in them; and it is usually in houses that the disease is contracted. A house may be said to be infected when it contains infected mosquitoes, whether there be a yellow-fever patient there or not. Ships become infected in the same way, the old wooden trading ships affording an ideal hiding-place to the Stegomyia in a way that the modern and airy steamships does not.

The incubation period of yellow fever is generally four or five days, but it may be as short as twenty-four hours. There are usually three marked stages: (1) the period of prodromal illness; (2) the period of remission or lull; (3) in severe cases, the period of reaction. The illness usually starts with languor, chilliness, headache, and muscular pains, which might be the precursors of any febrile attack. These are followed by a peculiar look of the eyes and face, which is characteristic: the face is flushed, and the eyes suffused at first and then congested or cerrety, the nostrils and lips red, and the tongue scarlet—these being the most obvious signs of
universal congestion of the skin, mucous membranes and organs. Meanwhile the temperature has risen to fever heat, and may reach a very high figure (maximum of 110° Fahr., it is said); the pulse is quick, strong and full, but may not keep up in these characters with the high temperature throughout. There are all the usual accompaniments of high fever, including hot skin, failure of appetite, thirst, nausæa, restlessnes and delirium (which may or may not be violent); albumen will nearly always be found in the urine. The fever is continued; but the febrile excitement comes to an end after two or three days. In a certain class of ambulatory or masked cases the febrile reaction may never come out, and the shock of the infection after a brief initial period of delirium finalizes in convulsions and death. The cessation of the paroxysm makes the stadium, or lull, characteristic of yellow fever. The hitherto militant or violent symptoms cease, and prostration or collapse ensues. The internal heat falls below the normal; the action of the heart (pulse) becomes slow and feeble, the skin cold and of a lemon-yellow tint, the act of vomiting effortless, like that of an infant, the first vomit being clear fluid, but afterwards black from an admixture of blood. It is at this period that the prospect of recovery or of a fatal issue declares itself. The prostration following the paroxysm of fever does not bear so treacherous a character as that of other types of disease, and the diagnosis of the end is less uncertain. As a general rule the disease is a brief one; the incubation period is usually shorter. In 269 cases observed by Sternberg, the mean mortality was 27.7%. In 179 cases of yellow fever in Vera Cruz in 1905 there were 91 deaths. The death-rate, however, tends to vary in different epidemics. In the epidemic occurring in Zacapa, Mexico, in 1905 in a population of 6,000 there were 700 cases, and the mortality among the infected was 40%.

Treatment.—The patient should be removed from the focus of infection and nured in a well-ventilated room, screened from mosquitoes, if possible, by the use of mosquito netting. The disease entirely of a febrile character, followed by hot baths, is useful in the early stages to relieve congestion, high temperature may be controlled by sponging; vomiting, by ice; or, if haemorrhagic, by ergot, perchloride of iron or other stypitics; and pilocarpine may be given if the urine be scanty. Sternberg has introduced a system of treatment by alkalis to counteract the hyperacidity of the intestinal contents and increase the flow of urine. Of 501 whites treated by this method only 7.3% died, and of 72 blacks all recovered.

Causation.—The pathology of the disease is discussed in the article PARASITIC DISEASES. In 1881 Dr. Charles Finlay, of Havana, postulated the theory that mosquitoes were the carriers of the infection. Numerous theories had previously been brought forward, notably that of the Bacillus icteroides, described by Sanarelli; but it is now certain that this organism is not the cause. Other authorities held that the disease was spread by contagion, by miasma, or some other of the vague agencies which have always been put forward in the absence of exact knowledge. Finlay's mosquito theory remained in abeyance until attention was again drawn to it by the demonstration in recent years of the part played by these insects in the causation of other tropical diseases. The mosquito selected by Finlay was the Stegomyia fasciata, a black insect with silvery markings on the thorax, which is exceedingly common in the endemic area. It frequents towns, and breeds in any stagnant water about houses. Specimens were caught, fed upon yellow-fever patients, kept for a fortnight, and then allowed to bite susceptible persons established in a special camp with other susceptible persons as a control. Those bitten developed the fever, the others did not. An American commission was appointed in 1900, consisting of Walter Reed, James Carroll, A. Agramonte and Lazear, and its conclusions were that the Stegomyia fasciata is the agent of infection, that the virus of yellow fever is present in the blood during the first three days of the fever, and is generally absent on the fourth; that the germ is so small that it can pass through a Chamberland porcelain filter; that the bite of all infected Stegomyia does not produce yellow fever (about 35% of the experiments proving negative); that mosquitoes fed on yellow-fever blood were not capable of giving rise to infection until after a lapse of twelve or fourteen days, but the experiments showed their infective power for at least fifty-seven days. It can therefore be held that the yellow fever is a parasite, requiring as in malaria an alternate passage through a vertebrate and an insect host, the analogy to malaria being very complete. E. Marchoux and P. L. Simon, of the French Yellow Fever Commission to Rio de Janeiro, 1906, have observed an interesting fact in connexion with the S. fasciata. In order to lay her eggs she must first have a feed of blood, three days after which she lays them. Before she lays her eggs she strikes both day and night, after that period at night only. Persons bitten in the day-time, therefore, do not develop yellow fever, but if bitten at night, develop the disease in all probability. The work was begun on the 27th of February 1901. An order was issued that all receptacles containing water were to be kept mosquito-proof; sanitary inspectors were told off for each district to maintain a constant house-to-house inspection, and to treat all puddles, &c., with oil; receptacles found to contain larvae were destroyed and their owners fined; breeding-grounds near the town were treated by draining and oil; hospitals and houses containing yellow-fever patients were screened; infected and adjacent buildings were fumigated with pyrethrum powder. The results exceeded all expectation, and after January the presence of a yellow fever case was no longer to originate in Havana. Cases occasionally now come into Havana from Mexican ports, but are treated under screens with impunity in ordinary city hospitals and never at any time infect the city. Thus in 1907 there was one death from yellow fever, and the general death-rate of Havana from all diseases was 17 per thousand. In the Bulletin of Public Health and Charities of Cuba it is stated there only occurred between 1905 to a total of 345 cases of yellow fever in all Cuba, where formerly they numbered many thousands, and in April 1916 the republic was declared to be entirely free from the disease.

Among other modern outbreaks in which sanitary measures have taken an active part, that which occurred in New Orleans in 1905, in which a medical staff of 50 with subordinates to the number of 1,201 started immediately on the outbreak to clean up the city; the outbreak in Belize, British Honduras, in 1905; the anti-yellow-fever campaign undertaken in the British W. Indies in 1906-9. As soon as the Isthmian Canal commissioners took over the administration of the Panama Canal Zone they undertook a vigorous campaign against the mosquito, as the result of which yellow fever was successfully banished. Colonel Gorgas, in his 1908 report wrote: "It is now three years since a case of yellow fever has developed in the Isthmus, the last being in November 1905. Rio de Janeiro, which had lost 28,075 inhabitants in 13 years by yellow fever, and Santo, have also waged war against the disease; as a result of the anti-Segmyia policy the deaths from yellow fever in Rio fell to 22 in 1906, 19 in 1907, 4 in 1908, and 1 in 1909.

See Sir P. Manson, Tropical Diseases (1907); article "Yellow Fever" in Allbutt and Rolleston's System of Medicine; Sir R. Boyce, Report on Yellow Fever in Honduras (1906), and Health and Administration in the West Indies (1910); Bulletins of the U.S. Yellow Fever Institute; Annales de l'Institut Pasteur (January 1906).
YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK, an American national reservation, situated mainly in N.W. Wyoming, U.S.A., dedicated by the United States government as “a public park or pleasure ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people.” It is nearly a rectangle in shape, with a length, from N. to S., of 62 m., a width of 54 m. and an area of approximately 3330 sq. m. It extends into Montana, on the N., about 21 m. and into Idaho on the S., about 25 m. Except by a short spit, the Yellowstone from the Missouri in which the park is situated, the park is entirely surrounded by national forests: the Gallatin and Absaroka national forests, on the N.; the Shoshone and the Beartooth, on the E.; the Teton, on the S.; and the Targhee, the Madison and the Gallatin, on the W.

The central portion, comprising an area of about 2000 sq. m., is an undulating plateau with a mean elevation above the sea of about 8000 ft. Along the entire E. border stretches the Absaroka range, and in places exceeding 11,000 ft. (Index Peak, 11,740 ft.) in height. On the N. is the Snowy range with its snow-capped peaks. W. of the Snowy the Gallatin range extends S. for 20 m. along the W. border. Electric Peak, in the N.W. corner of the park, rises to a height of 11,155 ft. Near the S. end of the park are the Red Mountains, which culminate in Mt. Sheridan (10,385 ft.) and afford a magnificent view of the whole region; and farther S. the N. spur of the lofty Teton's juts across the S. border.

In the production of these mountains and plateau, there was a great change about the beginning of the Cenozoic period, an upheaval of the earth's substance to form a mountain range and a depressed basin. Subsequently, in the Tertiary period, there were two enormous outpourings of volcanic material—first andesite lava, and later, after a long interval of quiet, rhyolitic—which nearly half filled the basin, converted it into a plateau and broke up the mountain range. Two centres of volcanic activity were Mt. Sheridan, in the S., and Mt. Washburn, in the N. The volcanoes have long been extinct, but the diminished energy now causes hot springs and geysers in all parts of the plateau, about 400 in number. More than half, including the largest and finest, are in the upper and the lower Geyser basins, near the head of the Madison, here known as the Firehole, river. Several others are farther N. in the Norris basin upon Gibbon river, a branch of the Madison, and others are farther S. in the Shoshone basin.

Excelsior, the largest geyser, with a crater about 300 ft. long and 200 ft. wide, has not been active since 1890, but for several years after its discovery it threw up at intervals a huge mass of water to a height of 150 ft. Old Faithful, and irregular intervals of 65-70 minutes, throws up a column of hot water 2 ft. in diameter, at a height of 125-130 ft., and the eruption lasts 4-5 minutes. The Giant, at intervals of 2 to 4 days or more, throws up a column to a height of 400 feet. Tower geyser throws up (so called from the shape of its cone), the Grand and the Lone Star throw up columns to a height of 200 ft. but at irregular intervals. In the Norris basin are the Black Growler and the Hurricane, which consist of small apertures through which steam rushes with such tremendous force that it may be heard for miles. The hot springs are widely distributed over the plateau and number from 3000 to 4000. The water of most of the springs and geysers holds silica in solution in considerable quantities, so that as it cools and evaporates it deposits a dazzling white sinter which has covered many square miles of the valleys and contrasts strongly with the dark green of the surrounding forest. Forms of all kinds are thus built up and very large and beautiful apertures are scattered over it in the most irregular fashion. The silicious matter has also built up around the springs and geysers cones or mounds of considerable size. At the close of the Lower Pleistocene era, a large part of the mass of the springs, contains sulfur, iron, alum and other materials in solution, which in places stains the pure white sinter with bright bands of colour. The tints and hues of some of the pools are of matchless beauty. Norris, in the central part of the park, is a large flat area of basaltic terraces, 600 ft. wide, 300 ft. long, and 40 ft. deep with the boiling mud at the bottom. Although there have been some changes in the thermal energy in the park since 1871, there has been no appreciable diminution. Almost all the springs and geysers lose some of their energy at intervals, while others, for certain geysers have become quiescent, but some new ones have been formed.

The Continental Divide crosses the park in a S.E. direction from the meeting-point of the states of Wyoming, Idaho and Montana. The S. part of the Divide is drained by the Snake river into the Columbia river and the Pacific Ocean; the large section N. of the Divide is drained by the Yellowstone and Madison rivers into the Missouri, the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. The Lewis river, a fork of the Snake, has its origin in the beautiful Shoshone Lake, and the Heart river, another fork of the Snake, rises in Heart Lake, under Mt. Sheridan.

The Yellowstone drains the entire E. section. Rising just beyond its S. limits, it flows into and through Yellowstone Lake, a magnificent sheet of water, very irregular in shape, dotted with forested islands, having an area of about 140 sq. m., lying 7741 ft. above the sea. Upon entering it, the river takes the name of the lake, and is still called the Yellowstone river. It is 200 m. wide, and has a fall of 100 ft. A white commission, on the average stage of water, about 1200 cub. ft. per second. With this fall the river enters the "Grand Canyon," which in many scenic effects is unequalled. Its depth is now at least 2000 ft., the water flowing through it, in the section comprised between the canyon and the Missouri river system; it ranges from 600 ft. at its head to 300 ft. at the middle, where it passes the Washburn Mountains. Its length to the mouth of Lamar river is 24 m. It is cut in the volcanic plateau, and is of trap and lava, with a width of 250 ft. and a depth of 40 ft. The gorges, which are of a richness of colouring that almost defies description, a colouring that is produced by the action of the thermal springs, at the base of the canyon, upon the mineral pigments in the lava. Bright orange, yellow, red and purple hues predominate and are set off very effectively against the dark green pines with which the margins of the canyon are fringed, and the white foam of the river is ingeniously forced into fantastic shapes by the current of the water. The river joins the Missouri river at the mouth of the Tower creek, which drains the concavity of the horseshoe formed by the Washburn Mountains, enters the Yellowstone. Just above its mouth this stream makes a beautiful fall of 152 ft. into the gorge in which it joins the river. A few miles farther down, the Yellowstone is joined by an E. branch, the Lamar river, which drains a large part of the Absaroka Range. Then it enters the Third Canyon, from which it emerges at the mouth of Gardiner river. The latter stream drains an area of elevated land by means of its three courses, and upon each of them occurs a fine fall in its descent toward the Yellowstone. The Madison rises in the W. of the park and flows in a S.W. and S. direction through the park. These waters are mainly collected from the rainfall upon the plateaux, and from the hot springs and geysers, most of which are within its drainage area. Upon this river and its affluents are several fine falls. Indeed, all the falls and cascades along the end of the park have been given names, a few of which are in its courses, of a recent change of level in the surface of the country.

The climate, influenced by the high elevation, is characterized by long and severe winters and short summers with great diurnal extremes of temperature. But the low temperature causes the moisture-laden winds to deposit here greater quantities of rain and snow than in the semi-arid regions below, which not only promote the growth of vegetation, but cause the activity of the springs, geysers and waterfalls. The mean annual temperature at the station of the United States Weather Bureau, near the N. boundary, is 39°F. The summer (June, July and August) mean is 59°; the winter (December, January and February) mean, 20°.

Extremes have ranged from 96° in July to -35° in February. The temperature has fallen to 30° in July, and a warm summer day may at times be followed by frost at night. The mean annual precipitation is 19-6. Much of this is in the form of snow, and nearly half of it is during the four months from December to March; in the four driest months, from July to October, it is only 4-4 in. Above 2000 ft., snow falls every month of the year. The average annual snowfall amounts to 947 in. The prevailing winds are S.

About four-fifths of the park is covered with dense forests of black pine (Pinus Muricatata), balsam, fir, spruce, cedar and poplar. These trees do not attain a large size. A low blueberry (Vaccinium myrtillus) forms a thick underbrush in nearly all parts of the park; and the following is a list of some of the wild fruits: black currants, blueberries, red currants and black currants grow along the streams and in moist places of the lower altitudes. In the glades are
bunch-grass and a variety of flowering plants; butercups, daisies, forget-me-nots and other wild flowers may be found and especially snow-banks in August. In the hot-spring districts are plants with peculiarities both of those common to the desert and those common to the seashore. In the N.E. corner of the park fossil forests rise one above the other. After the destruction of one forest by volcanic eruptions another grew over it; it, too, was buried under volcanic material, and the process was repeated several times.

The native fauna is abundant and varied. The policy of the government which protects game, both in the park and in the surrounding national forests, has induced elk, deer, antelope, mountain-sheep, bears, porcupines, coyotes, squirrels, grebe, grebes, ducks, cranes, pelicans, birds of prey, and many others. Black, brown and grizzly bears may be seen at almost any time during the summer season feeding on the garbage from the hotels. A few wild bison still remain at large, and besides these there is a herd of about 100 confined within a pasture in the Lamar Valley. The lakes and rivers are well stocked with trout and other fish, and visitors have the privilege of catching a limited number with rod and line. Robins, bluebirds, warblers, chickadees, finches, vireos, wrens, yellow-headed blackbirds, nutcrackers, nut-hatchers, and several other species of small birds are found in the park, but the number of each is not great. Among birds of prey are the golden eagle, bald eagle, hawks and owls. Geese, ducks, cranes, pelicans and gulls are very numerous in the autumn months.

The park is under the supervision of a superintendent who is appointed and instructed by the Secretary of the Interior. It is policed, however, by troops of United States cavalry with headquarters at Fort Yellowstone, near the Mammoth Hot Springs, and the building of roads and other improvements is controlled by the Secretary of the Interior and the survey where the railroad approaches to the park are a branch of the Northern Pacific railway up the valley of the Yellowstone to the main gate at Gardiner, Montana, and a branch of the Oregon Short Line up the valley of the North Fork of the Snake to Yellowstone, Montana. Automobiles are not allowed within the park, and the principal means of conveyance is by stage coaches and by a steamboat on Yellowstone Lake. There are hotels at the Mammoth Hot Springs, at the principal geyser basins and at Yellowstone Lake. The hotels and stage lines open for the tourist season early in June, and close in September.

The strange phenomena of this region were known to some of the Indians; they were discovered by John Colter, a member of the Lewis and Clark expedition, in 1807; the region was visited by James Bridger before 1830; an account of the geysers was published at Nauvoo, Illinois, in The Wasp, a Mormon paper, in 1842; Captain W. F. Raynolds, of the United States Corps of Topographical Engineers, with full knowledge of Bridger's accounts, was ordered to explore the region in 1859, and yet, chiefly because of the persistent incredibility with which the accounts of the phenomena were received, the region remained practically unknown until 1870. From 1863 to 1866 gold seekers repeatedly confirmed the early reports, and the publication of their accounts in Western papers gradually aroused interest. In 1869 a private exploring party, consisting of David E. Folsom, C. W. Cook and William Peterson, set out from the gold-fields of Montana with the express purpose of verifying or refuting the rumors, and they returned full of enthusiasm. In 1870 a semi-official expedition, led by Henry D. Washburn, the surveyor-general of Montana, and Lieutenant Gustavus C. Doane of the Second United States Cavalry, made the Yellowstone Wonderland widely known. A year later an expedition under Dr Ferdinand V. Hayden (1829-1887) made a large collection of specimens and photographs, and with these data, together with the reports of this and the Washburn-Doane expedition, Congress was induced to reserve the area from settlement, which was done by an act approved the 1st of March 1872. In that year further explorations were made, and in subsequent years army expeditions continued the work of exploration. In 1878 a park based upon the Volcano survey was drawn for the Hayden survey, and in 1883-85 a more detailed map was made by the United States Geological Survey, and a systematic study of its geological phenomena was instituted.


Yemen (Yemen), a province of Arabia, forming the S.W. corner of the peninsula, between 12° 35' and 18° N., and 42° and 47° E., bounded on the N. by Asir and on the E. by the Dahna desert and Hadramut. The petty and ancient petty states were annexed to the Ottoman Empire in 1839, and British protection was defined by an agreement between Great Britain and Turkey in 1904, by a line running approximately N.E. from Sheik Said to the Dahna desert. The main physical characteristics of the province are described in the article Arabia. A lowland strip 20 to 30 m. wide extends along its western and southern coasts, skirted by the great mountain range which runs along the whole western side of the Arabian peninsula, and attains its greatest height in the Jibal, or highlands of Yemen; beyond this mountain zone the interior plateau falls gradually towards the N.E. to the Dahna desert.

The lowland, or Tehama, is hot and generally sterile; it contains occasional water near the coast, and at a few places inland. The vegetation is limited, and irrigated by hill streams and supporting many large villages and towns. The most important of these are Abu Arish, Bet el Fakhî and Zubâd in the western Tehama, the latter a thriving town of 20,000 inhabitants and the residence of a Turkish kaimakam; and Abyan and Lahej, the chief place of the independent Abdali tribe, in the southern Tehama. Hodeida and Aden are the only ports of commercial importance, Lohai and Ghaiifieka have sunk to insignificance; the centers of the coffee trade, and Mokha, the old centre of the coffee trade, is now almost deserted. The Jibâl forms a mountainous zone some 50 m. in width rising steeply from the foothills of the Tehama to an average height of 900 ft., many summits exceed 10,000 ft.--the highest fixed by actual survey is Jebel Manar, 10,565 ft., about 10 m. E. of the town of Jabal. With its temperate climate and regular rainfall, due to the influence of the S.W. monsoon, the Jibâl must be considered the most favoured district of Arabia. The villages are substantially built of stone, often Picturesquely situated on the spurs and crests of the hills, the houses clustering round the daâr or towers with domes, the cultivated valleys. The principal crops are wheat, barley, millet and coffee, the last-named more particularly on the western slopes of the range within reach of the moist sea-breezes. In many places the hill villages consist of a cluster of habitations, the houses supported by stone walls; the name given by the Greek geographers to the range of S. Arabia was no doubt intended to describe the step-like appearance of the hills due to this method of occupation. The special characteristic of the Yemen highlands is that fields and inhabited sites are found at the highest elevations, the mountain-tops forming extensive plateaux, often scarped on one side and only accessible to the higher elevations by tracks which encircle them like the escarpments of a natural fortress; a remarkable example of this is Jebel Jihâf on the Aden border, 8000 ft.
above sea-level and 4000 ft. above the Kataba valley, an isolated plateau some 6 m. long, containing thirty or forty villages.

South of the Jut, the seat of a Turkish mutassarif; its present population does not exceed 4000, but it was formerly a large city, and from its position in the centre of a comparatively fertile district at the junction of several trade routes it must have been of importance. It has a Turkish government offices and barracks, and in the business quarter several cafés and shops kept by Greeks. The climate is unhealthy, perhaps owing to its low position in a valley; 4400 ft. above sea-level, at Allah's Canaan (9000 ft.) even in Nubier's time many of the houses in the city were in ruins. Thirty miles further N. are the small towns of Isb (6700 ft.) and Jibla, about 25 miles apart, both of which have stone-built houses and paved streets. To the E. on the main road to the coast via Zubed is Udun, the centre of a coffee-growing district; 80 m. to the N. is Manakha, a Turkish post on the main road from Hodeida to the capital. The town has strongholds at the junction of roads, which probably are relics of ancient coffee in Yemen. Another group of hill towns lies still further N. in the mountain mass between the Wadi Murr and Wadi La'a, where the strongholds of Dhahr, Affa, Haja and Kaurkaban held out for long against the Turkish advance; the last-named town, now almost deserted, was once a city of 20,000 inhabitants, and the Capital of a small principality which preserved its independence during the earlier Turkish occupation between 1536 and 1630.

The inner or plateau zone of Yemen stretches along the whole length of the province, with an average width of 120 m.; it lies entirely to the E. of the high range, and has therefore a smaller rainfall. It consists of a distinct series of slightly elevated areas, increasing in altitude towards the E. where it merges in the desert, but broken in places by rocky ranges, some of which rise 2000 ft. above sea-level, and which show evidence of volcanic action. It is intersected by several wadi systems, of which the principal are those in the N. uniting to form the Wadi Nejran, in the centre of the Wadi Khard and Shihwan range, and in the S. the Wadi Bana and the Atah, from the watershed near Yarin, 8500 ft. above sea-level, to less than 400 ft. at the edge of the desert.

The northern part, nearly down to the latitude of Sana, is the territory of the warlike Hasibid and Bakil tribes, which have never submitted to the Turks, and in 1895 four tribes led by the Turk, mutassarif, drove the prophecy and occupation of the province by the Turks. The present time held the capital Sana itself for the Imam Muhammad Yahidhi, the representative of the old dynasty that ruled in Yemen from the expulsion of the Turks in 1630 till its reconquest in 1871. The principal places are Sana, the residence of the Imam, an important town on the old pilgrim road 120 m. N. of Sana, Khaiwan and Khamir.

In the N.E., bordering on the desert, is the district of Nejran, a mountainous country with several fertile valleys including the Wadi Nejran, Bedr and Habuna, all probably draining N.E. to the Wadi Daisari. Further S. is the oasis of Jauf, a hollow or depression, as its name signifies, containing many villages, and of great importance as the communication line of the Wadi Nejran and Sabae kingdom, known to the ancients from the earliest historical times through their control of the frankincense trade of S. Arabia. Ma'in, identified by Halsey as the seat of the former, is a small town to the SE. of Jauf. There are other ruins found by him in the neighbourhood, together with inscriptions supporting the identification. Mârib, the Sabaean capital, an ancient city, is now a group of ruins built accurately, the foundation of which is protected by the Queen of Sheba, and the bursting of which in A.D. 120 is said to have led to the abandonment of the city. This was, however, more probably due to the deterioration of the country through desiccation, which has forced the settled population farther westward, where Sana became the centre of the later Himyarite kingdom. The Arhab district drained by the Wadi Khard and Shihwan between Sana and Jauf is covered with Himyarite ruins, showing that the latter formerly supported a large settled population where owing to the want of water cultivation is now impossible.

South of this independent tribal territory the principal places are Abyan and Qac, the latter from the Latin form of the Himyaritic name of Dhamar (a town of 4000 inhabitants, the residence of a kainakam, and the seat of an ancient university) and Yarim are on the road leading S. to Aden; and two days' journey to the E. is Rada in the extreme S. of the province, an inhabited place, and the principal town of the Abyan, once a flourishing city. From near Rada the boundary runs S.W. to the small town of Katubah through which the direct road passes from Aden to Sana. The S. are, however, an occupied area, and four tribes under British protection, of which the principal are the Yafa', the Haushabi and the Abdali.

The inhabitants of Yemen are settled, and for the most part occupied in agriculture and trade, and the Sana group of tribes are related to the pastoral or Bedouin type found in Hejaz and Nejd hardly existing. In the adjoining province of Hadramut, with which Yemen has been closely related, the people are divided into four classes: (1) The Seer; (2) The Aba, or Ashari, forming a religious aristocracy; (2) The Kabali, or tribesmen, belonging to the Kahtarian or original S. Arabian stock, who form the bulk of the population, and are the only class habitually carrying arms; (3) the trading class; (4) the servile class, mostly of mixed African descent, and including a number of Jews. These latter have preserved a distinctively active role in the earlier history of the towns. Owing to the hardships to which they have been exposed through the disturbed state of the country, many are emigrating to the interior, five or six thousand yearly. See C. Niebuhr, Travels and Description of Arabia (Amsterdam, 1774); D. G. Hogarth, Penetration of Arabia (London, 1904); E. Gasser, Geschichte und Geographie Arabiens (Berlin, 1890), and in Fergusson's Mill (1896); R. Manzoni, Il Yemen (Rome, 1884); A. D'Ellers, Voyage en Yenies (Paris, 1889); S. M. Zwemer, Arabia (Edinburgh, 1900); W. B. Harris, A Journey through Yemen (London, 1895); H. Burchardt, Z. d. Ges. für Erdkunde (Berlin, 1902), N.E. 17.
Beyond the Yeniseisk Taiga begin the lowlands, which at no point rise more than a few hundred feet above the sea. They slope gently towards the Arctic Ocean and are covered with lakes, scanty forests and marshes; and, as they approach the ocean, they merge into tundra, a region of bare rock. Beyond 70° N. trees occur only along the courses of the rivers. Two ranges, however, break the monotony of the lowlands—the Tungusk, which stretches N.W. along the coast of the Upper Tunguzka, and the Byrranga mountains, which skirt the N.W. shore of the Taymyr peninsula. The shores of the Arctic Ocean are indented by deep estuaries, that of the Taz penetrating 600 m. into the interior of the Arctic Lowlands. The coast of the Arctic is a frigid and the bedagai. Thaddeous and Khantaga Bays are wide and deep indentations, ice-bound almost all the year round. Taymyr peninsula, between the Yenisei and the Khantaga, is a stony desert, which is traversed by the Yeniseisk and its affluents. In 55° N. this river approaches the Chulym, a tributary of the Ob, from which it is separated by an isthmus only 6 m. in width. The position of the town of Yeola, connecting the two great river systems of Siberia and the Ob, has been much disputed; at this point has often been discussed; the difficulty is that the Chulym valley is 440 ft. higher than the other.

Yeniseisk is rich in all kinds of metals and minerals. Gold dust appears in the N. Yeniseisk Taiga, in the region of the Kuznetsovs and the Altai, and in the valleys of the Tunguska and Anabar rivers. The climate of the Yeniseisk Region is due to the influence of the Siberian lowlands, larger size and greater brilliancy of colour. The rich carpet of grass and flowers is overtopped by the tall blossoms of *Archangelica officinalis*, which are a favourite article of food to all the Aboriginals. The meadows of the northern localities, surrounded by thickets of willow, poplar, wild cherry and hawthorn, are still more attractive, on account of their wealth in anemones, violets, gentians and so on, and in the rarefied atmosphere in which they are cultivated. Dr Martinov's lists enumerate a total of 760 flowering and 760 cryptogamic plants. Of the lower Fungi and parasitical Myxomycetes 1300 species were noted, and out of the 823 species hitherto described by specialists no fewer than 124 have proved to be new. Further N. the flora is similar in character to that of the Siberian lowlands (see SIBERIA). In the Taymyr peninsula it is represented by only 124 species of flowering plants.

The steppe of the upper Yeniseisk have been inhabited from a very remote antiquity, and numberless kurgans, or burial mounds, graves, rock inscriptions and smelting furnaces of the successive inhabitants are scattered all over the prairies of Abakan and Minusinsk. The present population exhibits traces of all their predecessors. Numerous survivals of Turkish and Samoyedic tribes are found in the steppe and in the Sayans; but some of them are greatly reduced in numbers. The eastern section of the region is inhabited entirely Russian, the rest (about 16%) consisting of Samoyedes, Tunguses, Yakuts, Mongols and Ostyaks. The government is divided into five districts, the chief towns of which are Krasnoyarsk, Achinsk, Kansk, Minusinsk and Yeniseisk.

Some 1,117,000 acres (9.2%) are under crops, the principal being rye, wheat, oats, barley and potatoes. Live-stock, including reindeer, breeding is very extensively carried on. Fishing, especially on the lower Yeniseisk, is of great importance. Sables are not now to be found, and the hunters obtain chiefly squirls, foxes, Arctic foxes and bears. In the middle of the 19th century 250,000 to 350,000 oz. of gold were obtained annually in N. and S. Yeniseisk, and only 18,200 oz. in 1903. The Yeniseisk Government has a manufactory for the manufacture of gold-fields and gold bullion, and are supplied with grain and cattle by river from the Minusinsk region, and with salt, spirits and iron by the Angara. The government is traversed from W. to E. by the Siberian railway, and considerable efforts have been made to establish regular steamer communication between the mouth of the Yenisei and W. Europe. For some years before the close of the 19th century steamers (e.g. that of the English Captain Wiggins) reached the mouth of the Yenisei, importing provisions and machinery for the gold mines. Efforts have been made to clear the rapids of the Angara, so as to bring Lake Baikal into steamer communication with the Yenisei. Owing to the shallowness, however, of the small tributaries of the Yenisei, the canal connecting the Yenisei with the Ob has not proved as serviceable as was expected. (P. A. K.; J. T. BE.)

Yeniseisk, a town of Asiatic Russia, capital of the Government of the same name, on the right bank of the Yenisei, 170 m. N.N.W. of Krasnoyarsk, with which it has regular communication by steamer. Pop. 12,000. It is the centre of a gold-mining region, and has a public library and a natural history and archaeological museum. The town was founded in 1618.

Yeola, a town of British India, in the Naski district of Bombay, on the chord line of the Great Indian Peninsula railway, 18 m. from Manned junction. Pop. (1901) 16,559. It is the seat of an important manufactures of cotton and silk cloth and thread, and also of gold and silver wire. It is the scene of a considerable trade, and was a strong fort in the old days. The town was founded in 1618 by the Jesuits, and bears the name of the Jesuit Father, Father Yeola, who established the first Christian church in India. It is the seat of an excellent school for civil and military engineers.

Yeoman, a term of which the various meanings fall into two main divisions, first that of a class of holders of land, and secondly that of a retainer, guard, attendant or subordinate officer or official. The word appears in M.E. as *yeoman*, *yeomans* and *yeoman*; it does not appear in O.E. Various explanations have been given for its origin, e.g. *i.e. a young man*, *yee-mon*; *yeoman*, attendant, from *yma-tan*; but the word is generally accepted that the first part is the same word as the Ger. *Gau*, district, province, and probably occurs in O.E. as *gea* in *Sibiri-ga*, Surrey, *i.e. southern district*, and other place-names. Thus in O. Frisian is found *gima*, a villager; Bavarian, *gloom*, peasant. "Yeoman" thus meant a countryman, a man of the district, and it is this sense which has survived in the special use of the word for a class of landholders, treated below.

For the transition in meaning to a guard of the sovereign's body and to officials of a royal household see YEOMEN OF THE GUARD AND VALETS. In the British navy there are petty officers in charge of the signalling styled "Yeomen of Signals." For the history and present organization of the "yeomany cavalry" see YEOMANRY and UNITED KINGDOM (§ Army).
YEOMANRY—YEOMEN OF THE GUARD

land, although, doubtless from its younger sons, the class furnished retainers for the great lords, men-at-arms and archers for the wars, and also tradesmen for the towns. Stubbs (Const. Hist. vol. iii.) refers to them as "a body which in antiquity of possession and purity of extraction was probably superior to the classes that looked down upon it as ignoble," and Medley (Eng. Const. Hist.) describes them as in the 15th century recruiting on the whole "the small freeholders of the feudal manor." Holinshed, in his Chronicle, following Sir T. Smyth (De republica Anglorum), and W. Harrison (Description of England), describes them as having free land worth £6 annually, and in times past 40s., and as not entitled to bear arms, being for the most part farmers to gentlemen, and this description may be accepted as the popular idea of the yeoman in the 16th century. He formed the intermediate class between the gentry and the labourers and artisans, the line of demarcation, however, being not drawn very distinctly.

The yeomen were the smaller landholders, and in the 15th century were practically identical with the forty-shilling freeholders who exercised the franchise under the act of 1430. Occasionally they found their way into parliament, for in 1446 the sheriffs were forbidden to return velleti (i.e. yeomen) as members, but this prohibition had very little result. Soon, however, the name appears to have included tenant farmers as well as small freeholders. Thus Latimer, in his famous sermon before Edward VI., says: "My father was a yeoman, but had no land of his own," describes the yeoman as an exceedingly prosperous person, and the same opinion had been expressed about a century before by Sir John Fortescue in his Governance of England. The decay of the class began with the formation of large sheep farms in the 16th century, but its decline was very slow, and the yeomen furnished many sturdy recruits to the parliamentary party during the Civil War. Their decay was accelerated during the 18th century, when many of them were bought out by the large landowners, while they received another blow when the factory system destroyed the country's domestic industries. Many writers lament the decay of the yeoman in the 18th and 19th centuries, but this is partly accounted for by the fact that they exclude all tenant farmers from the class, which they confine to men cultivating their own land. Thus the wheel has come full circle and the word means to-day much the same as it meant in the early part of the 15th century.

YEOMANRY, the name given to the volunteer mounted troops of the home defence army of Great Britain, ever since their original formation; it indicated that recruiting, organization and command were upon a county basis, that the yeoman as an officering force, the farmers and yeomen serving in its ranks, and all alike providing their own horses. Although the yeomanry was created in 1761, it was not organized until 1794. Under the stimulus of the French War recruiting was easy, and 5000 men were quickly enrolled. A little later, when more cavalry was needed, the Provisional Cavalry Act was passed, whereby a sort of revived knight-service was established, every owner of ten horses having to find and equip a horseman, and all who owned fewer than ten, grouped by tens of horses, similarly finding one. But the act was soon repudiated and the yeomanry cavalry could be substituted for provisional cavalry in the county quota. This gave a great stimulus to yeomanry recruiting, as similar enactments had done in the case of the infantry volunteers. But even so the provisional cavalry, which was embodied only in counties that did not supply the quota in yeomanry, was stronger than the yeomanry at the peace of Amiens. At that peace, partly with a view to preserving internal order, partly because of the probable renewal of the war, the yeomanry was retained, although the provisional cavalry was disbanded. There was thus a nucleus for expansion when Napoleon's threatened invasion (1803-5) called out the defensive powers of the country, and as early as December 1803 there were in England, Scotland and Ireland 44,000 yeomen. At the same time the limitations as to place of service (some undertaking to serve in any part of Great Britain, some within a specified military district, most only in their own county) were abolished. The unit of organization was the troop of 80-100, but most of the force was grouped in regiments of five or more troops, or in "corps" of three or four troops. Permanent paid adjutants and staff sergeants were allowed to corps and regiments, but no assistance was given in the shape of officers on the active list and serving non-commissioned officers of the army and militia. Equipment, supply and mobilization of the yeomany was purely regimental, and through all the war years most of the troops and squadrons were ready to take the field, with equipment, food and forage, complete at a day's notice. They were trained as light cavalry, and armed with sabre and pistol. But a few town corps had mounted rifles, and several corps, both in town and country, had one or more dismounted troops, who were carried on vehicles similar to the "Expedition or Military Fly" pictured by Rowlandson.

From the extinction of Chartism to the South African War the history of the yeomanry is uneventful. The strength of the force gradually sank to 10,000. But when it became apparent that mounted troops would pay a decisive part in the war against the Boers, the yeomanry again came to the front. Of its 10,000 serving officers and men, 3000 went to South Africa in newly formed battalions of "Imperial Yeomanry," armed and organized purely as mounted rilfes, and to these were added over 32,000 fresh men, for whom the yeomanry organization at home and at the seat of war provided the cadres and training. The same yeomanry was not only filled up by its gaps but expanded. In 1901 the yeomanry, now all styled "Imperial," was remodelled; and the strength of regiments was equalized on a four-squadron basis. In the prevailing conditions practically all regiments were able to recruit up to the increased establishment, and the strength of the force was more than trebled. Fresh regiments were formed, some in the towns, others on the nucleus of special corps disbanded at the close of the South African War. In 1907 the yeomanry became part of the new Territorial Force (see United Kingdom, § Army). YEOMEN OF THE GUARD, originally "Yeomen of the Guard of the body of our Lord the King," or in the 15th century Latin, "Valetici garde (corporis) domini Regis," the title (maintained with but a slight variation since their institution in 1485, the official wording under Edward VII. being "The King's Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard") of a permanent military corps in attendance on the sovereign of England, as part of the royal household, whose duties, now purely ceremonial, were originally that of the sovereign's personal bodyguard. They are the oldest existing body of the kind, having an unbroken record from 1485. Yeomen was not only filled up by its gaps but expanded. Before that time there had been forms of royal guard, but no permanent institution. Under Edward I. we find in England the "cross-bowmen of the household," and under Edward II. an "Archer guard of the King's body"; but the "Archers of the King," "of the crown" or "of the household," who appear in the records up to 1454, seem to have had no continuous establishments. Apparently each sovereign, on coming to the throne, established a new Guard of his own particular followers. It was not till Henry VII. created the "Yeomen of the Guard," that the title was ascribed to a regular body. The first warrants to individual "Yeomen of the Guard" date from September 16, 1485, and it is a fair inference that the Guard was created by the king on the battlefield of Bosworth (August 22, 1485), its first members being men who had shared Henry's exile in Brittany, followed him on his return, and fought as his private Guard in that action. The warrant of September 18, 1485, now in the Record Office, "to William Brown, Yeoman of the King's Guard," corroborates this view—"in consideration of the good service that ouse humble and faithful subject William Browne Yeoman of our Garde hath heretofore done unto us as well beyonde the see as at our victorious journeye." It is argued by Sir Reginald Hennell that the title of "Yeomen of the Guard" signified Henry VII.'s intention to choose the special protectors of his person not from the ranks of the nobility, but from the class just below them (see YEOMAN), who had
proved war the backbone of the national strength. The term valenci, or "valet" (see VALET), was already in use, as signifying personal attendants, with none of the modern menial sense of the word.

The first official recorded appearance of the king's bodyguard of the Yeomen of the Guard was at the coronation of its founder Henry VII. at Westminster Abbey on the 31st of October 1485, when it numbered 50 members. This number was rapidly increased, for there is an authentic roll of 126 attending the king's funeral in 1509. Henry VIII. raised the strength of the Guard to 500 when he took it to visit Francis I. of France at the Field of the Cloth of Gold. In Queen Elizabeth's reign it numbered 200. The corps was originally officered by a captain (a post long associated with that of vice-chamberlain), an ensign (or standard-bearer), a clerk of the cheque (or Chequer roll, his duty being to keep the roll of every one connected with the household), besides petty officers, captains, sergeants or ushers.

In 1605 Charles II. reorganized the Guard and gave it a fixed establishment of 100 yeomen, officered by a captain, a lieutenant, an ensign, a clerk of the cheque and four corporals in the pay of the organization and strength. The only variation is that the captaincy is now a ministerial appointment filled by a nobleman of distinction under the lord chamberlain, and that the old rank of "corporals" has been changed to "exon," a title derived from "exempt," i.e. exempted from regular military duty for employment on the staff. Formerly officers on the active list were given these appointments in addition to their own.

The original duties of the Guard were of the most comprehensive nature. They were the king's personal attendants day and night at home and abroad. They were responsible for his safety not only on journeys and on the battlefield, but also within the precincts of the palace itself. The regulations for making of the king's bed in Tudor times were of the most elaborate formality. No one but the Yeomen of the Guard under an officer might touch it. Each portion was separately examined. Each sheet or coverlet was laid with the greatest ceremony, and the sovereign could not retire to rest until the work was reported as well and truly done. The existence of the custom is verified at the present day by the designations Y.B.H. ("Yeomen Bed-Hanged") and Y.B.G. ("Yeomen Bed-Grown"), with the guards and organization, and strength. The only variation is that the captaincy is now a ministerial appointment filled by a nobleman of distinction under the lord chamberlain, and that the old rank of "corporals" has been changed to "exon," a title derived from "exempt," i.e. exempted from regular military duty for employment on the staff. Formerly officers on the active list were given these appointments in addition to their own.

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YEOTMAL—YEW

origin in 1569-10 in the twelve Yeoman of the Guard whom young King Henry VIII left, when he gave up the Tower of London as a permanent residence, to show that it was still a royal palace. When the Tower was finally given up as a royal residence they became warders and were deprived of the dress, but were given it back in 1577.

It is described by John Stow, who in 1563, mentioning the immense magnificence of the bodyguard of Francis I. of France, decided to have a noble guard of his own, which he accordingly instituted and called "The Gentlemen Spears." It was composed of young nobles gorgeously attired. In 1565, this guard was organized and called "Gentlemen Pensioners." This title it retained till William IV.'s reign, when the corps regained its military character, the king on their petition giving them their present designation, "The Honourable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms."

See The History of the King's Bodyguard of the Yeomen of the Guard, by Colonel Sir Reginald Hennell, D.S.O., Lieutenant of the Yeoman of the Guard (1902). (R. H.)

YEOTMAL, a town and district of India, in Berar. The town stands at an elevation of 1476 ft. Pop. (1901) 19,545. It was formerly the headquarters of Wun district, but in 1905 a new district of Yeotmal was established, covering the former Wun district, with additions from the district of Basim. Cotton-ginning and pressing are carried on. The town is also the chief trading centre in the district, and is connected by road with Dhamangaon station, 29 m. distant.

The District of Yeotmal has an area of 5183 sq. m. It is a wild hilly country, intersected by offshoots from the Ajanta mountains. The hills are bare, or clothed only with dwarf teak or small jungle; but on the heights near Wun town the bamboo grows abundantly, and small bamboos are found in the ravines. The Wardha and Penganga, which bound the district on the E. and S., unite at its S.E. corner. The Penganga drains the greater part of the district. The tiger, leopard and hyena abound; bears, wolves and jackals are also numerous; while small game is plentiful. The climate is enervating and unhealthy; the annual rainfall averages about 41 in. Pop. (1901) 57,507. The principal crops are millets, cotton, pulses, oil-seeds and wheat. Coal has been found, and iron ore abounds.

See Yeotmal District Gazetteer (Calcutta, 1908). (C. J. W.)

YEVOIL, a market town and municipal borough in the Shropshire division of Shropshire, England, on the Great Western and South-Western railways, 127 m. W. by S. of London. Pop. (1901) 9861. The town lies on the river Yeo, and is a thriving place, with a few old houses. The church of St John the Baptist is a perpendicular cruciform structure, consisting of chancel, nave of seven bays, aisles, transepts and lofty western tower. There are some 15th- and 16th-century brasses, a dark cradle roof, and an early 13th-century crypt under the chancel. The town is famous for its manufacture of gloves (dating from 1565). Its agricultural trade is considerable. The town is governed by a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. Area, 6534 acres. Yeovil (Virole, Evil, Ivo, Yceole) before the Conquest was part of the private domains of the Anglo-Saxon kings. The town owed its origin to trade, and became of some size in the 15th century. In 14th-century documents it is described as a town or borough governed by a portreeve, who frequently came into conflict with the parson of St John's church, who had become lord of the manor of Yeovil during the reign of Henry III. The corporation in the 18th century consisted of a portreeve and eleven burgesses, and was abolished when the town was reincorporated in 1853. Further information for the 17th of July the 6th of November were held under grant of Henry VII., and were important for the sale of leather and of woolen cloth, both made in the town. The Friday market dates from 1215. There is a great market every other Friday and a monthly horse sale.

YERKES, CHARLES TYSON (1837-1903), American capitalist, was born of Quaker parentage, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 25th of June 1837. He was a clerk in a grain-commission house, an exchange broker (1858-61) and a banker (1861-86). When he failed in 1871 he refused to give any preference to the city of Philadelphia for bonds sold on its account, and was convicted of "misappropriating city funds," and sentenced to two years and nine months in the penitentiary. After serving seven months of this sentence he was pardoned, and the City Council afterward passed an ordinance canceling the municipality's claim against him. He established a banking business in Chicago in 1881; in 1886 got control of the Chicago City Railway Company; and within the next twelve years organized a virtual monopoly of the surface and elevated railway service of Chicago. He disposed of his street railway interests in Chicago, and removed to London (1900). There he acquired in 1907 a controlling interest in the Metropolitan District railway, and by organizing the finances of the Under-ground Electric Railways Company he took an important initiative in extending the system of London electric railways. Yerkes gave to the university of Chicago the great telescope installed in the Yerkes Observatory at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, and gathered in his New York residence a remarkable collection of paintings, tapestries and rugs, which were sold at auction in April 1910 for $2,934,450. He died in New York on the 29th of December 1905.

YETHOLM, a village of Roxburghshire, Scotland. Pop. (1901) 571. It is situated on Bowmont Water, 73 m. S.E. of Kelso, and 5 m. S.S.W. of Mindrum in Northumberland, the nearest railway station. It is divided into two quarters, Kirk Yetholm on the right and Town Yetholm on the left of the stream. The name is said to be the O.E. 'get', "gate," and holm (here the same as howm), "hamlet," meaning "the hamlet at the gate." Of Scotland, the border being only 7½ m. distant. Since about the middle of the 17th century the district has been the head-quarters of a tribe of gipsies.

YEW (Taxus baccata), a tree which belongs to a genus of Coniferae (see GYMNOPODIUM), in which the ordinarily woody

Yew, 1, shoot with male flowers; 2, leaf and in section; 3, branch bearing two ripe seeds each with its crimson aril; 4, male flowers; 5, stamens; 6, 7, female flower in different stages; 8, section of ripe seed and aril. 1, slightly reduced; 2, and 4 to 8, enlarged.
diverse habitat, but generally with dense spreading branches, thickly clothed with very dark green linear leaves, which are given off from all sides of the branch, but which, owing to a twist in the base of the leaf, become arranged in a single series on each side of it. The trees are usually dioecious, the male flowers being borne on one individual and the female on another, although instances occur which flowers of both sexes are formed on the same tree. The male flowers are more or less globular and occur in the axils of the leaves. They consist of a number of overlapping brownish scales, gradually increasing in size from below upwards and surrounding a naked stalk that bears at its summit a head of four to eight stamens. Beneath this, and with its surface covered by the overlapping scales, is a yellowish white, slightly papery, globous pollen-grain. The female flowers are also placed each separately in the axil of a leaf, and consist of a number of overlapping scales, as in the male. These scales surround a cup which is at first shallow, green and thin (the so-called aril), but which subsequently becomes fleshy and red, while it increases so much in length as almost entirely to conceal the single straight seed. It is clear that the structure of the female flower differs from that of the type and on which it is now often separated in a distinct order, Taxaceae.

The poisonous properties, referred to by classical writers such as Caesar, Virgil and Livy, reside chiefly if not entirely in the foliage. This, if eaten by horses or cattle, especially when it has been cut and thrown in heaps so as to undergo a process of fermentation, is very injurious. The leaves have also been used for various medicinal purposes, but are not employed now. An alkaloid *tazine*, said to depress the circulation, is extracted. It forms white crystals soluble in alcohol and ether. As a timber tree the yew is used for cabinet-work, boxes, bows and the like, which require both strength and durability.

The yew occurs wild over a large area of the northern hemisphere. In N.E. America and in Japan trees are found of a character so similar that by some botanists they are all ranged under one species. Generally, however, the European yew, *T. baccata*, is regarded as native of Europe, N. Africa, and Asia as far as the Himalayas and the Amur region, while the American and Japanese forms are considered to represent distinct species. The yew is wild in Great Britain, forming a characteristic feature of the hedges and downs of parts of the Lake District and elsewhere. The evidence of fossil remains, antiquities and place-names indicates that it was formerly more widely spread in Europe than at the present day. The varieties grown in the United Kingdom are numerous, one of the most striking being that known as the Irish yew—a shrub with the pyramidal or columnar habit of a cypress, in which the leaves spread from all sides of the branches, not being twisted, as they usually are, out of their original position. In the ordinary yew the main branches spread more or less horizontally, and the leaves are so arranged as to be conveniently exposed to the influence of the light; but in the variety in question the branches are mostly vertical, and the leaves assume a direction in accordance with the ascending direction of the branches. The plants have all sprung from one of two trees found growing wild more than a hundred years ago on the mountains of Co. Fermanagh in Ireland, and afterwards planted in the garden of Florence Court, a seat of the earl of Enniskillen.

The yew is a favourite evergreen tree, either for planting separately or for hedges, for which its dense foliage renders it well suited. Its dense growth makes it also useful for hedging or for the making of thick hedges which, as was introduced by John Evelyn and became very prevalent at the close of the 17th and the beginning of the 18th centuries. The wood is very hard, close-grained and of a deep red-brown colour internally. The planting of the yew in churchyards was at one time supposed to have been done with a view to the supply of yew staves. But, while importation from abroad was fostered, there seems to have been no statute enforcing the cultivation of the yew in Great Britain; a statute, however, of Edward I. (cited in *The Gardener's Chronicle*, 6th March 1886, p. 306) states that the trees were often planted in churchyards to defend the church from high winds. The Crowhurst yew, mentioned by Evelyn as 30 ft. in circumference, still exists. The large yew at Ankerwyke, near Staines, with a trunk 30 ft. in circumference, in sight of which William the Conqueror was said to have died (1087), probably exceeds a thousand years of age. The fine yew in Buckland churchyard, near Dover, was removed in 1880 to a distance of 60 yds. The trunk had been split so that it had a direction nearly parallel with the soil. This huge yew stood 12 ft. 6 in. in circumference, with a girth of 15 ft. 8 in., by 3 ft. 6 in. in depth, the weight of the entire mass being estimated at 56 tons. The dimensions of the tree in 1880 were as follows: circumference of the main trunk, 22 ft. 6 in.; of the upright portion of the trunk, 6 ft. 10 in.; second horizontal trunk, 10 ft. 10 in.; do., south limb forkling off at 9 ft. from the main trunk, 7 ft. 10 in.; do., west limb forkling off at 9 ft. from the main trunk, 8 ft. 10 in.; extent of branches from centre of main trunk southward, 30 ft. 10 in.; and from north to south, 48 ft.; they extend from the main trunk westward 33 ft. The tree was replanted so that the horizontal portions were replaced in their original erect position and the natural symmetry restored.

For further details see Veitch, *Manual of Coniferae* (1900); Elwes and Henry, *Trees of Great Britain and Ireland* (1906).

**YEZID—YEZIDIS.**

YEZID, or YEZID, a province of Persia, bounded S. by Kerman, W. by Fars and Isfahan, and N. and E. by the central Persian deserts. It contains an area of about 20,000 sq. m., but its population barely exceeds 100,000, of whom about half inhabit the capital of the province. Its subdivisions are: (1) the city of Yeşid, the royal residence; (2) the great desert, containing the territory of (4) Tabšt; (5) Kubštan (*Pish Kuh*, Mian Kuh, Pusht Kuh, on the slopes and in the valleys of the Shir Kuh, a part of the Central Range of Persia W. of the city of Yeşid, and rising to an elevation of 11,000 ft.); and (6) Shahr i Babek. The last is situated far S. near Kerman, and sometimes is regarded as part of this province. The revenues slightly exceed £50,000 a year. Much silk is grown in the district, but is not sufficient for the silk stuffs which Yeşid manufactures with its 1000 looms, and raw silk (about 75,000 lb yearly) has to be obtained from Khorasan and Gilan. Great quantities of felts (*nimuds*), white or black cotton, and other goods, especially of *Gossypium herbaceum*, are also manufactured and exported. Other exports are opium, madder and almonds. The grain produced suffices for only two or three months’ consumption, and supplies have to be brought from Khorasan, so that wheat and barley are dearer than at other places in Persia. The part of the district situated in the plain is much exposed to moving sands, which render cultivation difficult and at times impossible.

YEZID, the capital of the province of the same name in Persia, situated 192 m. N.W. of Kerman, latitude 29° 19’ N., longitude 54° 27’ E., at an elevation of 4,320 ft. Its population, 100,000 in 1870, is now estimated at 50,000, including 2,000 Jews and 1,000 Zoroastrians. The city is divided into the Shahr i nāw (new town) and Shahr i kohneh (old town), separated by a wall with two gates. The ark, or citadel, in the E. of the town, is fortified with walls, bastions and dry ditch, and contains the governor’s residence. The bazaar is in good repair and well stocked; other parts of the town are irregularly planned, with dark, narrow streets. There are eighteen mosques, one, the Masjed i Jama, also called Masjed i Chahinnak, is an old and decayed structure originally built in 1410, with a lofty and imposing frontage dating from 1472. There are seven colleges. The caravanserai number thirty-three. There are telegraph (English staff since 1903) and post offices. The Englishman in charge of the telegraph office acts as British vice-consul.

YEZIDIS, a sect of devil-worshippers, calling themselves Dasni, who are found in Kurdistan, Armenia and the Caucasus. Their religion has points of connexion with old Iranian and Assyrian beliefs and traces of Manichaicism and Nestorianism. Thus they regard the devil as the creative Agent of the Supreme God, a reinstated fallen angel who is the author of evil. They avoid mentioning his name and represent him by the peacock. They regard Christ as an angel in human form and recognize

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1 In 1879 the Zoroastrian community of Yeşid numbered 6453, 1242 residing in the city, 5241 in the villages; in 1892 the community numbered 6908, and as many have emigrated, it is computed that it now numbers not more than 7000.
YEZO—YGGDRASIL

Mahomet as a prophet with Abraham and the patriarchs. They believe in a future life and practice both circumcision and baptism. The name is probably derived from the Kurdish and Persian Yazdin, God; though some have connected it with the city of Yezid, or with Yezid, the second Omeyyad caliph (720–24). Their sacred book is called Al-Yafahw, and its chief exponent was Shaikh Adi (c. 1200).

See Layard, Nineveh and its Remains (London, 1850); Menant, Lexicon Hierosolymitanum (Berlin, 1845).

YEZO, or Ezo, the most northerly of the five principal islands forming the Japanese empire, the five being Yezo, Nippon, Shikoku, Hikushu and Formosa. It is situated between 45° 56' and 41° 21' N. and between 146° 7' and 139° 11' E; its coast-line measures 1423.32 m., and it has an area of 30,148.41 sq. m. On the N. it is separated from Sakhalin by Soya Strait (La Pérouse) and on the S. from Nippon by Tsugaru Strait. Its northern shores are washed by the Sea of Okhotsk, its southern and eastern by the Pacific Ocean, and its western by the Sea of Japan.

Orography.—The highest mountain in the island is Ishikaridake (6955 ft.) and the next in importance is Tokachidake (6541 ft.). Yubari-take in Ishikari has a height of 6508 ft., and in the province of Kuroshio are O-kakan (4470 ft.) and O-tokachidake (2876 ft.). Dr. Kuroda states that Tokachidake forms a species of central elevation whence most of the principal rivers flow towards the sea, and that the mountain system is a continuation, of one of the principal ranges, of the Tertiary volcanos of the former consisting of granite and old schists, the latter chiefly of volcanic formations. Near Hakodate are two conspicuous volcanic peaks, Komaga-take (3822 ft.) and Tokatsuk-dake (3800 ft.); and off the coast of Tohoku (formerly called Atose-no-hori, or Two-zen sulphur mountain), whence great quantities of first-rate sulphur are exported to the United States. Mention must also be made of Kishiri, an island off Sapporo, the main town of the N.W. of Yezo, which has a peak of the same name rising to a height of nearly 6000 ft.

Rivers.—Yezo boasts the largest river in the Japanese empire, the Ishikari-gawa, which is estimated to measure 725 m. Its other large rivers are the Susuzawa-gawa (102 m.), the Tokachigawa (120 m.), the Shiribeshi-gawa (88 m.), the Kushiro-gawa (81 m.), the Toshibetsu-gawa (64 m.), and the Yubetsu-gawa (64 m.). The valley of the Ishikari is believed to be the most fertile part of the island; Tokachi has a small growth and fishing area, but the Teshio has a bar which renders its approach extremely difficult. A peculiarity of several of the rivers is that, on approaching the sea-shore, they run parallel to it for some distance before finding their way to the sea. Those flowing to the S. coast take a W. direction, those flowing to the E. coast a N. direction. This is attributed to the fact that the prevailing winds set up the sand so as to deflect the rivers from their straits.

Lakes.—There are no large lakes, but there are many small ones having a circumference of more than 25 m. Lagoons, however, are not uncommon. The largest of these—Saruma-ko in Kitami—is some 17 m. long by 7 wide. It abounds in sturgeons and for wild birds. A smaller lagoon at Akkeshi is famous, the molluscs measuring about 18 in. in length.

Climate.—The climate differs markedly from that of the main island of Japan, resembling rather the climate of the British Isles, though the winter is longer and more severe, and the atmosphere in the warm season contains a greater quantity of moisture. During five months the country is almost uninhabitable, and there is little cultivation. It is also remarkable in that respect because of the Nishibetsu-gawa, which yields an average of over 2000 tons of fish annually.

History.—Yezo was not brought under Japan's effective control until medieval times. In 1604 the island was granted in fief to Matsumae Yoshihiro, whose ancestor had overrun it, and from the close of the 18th century the E. was governed by officials sent by the shogun, whose attention had been attracted, to it by Russian trespassers. In 1871 the task of developing its resources and administering its affairs was entrusted to a special bureau, which employed American agriculturists to assist the work and American engineers to construct roads and railways; but in 1881 this bureau was abolished, and the island was abandoned to private hands the various enterprises it had inaugurated.

YGGDRASIL, in Scandinavian mythology, the mystical ash tree which symbolizes existence, and binds together earth, heaven and hell. It is the tree of life, of knowledge, of fate, of time and of space. Its three roots go down into the three great realms—(1) of death, where, in the well Hvergelmer, the dragon Nilhug (Nilhögg) and his brood are ever gnawing it; (2) of the giants, where, in the fountain of Mílahnir, lies the source of wisdom; (3) of the gods, Asgard, at the sacred Ashin Urd, is the dwelling of the gods, and the dwelling of the Fates. The stem of Yggdrasil upholds the earth, while its branches overshadow the world and reach up beyond the heavens. On its topmost bough sits an eagle, between whom and Nilhug the squirrel Ratatöskr runs to and fro to provoke the population of over 20,000, viz. Hakodate (20,114), Sapporo (46,147) and Otaru (34,586). Other towns of importance are Fukuyama (formerly called Mutsu-mae), the seat of government in feudal days, Esashi, Mombetsu, Oiwa, Tomakomai, Piratorii (the chief Ainu settlement), Mororan, Kushiro, Akkeshi, Nemuro, Horobetsu, Yuno-kawa, Abashiri and Mashike. Yuno-kawa, 43 m. from Hakodate, is much frequented for its hot springs; Oiwa is the junction of the main line of railway with the branch to the Yubari collieries; Kushiro exports coal and sulphur; Akkeshi is celebrated for its oysters.

Population.—The island seems to have been originally peopled by a semi-barbarian race of pit-dwellers, but modern representatives are to be found in the Kurils or their neighbours Khamtaka and Sakhalin. These autochthons were driven out by the Ainu, and the latter, in their turn, succumbed to the Japanese. The population of Yezo is 605,742, of whom 17,573 are Ainu. There is a steadily growing but not large emigration from Japan proper to Yezo. Yezo is divided into ten provinces, the names of which, beginning from the S., are Oshima, Shiribeshi, Ishikari, Teshio, Kitami, Ibari, Hidaka, Tokachi, Kushiro and Nemuro. Of these, Oshima, Shiribeshi and Ishikari are by far the most important. There are seven Ainu towns. The population of Great Strait is 17,573; Sapporo, 46,147; and Otaru, 34,586.
YONGE, Odin
The ft. was with prefectural ensued at Treaty 1886 of Japan, certain a Yola, Japan, foreign treaty of 1868 the Japanese government converted the shipyard into a naval dockyard, and subsequently carried out many improvements. In 1884 the port became a first-class naval station; and naval barracks and warehouses, offices, hospitals, &c., were built. The dockyard was first constructed by French engineers; but after 1875 the work passed entirely into the hands of Japanese engineers.

YOLA, once a native state of West Africa, forming part of the Fula emirate of Adamawa, now a province in the British protectorate of Nigeria. The province, which has an area of 16,000 sq. m., occupies the S.E. of the protectorate and both banks of the upper Benue. It is bounded S. and E. by the German colony of Cameroon, N. by the British province of Bornu, and W. by the British provinces of Bauchi and Murni. It has an estimated population of 60,000, of which 25,000 are Muslims, 20,000 are Christians, and the rest are animists. The town founded by the Fula conqueror Adama about the middle of the 19th century. It was the capital of the emirate of Adamawa, the greater part of which is now a German protectorate. The town is situated in 9° 12' N., 12° 46' E. and is built on the left or S. bank of the Benue, 480 m. by river from Lokoja. It can be reached by shallow draught steamers when the river is in flood. The Niger Company had trading relations with Yola before the establishment of British administration in Northern Nigeria. In 1901 the reigning emir, a son of Adama, forced them to evacuate their station, and, all attempts to establish friendly relations proving unavailing, the British government despatched an expedition from Lokoja in August 1901. The emir was deposed and a new emir installed in his place. The hostility of certain pagan tribes had to be overcome by British expeditions in January and April of 1902. By 1903 the province was brought fairly under administrative control, and divided into three administrative divisions—the N.W. with a station at Gazi, the N.E. and the S. with Yola for its station. The new emir proved friendly and loyal, but the new administration was not formally installed till October 1904, when he took the customary oath of allegiance to the British crown and accepted all the conditions with regard to the suppression of slavery, &c. The slave markets were immediately closed as a result of British occupation, and any slave-trading which is still done is smuggled. In 1903 an exploring expedition was sent up the Gongola, one of the principal rivers of the Yola province, and as a result the navigability of the river for steam launches as far as Gombe at high water was demonstrated. An important means of communication with the province of Bornu was thus established, and a rich agricultural district opened to development. The Gongola valley was in ancient times extensively cultivated, and the population are readily returning to the land. Cotton, rice and tobacco are among the heavy crops (see NIGERIA, ADAMAWA).

YOLANDE [or ISABELLA] OF BREINNE (1222–1228), the daughter of John of Brienne, who had married Mary, daughter of Conrad of Montferrat, heirest on the death of Amalric II. of the kingdom of Jerusalem. Yolande inherited the throne on her mother's death in 1212, but her father ruled as her guardian. In 1215 she married John, Count of Flanders, and in 1217 this bond to attach the emperor firmly to the crusade. Immediately upon his marriage Frederick demanded all the rights of sovereignty in the kingdom of Jerusalem, which he claimed to exercise in his wife's name. His action led to difficulties with John, who did not relish the loss of his position. Yolande died in 1228 after the birth of a son, Conrad, and her husband then continued to rule, though not without opposition.

YONGE, CHARLOTTE MARY (1823–1901), English novelist and writer on religious and educational subjects, daughter of William
Crawley Yonge, 32nd Regiment, and Frances Mary Bargus, was born on the 11th of August 1823 at Otterbourne, Hants. She was educated by her parents, and from them inherited much of the religious feeling and High Church sympathy which coloured her work. She resided at Otterbourne all her life, and was one of the most prolific writers of the Victorian era. In 1841 she published five works of fiction, including The Clever Woman of the Family, Dynevor Terrace and The Trial; and after that she was the author of about 120 volumes, including novels, tales, school manuals and biographies. Her first conspicuous success was attained with The Heir of Redclyffe (1835), which enjoyed an enormous vogue. The Daisy Chain (1856) continued the success; and among her other popular books may be mentioned Heartsease (1854), The Young Stepmother (1861) and The Dove in the Eagle's Nest (1866). In more serious fields of literature she published Landmarks of History (three series, 1852–57), History of Christian Names (1863), Cameos of English History (1868), Life of Bishop Patterson (1874), English Church History for Use in Schools (1883) and many others. She also edited various educational works, and was for more than thirty years editor of the Monthly Packet. Yonge died at Otterbourne on 4th March 1896. Her works err on the side of didacticism, but exercised a wide and wholesome influence. The money realized by the early sales of The Daisy Chain was given to the building of a missionary college at Auckland, N.Z., while a large portion of the proceeds of The Heir of Redclyffe was devoted to the missionary schooner "The Southern Cross."

YONGE, JOHN (1465–1516). English ecclesiastic and diplomatist, was born at Heyford, Oxfordshire, and educated at Winchester and New College, Oxford, where he became a fellow in 1485. He was ordained in 1500 and held several livings before receiving his first diplomatic mission to arrange a commercial treaty with the archduke of Austria in 1504, and in the Low Countries in 1506 in connexion with the projected marriage between Henry VII. and Margaret of Savoy. In 1507 he was made Master of the Rolls, and in the following year was employed in various diplomatic missions. He was one of the ambassadors who arranged the Holy League in 1513, and accompanied Henry VIII. during the ensuing campaign. In 1514 he was made dean of York in succession to Wolsey, and in 1515 he was one of the commissioners for renewing the peace with Francis I. Yonge was on terms of intimate friendship with Dean Colet, and was a correspondent of Erasmus.

YONGE, SIR WILLIAM, Bart. (c. 1603–1755). English politician, was the son of Sir Walter Yonge of Colyton, Devonshire, and great-great-grandson of Walter Yonge of Colyton (1581–1649), whose diaries (1604–45), more especially four volumes now in the British Museum (Add. MSS. 1877–1896), are valuable material for history. In 1722 he was elected to parliament as member for Honiton; and he succeeded his father, the third baronet, in 1731. In the House of Commons he attached himself to the Whigs, and making himself useful to Sir Robert Walpole, was rewarded with a commissionership of the treasury in 1724. George II., who conceived a strong antipathy to Sir William, spoke of him as "Stinking Yonge"; but Yonge conducted himself so obsequiously that he obtained a commissionership of the admiralty in 1728, was restored to the treasury in 1730, and in 1735 became secretary of state for war. He especially distinguished himself in his defence of the government against a hostile motion by Pulteney in 1742. Making friends with the Pelhams, he was appointed vice-treasurer of Ireland in 1746; and, acting on the committee of management for the impeachment of Lord Lovat in 1747, he won the applause of Horace Walpole by moving that prisoners impeached for high treason should be allowed the assistance of counsel. In 1748 he was elected F.R.S. He died at Escott, near Honiton, on the 10th of August 1755. By his second wife, Anne, daughter and coheir of Thomas, Lord Howard of Effingham, he had two sons and six daughters. He enjoyed some reputation as a versifier, some of his lines being even mistaken for the work of Pope, greatly to the disgust of the latter; and he wrote the lyrics incorporated in a comic opera, adapted from Richard Brome's The Jovial Crew, which was produced at Drury Lane in 1730 and had a considerable vogue.

Yonge, his eldest son, SIR GEORGE YONGE (1731–1812), was member of parliament for Honiton continuously from 1754 to 1794, and held a number of different government appointments, becoming a lord of the admiralty (1760–70), vice-treasurer for Ireland (1761–66), and a commissioner of customs (from April to December 1783), master of the mint (1794–99). He was appointed governor of the Cape of Good Hope. Serious charges being brought against his administration, which was marked by great lack of judgment, he was recalled in 1801. He died on the 25th of September 1812. The baronetcy became extinct at his death.

YONKERS, a city of Westchester county, New York, U.S.A., on the E. bank of the Hudson river, immediately adjoining New York City on the N. Pop. (1900) 47,931, of whom 14,634 were foreign-born and 10,009 were negroes; (1910) 79,803. Yonkers is served by the New York Central & Hudson River railway, and is connected with New York City and other places E. and N. by interurban electric lines. It has also during most of the year steamboat service on the Hudson. There are two principal residential districts: one in the N., including Amackassin Heights and (about 1 mi. W.)Glenwood, where are the old Colgate Mansion and "Greystone," the former home of Samuel J. Tilden; the other in the S., including Lodlow, Van Cortlandt Terrace and Park Hill (adjoining Riverdale in the borough of the Bronx), a park-like reserve with winding streets and drives. The business and manufacturing districts occupy the low lands along the river. Among the public buildings are the City Hall, the High School and a Manual Training School, and Yonkers is the seat of St Joseph's Theological Seminary (Roman Catholic; 1896), the Halsted School (founded 1874) for girls, and a business college. It has a good public library (established 1893; 25,000 vols. in 1912), and the Woman's Institute (1888) and the Holly- wood Inn Club (1867; for working-men) have small libraries. Philipson Manor Hall, built originally about 1682 as the mansion of the son of Frederick Philipse (1626–1702), the lord of Philipseburgh, and enlarged to its present dimensions in 1745, is of some historic interest. It was confiscated by act of the legislature in 1779 because its owner, Frederick Philipse (1746–1783), was suspected of Toryism, and was sold in 1789. In 1867 it passed into the possession of Yonkers, and from 1872 to 1908 was used as the city hall. In 1908 it was bought by the state, and is now maintained as a museum for colonial and revolutionary relics. It is one of the best examples of colonial architecture in America. In the square before it stands a monument to the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War. Yonkers is an important manufacturing city, and in 1905 the value of its factory products was $33,548,688.

On the site of Yonkers stood an Indian village known as Napeakeamack, or town of the rapid water, at the time of the settlement of the Dutch in New Amsterdam; and a great rock, near the mouth of the Nepperhan Creek, was long a place of Indian worship. The territory was part of the "Keskeksieke purchase," acquired from the Indians by the Dutch W. India Company in 1630. In 1646 the tract was included in the grant to Adrian van der Donck, the first lawyer and historian of New Netherland, author of A Description of New Netherland (1656), in Dutch. His grant, known as "Colen Donck" (Donck's Colony), embraced all the country from Spuyten Duyvil Creek, N. along the Hudson to the Amackassin Creek, and E. to the Bronx river. Some squatters settled here before 1646. Van der Donck encouraged others to remove to his lands along the Hudson river, and in 1649 he built a saw-mill near the mouth of the Nepperhan Creek, which for many years was called "Saw-Mill river." The whole settlement soon came to be called "De Jonkheer's Land" or "De Jonckheers"—meaning the estate of the young lord, as Van der Donck was called by
his tenants—and afterwards Yonkers. Subsequently the tract passed largely into the hands of Frederick Philipse and became part of the manor of Philipseburgh. Early in the War of Independence Yonkers was occupied for a time by part of Washington's army, and was the scene of several skirmishes. The town of Yonkers was incorporated in 1788 and the village in 1855. In 1872 Yonkers became a city; at the same time the southern part was separately incorporated as Kingsbridge, which in 1874 was annexed to New York.

See Frederic Shonnard and W. W. Spooner, History of Westchester County (New York, 1900); J. T. Scharf, History of Western New York (Cleveland, 1886); and Allison, History of Yonkers (New York, 1896).

*YONNE*, a department of central France, formed partly from the province of Champagne proper (with its dependencies, Sénones and Bassigny), partly from Burgundy proper (with its dependencies, the county of Auverre and Avallonais) and partly from Gâtinais (Orléansais and Ile-de-France). It is bounded by Aube on the N.E., Côte-d’Or on the S.E., Nièvre on the S., Loiret on the W. and Seine-et-Marne on the N.W. Pop. (1906) 315,199. Area, 2,880 sq. m. The highest elevation (2,000 ft.) is in the granitic highlands of Morvan, in the S.E., where other peaks range from 1,300 to 1,600 ft. The department belongs to the basin of the Seine, except a small district in the S.W. (Puisaye), which belongs to that of the Loire. The river Yonne flows through it from S. to N.N.W., receiving the Cure at Auxerre and the Armançon and the Armançon, which water the S.E. of the department. Farther N. it is joined by the Vanne, between which and the Armançon lies the forest-clad plateau of the Pays d’Othe. To the W. of the Yonne, in the Puisaye, are the sources of the Loing, another tributary of the Seine, and of its affluents, the Ouanne and the Lunain. The Yonne is navigable throughout the department, and is connected with the Loire by the canal of Nivernais, which in turn is connected with that of Briare, which connects the Seine and the Loire. The climate is temperate, but in the region of the Loing, where the extremes of heat and cold are greater, and where the rainfall is most abundant. The prevailing winds are S.W. and W.

The department is especially agricultural. Wheat and oats are the chief cereals; potatoes, sugar-beet, lucerne, hemp, wort and other forage plants are also cultivated, and there is much good pasturage.

The vineyards of the Tonnerrois and Auxerrois produce the finest red wines of lower Burgundy, and those of Chablis the finest white. The wine of the Côte St Jacques (Joigny) is also esteemed. Cider-apples are the chief fruit. Chary is a centre for the rearing of horses. Forests cover 40% of the department and consist chiefly of oak, beech, hornbeam, elm, asp, birch and pine. Quarry products include building-stone, ochre and alabaster. Among the industrial establishments are tanneries, tile-works, distilleries and breweries, but there is little manufacturing activity. Cereals, wines, firewood, charcoal, ochre and bark are exported.

The department is served chiefly by the Paris-Lyon railway. The canal of Burgundy, which follows the valley of the Armançon, has a length of 57 m. in the department, that of Nivernais, following the valley of the Yonne, a length of 53 m. The department constitutes the archipelagic district of Sens, has its court of appeal in Paris, its educational centre at Dijon, and belongs to the district of the V. army corps. It is divided into five arrondissements (37 communes, in the capital), of which the capitals areAuxerre, also capital of the department, Avallon, Sens, Joigny and Givry, which with those of Chablis, St Florentin and Vézelay are most noteworthy towns and are treated separately. Yonne is rich in objects of antiquarian and architectural interest. At Pontigny there is a Cistercian abbey, where Thomas Becket spent two years of his exile. Its church is an excellent type of the Cistercian architecture of the 12th century. The fine 12th-century château of Beaurepaire is a part of the property of the Armançon, which belongs to a Château-St-Fargeau, of the 13th century, rebuilt by Mademoiselle de Montpensier under Louis XIV., are all architecturally remarkable. At St Mord there are remains of the Roman road from Lyons to Gallia Belgica and of a Roman fortified post.
YOUREDale SERIES—YORK (HOUSE OF)

October 1839. A statue (by Rauch) was erected to him in Berlin in 1855. See Seydlitz, 'Tagebuch des Preussischen Armee Korps 182' (Berlin, 1823); Droysen, Leben des G. F. M. Grafen Yorck von Wartenburg (Berlin, 1851).

YOUREDale SERIES, in geology, a local phase of the lower Carboniferous rocks of the N. of England. The name was introduced by J. Phillips on account of the typical development of the phase in Yoredale (Wensleydale), Yorkshire. In the Yorkshire dales the Carboniferous rocks assume variously vertical and horizontal attitudes; the latter obtains in the S. Beds of detrital sediment, sandstones, shales and occasional ironstones and thin coals separate the limestone beds into well-defined beds. These limestone beds have received various names of local significance (Hardraw Scar, Simonstone, Middle, Undersert, Main and many others), and, owing to the country being little disturbed by faulting and being much cut up by the streams, they stand out as escarpments on either side of the valleys. The first indication of the intercalation of thick detrital deposits within the massive limestone is seen in Ingleborough and Pen-y-ghent. The rocks are usually divided into the detrital increases in quantity and the limestones diminish, till in Northumberland the whole Carboniferous series assumes the Yoredale phase, and consists of alternations of detrital and calcareous beds, no massive limestone being seen.

The Yoredale limestones are characterized by the presence of *Psauronites giganteus*; the branched trilobite is usually associated with it. The lower limestone of Weardale is full of corals, including *Lonsdalea flabrisormis*, *Dibunophyllum sp.*, *Cyclphpachyphyllum pachyendothecus*, &c., and has a typical Visian fauna; it would therefore correspond, palaeontologically, with the upper part of the Carboniferous Limestone of Derbyshire. On Ingleborough the limestones are not very fossiliferous, but the Main Limestone contains small corals of a zaphrentide type and an upper Visian fauna. Post-*denomi* *Becheri* occurs in the superjacent beds above the Hardraw Scar and Gayls limestones, but it is not accompanied by any of the goniatrites or other cephalopods and lamellibranchs which characterize the *Becheri* of the Pendleside Series, the faunas of the Yoredale and Pendleside phases being very distinct. The Red Bed Limestone of Leyburn, the uppermost limestone of the series, is very rich in fish remains, which are identical in many cases with those found in the topmost beds of the massive Carboniferous Limestone at Bolt Edge quarry in Derbyshire. The shales between the limestones are rich in fossils and contain abundant single corals referable to *Zaphrentis enigmatica*, *Lonsdalea*, *Yoreddalella* and others; these, though high-zonal forms, occur low down in the Yoredale strata, even in the shale above the Hardraw Scar limestone. In the Derbyshire area the younger corals which were once supposed to characterize the base of the limestone series of those districts, and their early appearance in the Yoredale area is probably entirely due to conditions of environment. Attempts have been made to correlate rocks in a number of isolated areas and separated areas with the Yoredale series, but their position is still debatable. It is clear that the exact relationship which the Yoredale series of the type area bears to a whole series of Carboniferous rocks of the Midlands, N. and S. Wales, &c., on the one hand, and to the Pendleside series on the other, has yet to be established on a firm palaeontological basis.


YORK (HOUSE OF), a royal line in England, founded by Richard, duke of York (q.s.), who claimed the crown in opposition to Henry VI. It may be said that his claim, at the time it was advanced, was rightly barred by prescription, the house of Lancaster having then occupied the throne for three generations, and that it was really owing to the misgovernment of Margaret of Anjou, and her favourites that it was advanced at all. Yet it was founded upon the principle of William's claim to the throne. The Duke of York was descended from Lionel, duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III, while the house of Lancaster came of John of Gaunt, a younger brother of Lionel. One thing which might possibly have been considered an element of weakness in his claim was that it was derived (see the Table) through females—an objection actually brought against it by Chief Justice Fortescue. But a succession through females could not reasonably have been objected to after Edward III.'s claim to the crown of France; and, apart from strict legality, the duke's claim was probably supported in the popular estimation by the fact that he was descended from Edward III. through his father no less than through his mother. For his father, Richard, earl of Cambridge, was the son of Edmund, duke of York, fifth son of Edward III., and he himself was the direct lineal heir of this Edmund, just as much as he was of Lionel, duke of Clarence. His claim was also favoured by the accumulation of hereditary titles and estates. The earldom of Ulster, the old inheritance of the De Burghs, had descended to him from Lionel, duke of Clarence; the earldom of March came from the Mortimers, and the dukedom of York and the earldom of Cambridge from his paternal family. Moreover, his own marriage with Cecily Neville, though she was heiress but the youngest daughter of Ralph, 1st earl of Westmorland, allied him to a powerful family in the north of England, to whose support both he and his son were greatly indebted.

The reasons why the claims of the line of Clarence had been so long forborne are not difficult to explain. Roger Mortimer, 4th earl of March, was designated by Richard II. as his successor; but he died the year before Richard was dethroned, and his son Edmund, the 4th earl, was a child at Henry IV.'s usurpation. Henry took care to secure his person; but the claims of the Mortimers were sufficient to leave Edinburgh in his hands. Moreover, his own marriage with Cecily Neville, though she married him but the youngest daughter of Ralph, 1st earl of Westmorland, allied him to a powerful family in the north of England, to whose support both he and his son were greatly indebted.

Richard, duke of York, seems to have taken warning by his father's fate; but, after seeking for many years to correct by other means the weakness of Henry VI.'s government, he first took up arms against the ill advisers who were his own personal enemies, and at length claimed the crown in parliament as his right. The Lords, or such of them as did not purposely stay away from the House, admitted that his claim was unimpeachable, but suggested as a compromise that Henry should retain the title of king of England, while Richard would become the king of Scotland. But he met with a decided check in the battle of Bannockburn. The popularity gained by Henry V. in his French campaign had secured the weak title of the house of Lancaster against further attack for forty years.

But the seeds of distrust had already been sown among the members of his own family, and in 1478 his brother Clarence was put to death—secretly, indeed, within the Tower, but still by his authority and that of parliament—as a traitor. In 1483 Edward himself died; and his eldest son, Edward V., after a nominal reign of two months and a half, was put aside by his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, who became Richard III., and then caused him and his brother Richard, duke of York, to be murdered. But in little more than two years Richard was slain at Bosworth by the earl of Richmond, who, being proclaimed king as Henry VII., shortly afterwards fulfilled his pledge to marry the eldest daughter of Edward IV. and so unite the houses of York and Lancaster.

Here the dynastic history of the house of York ends, for its claims were henceforth merged in those of the house of Tudor. But, although the union of the Roses ought to have extinguished controversy, a host of debatable questions and plausible pretensions for rebellion remained. The legitimacy of Edward IV.'s children had been denied by Richard III. and his parliament, and, though the act was denounced as scandalous, the slander might still be reasserted. The duke of Clarence had left two
York, Edmund of Langley, Duke of

Genealogical Table of the House of York

Edward III.

Edward, the Black Prince.

Richard II.
(dethroned 1399).

Edward, the Black Prince.

Richard II.
(dethroned 1399).

John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster.

Edmund, duke of York.

Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester.

William of Windsor (died young).

William of Hatfield (died young).

Liselot, d. of William de Burgh, earl of Ulster.

Liselot, d. of William de Burgh, earl of Ulster.

Edmund Mortimer, 3rd earl of March.

Roger Mortimer, 4th earl of March.

Eleanor Holland, eldest daughter of Thomas, 2nd earl of Kent.

Anne Mortimer, 1st earl of Cambridge.

Cecily Neville, daughter of Richard, duke of York.


Ralph, earl of Westmoreland.

(killed in battle 1460).

Henry IV.

Henry V.

Henry VI.

Henry V.

Anne Mortimer, Richard, earl of Cambridge.

(killed 1415).

Cecily Neville, daughter of Richard, duke of York.

Ralph, earl of Westmoreland.

(killed in battle 1460).


Richard III.
(killed in battle 1483).


Richard III.
(killed in battle 1483).

Margaret, countess of Salisbury.

Sir Richard Pole.

John of la Pole, earl of Lincoln.

Edmund of la Pole, Duke of Suffolk.

Humphrey, Duke of Buckingham.

Richard of la Pole.

Edmund of la Pole.

Lord Montague.

Sarah, Countess of Licolning.

Five sons and one daughter. Among the former were Arthur and Edmund, who were prisoners in the Tower.

Henry VIII.

Mary Pole, Countess of Licolning.

Arthur Pole.
Reginald Pole, cardinal.


York, Edmund of Langley, Duke of

(Duke of 1341-1402), fifth son of Edward III., was born at King’s Langley in Hertfordshire on the 5th of June 1341. He accompanied his father on a campaign in France in 1359, was created earl of Cambridge in 1362, and took part in expeditions to France and Spain, being present at the sack of Limoges in 1370. After marrying Isabella (d. 1393), daughter of Peter the Cruel, King of Castile, he was appointed one of the English lieutenants in Brittany, whither he led an army in 1375. A second campaign in Brittany was followed in 1381 by an expedition under the earl’s leadership to

to the Tudors if they had not been narrowly watched and ultimately extinguished. Of the sisters of Edward IV., the eldest, Anne, who married the duke of Exeter, left only one daughter by her second husband, Sir Thomas St Leger; but the second, Elizabeth, married John de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, and had several children. Their eldest son was created earl of Lincoln during his father’s life, and Richard III., after the death of his own son, had designated him as his successor. Disappointed of a kingdom by the success of Henry VII., he joined in Simnel’s rebellion and was killed at the battle of Stoke. His brother Edmund thus became heir to his father; but in the reduced circumstances of the family he agreed to forbear the title of duke and take that of earl of Suffolk. He continued for some years in favour with the king, who made him a knight of the Garter; but, having killed a man in a passion, he fled abroad and was entertained at the court of the emperor Maximilian, and afterwards at that of Philip, king of Castile, when resident in the Low Countries before his departure for Spain. Philip, having been driven on the English coast when going to take possession of his Spanish kingdom, was entertained at Windsor by Henry VII., to whom he promised to deliver up the fugitive on condition that his life should be spared. Edmund de la Pole accordingly was brought back to England and lodged in the Tower. Though the promise to spare his life was kept by the king who gave it, his son Henry VIII. caused him to be executed in 1513, when war broke out with France, apparently for treasonable correspondence with his brother Richard, then in the French service. After his death Richard de la Pole, remaining in exile, called himself earl of Suffolk, and was flattened occasionally by Francis I. with faint hopes of the crown of England. He was killed at the battle of Pavia in 1525. There were no more De la Poles who could advance even the most shadowy pretensions to disturb the Tudor dynasty.

(J. GA.)

York, Edmund of Langley, Duke of (1341-1402), fifth son of Edward III., was born at King’s Langley in Hertfordshire on the 5th of June 1341. He accompanied his father on a campaign in France in 1359, was created earl of Cambridge in 1362, and took part in expeditions to France and Spain, being present at the sack of Limoges in 1370. After marrying Isabella (d. 1393), daughter of Peter the Cruel, King of Castile, he was appointed one of the English lieutenants in Brittany, whither he led an army in 1375. A second campaign in Brittany was followed in 1381 by an expedition under the earl’s leadership to
aid Ferdinand, king of Portugal, in his struggle with John I, king of Castile; but after a period of inaction Edmund was compelled to return to England as Ferdinand had concluded an independent peace with Castile. Accompanying Richard II. on his march into Scotland, he was created duke of York in August 1385, and subsequently on three occasions he acted as regent of England. In this capacity he held a parliament in 1395, and he was again serving as regent when Henry of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV., landed in England in July 1399. After a feeble attempt to defend the interests of the absent king, York joined the victorious invader; but soon retired from public life, and, in the words of Froissart as translated by Lord Berners, “laye styll in his castell, and medled with notynge of the busynes of England.” He died at King’s Langley on the 1st of August 1402. York was a man who preferred pleasure to business, and during the critical events of his nephew’s reign he was content to be guided by his more ambitious brothers, the dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester. His second wife was Joan, or Johanna (d. 1434), daughter of Thomas Holland, earl of Kent, and his only children were two sons and a daughter, Constance (d. 1416), by his first wife.

YORK, EDWARD, DUKE OF (c. 1372-1415), elder son of the preceding, was created earl of Rutland in 1390. Being an intimate friend of his cousin, Richard II., he received several important appointments, including those of admiral of the fleet, constable of the tower of London and warden of the Cinque Ports. He accompanied the king to Ireland in 1394 and was made earl of Cork; arranged Richard’s marriage with Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France; and was one of the king’s ambassadors to the Low Countries in 1395. He was created duke from the first earldom and Baronet, and was appointed “appellant” in 1397. As a reward he secured the office of constable of England and the lands in Holderness which had previously belonged to his murdered uncle, Thomas of Woodstock, duke of Gloucester, together with other estates and the title of duke of Aumerle or Albeimarle. He appears to have deserted Richard in 1399, but only at the last moment; and in Henry IV.’s first parliament he was vigorously denounced as the murderer of Gloucester. After declaring that his part in the proceedings of 1397 had been performed under constraint, his life was spared, but he was reduced to his former rank as earl of Rutland and Baronet. But he continued to be the “truest and most firm friend of the king”, and he was again made constable in 1401, and, in the confidence subsequently reposed in him by the king, point to the conclusion that he was not seriously involved. Serving as the royal lieutenant in Aquitaine and in Wales, Rutland, who became duke of York on his father’s death in 1402, was, like all Henry’s servants, hampered by want of money, and perhaps began to feel some irritation against the king. At all events he was concerned in the scheme, concocted in 1405 by his sister, Constance, widow of Thomas le Despencer, earl of Gloucester, for seizing the young earl of March, and his brother Roger Mortimer, and carrying them into Wales. On her trial Constance asserted that her brother had instigated the plot, which also included the murder of the king, and York was imprisoned in Penvensey castle. Released a few months later, he was restored to the privy council and regained his estates, after which he again served Henry in Wales and in France. York led one division of the English army at Agincourt, where, on the 25th of October 1415, he was killed by “much hete and thronged.” He was buried in Pothenagh church. The duke left no children and was succeeded as duke of York by his nephew.

York compiled the *Moyestre of the Game*, a treatise on hunting which is largely a translation of the *Livre de Chasse de Gaston Phoebus*, count of Foix. This has been edited by W. A. and F. Baillie-Groham (1903).

YORK, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, DUKE OF (1763-1827), second son of George III., was born at St James’s Palace on the 16th of August 1763. At the age of six months his father secured his election to the rich bishopric of Osnabrück. He was invested a knight of the Bath in 1767, a K.G. in 1771, and was gazetted colonel in 1780. From 1781 to 1787 he lived in Germany, where he attended the manoeuvres of the Austrian and Prussian armies. He was appointed colonel of the 2nd horse grenadier guards (now 2nd Life Guards) in 1782, and promoted major-general and appointed colonel of the Coldstream Guards in 1784. He was created duke of York and Albany and earl of Ulster in 1784, but retained the bishopric of Osnabrück until 1803. On his return to England he took his seat in the House of Lords, where, on December 15, 1788, he opposed Pitt’s Regency Bill in a speech which was supposed to have been inspired by the prince of Wales. A duel fought on Wimbledon Common with Colonel Lennox, afterwards duke of Richmond, served to increase the duke of York’s popularity, his acceptance of the challenge itself and his perfect coolness appealing strongly to the public taste. In 1791 he married Princess Frederica Charlotte Ulrica Catherina (b. 1767), daughter of Frederick William II. of Prussia. The princess was enthusiastically received in London, but the marriage was not happy, and a separation soon took place. The princess retired to Oatlands Park, Wimbledon, where she died on 1st July 1827.

In 1793 the duke of York was sent to Flanders in command of the English contingent of Coburg’s army destined for the invasion of France (see FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS). On his return in 1795 the king promoted him field-marshal, and on April 3rd, 1798, appointed him commander-in-chief. His second command was with the army sent to invade Holland in conjunction with a Russian corps d’armée in 1799. Sir Ralph Abercromby and Admiral Sir Charles Mitchell in charge of the vanguard had succeeded in capturing the Dutch ships in the Scheldt, but the main body of the army disaster followed disaster until, on the 17th of October, the duke signed the convention of Alkmaar, by which the allied expedition withdrew after giving up its prisoners. Although thus unsuccessful as commander of a field army the duke was well fitted to carry out reforms in the army at home, and to this task he devoted himself with the greatest vigour and success until his enforced retirement from the office of commander-in-chief on the 18th of March 1806, in consequence of his relations with Mary Ann Clarke (1776-1852), who was convicted of profiting by her intimacy with the duke to extract money from officers by promising to recommend them for promotion. A select committee was appointed by the House of Commons to inquire into the matter, and the duke was acquitted of having received bribes himself by 278 votes to 106. Two years later, in May 1811, he was again placed at the head of the army by the prince regent, and rendered valuable services in this position. He died on the 5th of January 1827 and was buried at St George’s Chapel, Windsor.

A firm friendship seems to have existed between the duke and his elder brother, afterwards George IV., and he is also said to have been his father’s favourite son. He was very popular, thanks to his amiable disposition and a keen love of sport, but it is as the organizing and administrative head of the army that he has left his most valuable mark. He was untiring in his efforts to raise the tone of the army, restore discipline, weed out the undesirables, and suppress bribery and favouritism. He founded the Duke of York’s School for the sons of soldiers at Chelsea, and his name is also commemorated by the Duke of York’s column in Waterloo Place.

YORK, RICHARD, DUKE OF (1411-1450), was born on the 21st of September 1411, the son of Richard, earl of Cambridge, second son of Edmund of Langley, duke of York. By the death of his uncle Edward at Agincourt he became duke of York, and on the death of Edmund Mortimer in 1425 he succeeded to his claims as representing in the female line the elder branch of the royal family. He had been kindly treated by Henry V., and his name appears at the head of the knights made by the little Henry VI. at Leicester on the 19th of May 1426. York’s first service was in France during 1430 and 1431. In 1432 he obtained livery of his lands and afterwards went over to Ireland to take possession of his estates there. In January 1436 he was appointed lieutenant-general of France and Normandy, but did not enter on his command till June. He showed vigour and capacity, and recovered Fécamp and some other places in
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Normandy. Probably he was not supported cordially by the home government, and in 1437 applied to be recalled. One authority alleges that his council thwarted him in his desire to relieve Montereau, because he had been discharged from his office (Chronicles of London, 143). York returned to England in the autumn of 1437. From this time at all events he attached himself to the war-party of which Humphrey of Gloucester was head, in opposition to the government under Cardinal Beaufort.

By his marriage in 1438 to Cicely, sister of the earl of Salisbury, he allied himself to the rising family of the Nevilles. On the 2nd of July 1440 York was again appointed to the Fior di Loto. He was present on December 14 (Hieron, ed. Oldroyd). He died not, however, go to Rouen till June 1444. During his second governorship York maintained, if he could not improve, the English position in Normandy. He was again hampered by his political opponents at home, and at the end of 1446 was recalled, on the pretext that his term of office had expired. The death of Humphrey of Gloucester in February 1447 made York the first prince of the blood. Suffolk, now Henry's chief minister, found a convenient banishment for a dangerous rival by appointing York to be lieutenant of Ireland for ten years (9th of December 1447). York, however, contrived to put off his departure for eighteen months. During his absence in Ireland English discontent came to a crisis in Jack Cade's rebellion. The use made of the names of Mortimer and York, however unauthorized, shows the trend of popular opinion. In September 1450 York landed in Wales. His opponents endeavoured to waylay him, but he came to London with an armed retinue and forced himself into the king's presence. Nevertheless he declared his loyalty and that he desired only justice and good government. He took part in the punishment of Cade's supporters, and disowned the proposal in parliament that he should be declared heir to the crown. In March 1452 he came once more in arms to London, and endeavoured to obtain Somerset's dismissal. On a promise that his rival should be held in custody he disbanded his men, and thus outwitted found himself virtually a prisoner. However, a nominal agreement was concluded, and York accepted the king's pardon. The situation was changed by the birth of a prince of Wales and the king's illness in October 1453. After a struggle with the queen and Somerset, York secured his recognition as protector on the 27th of March 1454. He declared that he accepted the position of a duty, and, though he put his own friends in power, exercised his authority with moderation and on the side of good order. But at the end of the year the king's sudden recovery brought York's protectorate to an end. When it was clear that the queen and Somerset would proceed to extremities, York and his friends took up arms in self-defence. Even when the two armies met at St Albans, York endeavoured to treat for settlement. The issue was decided by the defeat and death of Somerset on the 22nd of May 1455. York used his success with moderation. He became constable of England, and his friends obtained office. This was no more than a change of ministers. But a return of the king's illness in October 1455 made York again for a brief space protector. Henry recovered in February 1456, and Margaret, his queen, began to assert herself. Finally, at Coventry, in October, the Yorkist officials were displaced. Still there was no open breach, and in March 1458 there was even a ceremonial reconciliation of all parties at St Paul's in London. York would not again accept honourable banishment to Ireland, but made no move till the queen's presence in London forced him to act. In 1459 both parties were once more in arms. York protested that he acted only in self-defence, but the desertion of his best soldiers at Ludlow on the 12th of October left him helpless. With a few followers he escaped to Ireland, where his position as lordlieutenant was confirmed by an Irish parliament, and he ruled in full defiance of the English government. In March 1460 the earl of Warwick came from Calais to concert plans with his leader. York himself only landed in England on the 8th of September, two months after Warwick's victory at Northampton. All pretence of moderation was put aside, and he marched on London, using the full arms of England, and with his sword borne upright before him. On reaching Westminster, York took up his residence in the royal palace, and formally asserted his claim to the throne in parliament. In the end a compromise was arranged, under which Henry was to retain the crown for life, but Richard was to succeed him. On the 8th of November he was accordingly proclaimed heir-apparent and protector. Meantime the queen was gathering her friends, and early in December, Richard went north with a small force. He kept Christmas at Sandal Castle near Wakefield. There, on December 29th, he was hemmed in by a superior force of Lancastrians. Declaring that he had never kept castle in the face of the enemy, Richard rashly offered battle, and was defeated and slain. His enemies had his head cut off, and set it up on the walls of York adorned with a paper crown.

Richard of York was not a great statesman, but he had qualities of restraint and moderation, and might have made a good king. He had four daughters and four sons. Edmund, earl of Rutland, his second son, was killed at Wakefield. The other three were Edward IV., George, duke of Clarence, and Richard III.

See The Bastion Letters with Dr Gairdner's Introduction; Three Fifteenth Century Chronicles, and Collections of a London Citizen (published by the Camden Society); Chronicles of London (ed. C. L. Kingsford, 1905); J. S. Stevenson's Wars of the English in France (1901); T. Basin and Jehan Waurin should also be consulted (these three are published by the Société de l'Histoire de France). For modern accounts see especially Sir James Ramsay's Lancaster and York, and The Political History of England, vol. iv., by Professor C. Oman. (C. L. K.)

York, a city, municipal, county and parliamentary borough, the seat of an archbishop, and the county town of Yorkshire, England, 188 m. N. by W. from London by the Great Northern railway. It is an important junction of the North-Eastern railway. Pop. (1901) 77,914. It lies in a plain watered by the river Ouse, at the junction of the Foss stream with the main river. It has narrow picturesque streets, ancient walls, and, besides the cathedral, many churches and buildings of architectural interest.

York was a Roman station (see below), and large collections of Roman remains are preserved in the hospital of St Mary's Abbey. Of these a great proportion come from the foundations of the railway station. A noteworthy relic of the Roman occupation, however, appears in its original place. This is the so-called multangular tower, on the N.W. of the city walls. Its base is Roman, of mingled stone and brick work. The city walls date in part from Norman times, but are in the main of the 14th century. Their circuit is a little over 2½ m., and the area enclosed is divided by the river Ouse, the larger part lying on the left bank. The walls have been carefully preserved and are remarkably perfect. On the E. for a short distance the river Foss took the place of a wall. Of the gates, called Bars, the best specimen is Micklegate Bar on the S.W., where the heads of traitors were formerly exposed. It is a square tower built over a circular, probably Norman, arch, and has embattled corner turrets. Others are Bootham Bar, the main entrance from the N., also having a Norman arch; Monk Bar (N.E.), formerly called Goodramgate, but renamed in honour of General Monk, and Walmgate Bar, of the time of Edward I., retaining the barbaric repaired in 1648. The castle stands in the angle between the Ouse and the Foss immediately above their junction. Of the fortress built by William the Conqueror in 1068 some portions were probably incorporated in Clifford's tower, the shell of which, showing an unusual ground plan of four intersecting circles, rises from an artificial mound. The castle serves as the prison and county courts.

The cathedral of St Peter, commonly known as the minster, has no superior in general dignity of form among English cathedrals. It is in the form of a Latin cross, consisting of nave with aisles, transepts, choir with aisles, a central tower, and
two W. towers. The palace of the archbishops is at Bishopthorpe, 2½ m. S. of York. It is of various dates, and includes slight remains of the Early English palace of Archbishop Grey. The diocese includes over half the parishes in Yorkshire, and also covers very small portions of Durham, Nottinghamshire and Lincolnshire.

The extreme external length of the cathedral is 524 ft. 6 in., the breadth across the transepts 290 ft., the height of the central tower 89 ft., and the height of the other towers 220 ft. The material is magnesian limestone. The cathedral occupies the site of the wooden church in which King Edwin was baptized by Paulinus at York in the Easter Day of 627. According to Bede, they began to construct "a large and more noble basilica of stone," but it was partly destroyed during the troubles which followed his death, and was repaired by Archbishop Wilfrid. The nave was reconstructed from fire and after 974 had been repaired by Archbishop Albert, as described by Alcuin as "a most magnificent basilica." At the time of the Norman invasion the Saxon cathedral, with the library of Archbishop Egbert, perished in the fire by which the greater part of the city was destroyed, the only relic remaining being the central wall of the crypt. It was reconstructed by Archbishop Thomas of Bayeux (1070-1100); but of this building few portions remain. The apsidal choir and crypt were reconstructed by Archbishop Roger (1154-81), the S. transept by Archbishop Walter de Grey (1216-55), and the N. transept and central tower by John Romans, treasurer (1282-97). The decoration of the crypt, the transepts are the oldest portions of the building, now remaining. They represent the Early English style at its best, and, in the new great lancet windows the manuscripts of the architectural effect. The S. transept is the richest and most elaborate in its details, one of its principal features being the magnificent rose window; and the N. transept contains a series of beautiful lancet windows called the Five Sisters. The foundation of the new nave was laid by Archbishop Romans (1286-90), son of the treasurer, the building of it being completed by Archbishop William de Melton about 1340. The chapter-house, a magnificent ornate building, was built during the same period. The W. front, consisting of a centre and two divisions corresponding with the nave and aisles, has been described as "more architecturally perfect than that of any of our English cathedrals"; the great window above the door being considered by some superior to the famous E. window at Carlisle.

In 1361 Archbishop Thoresby (1352-73) began the lady chapel and presbytery, both in the Early Perpendicular style. The rebuilding of the choir, begun about the same period, was not completed till about 1400. It is Late Perpendicular, the great E. window being one of the finest in the world. With the rebuilding of the choir the whole of the ancient Norman edifice was replaced, the only Norman architecture now remaining being the E. portion of the crypt of the second period, built by Archbishop Roger (1154-81). The N. and S. transepts, then, were recasted and changed into a Perpendicular lantern tower, the work being completed in 1444. The S. W. tower was begun in 1432 during the treasurership of John de Beringham, and the N. W. tower in 1464. The decoration of this part is the finest of the whole cathedral, and it was completed as it now stands, and on the 3rd of February 1472 it was re-consecrated by Archbishop Nevile. On the 2nd of February 1829 this portion of the building was damaged by the explosion of a gunpowder magazine. On the 2nd of May 1840 a fire broke out in the S.W. tower, reducing it to a mere shell. The stained glass both in the cathedral and in other churches of the city is particularly noteworthy; its survival may be traced to the stipulations made by the citizens when surrendering to parliament in the civil wars that it should not be damaged.

The following is a list of the archbishops of York:

1. Paulinus, 627-633.
2. Chad, 669-709.
3. Wilfrid, 670-698. (He again held the see in 686—for how long is not certain—Bosa retiring in his favour.)
5. * John of Beverley, 705-718.
7. Egbert, 723-766.
10. Anhald II, 791-812.
12. Aidwine, 831-858.
15. Redewald, 895-928.

* These bishops did not receive the pall as metropolitan.

William Fitzherbert, re-instated, 1152 to 1154.
31. Roger 1 of Pont l'Eveque, 1154-1181.
32. (The see was now vacant for 10 years.)
33. Geoffrey of Bayeux, 1191-1207.
34. (The see was vacant for nine years.)
35. Walter de Grey, 1216-1255.
36. Sewal de Bovil, 1255-1258.
37. Geoffrey of Ludlam, 1258-1268.
38. Walter Giffard, 1266-1279.
40. John Romans, 1286-1296.
41. Henry of Newark, 1298-1300.
42. Thomas of Corbridge, 1300-1304.
43. William Greenfield, 1306-1315.
44. William de Melton, 1317-1346.
45. William la Zouche, 1342-1352.
46. John Thoresby, 1352-1373.
47. William Neville, 1374-1388.
51. Henry Bowet, 1407-1423.
52. Thomas of Thurnby, 1423-1431.
53. William Booth, 1452-1464.
54. George Nevile, 1464-1476.
55. Laurence Booth, 1476-1480.
56. Thomas Scott, 1480-1500.
57. Thomas Savage, 1501-1507.
58. Christopher Bainbridge, 1507-1514.
59. Thomas Wolsley, 1514-1530.
60. Cosmo Gordon Lang, 1908-1929.
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The public institutions include the Yorkshire Philosophical Society, with a museum and library opened in 1850, and the free library in the building of the York Institute of Science and Art. The principal schools are St Peter's cathedral grammar-school (originally endowed in 1557), Archbishop Holgate's grammar-school, the York and district grammar schools, and the girls' high school, founded in 1765, with the associated grecy school for girls. There are numerous charitable institutions. The chief industrial establishments are iron foundries, railway and motor engineering shops, breweries, flour-mills, tanneries and manufactories of confectionery, artificial manure, &c. There is water communication by the Ouse with the Humber, and by the Foss Navigation to the N.E. This is under the control of the corporation. The parliamentary borough returns 2 members. The county borough was created in 1888. The municipal borough is under a lord mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. The city within the walls has a population of 170,000, but the county has a population of 200,000. The municipal city and the Ainsty (a district on the S.W. included in the city bounds in 1449) are for parliamentary purposes included in the N. Riding; for registration purposes in the E. Riding, and for all other purposes in the W. Riding. The parliamentary borough extends into the E. Riding. Area, 3730 acres.

History.—York is known to have been occupied by the Britons, and was chosen by the Romans as their most important centre in north Britain and named Eboracum or Eburacum. The fortress of Legio VI. Victrix was situated near the site of the cathedral, and a municipality (colonia) grew up, near where the railway station now is, on the opposite side of the Ouse. Many inscriptions and a great quantity of minor objects, both stelae and coins, of Hadrian's day, were found in York in A.D. 120, and, according to tradition, the body of the emperor Severus who died there in A.D. 211 was burnt on Severus Hill, near the city. After the death of Constantine Chlorus, which also took place in York, his son Constantine the Great, who, according to an ancient but incorrect tradition, was born there, was also inaugurated emperor there. A bishop of York is mentioned, along with, and with precedence of, bishops of London and Lincoln (the last name is uncertain) as present at the council of Arles in 314. Nothing is known of the history of the city from the time the Romans withdrew from Britain in 410 until 527, when King Edwin was baptized there, and where shortly afterwards Paulinus, the first archbishop, was consecrated. In the time of Archbishop Egbert (732-756) and of Alcuin, at first a scholar and afterwards master of the cloister school, York became one of the most celebrated places of education in Europe. It was also one of the chief Danish boroughs, and Earl Seward is said to have died there in 955. In 1066 it was taken by Harold Hardrada, and in 1068 the men of the north of England, rising under Edgar Atheling and Earl Waltheof, restored the control of which William I had removed, putting to death the whole of the Norman garrison. The Conqueror in revenge burnt the town and laid waste the country between the Humber and Tees. York was frequently visited by the kings of England on the way to Scotland, and several important parliaments were held there, the first being that of 1175, when Malcolm, king of Scotland, did homage to Henry II. In the reign of Richard I., the citizens rose against the Jews, who fled to the castle. Here, however, they were obliged to surrender, many killing themselves after putting to death their wives and children, the rest being miserably treated. The town was captured from 1194 to 1212 by King John in 1200 and 1216 after the suppression of the Pilgrimage of Grace. In 1642 York was garrisoned by Royalists and besieged by the parliament. It was relieved by Prince Rupert, but surrendered after the battle of Marston Moor. Being under the rule of the earls of Northumbria, York is not mentioned in the Domesday Survey. In the first charter (which is undated) Henry II. granted the citizens a merchant guild and all the free customs which they had in the time of Henry I. Richard I. in 1194 granted exemption from toll, &c. during the time that they had the protection of the king. He confirmed the preceding charters, and in 1212 granted the city to the citizens at a fee-farm of £160 a year. These charters were confirmed by most of the early kings. Richard II. confirmed the title of lord mayor, and a second charter, given in 1392, shows that the government then consisted of a lord mayor and aldermen, while in a third in 1396 made the city a county of itself and gave the burgesses power to elect two sheriffs. Edward IV. in 1494 incorporated the town under the title of "Lord Mayor and Aldermen," and in 1473 directed that all the citizens should choose the mayor from among the aldermen. As this led to much dissatisfaction, Henry VII. arranged that a common council, consisting of two men from each of the more important guilds and one from each of the less important ones, should elect the mayor. The city is now governed under a charter of Charles II., confirming that of 1494, the governing body consisting of a lord mayor, 12 aldermen and 36 councillors. The city has returned two members to parliament since 1295. During the 14th century there were constant quarrels between the citizens and the abbey of St Mary's about the suburb of Bootham, which the citizens claimed as within the jurisdiction of the city, and the abbey as a separate borough. In 1353 the king took the borough of York into his own hands, "to avoid any risk of disturbance and possible great bloodshed such as has arisen before these times," and finally in the same year an agreement was brought about by Archbishop Thoresby that the whole of Bootham should be considered a suburb of York except the street called St Marygate, which should be in the jurisdiction of the abbey.

From the time of the conquest York was important as a trading and commercial centre. There were numerous trade guilds, one of the chief being that of the weavers, which received a charter from Henry II. During the 13th and 14th centuries the trade declined, partly owing to the distance of the city from the sea, and partly owing to the regulations of the trade gilds.

See Francis Drake, Eboracum: or the History and Antiquities of the City of York, from its original to the present time (1736); Extracts from the Municipal Records of the City of York during the Reigns of Edward IV., Edward V. and Richard III. (1843); Victoria County History, Yorkshire; J. Raine, York (1803); A. P. Perry, Cust, York Minster (1897), Heraldry of York Minster (Leeds, 1899); B. S. Rowntree, Poverty: a Study of Town Life (1901).

YORK, a township of York county, Maine, U.S.A., on the Atlantic coast about 45 m. S.W. of Portland, and 9 m. by rail N.E. of Portsmouth, New Hampshire. Pop. (1910) 2822. Area, 64 sq. m. York is at the terminus of the York Harbor and Beach division of the Boston & Maine railway. In York village is the county gaol (1653-54), preserved by the Old York Historical and Improvement Society as a museum of local antiquities. Two colonial taverns also remain. York Harbor, York Beach, York Cliff and Long Beach are attractive summer resorts. The first settlement began about 1623. In April 1641 Sir Ferdinando Gorges, proprietor of the province of Maine, erected this into the Borough of Agamenticus, and on the 1st of March 1642 he chartered it as a city under the name of Gorgeana. In 1652, when Massachusetts extended her jurisdiction over Maine, the city of Gorgeana became the town of York. In 1692 most of the houses were burned by the Indians and the inhabitants killed or taken captive. York was the shire town of Yorkshire from 1716 to 1755, the shire town with Portland (then Falmouth) of the district of Maine from 1735 to 1760, and a county seat of York county from 1806 to 1812. During the middle of the 18th century York had considerable trade with the West Indies and along the coast, and as late as the middle of the 19th century it had important fishing interests. Its development as a summer resort was begun about 1873, but until 1887, when the railway reached it, its chief means of access was by stage from Portsmouth.


YORK, a city and the county-seat of York county, Nebraska, U.S.A., about 46 m. W. by N. of Lincoln. Pop. (1900) 5172; (1910) 6253. It is served by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy and Chicago & North-Western railways. It is the seat of the School of the Holy Family and of York College (founded in 1890, XXVIII. 30
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co-educational). The city is situated in a farming and stock-rearing region, and among its manufactures are foundry products, bricks and flour. York was settled in 1654, was laid out in 1696, was incorporated as a town in 1785 and was chartered as a city in 1877.

YORK, a city and the county seat of York county, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., about 100 m. W. of Philadelphia and about 28 m. S.E. of Harrisburg. Pop. (1900) 33,705—1304 being foreign-born and 276 negroes; (1910) 44,750. York is served by the Maryland & Pennsylvania, the Northern Central (Pennsylvania) and the Western Maryland railways. Among the public buildings are the County Court House (1890) and a large Federal Building (1910). York is the seat of the York Collegiate Institute (1873), founded by Samuel Small (d. 1885) and of the York County Academy (1783). The Historical Society of York (1895) has a valuable collection of documents relating to local history. York is the commercial centre for a rich agricultural region, and has manufactures of foundry and machine-shop products, silk goods, &c. The total factory product in 1905 was valued at $14,328,606.

York, the first permanent settlement in the state W. of the Susquehanna, was laid out in 1741 in what was then the Manor of Springettsbury (named in honour of Springett, a grandson of William Penn) by Thomas Cookson, a surveyor for Richard and Thomas Penn, who then owned the Pennsylvania tract. The town was named after York, England. The first settlers were chiefly Germans from the Rhenish Palatinate, who were Lutherans, Reformers, Mennonites and Moravians. English Quakers and Scotch-Irish settled here also. The settlement lay on the Monocacy road, the main line of travel to the S. and S.W., and it grew rapidly, especially between 1745 and 1751. In 1749 the county of York was erected (from Lancaster county) and York was made the county-seat. In 1754 York had 210 houses and 1000 inhabitants. Troops from York took part in the Seven Years' War and the War of American Independence. In the old county seat house, built in 1754-56, pulled down in 1843, the Continental Congress sat from the 30th of September 1777 to the 27th of June 1788, having left Philadelphia on the approach of the British, and having held a day's session at Lancaster. At York the Congress passed the Articles of Confederation (15th of November 1777) and received news of the American victory at Saratoga and of the signing of treaties between the United States and France. The Conway cabal came to an end here, and the arrival here of Baron Steuben and of Lafayette in 1777 helped the American cause. In September 1778, $1,500,000 in specie were deposited in the state bank at York, which was the origin of the paper currency. On the 20th of July 1788, the Pennsylvania Constitution was adopted here.

YORK, Charles (1722-1770), English lord chancellor, second son of Philip Yorke, 1st earl of Hardwicke, was born in London on the 30th of December 1722, and was educated at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. His literary abilities were shown at an early age by his collaboration with his brother Philip in the Athenian Letters. In 1745 he published an able treatise on the law of forfeiture for high treason, in defence of his father's treatment of the Scotch Jacobite rebels; and in the following year he was called to the bar. His father being at this time lord chancellor, Yorke obtained a sinecure appointment in the Court of Chancery in 1747, and entered parliament as member for Reigate, a seat which he afterwards exchanged for that for the university of Cambridge. He quickly made his mark in the House of Commons, one of his earliest speeches being in favour of his father's reform of the marriage law. In 1751 he became counsel to the East India Company, and in 1756 he was appointed solicitor-general, a place which he retained in the administration of the elder Pitt, of whose foreign policy he was a powerful defender. He resigned with Pitt in 1761, but in 1762 became attorney-general under Lord Bute. He continued to hold this office when George Grenville became prime minister (April 1763), and advised the government on the question raised by Wilkes's North Briton. Yorke refused to describe the libel as treasonable, while pronouncing it a high misdemeanour. In the following November he resigned office. Resisting Pitt's attempt to draw him into alliance against the ministry he had quitted, Yorke maintained, in a speech that extorted the highest eulogy from Walpole, that parliamentary power could not be used to prevent the renewal of the war in 1767, Yorke resigned office, and took little part in the debates in parliament during the next four years. In 1770 he was invited by the duke of Grafton, when Camden was dismissed from the chancellorship, to take his seat on the woolsack. He had, however, explicitly pledged himself to Rockingham and his party not to take office with Grafton. The king exerted all his personal influence to overcome Yorke's scruples, warning him finally that the great seal if now refused would never again be within his grasp. Yorke yielded to the king's entreaty, went to his brother's house, where he met the leaders of the opposition, and, feeling at once overawed by shame, fled to his own house, where in three days he was a dead man (January 20, 1770). The patent raising him to the peerage as Baron Morden had been made out, but his last act was to refuse his sanction to the sealing of the document.

Charles Yorke was twice married. His son by his first marriage became earl of Hardwicke; his eldest son by his second marriage, Charles Philip Yorke (1764-1834), member of parliament for Cambridgeshire and afterwards for Liskeard, was secretary of state for war in Addington's ministry in 1801, and was the last of his line. He was an apostate, and was converted to the Roman Catholics. He made himself exceedingly unpopular in 1810 by bringing about the exclusion of strangers, including reporters for the press, from the House of Commons under the standing order, which led to the imprisonment of Sir Francis Burdett in the Tower and to riots in London. In the same year Yorke joined Spencer Perceval's government as first lord of the admiralty; he retired from public life in 1818, and died in 1834. Charles Yorke's second son by his second marriage was Sir Joseph Sydney Yorke (1768-1834), an admiral in the navy, whose son succeeded to the earldom of Hardwicke.

See under HARDWICKE, PHILIP YORKE, 1st Earl of.

YORKSHIRE, a north-eastern county of England, bounded N. by Durham, E. by the North Sea, S.E. by the Humberside curiously separating it (from Lincolnshire), S. by Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, S.W. for a short distance by Cheshire, W. by Lancashire and N.W. by Westmorland. It is the largest county in England, having an area of 6066½ sq. m., and being more than double the size of Lincolnshire, which ranks next to it. In a description of the county it is constantly necessary to refer to its three great divisions, the North Riding, East Riding and West Riding (see RIDING, and map of England, Sections I, II.).

The centre of the county is a plain, which in the S., about the head of the Humber, resembles the Fens in character. The hills W. of the central plain, covering nearly the whole of the W. Riding and the N.W. of the N. Riding, are part of the great Pennine Chain (q.v.). These hills consist of high-lying moorland, and are
not generally remarkable for great beauty of outline. The higher parts are bleak and wild, and the slope towards the central plain is gradual. The chief beauty of the district is to be found in the numerous deeply scored valleys or dales, such as Teesdale, Swaledale, Wharfedale, Nidderdale, and Wensleydale, in which the course of the streams is often broken by waterfalls, such as High Force in Teesdale and Aysgarth Force in Wensleydale.

The hills E. of the central plain cannot be similarly considered as a unit. In the N., wholly within the N. Riding, a line of heights known as the Cleveland Hills, forming a spur of the N. Yorkshire Moors, ranges from 1000 to nearly 1500 ft., and overarches the valleys that separate them. The line of greatest elevation approaches the central plain, and swings sharply S. in the Hambleton Hills to overlook it, while to the S. of the line lie the Vale of York and the Cleveland Hills. The country thus draining to the Ouse. Eastward the N. Yorkshire moors are immediately upon the coast. Their higher parts consist of open moorland. The remarkable upper valley of the Derwent (.) off the N. Yorkshire moors from the Yorkshire wolds of the E. Riding, the river forming the boundary between the N. and E. Ridings. The wolds superficially resemble the moors, inasmuch as they abut directly on the coast E., run N. and swing S. to overlook the central plain. At the S. extremity they sink to the shore of the Humber. Their greatest elevation is found near the W. angle (Howardian Hills), but hardly reaches 800 ft. and is marked by a narrow plateau formed by the S. by the Humber and E. by the North Sea. The name of Holderness is broadly applied to this low tract, though the wapentake of that name includes properly only the E. of it.

The ridge dividing the Vale of York from the Vale of Pickering is the continuous ridge of drift-margined cliffs in England (666 ft.). Picturesque valleys bearing short streams break the line, notably that of the Esk, reaching the sea at Whitby. The trend of the coast is at first S.E. and then S. South of Scarborough it begins to wind. The process of drift and sea abrasion, the wind-abrasion of the cliffs, begins to rise again round the shallow sweep of Filey Bay, and then springs seaward in the fine promontory of Flamborough Head (see Bridlington). South of this, after the sharp incision of E.

The Pennine range is broken by extensive expanses of English Lake country, the most notable being those of Derwentwater, Ullswater, Coniston, and Windermere. The limestone fells of those lakes are of varying size and shape, but none are large; the principal being the Lake of Windermere, which lies between the fells of Langdale and Derwentwater on the N. and S. Craven faults; (3) the Yoredale series, consisting of shales, flagstones, limestones and thin seams of coal; and (4) the Millstone Grit, forming part of the hilly moorlands, and capping many of the principal summits. In the district of the elevated country of Craven and Dent. The scenery in the W. of the N. Riding is somewhat similar to that in Craven, except that the lower hills of sharper outline owing to the perpendicularly precipitate.

To the O.S. the softer rocks are due the numerous "forces" or waterfalls, which are one of the special features of the scenery of this district. The softer rocks and the cliffs of the coast are, again, the result of the wear and tear of the ages, and have given rise to extensive caverns, of which the best examples are those of Clapham and Ingleton in the W. Riding, as well as to subterranean watercourses. At Brimham, Plumpton and elsewhere there are many masses of rocks due to irregular weathering of the Millstone Grit. The Pennine range is bounded on the S.E. by the Coal Measures, forming the N. of the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Lincolnshire coalfield, in which Yorkshire extends southward to N. to Leeds. The noted fire-places of the Leeds district are obtained from this formation. To the E. the Coal Measures dip beneath the unconformable Permian beds, with magnesian limestone and marl. These are worked for chalk and alabaster.

The Permian strata are overlain to the E. by the Trias or New Red Sandstone, scarcely ever exposed, but having been partly worn away is covered with Glacial clays of clay and gravel, forming the excellent land for the agricultural districts. The Trias and Permian beds, near beyond the E. beyond York to Market Weighton. Near Middleton red rock with gypseous and stone (too ft.) have been proved. In the Tickhill area of the Trias beds on the fringes of the Rhaetic beds have been recorded from near Northallerton. The Humber crops to the surface in a curve extending from Redcar to the Humber. In the Middle Lias there is a sea of valuable iron ore, for the sake of which the Vale of Pickering and W. to the Vale of York. The chalk forms the Yorkshire wolds and the country S. through Driffield, Beverley and Holderness; and the coast of Redcar and Flamborough presents a continuous series of magnificent exposures of the strata from the Lower Lias to the Chalk. The Upper Lias fossil and jet of Whitby, and the Hole of the York and North Yorkshire coalfield of Portland, Purbeck, Wealden, and Lower Greensand of S. England. Over the Speeton beds lies the Red Chalk, the Yorkshire equivalent of the Upper Greensand and Gault. The evidence of glacial action are of unusual interest and variety; the great thickness of boulder clay on the coast is familiar to all, but inland also great deposits of glacial clay, sand and gravel obscure the older geology. The Vale of Pickering and many of the smaller northern valleys were in a N.W. direction from the neighbourhood of Fylingdales Moor.

Minerals.—The coal-field in the W. Riding is one of the chief sources of mineral wealth in Yorkshire, the most valuable being the coalfield of the Yorkshire coal-field, which is of special value, on account of its anthracite qualities, its large output to the coal furnace. Associated with the Upper Coal Measures there is a valuable iron ore, occurring in the form of nodules. Large quantities of fire-clay are also raised, as well as of garnet and oil-shale. Coal is the principal use of the Yorkshire coal-field, and there are large export of coal from the Yorkshire coal-field, and there are many useful minerals associated with it. Lead ore is obtained in the Yoredale beds of the Pennine range in Wharfedale. Airledale, Nidderdale, Swaledale, Arkendale and Wensleydale. The most important is the Yoredale series, which is composed of the Millstone Grit there are several beds of good building stone, but that most largely quarried is the Magnesian limestone of the Permian series, which, however, is of somewhat variable quality.
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Agriculture.—Nearly nine-tenths of the E. Riding is under cultivation, but of the N. and W. Ridings only from three-fifths to seven-tenths—are proportionate by the different physical conditions. The till or boulder clay of Holderness is the richest soil in Yorkshire, and the chalk wolds, by careful cultivation, form one of the best soils for grain crops. The central plain bears all kinds of crops excellently. Wheat is grown in the E. and W. Ridings, but oats are the principal grain crop in these ridings, and barley exceeds wheat in all three. The bulk of the acreage under green crops is devoted to turnips and swedes. A little flax is grown, and liquorice is cultivated largely. The mixed farming of the western part of the Riding is the greatest in the N. Riding and least in the E., but N. and W. Ridings are among the principal sheep-farming districts in England. Cattle, for the rearing of which the W. Riding is most noted, do not receive great attention. The Teeswater breed, however, is increasing in Yorkshire, and in Holderness there is a short-horned breed, chiefly valuable for its milking qualities. Cheese-making is largely carried on in some districts. Of sheep perhaps the most common breeds are the Leicester, Lincoln and South Down, and crosses between the Cheviot and Leicesters. Large numbers of pigs are kept. The small cattle are bred for dairy purposes. The small breed is that chiefly in favour. Yorkshire bacon is famous. Draft horses are generally of a somewhat mixed breed, but the county is famed for its hunters and carriage and saddle horses. The breed of Cleveland bays is much used for carriages.

Manufactures.—The industrial district of south Yorkshire occupies the S. of the W. Riding, and may be taken as marked off approximately by the watershed from the similar district in S. Lancashire. The W. Riding is now the chief seat of the woollen manufacture of the United Kingdom, and has almost a monopoly of this branch of woollen clothing. The early development of the industry was in part due to the abundance of water-power, while later the presence of coal helped to maintain it on the introduction of steam-power. In this industry nearly all the most important towns are engaged, while the names of several of the largest are connected with various specialties. Thus, while almost every variety of woollen and worsted cloth is produced at Leeds, Bradford is especially concerned with yarneis and mixed worsted goods, Dewsbury and Batley with shoddy, Huddersfield with fancy goods and Halifax with mixture cloth. The industrial district of S. Lancashire is much penetrated to the neighbourhood of Halifax. Among the characteristics of the industrial population, the love of music should be mentioned. Choral societies are numerous, and the work of some of those in the larger towns, such as Sheffield, Leeds and Bradford, has attracted wide notice. Next to the woollen industry comes the manufacture of iron and steel machinery and implements of every variety, which is common to most of the larger centres in the district. Sheffield is especially famous for iron-work, fine metal-work and cutlery. The development of the iron ore deposits of Cleveland dates only from the middle of the 19th century. About two and a half million tons of pig-iron are produced in this district annually, and there are considerable attendant industries, such as the production of steel, and shipbuilding. The chemical manufacture is important both here and in the W. Riding, where also a great variety of minor industries have sprung up. Such are leather working (at Leeds), the manufacture of clothing, printing and bleaching, and paper-making. Besides coal and iron ore, great quantities of clay, limestone and sandstone are raised. Excellent building-stone is obtained at several places in the W. Riding. The sea fisheries are of some importance, chiefly at Hull, Scarborough, Whitley and Filey.

Communications.—N. and E. of Leeds communications are provided almost wholly by the North-Eastern railway, the main line of which runs from Leeds and from Doncaster N. by York, Thirsk and Northallerton. The main junction with the Great Northern line is effected immediately N. of Doncaster, at which town are the Great Northern works. This company serves the chief centres of the W. Riding, as do also the Midland, Great Central, London & North-Western, Lancashire & Yorkshire, and North-Eastern companies, the trains working over a close network of lines, while the system of running-power is held by one or more companies over the lines of another assists intercommunication. The Midland main line to Carlisle runs by Leeds, Skipton and Settle, and through the southern parts of the N. Riding line runs from Hull to Barnsley. A complete system of canals links the centres of the southern W. Riding with the sea both E. and W. The Aire & Calder Navigation connecting with the Ouse at Goole; the Huddersfield canal, crossing the watershed by the long Standedge tunnel, and other canals are the Leeds & Liverpool, Calder & Nible Navigation, the Manchester & Sowerby, the Wakefield Canal, and the Sheffield Sheaf. The small canals access from Sheffield to the Trent. The Aire & Calder Navigation, the most important of these canals, has branches from Castleford to Leeds and Wakefield, and other branches to Barnsley, and Huddersfield. The Selby and the Manchester & Sowerby canals have improved since its construction. It was projected by John Rennie and opened in 1826, with a depth of 7 ft. and locks measuring 72 ft. 6 in. by 10 ft., and over a distance of 28 miles. Between Goole and the collieries, the locks have been enlarged to 460 by 25 ft., and the width of the canal to 90 ft. The chief ports are Middlesbrough on the Tees, Hull on the Humber, and Goole on the Ouse.

Population and Administration.—The area of the ancient county is 3,882,328 acres. Its population in 1841 was 2,445,031, and in 1901, 3,582,762. The population increased over fivefold between 1801 and 1901; the increase in the W. Riding exceeding sevenfold. The manner in which the population is distributed may be inferred from the following statement of the parliamentary divisions, parliamentary, county and municipal boroughs, and urban districts in the three ridings. It should be premised that each of the three ridings is a distinct administrative county; though there is one high sheriff for the whole county. The city of York (pop. 77,914) is situated only in the eastern part of the three ridings.

The West Riding has an area of 1,771,562 acres, with a population in 1891 of 2,445,031, and in 1901 of 2,759,493. Of this area the S. industrial district, considered in the broadest application of the term as extending between Sheffield and Skipton, Sheffield being the greatest industrial and populous region, is less than one-half. The area thus defined includes the parliamentary divisions of Barnsley, Colne Valley, Elland, Hallamshire, Holmfirth, Keighley, Morley, Normanton, Padsey, Rotherham, Shipley, Sowerby, Spen Valley. It also includes parts of the divisions of Barston Ash, Doncaster, Ogoldersley, Otley and Skipton (a small part). The remaining parts of these last divisions, with that of Ripon, cover the rest of the county. Each division returns one member. The following are parliamentary boroughs: Bradford, returning 3 members, Dewsbury 1, Halifax 1, Huddersfield 1, Leeds 5, Pontefract 1, Sheffield 5, Wakefield 1. All these are in the W. Riding. The seats of the following municipal boroughs (pops. in 1901): Barnsley (41,086), Batley (30,321), Bradford, city and county borough (279,767), Brighouse (21,735), Dewsbury (28,600), Doncaster (32,932), Halifax (25,076), Huddersfield (10,127), Keighley (41,564), Leeds, city and county borough (428,968), Morley (23,536), Ossett (12,905), Pontefract (13,427), Padsey (12,662), Wakefield, city and county borough (309,670), Todmorden (partly in Lancashire, 25,418), Wakefield, city (41,413). The only municipal boroughs elsewhere in the riding are Harrogate (26,423) and Ripon (cathedral city, 820). Within the industrial region there are 113 other urban districts, those with populations exceeding 10,000 being Bingley (18,449), Castleford (17,366), Cleckheaton (12,524), Elland (10,412), Featherstone (12,953), Handsworth (13,504), Hoyland Nether (19,649), Huddersfield (13,980), Mexborough (10,430), Mirfield (11,341), Normanton (12,352), Rawmarsh (14,587), Rothwell (11,702), Saddleworth (12,360), Shipley (25,573), Skipton (11,968), Sowerby Bridge (13,561), Thirsk (12,127), Wakefield, city (13,837), Wombwell (12,752), Worsbrough (10,336). The only urban districts in the West Riding not falling within the industrial region are Cacole (16,576), Ilkley (7455), Knaresborough (4979) and Selby (2796).

The North Riding has an area of 1,362,378 acres, and 63,406,394 in 1901, and in 1901 of 377,335. It comprises the counties of York, Cleveland and Northallerton, and the rural districts of Thirsk and Malton, each returning one member; and the parliamentary boroughs of Middlesbrough (one member), Scarborough (one member), and parts of Stockton-on-Tees and York. The county boroughs are Cleveland (12,401), Darlington (15,054), Richmond (5837), Scarborough (38,161) and Thornaby-on-Tees (16,054). The urban districts are Eston (11,199), Guisborough (3,589), Thornaby-on-Tees (11,783), Yarm (12,466), Thornaby (12,656). Malton (3758), Masham (1555). Northallerton (8049), Ormesby (9432), Pickering (359), Redcar (7595), Saltburn-by-the-Sea (2578), Scalfby (1350), Skelton and Brotton (13,240), South
Bank in Normanby (9645), Whitby (11,755). Of these, all except Kirklington, Malton, Masham, Northallerton, Pickering and Whitby are in the populous Cleveland district. Besides Pickering, there lie at the S. of the Cleveland hills the small towns of Kirkby Moorside (1550) and Helmsley (1362). South of the last-named is the village of Ampleforth, with its large Roman Catholic college, founded in 1802, and accommodating, in fine modern buildings, about 120 students.

The East Riding has an area of 750,029 acres, with a population in 1891 of 341,560 and in 1901 of 385,007. It comprises the parliamentary divisions of Buckrose, Howdenshire and Holderness, each returning one member; and contains the parliamentary borough of Hull, returning three members, and part of that of York. The municipal boroughs are Beverley (13,183), Bridlington (12,482), Hedon (1010), and Hull, or Kingston-upon-Hull, a city and county of a city and county borough (240,259). The urban districts are Cottingham, near Hull (3751), Fieby (3003), Driffield (5766), Hessle, near Hull (3754), Hornsea (2361), Norton, near Malton (5452), Pocklington (2463) and Withernsea (1426). The West Riding comprises 9 wapentakes and the liberty of Ripon. It has one court of quarter sessions and is divided into 26 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Bradford, Doncaster, Leeds, Pontefract, Rotherham and Sheffield, and the liberty of Ripon, have separate courts of quarter sessions and commissions of the peace; and Barnsley, Batley, Brighouse, Dewsbury, Halifax, Harrogate, Huddersfield, Keighley, Morley, Ossett and Wakefield have commissions of the peace. The liberty and borough of Ripon are rated separately from the West Riding for the purposes of the county rate.

The North Riding comprises 11 wapentakes, and the liberties of E. and W. Langbaurgh and of Whitby Strand. It has one court of quarter sessions and is divided into 19 petty sessional divisions. The boroughs of Richmond and Scarborough have separate courts of quarter sessions and commissions of the peace, and the borough of Middlesbrough has a commission of the peace. The East Riding comprises 6 wapentakes and has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into 12 petty sessional divisions, while Hull has a separate court of quarter sessions and commission of the peace, and Beverley has a separate commission of the peace. The city of York has a separate court of quarter sessions and commission of the peace. Yorkshire is in the N.E. circuit. The total number of civil parishes is 1586. The county contains
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1178 ecclesiastical parishes and districts wholly or in part. It is divided between the dioceses of York, Ripon and Wakefield, with small parts in those of Manchester, Southwell, Durham and Lincoln. York is the seat of the northern archiepiscopal.

History.—The kingdom of Deira (q.v.), which was afterwards to include the whole of the modern Yorkshire, is first known to us in the 6th century, an Anglo-Saxon tribe having secured the promontory at the mouth of the Humber, named by the invaders Holderness, followed by the gradual subjugation of the whole district east of the Humber by the 8th century. The remains of both Weighton and Flamborough Head were then mere sheep-walks, and the earliest settlements were chiefly confined to the rich valley of the lower Derwent, but the district around Weighton became the Deiran sacred ground, and Goodmanham is said to mark the site of a temple. The area computed in the modern West Riding constituted the British kingdom of Elmet, and at this date presented a desolate and unbroken tract of moorland in the N.; in the central parts about Leeds stretched a forest region where the last wild beasts were said to have been slain by Jaxon of Gaunt; while in the S. the forest and valley of the Haven, further protected by the barrier of the broken only by the wall of Watling Street, which crossed the Don at Doncaster, the Aire at Castleford and the Wharfe at Tadcaster. The N. continuation of the road from York through Catterick to the Tees opened the way to the fertile plain in the heart of the modern North Riding, the S.E. of which offered an unbroken forest area, later known as the forest of Galtres, which in the middle ages stretched from York N. to Easingwold and Cranke and E. to Castle Howard, and as late as the 16th century lay a waste and unfrequented region abounding only in deer. Ella, the first king of Deira, extended his territory N. to the Wear, and his son Edwin completed the conquest of the district which was to become Yorkshire by the subjugation of Elmet, prompted thereto by vengeance on its king, Cerdic, for the murder of his uncle Hereric. Traces of the "burhs" by which Edwin secured his conquests are perhaps visible in the group of earthworks at Barwick and on the site of Cambodunum, but the district long remained scantily populated, and as late as the 17th century deer were said to be as plentiful at Hatfield Chase as "sheep upon a hill," for Prince Henry in 1600 was asserted to have killed 500 in one day's hunting. The defeat of Edwin at Hatfield in 623 was followed by a succession of struggles between Mercia and Northumbria for the supremacy over Deira, during which the boundaries underwent constant changes. After the Danish conquest of Deira, Guthrum in 875 portioned the district among his followers, under whose lordship the English population were for the most part allowed to retain their lands. Cleveland came under Scandinavian influence, and the division into tithings probably originated about this date, the boundaries being arranged to meet at York, which, as the administrative and commercial centre of the district, rapidly increased in importance, and it has been estimated that in A.D. 1000 it had a population of over 30,000. At the battle of Stamford Bridge in 1066 Harold Hardrada, who had seized York, and Earl Tosti were both defeated and slain by Harold of England. The merciless harrying with which the Conqueror punished resistance to his claims is proved by the reiterated prizes of waste land in the Domesday Survey, and for many years all the towns between York and Durham lay uninhabited. In 1138 the forces of David of Scotland were defeated near Northallerton in the Battle of the Skipton Moor, the famous battle of the reign of Henry II. Thornton, Flamborough Head, and Malgaid Castle, which had been garrisoned against the king by Roger de Mowbray, were captured and demolished. In the harrying of the northern counties by the forces of Robert Bruce in 1318, Northallerton, Boroughbridge, Scarborough and Skipton were reduced to ashes. In 1322, at the battle of Boroughbridge, the rebel barons were defeated by the forces of Edward II. In 1399 Richard II. was murdered in Pontefract Castle. In 1405 Archbishop Scrope and Thomas Mowbray joined in the insurrection against Henry IV., and led the citizens of York to Skipton Moor, where, after a defeat by the earl of Westmorland, the leaders were beheaded under the walls of York. In 1408 the rebel forces of the earl of Northumberland were defeated by Sir Thomas Rokesby, high sheriff of Yorkshire, at Bramham Moor near Tadcaster. In 1455 a skirmish between the Percies and the Nevilles at Stamford Bridge was the opening event in the struggle between the houses of York and Lancaster; in 1460 the duke of York was defeated and slain at Wakefield; in 1461 the Lancastrians were defeated at Towton. The suppression of the monasteries roused deep resentment in many parts of the district, and the inhabitants flocked to join the Pilgrimage of Grace. Skipton Castle being the only place immediately N. of the Humber which remained loyal to the king. On the outbreak of the Civil War of the 17th century, opinion was divided in Yorkshire, the chief parliamentary families being the Fairfaxes and the Hothams, while the Puritan cloth-clothes of the West Riding also sided with the parliament. Sir William Savile captured Leeds and Wakefield for the king in 1642, and in 1643 Newastle, having defeated the Fairfaxes at Adwalton Moor, held all Yorkshire except Hull, which the Hothams, moved by jealousy of the Fairfaxes, had already designed to give up. In 1646, the Fairfaxes secured the East and West Riding while Cromwell's victory at Marston Moor was followed by the capture of York, and in the next year of Pontefract and Scarborough. The redistribution of estates after the Norman Conquest, Alan of Brittany, founder of Richmond Castle, received a vast fief which became the honour of Richmond; Ilbert de Laci was rewarded with lands which afterwards constituted the honour of Pontefract. Earl Harold's estate at Coningsby passed to William de Wareine, earl of Surrey, together with Sandal Castle, which on the extinction of the Wareine line in the 14th century was bestowed on Edmund Langley, duke of York. Other great Domesday landholders were William de Percy, founder of the abbey of Whitby; Robert de Bruce, ancestor of the Royal line of Scotland, the head of whose fief in Cleveland was transferred in the 12th century from Danby Castle to Skelton; Roger de Busli owned a large tract in S. Yorkshire, of which Tickhill was the head; the archbishop of York enjoyed the great lordship of Sherburn, and Howdenshire was a liberty of the bishop of Durham. Among the great lordships of the middle ages for which Yorkshire was distinguished were: Tickhill, the harbour of the Percies; Thirsk, the Mowbrays; Tanfield of the Marmions; Skipton, of the Clifftords; Middleton, of the Fitz-Hughes and Nevilles; Helmsley, of the de Roos; Masham and Bolton, of the Scropes; Sheffield, of the Furnivals and Talbots; Wakefield, of the duke of York. The Fairfaxes were settled in Yorkshire in the 13th century, and in the 16th century Denton became their chief seat.

The shire court for Yorkshire was held at York, but extensive privileges were enjoyed by the great landholders. In the 13th century Henry de Lacy, earl of Lincoln, claimed to hold the sheriff's court at Bradford and Leeds; his bailiff administered the wapentake of Staincliff in his court at Bacsall and Slaidburn; and his steward judged cases of felony in his court at Almondbury. The archbishop of York held the sheriff's court at Otley, and had his own coroners at York, Hull, Beverley and Ripon. Eudo la Zouche held the sheriff's court at Bingley, and Thomas de Furnival in Hallamshire. The bailiffs of Tickhill Castle held courts in place of the sheriff. The bishop of Durham had a court at Hoveden, and the king's bailiffs were excluded from executing their office in his estates of Howdenshire and Allerton. The abbot of Thornton alias York had his own coroners in the wapentake of Ryedale, and the abbot of Bella Landa in Sutton. The prior of Bradenstoke held a court in his manor of Wales. The archbishop of York, Robert de Ros, and the abbot of St Mary's York judged felonies at their courts in Holderness. The liberty of Ripon (q.v.), city of Ripon, still constitutes a franchise of the archbishops of York.

In the 13th century the diocese of York included in this county the archdeaconry of York, comprising the deaneries of York, Pontefract, Doncaster and Craven; the archdeaconry of Cleveland, comprising the deaneries of Bulmer, Cleveland
and Ryedale; the archdeaconry of East Riding, comprising the deaneries of Hartlepool (Hull), Buckrose, Dickering and Holderness; and the archdeaconry of Richmond, comprising the deaneries of Richmond, Catterick, Boroughbridge and Lonsdale. In 1841 the deaneries of Richmond were transferred to Henry VII. The bishopric was re-established by an act of parliament in 1836, and the deaneries of Craven and Pontefract were formed into the archdeaconry of Craven within its jurisdiction, together with the archdeaconry of Richmond. The archdeaconry of Sheffield was created in 1884 to include the deaneries of Sheffield, Rotherham, Ecclesfield and Wath. In 1888 the area of the diocese of Ripon was reduced by the creation of the see of Wakefield, including the archdeaconry of Halifax with the deaneries of Birstall, Dewsbury, Halifax, Silkstone and Wakefield, and the archdeaconry and deanery of Huddersfield.

The diocese of Ripon now includes in this county the archdeaconries of Craven with three deaneries, Richmond with three deaneries and Ripon with seven deaneries. The diocese of York includes the archdeaconry of York with six deaneries, Sheffield with four deaneries, East Riding with thirteen deaneries and Cleveland with nine deaneries.

The great woolen industry of Yorkshire originated soon after the Norman Conquest when the English began to cultivate the breeding of the so-called long wool sheep. The following is an account of the history of York and the surrounding areas.

The city of York, a prosperous trading centre in the 13th century, was a centre of the manufacturing of cloth, particularly in the district around the city. The city was also a centre of the wool trade, and the clothiers of York were known for their fine cloth, particularly in the areas of East Riding and the Vale of York.

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**YORKTOWN,** a town and the county-seat of York county, Virginia, U.S.A., on the York river 10 m. from its mouth, and about 60 m. E.S.E. of Richmond. Pop. (1910) 136. It is served by the Baltimore, Chesapeake & Richmond steamship line, and about 6½ m. distant is Lee Hall, a station on the Chesapeake & Ohio railway. Large deposits of marl near the town are used for the manufacture of artificial slate. It is the largest center of the slate industry in the United States, and the house of Thomas Nelson (1738-1780), a signer of the Declaration of Independence. In commemoration of the surrender of Lord Cornwallis in October 1781, there is a monument of Maine granite (100 ft. 6 in. high) designed by R. M. Hunt and J. Q. A. Ward; its corner-stone was laid in 1881 during the centennial celebration of the surrender, and it was completed in 1883. Yorktown was founded in 1691, as a port of entry for York county. It became the county-seat in 1696, and although it never had more than about 200 houses its trade was considerable until it was ruined by the War of Independence. At that time, the American soldiers were victorious, the Americans and their French allies took place at Yorktown.

Baffled by General Nathanael Greene in his campaign in the Carolinas, his diminished force (fewer than 14,000) sadly in need of reinforcement, and persuaded that the more southern colonies could not be held until Virginia had been reduced, Lord Cornwallis marched out of Wilmington, N. Carolina, April 25th, 1781, arrived at Petersburg, Virginia, on May 20th, and there with the troops which had been under William Phillips and Benedict Arnold and with further reinforcements raised in Virginia on the spot marched 7000 men. Facing him in Richmond was Lafayette, whom Washington had sent earlier in the year with a small force of light infantry to check Arnold, and who had now been placed in command of the American forces in Virginia. The first attempt was to prevent the union of Lafayette and General Anthony Wayne. Failing in this, he retired down the James in the hope, it is thought, of receiving further reinforcements. General George Washington improved Cornwallis's plan against Virginia, at first ordered him to send a portion of his troops to aid in the defence of New York; but as other reinforcements from England were expected, Cornwallis's plan was revised, and on the 14th of August he should sail for the Chesapeake to fortify his position. Cornwallis, seized Yorktown and as the home government approved Cornwallis's plan, Clinton resolved to establish a permanent base in the Chesapeake and directed Cornwallis to fortify a post for the protection of the British navy. Cornwallis seized Yorktown and Gloucester early in August and immediately began fortifying them. While Cornwallis was marching from N. Carolina to Virginia, Washington learned that a large French fleet under Count de Grasse was to come up from the West Indies in 14 ships-of-the-line to reinforce the American and French armies. At a conference (May 21st) at Wethersfield, Connecticut, with the French commanders, Washington was favored a plan for a joint attack on New York when and as De Grasse arrived. The British government was determined to carry off the French merchantmen in the same fleet, and the 14th of August sailed for the Chesapeake to fortify against Cornwallis. About the same time Washington learned from Lafayette that Cornwallis had gone south. Sir Samuel Hood, who had 14 ships-of-the-line arrived at the Chesapeake from the West Indies three days ahead of De Grasse, and proceeding to New York warned Admiral Thomas Graves of the danger. Graves pressed the attack, and on the 1st and on the 4th the French fleet transported the allied army from the head of the Chesapeake to the vicinity of Williamsburg, and on the 8th of September marched to Yorktown. Receiving, on the same day, a despatch from Cornwallis, informing him that the French fleet, under the command of de Grasse, had arrived off the James, Cornwallis abandoned his outposts during the following night and withdrew to his inner defenses, consisting of seven redoubts and six batteries connected by intrenchments, besides batteries on the river bank. The British lost 1600 troops, took possession of the abandoned posts and closed in on the town in a semicircle extending from Worrell Creek below it to about 1½ miles. The British were held in check until the evacuation of the left. On the night of October 5th-6th the allies opened the first parallel about 600 yds. from the British works, and extending from a deep ravine on the N.W. to the river bank on the S.E., a distance of nearly 2 m. Six days later the second parallel was begun within 300 yds. of the British lines, and it was practically completed on the night of the 14th and 15th, when two British redoubts were carried by assault, the Americans led by Alexander Hamilton and one by the French led by Lient.-Colonel G. de Deux-Ponts. In the morning of the 16th Cornwallis ordered Lieut.-Colonel Abercrombie to make an assault on two French forts. He came to the attack with 5000 and recovered the guns and were ready for service again twelve hours later. On the night of the 16th and 17th Cornwallis attempted to escape with his army to Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, but was stopped by a storm rising about the chest-high chesapeake in this venture. In grave danger of an assault from the allies. Cornwallis offered to surrender on the 17th; two days later his white flag, consisting of 7037 officers and men, water, provisions, and American Independent Service were surrendered. The British loss during the siege was about 156 killed and 326 wounded; the American and French losses were 85 killed and 199 wounded.

In 1862 the Confederate defences about Yorktown were besieged for a month (April 4-May 3) by the Army of the Potomac under General McClellan. There was no intention on the part of the Confederacy to surrender in-chief, Joseph Johnston, to do more than gain time by holding Yorktown and the line of the Warwick river as long as possible without serious fighting, and without imperilling the line of retreat on Richmond; and when after many delays McClellan was in a position to assault with full assistance from his heavy siege guns, the Confederates fell back on Williamsburg.


**YORUBA; YORUBALAND.** The Yoruba, a group of Negro tribes, have given their name to an extensive area in West Africa, in the hinterland of Lagos. The Yoruba are of true Negro stock, in many respects typical of the race, but among them are found persons with lighter skins and features resembling the Hamitic or Semitic peoples. This arises, in all probability, from an infiltration of Berber and Arab blood through the Fula (q.v.). The Yoruba themselves have traditions of an Oriental origin. They are divided into many tribes, among the best known being the Oyo=Yoruba proper, the Egbas, Ife and Ibadan. They are sometimes called by the French Nago, and are known to the Sierra Leonis, many of whom are of Yoruba descent, as Aku. A considerable proportion of the American negroes are also said to be of Yoruba origin. For a long period the Yoruba were raidied by the Dahomeyans and other coast tribes, to sell as slaves to the white traders. They are both an urban and agricultural people. Pottery, weaving, tanning, dyeing, and forging are among their industries. The houses of chiefs, often containing fifty rooms, are well built, and decorated with carvings representing symbolic devices, fabulous animals and scenes of war or the chase.

The Yoruba have considerable administrative ability. Their system of government places the power in a council of elders presided over by a chief who owes his position to a combination of hereditary rights of birth and actual services rendered to the community.
always be taken from the members of one of two families, the succession in many cases passing from one to the other family alternately. Primogeniture is not necessarily considered.

Before the introduction of letters the Yoruba are said to have had extensive intercourse with the Moslems. Their language, which has been reduced to writing and carefully studied, has penetrated as far E. as Kano in the Hausa country. The best known dialectic varieties are those of Egba, Jenu, Yeda, Ile. Inflexion; Oyo (Yoruba proper, called also Nago); but the discrepancies are slight. The most marked feature, a strong tendency towards mono-syllabism—produced by phonetic decay—has given rise to the principle of intonation, required to distinguish words originally different but reduced by corruption to the condition of homophones. Besides the tones, of which there are three,—high, low and middle,—Yoruba has also developed a degree of vocalic harmony, in which the vowels of the affixes are assimilated to that of the root. It descends as in Bantu, is effected chiefly by prefixes; and there is a remarkable power of word-formation by the fusion of several relational elements in a single compound term. The Bible and several other books have been translated into Yoruba, which as a medium of general intercourse in West Africa ranks in importance next to Hausa and Mandingan. The Yoruba religion is that usually known as fetishism.

The Yoruba country extends from Benin on the E. to Dahomey on the W. (where it somewhat overlaps the French frontier), being bounded N. by Borgu and the Dahomean lands of Benin, E. by Oyo, S. and SW. by the Yoruba of the Yennagoa district, and O. by the coast. Most of it is included in the British protectorate of Southern Nigeria. The land is moderately elevated and a large part of it is densely forested. It is well watered; the rivers belong mainly to the coast systems, though some drain to the Niger. The history of Yorubaland, as known to Europeans, does not go back beyond the close of the 17th century. At that time it was a powerful empire, and had indirectly come,—through its connexion with Benin and Dahomey,—to some extent under European influence. There was also a much slighter Moslem influence. One tradition brought the founder of the nation from Bornu. The Yoruba do not appear to have inhabited their present country at least as early as A.D. 1000. In the 18th century the Yoruba were constantly engaged in warfare with their Dahomeyan neighbours, and in 1738 they captured Kana, the sacred city of the kings of Dahomey. From 1747 to the time of King Gezo (1818) the Dahomeyans paid tribute to Yoruba. It was not until the early years of the 19th century that the Yoruba came as far S. as the sea, when they founded a colony at Lagos. About 1825 the province of Ijebu, already permeated by Moslem influences from the north, declared itself independent of the Yoruba, and shortly afterwards the city of Abeokuta was founded by the Yoruba.

Though divided into semi-independent states, the Yoruba retain a feeble sense of common nationality. The direct representative of the old Yoruba power is the alafin or king of Oyo occupying the N. and central parts of the whole region. Round this central state, which has lost much of its importance, are grouped the kingdoms of Ijebu, Ilorin, Ijesa, Ife and Ondo in the E., and Abeokuta and the S. and Egba in the W. The ruler of each of these states has a title characteristic of his office. Thus the chief of Ife bears the title of oni (a term indicating spiritual supremacy). To that of Ife or the alafin of Oyo all the other great chieftains acknowledge their succession. The oni, says Sir William MacGregor, is regarded as the fountain of honour, and without his consent no chief can assume the privilege of wearing a crown. The most important of the Yoruba states is Egba, the ruling chief of which is the alake of Abeokuta.

Yorubaland is a country of comparatively large cities. The alafin resides at Oyo, on a headstream of the Oshun, a place which has succeeded the older capitals, Bohu and Katunga, lying farther N. and destroyed during the wars with the Fula. Oyo is exceeded in size by several other places in Yorubaland, where the inhabitants have grouped themselves together for mutual protection in walled towns. Thus have sprung up the important towns of Abeokuta on the Ogun, due N. of Lagos; Idaban on a branch of the Omi, 50 m. S. of Oyo; and Illorin, capital of the Illorin state, besides several other towns with a population of some 40,000.


YOSAI—Yosemite

Yosai [Kikuchi] (1784-1878), Japanese painter, was the son of a samurai named Kawara, of Yedo. He was adopted by the Kikuchi family, who were old hereditary retainers of the Tokugawa clan. When eighteen, he became a pupil of a certain Zanoske, a MOSLEM, and studied at the Shijo, and Maryuwa schools—in the latter, perhaps, under Ozu, a son of Okyo—he developed an independent style, having some affinities with that of Tani Bunchô. He was one of the last of the great painters of Japan; and his illustrated history of Japanese heroes, the Zenken Köjitô, is a remarkable specimen of his power as a draughtsman in black and white.

Yosemite, a famous valley on the W. slope of the Sierra Nevada of California, about 150 m. E. of San Francisco and 4000 ft. above the sea. It is 7 m. long, half a mile to a mile wide, and contains a large number of small glaciers which eroded out of hard massive granite by glacial action. Its precipitous walls present a great variety of forms, and the bottom, a filled-up lake basin, is level and park-like. The most notable of the wall rocks are: El Capitan, 3300 ft. high, a sheer, plain mass of granite; the Three Brothers, North Dome, Glacier Point, the Sentinel, Cathedral, Sentinel Dome and Cloud's Rest, from 2800 to nearly 6000 ft. high; and Half Dome, the noblest of all, which rises at the head of the valley to the height of 4750 ft. These rocks illustrate on a grand scale the action of ice in mountain sculpture. For here five large glaciers united to form the grand glacier that eroded the valley and occupied it as its channel. Its moraines, though mostly obscured by vegetation and weathering, may still be traced; while on the snowy peaks at the headwaters of the Merced a considerable number of small glaciers, once tributary to the main Yosemite glacier, still exist. The Bridal Veil Fall, 900 ft. high, is one of the most interesting features of the lower end of the valley. Towards the upper end the great Yosemite Fall pours from a height of 2000 ft. The valley divides at the head into three branches, the Tenaya, Merced and South Fork canyons. In the main (Merced) branch, each are the Vernal and Nevada Falls, 1100 and 600 ft. high. The Nevada is usually ranked next to the Yosemite among the five main falls of the valley, and is the whitest of all the falls. The Vernal, about half a mile below the Nevada, is famous for its afternoon rainbows. At flood-time it is a nearly regular sheet about 80 ft. wide, changing as it descends from green to purplish-grey and white. In the S. branch, a mile from the head of the main valley, is the Illilouette Fall, 600 ft. high, one of the most beautiful of the Yosemite choir.

Considering the great height of the snowy mountains about the valley, the climate of the Yosemite is remarkably mild. The vegetation is rich and luxuriant. The tallest pines are over 200 ft. high; the trunks of some of the oaks are from 6 to 8 ft. in diameter; violets, lilies, golden-rods, ceanothus, manzanita, wild rose and azalea make broad beds and banks of bloom in the spring; and on the warmest parts of the walls flowers blossom in every month of the year.
Youghal—Young, A.

The valley was discovered in 1851 by a military company in pursuit of marauding Indians; regular tourist travel began in 1856. The first permanent settler in the valley was Mr. J.C. Lamon, who built a cabin in the upper end of it in 1860 and planted gardens and orchards. In 1864 the valley was granted to the state of California by act of Congress on condition that it should be held as a place of public use, resort and recreation inalienable for all time, was re-ceded to the United States, and the government, in March 1953, and is now included in the Yosemite National Park.

In the number and height of its vertical falls and in the massive grandeur of El Capitan and Half Dome rocks Yosemite is unrivalled. But there are many other valleys of the same kind. The most noted of these are Yosemite and Hetch Hetchy, the latter visited every summer by tourists. The villages of the mountain people, the Hetch Hetchy Valley, in the Middle Fork canyon of King's river; and the King's river Yosemite in the South Fork canyon, the latter being larger and deeper than the Merced Yosemite. All are similar in their trends—forms, sculpture and vegetation, and are plainly and harmoniously related to the ancient glaciers. The Romsdal and Naerodal of Norway and Lauterbrunnen of the Alps are well characterized glacial valleys of the Yosemite type, and in S.E. Alaska many may be observed in process of formation.

Sir John Muir (Washington, 1831-1914), the Superintendent of the Park; to the Guide to the Yosemite published by the California Geological Survey: John Muir, Our National Parks (Bostom, 1901); and Bunnell's Discovery of the Yosemite (New York, 1893).

Youghal (pronounced Yougall), a seaport, market town, and watering-place of county Cork. Ireland; on the W. side of the Blackwater river and estuary, on the Cork & Youghal branch of the Great Southern and Western railway, 263 m. E. of Cork. Pop. (1901) 3939. The collegiate church of St Mary, in the later decorated style, was erected in the 11th century, but rebuilt in the 13th, and since that time frequently restored. It contains a beautiful monument to the first earl of Cork. The college was founded by an earl of Desmond in 1464. There are still a few fragments of the Dominican friary founded in 1269. The Clock Gate (1771) is noticeable, and portions of the old walls are to be seen. Myrtle Grove was formerly the residence of Sir Walter Raleigh. He was mayor of Youghal in 1588–89, and is said to have first cultivated the potato here. The harbour is safe and commodious, but has a bar at the mouth. At the N. extremity of the harbour the river is crossed by a bridge on wooden piles. The principal exports are corn and other agricultural produce; the imports are coal, culm, timber and slate. Coarse earthenware and bricks are manufactured. Fine point-lace commanding high prices is made by the Presentation Sisters. The Blackwater is famous for salmon, and sea-fishing is important. The Strand, the modern portion of the town, has all the attributes of a seaport.

Youghal (Escahill, "the Yew wood") was made a settlement of the Northmen in the 8th century, and was incorporated by King John in 1209. The Franciscan monastery, founded at Youghal by FitzGerald in 1224, was the earliest house of that order in Ireland. Sir Roger Mortimer landed at Youghal in 1317. The town was plundered by the earl of Desmond in 1579. In 1621 it was Garrisoned and defended by the earl of Cork. In 1649 it declared for the parliament, and was occupied as his headquarters by Cromwell. It sent two members to parliament from 1574 till the Union, after that only one down to 1884.

Young, Arthur (1741–1820), English writer on agriculture and social economy, second son of the Rev. Arthur Young, rector of Bradfield, in Suffolk, chaplain to Speaker Onslow, was born on the 11th of September 1741. After being at a school at Lavenham, he was in 1758 placed in a mercantile house at Lynn, but showed no taste for commercial pursuits. He published, when only seventeen, a pamphlet On the War in North America, and in 1761 went to London and started a periodical work, entitled The American Magazine, which was dropped by the advice of Samuel Johnson. He also wrote Thoyr novels and Reflections on the Present State of Affairs at Home and Abroad in 1759. After his father's death in 1759, his mother had given him the direction of the family estate at Bradfield Hall; but the property was small and encumbered with debt. From 1763 to 1766 he devoted himself to farming on his mother's property. In 1765 he married a Miss Allen; but the union is said not to have been happy, though he was of domestic habits and an affeciation father. In 1767 he undertook on his own account the management of a farm in Essex. He engaged a Swedish agronomist to be his adviser in A Course of Experimental Agriculture (1770). Though Young's experiments were, in general, unsuccessful, he thus acquired a solid knowledge of agriculture. He had already begun a series of journeys through England and Wales, and gave an account of his observations in books which appeared from 1768 to 1770—A Six Weeks' Tour through the Southern Counties of England and Wales, A Six Months' Tour through the North of England and the Farmer's Tour through the East of England. He says that these books contained the only extant information relative to the rental, produce and stock of England and the preparation on actual examination. They were very favourably received, being translated into most European languages by 1792.

In 1768 he published the Farmer's Letters to the People of England, in 1771 the Farmer's Calendar, which went through a great number of editions, and in 1774 his Political Arithmetic, which was widely translated. About this time Young acted as parliamentary reporter for the Morning Post. He made a tour in Ireland in 1776, publishing his Tour in Ireland in 1780. In 1784 he began the publication of the Annals of Agriculture, which he continued until his death. Young had many able contributors, among whom was George IIII, writing under the nom de plume of "Ralph Robinson." Young's first visit to France was made in 1787. Travelling that country in every direction just before and during the first movements of the Revolution, he has given valuable notices of the condition of the people and the conduct of public affairs at that critical juncture. The Travels in France appeared in 2 vols. in 1792. On his return home he was appointed secretary of the Board of Agriculture, then (1793) just formed under the presidency of Sir John Sinclair. In this capacity he gave most valuable assistance in the collection and preparation of agricultural surveys of the English counties. His sight, however, failed, and in 1811 he had an operation for cataract, which proved unsuccessful. He suffered also in his last years from stone. He died on the 20th of April 1820. He left an autobiography in MS., which was edited (1898) by Miss M. Betham-Edwards, and is the main authority for his life; and also the materials for a great work on the "Elements and practice of agriculture."

Arthur Young was the greatest of all English writers on agriculture; but it is as a social and political observer that he is best known, and this his Tour in Ireland and Travels in France are still full of interest and instruction. He saw clearly and exposed unanswerably the causes which retarded the progress of Ireland. He strongly urged the repeal of the penal laws which pressed upon the Catholics; he condemned the restrictions imposed by Great Britain on the commerce of Ireland, and also the perpetual interference of the Irish parliament with industry by prohibitions and bounties. He favored a legislative union of Ireland with Great Britain, and he did not regard such a measure as absolutely necessary, many of its advantages being otherwise attainable.

The soil of France he found in general superior to that of England, and its produce less. Agriculture was neither as well understood nor as much esteemed as in England. He severely censured the higher classes for their neglect of it. "Banishment (from court) alone will force the French nobility to execute what the English do for their own benefit. In France you live beside upon and adorn their estates." Young saw the commencement of violence in the rural districts, and his sympathies began to take the side of the classes suffering from the exactions of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and his publication in 1793 of a tract entitled The Example of France a Warning to England. Of the profound significance of the French outbreak he seems to have had little idea, and thought the crisis would be met by a constitutional adjustment in accordance with the English type. He strongly condemned the mitayer system, then widely prevalent in France, as "perpetuating poverty and excluding instruction"—as, in fact, the ruin of the country. Some of his phrases have been often quoted by the advocates of peasant
Young, B.—Young, E.

Young was nearly fifty when he decided to take holy orders. It was reported that the author of Night Thoughts was not, in his earlier days, “the ornament to religion and morality which he afterwards became,” and his intimacy with the duke of Wharton and with Lord Melcombe did not improve his reputation. A statement attributed to Pope probably gives the correct view. “He had much of a sublime genius, though without common sense; so that his genius, having no guide, was perpetually liable to degenerate into bombast. This made him pass a foolish youth, the sport of peers and poets; but his having a very good heart enabled him to support the clerical character when he assumed it, first with decency and afterwards with honour” (O. Ruffhead, Life of A. Pope, p. 291).

In 1728 he was made one of the royal chaplains, and in 1730 was presented to the collegiate living of Welwyn, Hertfordshire. He married in 1731 Lady Elizabeth Lee, daughter of the 1st earl of Lichfield. Her daughter, by a former marriage with her cousin Francis Lee, married Henry Temple, son of the 1st viscount Palmerston. Mrs Temple died at Lyons in 1736 on her way to Nice. Her husband and Lady Elizabeth Young died in 1740. These successive deaths are supposed to be the events referred to in the Night Thoughts as taking place “ere thrice you mon had filled her horn” (Night i.). In the preface to the poem Young states that the occasion of the poem was the death of his wife. Philander and Narcissa have been rather vaguely identified with Mr and Mrs Temple. M. Thomas suggests that Philander represents Thomas Tickell, who was an old friend of Young’s, and died three months after Lady Elizabeth Young. It was further supposed that the infidel Lorenzo was a sketch of Young’s own son, a statement disproved by the fact that he was a child of eight years old at the time of publication. The Complaint, or Night Thoughts on Life, Death and Imortality, was published in 1742, and was followed by other “Nights,” the eighth and ninth appearing in 1745. In that his tragedy of The Brothers, written many years before, was brought into print, and the first part of his play The Centaur was produced at Drury Lane. Night Thoughts had made him famous, but he lived in almost uninterrupted retirement, although he continued vainly to solicit preferment. He was, however, made clerk of the closet to the princess dowager in 1761. He was never cheerful, it was said, after his wife’s death. He disagreed with his son, who had remonstrated, apparently, on the excessive influence exerted by his housekeeper Miss (known as Mrs) Hallows. The old man refused to see his son before he died, but is said to have forgiven him, and left him his money. A description of him is to be found in the letters of his curate, John Jones, to Dr Samuel Birch. He died at Welwyn on the 5th of April 1765.

Young is said to have been a brilliant talker. He had an extraordinary knack of epigram, and though the Night Thoughts is long and disconnected it abounds in brilliant isolated passages. Its success was enormous. It was translated into French, German, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Swedish and Magyar. In France it became one of the classics of the romantic school. The suspicion of insincerity that damped the enthusiasm of English readers acquainted with the facts of his career did not exist for French readers. If he did not invent “melancholy and midnight” in literature, he did much to spread the fashionable taste for them. Madame Klopstock thought the king ought to make him archbishop of Canterbury, and some German critics preferred him to Milton. Young wrote good blank verse, and Samuel Johnson pronounced Night Thoughts to be one of “the few poems” in which blank verse could not be changed for rhyme but with disadvantage.

Other works by Young are: The Instalment (to Sir R. Walpole, 1719); Trees in London (1725); A Poem on the drunkenness of the phlegmatic, with a sermon: An Apology for Punch (1729), a sermon; Imperium Poloni, a Naval Lyric . . . (1730); Two Epistles to Mr Pope concerning the Authors of the Age (1730); A Sea-Piece . . . (1733); The Foreign Address, or The Best Argument for Peace (1734); The Centaur not Fabulous; in Five Letters to a Friend (1755); An Argument . . . for the Truth of His [Christ’s] Religion (1758), a sermon preached before the king; Conjectures on Original Composition . . . (1759), addressed to Samuel Richardson; and Resignation . . . (1762), a poem.
YOUNG, J.— YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION


YOUNG, JAMES (1811-1883), Scottish industrial chemist, was born in Glasgow on the 13th of July 1811. During his apprenticeship to his father, a carpenter, he attended evening classes at Anderson's College, where he had Lyon Playfair and David Livingstone for fellow-pupils; and the ability he showed was such that Thomas Grafton, the lecturer at the College, chose him as lecture assistant in 1832. About 1839, on the recommendation of Graham, whom in 1837 he had accompanied to University College, London, he was appointed chemist at James Muspratt's alkali works in Lancashire; in connexion with alkali he showed that cast-iron vessels could be satisfactorily substituted for silver in the manufacture of caustic soda, and worked out improvements in the production of chlorate of potash. But his name is best known in connexion with the establishment of the Scottish mineral-oil industry. In 1842 he began his work of a young of petroleum which had made its appearance at Riddings's Colliery at Alfreton in Derbyshire, and in the following year he began to utilize it for making both burning and lubricating oils. This spring was practically exhausted by 1851. It had served to draw Young's attention to the question of oil-production, and in 1850 he took out his fundamental patent for the distillation of bituminous substances. This was soon put into operation in Scotland, first with the Boghead coal or Torbanehill mineral, and later with bituminous shales, and though he had to face much litigation Young successfully employed it. He began to manufacture the process, and also to make illuminating oils and paraffin wax, until in 1866, after the patent had expired, he transferred his works to a limited company. In 1872 he suggested the use of caustic lime to prevent the corrosion of iron ships by the bilge water, which he noticed was acid, and in 1878 he began a determination of the velocity of white and coloured light by a modification of H. L. Fizeau's method, in collaboration with Professor George Forbes (b. 1849), at Pitlochry. The final results were obtained in 1880-81 across the Firth of Clyde from Kelly, his house at Wemyss Bay, and a hill above Inellan, and gave values rather higher than those obtained by M. A. Cornu and A. M. Michelson. Young was a liberal supporter of David Livingstone, and also gave £10,000 to endow a chair of technical chemistry at Anderson's College. He died at Wemyss Bay on the 14th of May 1883.

YOUNG, THOMAS (1773-1829), English man of science, belonged to a Quaker family of Milverton, Somerset, where he was born on the 13th of June 1773, the youngest of ten children. At the age of fourteen he was acquainted with Latin, Greek, French, Italian, Hebrew, Persian and Arabic. Desiring to study medicine in London, in 1792, he removed to Edinburgh in 1794, and a year later went to Göttingen, where he obtained the degree of doctor of physic in 1796. In 1797 he entered Emmanuel College, Cambridge. In the same year the death of his grand-uncle, Richard Brocklesby, made him financially independent, and in 1799 he established himself as a physician in Welbeck Street, London. Appointed in 1801 professor of physics at the Royal Institution, in two years he delivered ninety-one lectures. These lectures, printed in 1807 (Course of Lectures on Natural Philosophy), contain a remarkable number of anticipations of later theories. He resigned his professorship in 1803, fearing that its duties would interfere with his medical practice. In the previous year he was appointed foreign secretary of the Royal Society, of which he had been elected a fellow in 1794. In 1811 he became physician to St George's Hospital, and in 1814 he served on a committee appointed to consider the dangers involved by the general introduction of gas into London. In 1816 he was secretary of a commission charged with ascertaining the length of the seconds pendulum, and in 1818 he became secretary to the Board of Longitude and superintendent of the Nautical Almanac. A few years before his death he became interested in life assurance, and in 1827 he was chosen one of the eight foreign associates of the French Academy of Sciences. He died in London on the 10th of May 1829.

Young is perhaps best known for his work in physical optics, as the author of a remarkable series of researches which did much to establish the undulatory theory of light, and as the discoverer of the interference of light (see INTERFERENCE). He has also been called the founder of physiological optics. In 1793 he explained the mode in which the eye accommodates itself to vision at different distances as depending on change of the curvature of the crystalline lens; in 1801 he described the defect known as astigmatism; and in his Lectures he put forward the hypothesis, afterwards developed by H. von Helmholtz, that colour perception depends on the presence in the retina of three kinds of nerve fibres which respond respectively to red, green and violet light. In physiology he made an important contribution to haemodynamics in the character of the circulation. His book "The Heart and Arteries," and his medical writings included An Introduction to Medical Literature, including a System of Practical Nosology (1813) and A Practical and Historical Treatise on Consumptive Diseases (1815).

In another field of research, he was one of the first successful workers at the decipherment of Egyptian hieroglyphic inscriptions; by 1814 he had completely translated the enochial (demotic) text of the Rosetta stone, and a few years later had made considerable progress towards an understanding of the hieroglyphic alphabet (see EGYPT, § Language and Writing). In 1813 he published an Account of the Recent Discoveries in Hieroglyphic Literature and Egyptian Antiquities. Some of his conclusions appeared in the famous article of Egypt which in 1818 he wrote for the Encyclopedic Britannica.

His works were collected, with a Life by G. Peacock, in 1835.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, an organization for social and religious work among young men, founded in England by Sir George Williams (1821-1905), a merchant of London. Williams's organization grew out of meetings he held for prayer and Bible-reading among his fellow-workers in a dry goods business in the city of London, and was founded in 1844; on the occasion of its jubilee its originator was knighted. Similar associations, indeed, had been in existence in Scotland at a much earlier date. In 1824 David Naiismith, who also founded city missions in London and Glasgow, started the Glasgow Young Men's Society for Religious Improvement, a movement which spread to various parts of the United Kingdom, France and America: later the name was changed to the Glasgow Young Men's Christian Association. The object of such associations is to provide in large towns a rendezvous for young men who are compelled to live in lodgings or in the apartments provided by the great business houses. An associate of the Y.M.C.A. must not only be of good moral character, but must also express his adherence to the objects and principles of the association. To be a member means a definite acceptance of the doctrines of the Evangelical Christian faith. In 1919 there were about 400 associations in England, Ireland and Wales, and 226 in Scotland—besides various soldiers' and other auxiliaries. The total membership was about 140,000. Some of the buildings, notably in the Midlands and the north of England, are very fine. The London Association, which from 1880 until shortly before its demolition in 1908 used Exeter Hall, Strand, has erected a

1 Commonly abbreviated Y.M.C.A.
handsome block of buildings in Tottenham Court Road, designed to provide, in addition to the usual features, bedrooms at a reasonable rent.

The Young Men’s Christian Association is seen at its best in the United States. It is true that Germany has more associations than any other country, but of its 2129 branches only 142 have their own buildings, and the total membership is 201,250. In America, however, the associations have been built on a broad basis and worked with enterprise and business skill. Thus they have been able to secure the generous support of many of the leaders of commerce. America has over 1900 associations, and the total membership is 4,56,000.

In Greater Britain the associations are numerous and flourishing, and Canada has 35,000 members. There are many active associations in Switzerland, Norway, Denmark and the Netherlands, and indeed the Y.M.C.A. is now well known all over the world. Even in Japan, China and Korea there are 150 branches with a membership of nearly 12,000. The value of the association buildings all over the world is £11,540,000 (America, £8,900,000; Great Britain, £1,912,000; United Kingdom, £1,128,000).

The Young Women’s Christian Association was founded in 1855, by two ladies simultaneously. In the south of England Miss Roberts started a Prayer Union with a purely spiritual aim; in London Lady Kinnaird commenced the practical work of opening house-to-house literature distribution in business. In 1857 the two branches united in the Young Women’s Christian Association, which seeks to promote the all-round welfare of young women by means of residential and holiday homes, club rooms, restaurants, noon rest rooms, classes and lectures, and other useful departments. The Young Women’s Christian Association has spread all over the world, and the total membership is about half a million.

YOUNGSTOWN, a city and the county-seat of Mahoning county, Ohio, U.S.A., on the Mahoning river, about 60 m. S.E. of Cleveland. Pop. (1900) 44,885 (12,07 being foreign-born especially English, Irish and German); (1910 census) 79,066. It is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Erie, the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, the Pennsylvania, and the Pittsburgh & Lake Erie railways, and by interurban electric lines. The Rayen High School (incorporated 1856) was endowed under the will of Judge William Rayen (1776-1854). The Reuben McMillan Public Library (about 25,000 volumes in 1910) is housed in a building finished in 1910 and is named in honour of Reuben McMillan (1820-1868), formerly superintendent of schools. Among other public buildings are the post office and Federal court house, the county court house, the city and the Mahoning Valley hospitals, and the Y.M.C.A. building. The business district lies in the valley on the N. of the river; the residential districts are chiefly on the neighbouring hills. Youngstown is the county-seat of Mahoning county, the Mahoning River flows 44,885 m. to the mouth of the Ohio, and Wick (48 acres), presented to the city by the Wick family, descendants of the merchant Henry Wick (1771-1843). The value of its factory products increased from $33,908,459 in 1900 to $48,126,885 in 1905. The most important establishments are blast-furnaces, iron and steel works (of the U.S. Steel Corporation) and rolling mills.

Youngstown was named in honour of John Young (1762-1825), a native of Petersborough, New Hampshire, who in 1766 bought from the Connecticut Land Company a tract of land upon which the city now stands, and lived there from 1766 until 1803. The first permanent settlement was made probably in 1766 by William Hillman. The tract was set off as a township in 1800, and the first township government was organized in 1802; the town was incorporated in 1848, and was chartered as a city of the second class in 1867. The county-seat of Mahoning county was removed from Canfield to Youngstown in 1876, and after much litigation the legality of this removal was confirmed by the United States Supreme Court in 1879. The first iron-mining in the region was done in 1803 by Daniel Eaton, who in 1804 built the first blast-furnace W. of Pennsylvania and N. of the Ohio river. Eaton also built in 1826 the first blast-furnace within the present limits of Youngstown.

YPRES (Flemish Yperen), a town of Belgium, in the province of West Flanders, of which it was formerly considered the capital. Pop. (1904) 17,073. It is situated 35 m. S. of Ostend and 12 m. W. of Courtrai, on the Yperle, a small river flowing into the Yser, both of which have been canalized. In the 14th century it ranked with Bruges and Ghent, and its population in its prime reached 500,000. It is remarkable chiefly for its five halles or bagthalls, with a façade of over 500 feet in length. The main building was begun in 1201 and completed in 1304. The cathedral of St Martin dates from the 13th century, with a tower of the 15th century. Jansen, bishop of Ypres and the founder of the Jansenist school, is buried in the cathedral. The Butchers’ Hall is also of interest and dates from the 15th century. Although Ypres is unlikely to regain the importance it possessed when its “red-coated” contingent turned the day in the great battle of Courtrai (1302), it has an important linen and lace trade and a great butter market. The Belgian cavalry training-school is established at Ypres.

YPISILANTI, or HYPISILANTI, the name of a family of Phanariot Greeks claiming descent from the Comneni. Alexander Ypsilanti (1775-1805) was dragoman of the Porte, and from 1774 to 1782 hospodar of Wallachia, during which period he drew up a code for the principality. He was again appointed hospodar just before the outbreak of the war with Austria and Russia in 1790. He allowed himself to be taken prisoner by the Austrians, and was interned at Brunn till 1792. Returning to Constantinople, he fell under the suspicion of the sultan and was executed in 1795. His son Constantine (d. 1821) who had joined in a conspiracy to liberate Greece and, on its discovery, fled to Vienna, had been pardoned by the sultan and in 1799 appointed by him hospodar of Moldavia. Deposed in 1805, he escaped to St Petersburg, and in 1806, at the head of some 20,000 Russians, returned to Bucharest, where he set to work on a fresh attempt to liberate Greece. His plans were ruined by the peace of Tilsit; he retired to Russia, and died at Kiev. He left five sons, of whom two played a conspicuous part in the Greek war of independence. Alexander Ypsilanti (1792-1828), eldest son of Constantine Ypsilanti, accompanied his father in 1805 to St Petersburg, and in 1809 received a commission in the cavalry of the Imperial Guard. He fought with distinction in 1812 and 1813, losing an arm at the battle of Dresden, and in 1814 was promoted colonel and appointed one of the emperor’s adjutants. In this capacity he attended Alexander I. at the congress of Vienna, where he was a popular figure in society (see La Garde-Chambon, Souvenirs). In 1817 he became major-general and commander of the brigade of garrisons. In 1826, on the refusal of the Greek dukes of Athos to accept the French proposals, he joined the Greek Heraclius Philike, Ypsilanti was elected, and in 1821 he placed himself at the head of the insurrection against the Turks in the Danubian principalities. Accompanied by several other Greek officers in the Russian service he crossed the Pruth on the 6th of March, announcing that he had the support of a “great power.” Had he advanced on Ibraila he might have prevented the Turks entering the principalities and so forced Russia to accept the fait accompli. Instead, he remained at Jassy, disgracing his cause by condoning the massacres of Turkish merchants and others. At Bucharest, whither he had advanced after some weeks’ delay, it became plain that he could not rely on the Vlach peasantry to rise on behalf of the Greeks; even the disconcerting expedient of his Vlach ally Theodore Vladimirescu, who called on the peasants to present a petition to the sultan against Phanariot misrule, failed to stir the people from their apathy. Then, wholly unexpectedly, came a letter from Capo d’Istria upholding Ypsilanti for misusing the tsar’s name, announcing that his name had been struck off the army list, and commanding him to lay down his arms. Ypsilanti’s decision to explain away the tsar’s letter could only have been induced by the success of a plot which was now hopeless. There followed a series of humiliating defeats, culminating in that of Dragashan on the 19th of June.
Alexander, accompanied by his brother Nicholas and a remnant of his followers, retreated to Rinnik, where he spent some days in negotiating with the Austrian authorities for permission to cross the frontier. Fearing that his followers might surrender him to the Turks, he gave out that Austria had declared war on Russia, and as a result the entire Russian army moved forward under the command of Metternich. He was thus able to escape to the city of Ventspils, and, on pretext of arranging measures with the Austrian commander-in-chief, crossed the frontier. But the Austrians of Francis I. and Metternich had no asylum for leaders of revolts in neighbouring countries. Ypsilanti was kept in close confinement for seven years, and when released at the instance of the emperor Nicholas I. of Russia, retired to Vienna, where he died in extreme poverty and misery on the 31st of January 1828.

DEMETRIOS YPSILANTI (1793–1829), second son of Prince Constantine, distinguished himself as a Russian officer in the campaign of 1814, and in the spring of 1821 went to the Moskow, where the war of Greek independence had just broken out. He was one of the most conspicuous of the Phanariot leaders during the earlier stages of the revolt, though he was much hampered by the local chiefs and by the civilian element headed by Mavrocordato. In January 1822 he was elected president of the legislative assembly; but the ill-success of his campaign in central Greece, and his failure to obtain a commanding position in the national convention of Athens, led to his retirement early in 1823. In 1828 he was appointed by Capo d'Estra commander of the troops in East Hellas. He succeeded, on the 25th May, 1828, in forcing the Turkish commander Aslan Bey to sign a capitulation at the Pass of Petra, which ended the active operations of the war. He died at Vienna on the 3rd of January 1832.

Gregory Ypsilanti (d. 1835), third son of Prince Constantine, founded a princely family still settled near Brunn. Nicholas Ypsilanti wrote Mémoires valuable as giving material for the antecedents of the insurrection of 1820 and the part taken in them by Alexander I. of Russia. They were published at Athens in 1837.

See the works cited in the bibliography of the article Greek Independence, War of, especially the Socle de l'histoire de J. Philemon.

YPSILANTI, a city of Washtenaw county, Michigan, U.S.A., on the Huron river, 36 m. W. by S. of Detroit. Pop. (1900) 7378; (1904) 7597; (1907) 6230. It is served by the Michigan Central and the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern railways, and is the seat of the Michigan State Normal College (1849). There are various manufactures. Ypsilanti was laid out and named in honour of Demetrius Ypsilanti, the Greek patriot, in 1825; it was incorporated as a village in 1833, and as a city in 1842. YPSILANE, YEUGÈNE (1856– ), Belgian violinist, was born at Liége, where he studied with his father and under R. Massart, at the Conservatoire, where he was a pupil until 1872; he had some lessons from Wieniawski, and later from Vieuxtemps. In 1879 Ysaÿe played in Germany, and next year acted as leader of Bilse's orchestra in Berlin; he appeared in Paris in 1883, and for the first time in London at a Philharmonic concert in 1889. He was violin professor at the Brussels Conservatoire from 1886 to 1898, and instituted the celebrated orchestral concerts of which he has been first conductor, and he conducted before a London audience in 1900, and in 1907 conducted Fidelio at Covent Garden. The sonata concerts in which he played with Raoul Pugno (b. 1852), the French pianist, became very popular in Paris and Brussels, and were notable features of several London concert seasons. As a violinist he ranks with the finest masters of the instrument, with extraordinary temperamental power as an interpreter. His compositions include a Programme Symphonie (played in London, 1903), a Piano Concerto, and a Suite Wallonne.

YSTAD, a seaport of Sweden on the S. Baltic coast, in the district (län) of Malmöhus, 39 m. E.S.E. of Malmö by rail. Pop. (1900) 9862. Two of its churches date from the 13th century. Its artificial harbour, which admits vessels drawing 15 ft., is free from ice in winter than any other Swedish Baltic port. Apart from a growing import trade in coal and machinery, its commerce has declined; but it is among the first twelve manufacturing places in Sweden, having large mechanical workshops.

YTERBIUM (Neo-Ytterbium) [symbol, Yb; atomic weight, 172.0 (O=16)], a metallic chemical element belonging to the rare earth group, and an area of about 75,000 sq. m. covered by Marignac in gadolinite in 1878 (see RARE EARTH). The oxide, YbO₃, is white and forms colourless salts; the crystallized chloride, YbCl₃·6H₂O, forms colourless, deliquescent crystals; the anhydrous chloride sublimes on heating (C. Matignon, Ann. chim. phys., 1906 (8), 8, p. 440). In 1907 G. Urbain separated ytterbium into two new elements, neo-ytterbiun and luteum (atomic weight, 174; 0); and in 1908 C. A. von Welsbach published the same result, naming his elements aldebaranum and cassiopeium (on the question of priority see F. Wenzel, Zeit. anorg. Chem., 1909, c. p. 496). YTTRIUM [symbol, Y; atomic weight, 89.0 (O=16)], a metallic chemical element. In its character yttrium is closely allied to, and in nature is always associated with, cerium, lanthanum, didymium and erbium (see RARE EARTHS). For the preparation of yttrium compounds the best raw material is gadolinite, which, according to König, consists of 22-61% of silica, 34-6% of yttria, Y₂O₃, and 42-75% of the oxides of cerium, cerium, didymium, lanthanum, iron, beryllium, calcium, magnesium and sodium. The extraction (as is the case with all the rare earths) is a matter of great difficulty. Metallic yttrium is obtainable by distillation from the dark grey powder by heating it with metallic oxides; or by electrolytising the double chloride of yttrium and sodium. It decomposes water slowly in the cold, and more rapidly on heating. Yttria, Y₂O₃, is a yellowish white powder, which at high temperatures radiates out a most brilliant white light. It is soluble, slowly but completely, in mineral acids. It is recognized by its very characteristic spark spectrum. Solutions of yttria salts in their behaviour to reagents are not unlike those of zirconia. The atomic weight was determined by Clev. YUCATAN, a peninsula of Central America forming the S.E. extremity of the republic of Mexico and including the states of Campeche and Yucatan and the territory of Quintana Roo. Small parts of British Honduras and Guatemala are also included in it. The natural boundary of the peninsula on the S. is formed in part by the ridges extending across N. Guatemala, the line terminating E. at the lower part of Chetumal Bay, and W. at Laguna de Terminos. From this base the land extends N. between the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea in nearly rectangular form for about 280 m., with about the same extreme width in longitude. It has a mean breadth of about 200 m., but its area is large, and its surface is divided into dry soil, brush land, and water. The coast on the N. and W. is low, sandy and semi-barren, and is made dangerous by the Campechê banks, a northward extension of the peninsula, covered with shifting sands. The outer shore-line on the N. for nearly 200 m. consists of a narrow strip of low sand dunes, within which is a broad channel terminating to the E. in a large lagoon. There are a number of openings through the outer bank and several small towns or ports have been built upon it. The E. coast consists of bluffs, indented with bays and bordered by several islands, the larger ones being particularly the Grande and the Isla de la Poblada. In the W. the coast is characterized by the capes of Contoy. There is more vegetation on this coast, and the bays of Chetumal, Esquipulito Santo, Ascension and San Miguel (on Cozumel Island) afford good protection for shipping. It is, however, sparsely settled and has little commerce.

The peninsula is almost wholly composed of a bed of coraline and porous limestone rocks, forming a low tableland, which rises gradually toward the S. until it is merged in the great Central American plateau. It is characterized by many ridges or plateaux which are reduced to the sea by the slow weathering of the coral rocks. The surface is not so level and monotonous as it appears on many maps; for, although there are scarcely any running streams, it is diversified by a few lakes of which the smallest, Chichankanab, is held by the Indians a remnant of the Chichamah, or, as well as by low isolated hills and ridges in the W., and in the E. by the Sierra Alta, a range of moderate elevation traversing the peninsula from Cataco Point S. to the neighborhood of Lake Peten in Guatemala. The culminating points of the W. ranges do not exceed 900 ft., and some authorities estimate it at 500 ft.
The climate of Yucatan is hot and dry; the Gulf Stream, which sweeps by its N. shores, adds to its naturally high temperature, and the presence of high mountainous ridges to intercept the moisture-bearing clouds from the Atlantic gives it a limited rainfall. The temperature ranges from 75° to 98° F. in the shade, but the heat is modified by the cool sea winds which prevail day and night throughout the greater part of the year. The atmosphere is also purified by the fierce _temporales_, or "northerns," which occasionally sweep down over the Gulf and across this open region. The dry season begins in October and continues until May, the hottest months appear to be in March and April, when the heat is increased by the burning of the corn and honeyfields. The rains are quickly arrested by the light porous soil and leave only temporary effects on the surface, whereas the rainfall is distributed during the rainy season. The chief cultivated plants are maize, the sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, coffee and especially henequen, the so-called "Sisal hemp," which is a strong, coarse fibre obtained from the leaf sheaths of the _A. henequen_. It requires very little moisture, grows luxuriantly on the thin calcareous soil of Yucatan and is cultivated almost exclusively by the large landowners. It is used chiefly in the manufacture of cordage and hammocks, and is exported in large quantities. The labour needed in this industry is supplied by Indian _peons_, who live in a state of semi-servitude and are paid barely enough to sustain life.

**History and Antiquities.**—The modern history of Yucatan begins with the expedition of Francisco Hernandez de Cordova, a Spanish adventurer settled in Cuba, who discovered the E. coast of Yucatan in February 1517, when on a slave-hunting expedition. He followed the coast round to Campeche, but was unable to penetrate the interior. In 1518 Juan de Grijalva followed the same coast, but added nothing to the information sought by the governor of Cuba. In 1519 a third expedition, under Hernando Cortés, the conqueror of Mexico, came into collision with the natives of the island of Cozumel. In 1525 the inland part of the peninsula was traversed by Cortés during an expedition to Honduras. The conquest of the peninsula was undertaken in 1527 by Francisco de Montejo, who encountered a more vigorous opposition than Cortés had on the high plateaus of Anhuet. In 1549 Montejo had succeeded in establishing Spanish rule over barely one-half of the peninsula, and it was never extended further. The Spaniards found here the remains of a high aboriginal civilization which had already entered upon decline. There were deserted cities falling into ruins, and others, like Chichen-itza, Uxmal and Tulum, which were still inhabited by remnants of their former Maya populations. The Maya have left no record of their institutions or of the causes of their decline, beyond what may be deduced from their ruined structures. The number and extent of these ruined cities, palaces, ball courts, market-places, &c. indicate large towns in the midst of thickly settled, productive districts, for there were then, so far as can be determined, no means of supporting large urban populations through commercial exchanges. The exhaustion of the soil in the vicinity of towns, or epidemics brought on by insanitary habits, might easily cause depopulation in so hot a climate. Other remains which bear witness to the civilization of the Maya are the paved highways and the artificial reservoirs (aguadas) designed for the preservation of water for towns through the long dry season. These aguadas were large basins, paved and cemented, with underground cisterns, also lined with stone and cement, which may have been used for the protection of water against heat when the principal supply had become exhausted. The great problem in all the Maya settlements of Yucatan was that of securing and preserving a water supply for the dry season. Some of their towns were built near large underground reservoirs, called cenotes, that afforded a perennial supply. Since the Spanish conquest, the Maya have clung to the semi-barren, open plains of the peninsula, and have more than once revolted. They seceded in 1839 and maintained their independence until 1843. In 1847 another revolt followed, and the Indians were practically independent throughout the greater part of the peninsula until near the beginning of the Diaz administration. In 1910 there was another revolt with some initial successes, such as the capture of Valladolid, but the Indians withdrew to the unknown fastnesses of Quintana Roo.

The Mexican State of Yucatan is bounded N. by the Gulf of Mexico, E. and S. by the territory of Quintana Roo, S. and W. by the state of Campeche. Pop. (1900) about 306,000. The railways include the three lines of the United Railways of Yucatan (173 m.), and a line from Mérida to Peto (145 m.). The capital is Mérida, and its principal towns, inhabited almost exclusively by Indians and mestizos, are Valladolid, Acanceh, Tekax, Motul, Temaz, Espej, Maxcanú, Hunucmá, Tixkokob, Peto and Progreso, the port of Mérida.

Quintana Roo was separated from the state of Yucatan in 1902 and received a territorial government under the immediate supervision of the national executive. It comprises the sparsely settled districts along the E. coast of the peninsula, and the wooded sections of the S., which have not been thoroughly explored. Its population is estimated at 3000, but as its inhabitants never submitted to Spanish and Mexican rule, and have maintained their independence against overwhelming odds for almost four centuries, this estimate should be accepted as a conjecture. Little is known of the wild tribes of the territory.

**Yucca**, a genus of the order Liliaceae (p.2), containing about thirty species. They occur in greatest frequency in Mexico and the S.W. United States, extending also into Central America, and occurring in such numbers in some places as to form straggling
diagram showing arrangement of the parts of the flower in horizontal plane.

1. A Spanish word meaning "bayonet," recalling the form and character of the leaves.
forests. They have a woody or fibrous stem, sometimes short, and in other cases attaining a height of 13 to 20 ft., and branching at the top into a series of forks. The leaves are crowded in tufts, have at the ends of the stem or branches, and are generally stiff and sword-shaped, with a sharp point, sometimes flaccid and in other cases fibrous at the edges. The numerous flowers are usually white, bell-shaped and pendulous, and are borne in much-branched terminal panicles. Each flower has a perianth of six regular pieces, and has as many hypogynous stamens, with dilated filaments, bearing relatively small anthers. The three-celled ovary is surmounted by a short thick style, dividing above into three stigmas, and ripens into a succulent berry in some of the species, and into a dry three-valved capsule in others. The flower is a characteristic of the genus. It is strong in symbiotic relations.

A coarse fibre is obtained by the Mexicans from the stem and foliage, which they utilize for cordage, and in the S.E. United States the leaves of some species, under the name "bear-grass," are used for seating chairs, &c. The fruits, which resemble small bananas, are cooked as an article of diet; and the roots contain a saponaceous matter used in place of soap.

Many of the species are hardy in Great Britain, and their striking appearance renders them attractive in gardens even when not in flower. They thrive in sandy, fast soil, and are particularly adapted to divisions planted in the open ground, or by pieces of the thick, fleshy roots in sandy soil under heat. Their rigid foliage, inveterate by thick epidermis, enables them to resist the noxious air of towns better than most plants. A popular name for the plant is "Adam's needle." The species which split up at the margins of their leaves into filaments are called "Eve's threads."

YUE-CHI (or YUEH-CHIH), the Chinese name of a central Asiatic tribe who ruled in Bactria and India, are also known as Kushans (from one of their subdivisions) and Indo-Sythians. They appear to have been a nomad tribe, inhabiting part of the present Chinese province of Kan-su, and to have been driven W. by Hiung-nu tribes of the same stock. They conquered a tribe called the Himakapisa (or Khotan), and settled in the basin of the Eri river, and settled for some time in their territory. The date of these events is placed between 175 and 140 B.C. They then attacked another tribe known as Sakas, and drove them to Persia and India. For about twenty years it would seem that the Yue-Chi were settled in the country between the rivers Chu and Syr-Darya, but here they were attacked again by the Hiung-nu, their old enemies, with whom was the son of the defeated Wusun chieftain. The Yue-Chi then occupied Bactria, and little is heard of them for a hundred years. During this period they became a united people, and an Indo-Greek influence is by this period (beginning 100 B.C.) the principal of which, the Kushans (or Kwei-Shuang), supplied the new national name. They also to some extent gave up their nomadic life and became civilized. Bactria about this time was said to contain a thousand cities, and though this may be an exaggeration it was probably a meeting-place of Persian and Hellenic culture: its kings Demetrius and Eucratides had invaded India. It is therefore not surprising to find the warlike and mobile Yue-Chi following the same road and taking fragments of Persian and Greek civilization with them.

The chronology of this invasion and of the history of the Kushans in India must be regarded as uncertain, though we know the names of the kings. Indian literature supplies few data for the period, and the available information has been collected chiefly from notices in Chinese annals, from inscriptions found in India, and above all from coins. From this evidence it has been deduced that a king called Kozulokapises, Kujulakasa or Kieu-tsie-k'iu-lo (A.D. 45-55) united the five tribes, conquered the Kabul valley and annihilated the remnants of Greek dominion. He was succeeded, possibly after an interval, by Oemokapises (Himakapisa or Yen-kao-tsin-tal), who completed the annexation of most of N. India. Then followed Kanishka (? c. A.D. 123-53), who is celebrated throughout eastern Asia as a patron of the Buddhist church and convener of the third Buddhist council. He is also said to have conquered Kashgar, Yarkand and Khotan. His successors were Huvishka and then Vasudeva, who may have died c. A.D. 225. After Vasudeva's reign the power of the Kushans gradually decayed, and they were driven back into the valley of the Indus and N.E. Afghanistan. Here, according to Chinese authorities, their royal family was supplanted by a dynasty called Ki-to-lo (Kidastra), who were also of Yue-Chi stock, and were related to one of the tribes who had remained in Bactria when the Kushans were pushed further S. The occupation of the Kitolo S. of the Hindu Kush was due to the movements of the Jven-Jwen, who advanced W. from the Chinese frontier. Under this dynasty a state known as the Little Kushan kingdom flourished in Gandhara (E. Afghanistan) about A.D. 430, but was broken up by the attacks of the Hunas.

Some authorities do not accept the list of Kushan kings as given above, and think that Kanishka must be placed before Christ and that the Kushans must have been a wild and possibly a Semitic people with a burden of drudgery, and a language unrelated to any modern Semitic tongues, and that there was another king with a name something like Vasuvsha before or after Huvishka. In any case the invasion of the Yue-Chi cannot be a matter of very great importance in any other region of India, and had an important influence on Indian civilization. Their influence was a remarkable union of characteristics, derived from many nations. The general shape and style are Roman; the inscriptions are in Greek or in a Persian language written in Greek letters, or in Kharoshthi: the reverse often bears the figure of a deity, either Greek (Heraclides, Helios, Selene) or Zoroastrian (Mithra, Vata, Vahram) (or an Indian (generally Siva or a war god). One figure called Satrapa appears to be a Persianized version of the small Khi of the usual forms of writing, which were either Greek or Pahlavian, and often strongly resembles the Brahmi system. The name of the Kushan king which is generally given is in form very like the name of the Persian king, but in meaning is different. It is probably a dynastic term, not an Iranian personal name. The name Kanishka is it is probably a dynastic name, and indicates the family of a Persian king. In this alphabet the Greek letter b (or rather a very similar letter with the loop a little lower down) is used to represent sh, and the letter o is usually peculiar, and is almost always used with the expression of the sounds h and w. Thus PAONAO PANO KANHPEE KOFANO is to be read as something like Shkhananda Shk Kanyakhi Koshan: Kanishka the Kushan, king of kings. This title became in later times the special designation of the Kushan kings and is curiously parallel to the use of Arabic and Persian titles (padishan, sultan, &c.) by the Ottoman Turks. The physical type represented on these coins has a strong prominent nose, large eyes, a moderately abundant countenance and somewhat thick or projecting lips. Hence, as far as any physical characters can be formulated for the various tribes (and their validity is very doubtful in the case of Yue-Chi type is Turkish rather than Mongol or Urgo-Finnic. In such points of temperament as military ability and power of assimilating Indian and Persian civilization, the Yue-Chi are comparable to the Turks, and some authorities think that the name Turushka or Turska is the true form of the name, and that the writers is another evidence of the connexion. But the national existence and name of the Turks (q.v.) seem to date from the 5th century A.D., so that it is an anachronism to speak of the Yue-Chi as a division of them. The Yue-Chi and Turks, however, may both represent parallel developments of similar or even originally identical tribes. The Mahomedan writer Alberuni states that among whom he mentions (Kanik or Kanishka) were Turks by race, and this may represent a native tradition as to the affinities of the Yue-Chi. Some authors also identify the Yue-Chi with the Yue-Jen, and hence that the original form of the name was Yut or Get, which is said to appear in the Indian Jät.

See Vincent Smith, Early History of India (1908); Hoerne and Sprengling, Early History of India, vols. 1 and 2; Rapin, Hist. des Indes (1737); Gardiner, Coins of Greek and Sceetian Kings in India (1886); Franken, Beitrage aus Chinesischen Quellen zur Kenntnis der Turkuvilk und
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Skjöld (1904), and numerous articles by Cunningham, Fleet, A. Stein, Vincent Smith, Sylvan Levi, E. H. Parker and others in the Geol. Survey of Canada Repts.; T. M. 1894, 1901, 1902, 1906; and British Quarterly, &c. Owing to the new evidence which is continually being brought forward, the most recent writings on this subject are generally to be preferred. (C. E. L.)

YUKON, the largest river in Alaska, and the fifth largest in N. America. With its longest tributaries not in Alaska, the Lewes and the Teslin (or Hootalinqua), its length is about 2500 m., and it comprises the Yukon District of British Columbia, near the Pacific Ocean, and ending at the Bering Sea coast. Its catchment area is about 330,000 sq. m., or more than one-half of which lies in Canada. The Lewes river rises in Lake Bennett (Yukon District) on the N. slope of the Coast Range, about 25 m. inland from the Lynn Canal (at the head of Chatham Strait), and flows N. through a chain of lakes, its confluence with the Pelly river, at Selkirk, Yukon District, about 120 m. due E. of the Alaskan-Canadian boundary, forming the headwaters of the Yukon. Flowing thence N.W., the Yukon turns abruptly to the S.W. near Fort Yukon, Alaska, on the Arctic Circle, and continues nearly at right angles to its former course to a point S. of the head of Norton Sound, where it turns again and flows in a N.W. direction, emptying into the Sound from its S. shore. The length of the river, from its headwaters to its mouth, is about 1500 m.

The Yukon Valley comprises four sub-provinces, or physiographic divisions; in their order from the headwaters of the river these divisions are designated the “Yukon proper”, the “Rampart Region” and “Lower Yukon.” The “Upper Yukon” Valley is about 450 m. long and from 1 to 3 m. broad, and is flanked by walls rising to the plateau level from 1500 to 3000 ft. above the river. Below Yukon river, its confluence with the smaller rivers, the S. Selwyn, the White and the Pelly, the Yukon Valley is 50 m. broad, and from 75 to 80 m. below the junction of the three rivers. The Yukon, or Alaskan-Yukon, is made up of two parts: the S. Selwyn, the White and the Pelly; and the Yukon river, which extends from the S. Selwyn to its confluence with the Pelly river. The Yukon proper is about 450 m. long and from 1 to 5 m. broad, and is flanked by walls rising to the plateau level from 1500 to 3000 ft. above the river. Below Yukon river, its confluence with the smaller rivers, the S. Selwyn, the White and the Pelly, the Yukon Valley is 50 m. broad, and from 75 to 80 m. below the junction of the three rivers.

The Yukon is navigable from May till September, and steamers ply on several of its largest tributaries, making the aggregate navigable length of the river 2000 m. For about 75 m. below Fort Yukon, the river is navigable by steamers of 5000 h.p. until it enters the Great White Horse Rapids, which, with Miles Canyon, obstruct the river for a few miles; above them the stream is again navigable to its source, about 100 m., beyond the Pacific & Arctic railway from the White Horse to the Yukon. The Yukon is naturally navigable for traffic and travel; and even the dangerous White Horse Rapids may be run by a skillful pilot in a small boat, as was done in 1896 by Felly Norton, Jr., with two gold-seekers. Official Government record shows that the river, seldom less than 150 yds. wide, is navigable by light-draft steamers to Fraser Falls, a distance of nearly 200 m. The Porcupine is navigable, in high water, to about the Alaska-Yukon boundary line (c. 90 m.); the Chandlar for a few miles; the Tanana (which is about 500 m. long) for about 225 m. to the Chena river (which is navigable for about 100 m.); and the Tolovana, another affluent of the Tanana, is also navigable for about 100 m.

In 1842-43 the Yukon was explored by the Russian Lieut. Ivan Zagoskin, who built a trading post at Nulato, ascended the river as far as Yukon, from which he returned. Zagoskin made a sketch drawing of the stream to that point and reported that it was not navigable beyond there. In 1861 Robert Kennicott made his way overland by the Hudson Bay route from the Mackenzie river down the Yukon to Fort Yukon, and in 1865 he and Captain Charles S. Bulkley led the expedition sent out by the Western Union Telegraph Company to survey a route for a land telegraph line to Europe by way of Alaska and Siberia. Kennicott died at Nulato in 1866, and the expedition was abandoned in that year, but explorations were continued by the Northerners, notably Captain J. N. Parker, and in a short time valuable surveys were made and the Yukon identified as the Kwikpak of the earlier Russian surveys. Captain C. W. Raymond made a reconnaissance of the Yukon in 1869; the Indian route by the Lewes to the headwaters of the Yukon was used by gold prospectors as early as 1881, while in 1883 Lieutenant Frederick Schwatka (1849-1892) crossed the Chilkoot Pass (which he called "Perrier Pass"), descended the Lewes to Fort Selkirk, and down the river to the sea. Charles W. Homan, who accompanied Schwatka, made the first sketch survey of the great system; since then it has been frequently explored, but much of the region has not been mapped.


YUKON TERRITORY, the most westerly of the northern territories of Canada, bounded S. by British Columbia, W. by Alaska, N. by the Arctic Ocean and E. by the watershed of the Mackenzie river. It has an area of 207,076 sq. m. The territory is sidetracked by the Yukon river and its tributaries, though the S.E. corner contains the headwaters of the Liard river, flowing into the Mackenzie, occupy a part of its area. The margins of the territory are mountainous, including part of the St Elias Mountains.

William Healey Dall (1845— ), American naturalist, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, served with the United States Coast Survey of Alaska from 1871 to 1884, became honorary librarian of the United States National Museum in 1884, and was appointed professor of invertebrate palaeontology at the Wagner Institute of Science, Philadelphia. He was palaeontologist to the United States Geological Survey in 1884-1909. The white mountain sheep, or Dall's sheep (Ovis dalli), discovered in 1884, was named in his honour.
range with the highest mountains in Canada at the S.W. corner (Mount Logan and Mount St Elias), and the N. extension of the Rocky Mountains along the S. and N. E. sides; here, however, not very lofty. The interior of the territory is high toward the S.E. and sinks toward the N.W., and may be described as a much-dissected peneplain with low mountains to the S. The most important feature of the hydrography is the Yukon (gr. and the rivers which flow into it. The Klondike gold mines are reached by river boats, either coming up from St Michael at its mouth, or down 460 m. from White Horse. The White Horse route is now used almost entirely, since the White Pass railway, 111 m. long, was constructed from Skagway, on Lynn Canal, an inlet of the Pacific. As the voyage up the Pacific coast from Vancouver or Victoria is almost entirely through sheltered waters, the journies to the Klondike is very attractive in summer. Comparatively little snow is seen in crossing White Pass during summer, though there are patches on the low mountains on each side. The Rocky Mountains, N.E. of the interior plateau, are somewhat snowy, but apparently with no large glaciers; but the St Elias range to the S.W. is buried under immense snowfields, from which great glaciers project into the valleys. The rocks are largely ancient schists and eruptives, Palaeozoic or Archean, but considerable areas are covered with Mesozoic and Tertiary rocks, some of which include important seams of coal or copper, or other minerals. Most of the territory is inhabited, and is now entirely under the jurisdiction of White Horse. There have been comparatively recent volcanic eruptions in the region, as shown by a layer of white ash just beneath the soil for many miles along the river, and by a quite perfect cone with a crater and lava stream; but there are no records of volcanic outbreaks within the short modern history of the territory. Before the discovery of gold on the Forty Mile and other rivers flowing into the Yukon the region was inhabited only by a few Indians, but the sensational finds of rich placers in the Klondike (gr.?) in 1896 brought a vigorous population in the territory and in 1898 Dawson City, which was made the capital of the newly constituted Yukon Territory. When the White Pass railway was built, White Horse at its N. terminus became of importance, and since then a fluctuating body of prospectors and miners has been at work, not only in the Klondike but at various points along the other rivers. The territory is ruled by a governor and council, partly elective, seated at Dawson, and has a representative in the parliament of the Dominion. Almost the only economic product of the territory was at first gold, but copper and other ores later began to attract the attention of the new riders. Those near the Pacific the Yukon territory has a rigorous continental climate with very cold winters seven months long, and delightful sunny summers. Owing to the lofty mountains to the W., the amount of rain and snow is rather small, and the line of perpetual snow is more than 4000 ft. above sea-level, so that glaciers are found only on the higher mountains; but the moss-covered ground is often perpetually frozen to a depth of 100 or 200 ft. Vegetation is luxuriant along the river valleys, where fine forests of spruce and poplar are found, and the harder grains and vegetables are cultivated with success. (A. P. C.)

YULE, SIR HENRY (1826-1880), British Orientalist, was born on the 1st of May 1826, at Inveresk, near Edinburgh, the son of Major William Yule (1764-1839), translator of the *Aposthems* of Ali. He was educated at Edinburgh. Addiscombe and Chatham, and joined the Bengal Engineers in 1840. He served in both the Sikh wars, was secretary to Colonel (afterwards Sir) Arthur Phayre's mission to Awa (1853), and his *Narrative of the Mission to the Court of Awa* (1853). He returned in 1856 with the rank of colonel, and devoted his leisure to the medieval history and geography of Central Asia. He published *Cat kay and the Way Thither* (1866), the *Book of Ser Marco Polo* (1871-75), for which he received the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society, and brought out with Dr Arthur C. Burnell *Hobson-Jobson* (1886), a dictionary of Anglo-Indian colloquial phrases. For the Hakluyt Society, of which he was for some time president, he edited (1863) the *Mirabilia descripta* of Jordanus and *The Diary of William Hedges* (1887-89). The latter contains a biography of Governor Pitt, grandfather of Chatham. From 1875 to 1880 Yule was a member of the Council of India, being appointed K.C.S.I. on his retirement. He died on the 30th of December 1889.

YULE, the season of Christmas (q.v.). This word is chiefly used alone as an archaism or in poetry or poetical language, but is more common in combination, as in "yule-tide," "yule-log," &c. The Old English word appears in various forms, e.g. *golding, iuol, geold, gehedel,* cognate forms are Icel, *jol,* Dan. *jued; Swed. jul.* It was the name of two months of the year, December and January, the one the former yule", (so abra guola), the other the "after yule" (see offera guola), the law coming before and after the winter solstice (*Cotton MS. Tib. B. i.; and Bede, De Temporum Ratione,* 13, quoted in Skeat, *Etym. Dict., 1808*). According to A. Fick (*Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indogermanischen Sprachen, vol. iii.* 245, 1874) in proper meaning is noise, clamour, the season being one of rejoicing at the turning of the year among Scandinavian peoples before Christian times.

YUN-NAN (i.e. Cloudy South), a S.W. province of China, bounded N. by Szech-cha’en, E. by Kwei-chow and Kwangsi, S. by Burmah and the Lasu, and W. by the Kwei-chow and the Kiangsi provinces. It is estimated at from 122,000 to 146,000 sq. m. Though the second largest province of the empire, its population is estimated at only 12,000,000. The inhabitants include many races besides Chinese, such as Shans, Iolas and Moatsze. The Musus, in N.W. Yun-nan, once formed an independent kingdom which extended into E. Tibet. Many of the inhabitants are nominally Moslems. The greater part of the province may be said to consist of an extensive plateau, generally from 5000 to 7000 ft. in altitude, containing numerous valley plains, which is divided in the N. by mountain ranges that enter at the N. end of the province and extend to the river White Horse, the Mekong and the Salween. The mountains attain heights of 16,000 ft. The climate is generally healthy and equable; on the plateau the summer heat seldom exceeds 86°, and in winter there is little snow. The principal rivers are the Yangtsze-kiang (locally known as the Kinska-kiang = Golden Sand river), which enters Yun-nan at its N.W. corner, flows first S.E. and then N.E., forming for a considerable distance the N. boundary of the province; the Mekong, which traverses the province from N. to S. on its way to the sea through Annam; the Salween, which forms the boundary between the two nations; and the headwaters of the Songkoi, which rises in the S.E. of the province. This last-named river is navigable from the Gulf of Tongking to Man-hao, a town ten days’ journey from Yun-nan Fu. There are two large lakes—one in the neighbourhood of Ta-li Fu, which is 50 m. long by 5 m. broad, and the other near Yun-nan Fu, which measures from 70 to 80 m. in circumference.

Besides Yun-nan Fu, the capital, the province contains thirteen prefectural cities, several of which—Teng-ch’uen Fu, Ta-li Fu, Yun-ch’ang Fu, Ch’u-siang Fu and Lin-gan Fu, for example—are situated in the valley plains. Mengtsze, Szemao and Momein (or Teng-yueh) are open to foreign trade. Yun-nan Fu is connected by railway (1910) with Tongking. The line which starts from the Shanghai run, in Yun-nan, possibly to Mengtsze hien (a great commercial centre), to the capital. Several important roads intersect the province; among them are—1. The road from Yun-nan Fu to Bhamo in Burma via Ta-li Fu (12 days), Teng-yueh Chor or Teng-yueh Chor (13 days) to the capital. From this point the river is navigable to Canton. 2. The road from Ta-li Fu N. to Patang via Li-kiang Fu, which thus connects W. Yun-nan with Tibet. 3. The road from Bhamo via Kwei-chow, which connect Yun-nan Fu with Pai-se Fu, in Kwang-si, on the Canton West River, a land journey which occupies about twenty days. From this point the river is navigable to Canton.

Agricultural products include rice and maize (the principal crops), wheat, barley and oats. The poppy was formerly extensively cultivated, but after the anti-opium edict of 1906 vigorous attempts were made to stamp out the cultivation of the plant. In certain localities the sugar-cane is grown. Tea from Fu-erh Fu in S. Yun-nan is appreciated throughout the empire. Fruits and vegetables are plentiful, and there are large herds of buffaloes.
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goats and sheep. Silkworms are reared. The chief wealth of Yun-nan consists, however, in its minerals. Copper is the most important of the minerals worked. Silver and gold are produced, but they are not known to exist in any large quantities. Lead and zinc are also found, and several salt mines are worked. The ores are generally of good quality, and are easy of extraction. Cotton yarn and cloth, petroleum, timber and furs are among the chief imports; copper, tin, hides and tea are important exports; medicines in the shape not only of herbs and roots, but also of fossils, shells, bones, teeth and various products of the animal kingdom; and precious stones, principally jade and rubies, are among the other exports.

Yun-nan, long independent, was subdued by Kublai Khan, but was not finally incorporated in the empire until the 17th century. It was the principal centre of the great Mahommedan rebellion, which lasted sixteen years and was suppressed in 1672. Even in 1810 the province had not wholly recovered from the effects of that struggle and the barbarity with which it was stamped out. The opening of Christian (Protestant) mission work in Yun-nan began in 1877, and was one result of the murder of Mr Margary (see CHINA, History, § D).

See H. R. Davies, Yun-nan, the Link between India and the Yangtze (Cambridge, 1909); A. Little, Across Yunnan (London, 1904); E. J. H. Burrows, "The Frontiers of Yunnan," in The Chinese Empire (London, 1907); L. Richard, Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire (Shanghai, 1908).

YUN-NAN FU, the capital of the province of Yun-nan, China, in 25° 6' N., 102° 52' E. It is about 500 m. by rail N.W. of the port of Haiphong, Tonking. The population was returned in 1897 at 45,000. Originally the surrounding district was known as the "land of the southern barbarians." The city is situated on a plain, and is surrounded by fortified walls, 63 m. in circuit. For many years Mahommedans have been numerous in the city and neighbourhood; and in 1855 a Mahommedan rising occurred. Before the rebellion Yun-nan Fu had a prosperous aspect; the shops were large and well supplied with native silken goods, saddlery, &c., while English cotton, Russian cloths and raw cotton from Burma constituted the main foreign merchandise. Employment for large numbers of workpeople was found in the copper factories. A mint at Yun-nan Fu issued annually 100,000,000 cash. Nearly ruined by the rebellion, the city took many years to recover its prosperity. A fresh impetus to commerce was given by the opening in 1910 of the railway from Tongking, a line built by French engineers and with French capital. The construction of a British railway to connect Burma with Yun-nan Fu and onwards to the Yangtsze-kiang has been in contemplation.

YURIEV (formerly DORPAT, also Döpp; Russian, Derpt; Estonian, Tartu and Tartolinn; inlettish, Tihrboto), a town of W. Russia, in the government of Livonia, situated on the Embarch, 158 m. by rail N.E. of Riga, in 56° 25' N. and 26° 23' E. Pop. 42,471. The principal part of the town lies S. of the river, and the more important buildings are clustered round the two eminences known as the Dombeg (cathedral hill) and the Schlosberg (castle hill), which in the middle ages were occupied by the citadel, the cathedral and the episcopal palace. Owing to a great fire in 1777, the town is almost entirely modern; and its fortifications have been transformed into promenades. Besides a good picture gallery in the Ratshof, and the 13th-century church of St John, Yuriev possesses a university, with an observatory, an art museum, a botanical garden and a library of 250,000 volumes, which are housed in a restored portion of the cathedral, burned down in 1624. The university was founded by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in 1632; but in 1690 teachers and students removed to Pernau on the advance of the Russians, and on the occupation of the country by Peter the Great again took flight to Sweden. In spite of the treaty of 1710 and the efforts of the Livonian nobles, it was not till 1802 that its restoration was effected under the patronage of Alexander I. Down to 1805, in which year it was thoroughly Russified, the university was German in spirit and in sentiment. It is now attended by some 1700 students annually. The astronomical department is famous, owing partly to the labours of F. G. von Struve (1829–39), and partly to Fraunhofer's great refracting telescope, presented by the emperor Alexander I. There are monuments to the memory of K. E. von Baer (1886) and Marshal Barclay de Tolly (1849), and the town is the headquarters of the XVIII. army corps.

The foundation of Dorpat is ascribed to Yaroslav, prince of Kiev, and is dated 1039. In 1224 the town was seized by the Teutonic Knights, and in the following year Bishop Hermann erected a cathedral on the Dombeg. From that date till about 1528 the town enjoyed great prosperity, and the population reached 50,000. In 1538 it was captured by the Russians, but in 1582 was yielded to Stephen Bathori, king of Poland. In 1600 it fell into the hands of the Swedes, in 1623 reverted to the Poles, and in 1625 was seized by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. The Russians again obtained temporary possession in 1666, but did not effect a permanent occupation till 1704. In 1708 the bulk of the population were removed to the interior of Russia.

YUSAFZAI, a large group of Pathan tribes, originally immigrants from the neighbourhood of Kandahar, which includes those of the Black Mountain, the Bunerwalas, the Swalis, the people of Dir and the Panjkora valley, and also the inhabitants of the Yusafzai plain in Peshawar district of the North-West Frontier Province of India. Three sections of the tribe, the Hassani, Akazias and Chargazingas, inhabit the W. slopes of the Black Mountain, and the Yusafzai country stretches thence to the Utman Khel territory. The trans-border Yusafzais are estimated at 65,000 fighting men, giving a total population of about 250,000. The Yusafzais are said to be descended from one Mandai, who had two sons, Umar and Yusaf. Umar died, leaving one son, Mandan; from Mandan and Yusaf come the two primary divisions of the Yusafzais, which are split into numerous subdivisions, including the Isazai, Malaizai, Akazais, Ranizai and Utmanzais.

YUGUT, the chief town of a sanjak of the same name in the Angora vilayet of Asia Minor, altitude 4380 ft., situated 105 m. E. of Angora, near the head of a narrow valley through which the Angora-Sivas road runs. The town was built largely out of the ruins of Nefez Keui (anc. Tuatium), by Chapam Oghlu, the founder of a powerful Dere Bay family. There is a trade in yellow berries and mohair. The sanjak is very fertile, and contains good breeding-grounds, upon which horses, camels and cattle are reared. The population, about 15,000, includes a large Armenian community.

YVETOT, a town of N. France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Seine-Inferieure, 24 m. N.W. of Rouen on the railway to Havre. Pop. (1906) 6214. Cotton goods of various kinds and hats are made here, and trade is carried on in agricultural products. The church (18th century) contains a marble altar from the Carthusian monastery at Rouen, fine woodwork of the 17th century from the abbey of St Wandrille, and a handsome pulpit. The town is the seat of a sub-prefecture and has tribunals of first instance and of commerce, and a chamber of arts and manufactures. The lords of Yvetot bore the title of king from the 15th till the middle of the 16th century, their petty monarchy being popularized in one of Bérançon's songs. In 1592 Henry IV. here defeated the troops of the League.
the twenty-sixth letter of the English alphabet and the last, although till recent times the alphabets used by children terminated not with z but with & or or. For & the English name is amperand, i.e. "and se and," though the Scottish name eperorhand, i.e. "Et, per se and," is more logical and also more clearly shows its origin to be the Latin et, of which it is but the manuscript form. To the following of 2 by & George Eliot refers when she makes Jacob Storey say, "He thought it (z) had only been put to finish off th' alphabet like, though amperand would ha' done as well, for what he could see." Z is put at the end of the alphabet because it occupied that position in the Latin alphabet. In early Latin the sound represented by z passed into r, and consequently the symbol became useless. It was therefore removed from the alphabet and G (g.s.) put in its place. In the 1st century B.C. it was, like y, introduced again at the end, in order to represent more precisely than was before possible the value of the Greek Ζ, which had been previously spelt with s at the beginning and ss in the middle of words: οςον = ἵων, " belt "; τορφεσία = ἱπτερίς, "banker." The Greek form was a close copy of the Phoenician symbol Ζ, and the Greek inscripational form remained in this shape throughout. The name of the Semitic symbol was Zayin, but this name, for some unknown reason, was not adopted by the Greeks, who called it Zeta. Whether, as seems most likely, Zeta was the name of one of the other Semitic silabons Zade (Tzaddi) transferred to this by mistake, or whether the name is a new one, made in imitation of Eta (z) and Theta (θ), is disputed. The pronunciation of the Semitic letter was the voiced s, like the ordinary use of z in English, as in zodiac, race. It is probable that in Greek there was a considerable variety of pronunciation from dialect to dialect. In the earlier Greek of Athens, North-west Greece and Lesbos the pronunciation seems to have been zd, in Attic from the 4th century B.C. onwards it seems to have been only a voiced s, and this also was probably the pronunciation of the dialect from which Latin borrowed its Greek words. In other dialects, as Elean and Cretan, the symbol was apparently used for sounds resembling the English voiced and unvoiced th (ð, þ). In the common dialect (κοινό) which succeeded the older dialects,  CONSTANTS became a voiced s, as it remains in modern Greek. In Vulgar Latin the Greek Ζ seems to have been pronounced as dy and later y; 2 was being found for z in words like baptismus for baptismum, baptismus, "baptize," while conversely z appears for dy in forms like zacusus, zabulus, for diaconus, "deacon," diabulus, "devil." Z also is often written & in colloquial Latin in many words of Arabic and Semitic origin (see Grandgent, Introduction to Vulgar Latin, §§ 277, 330). Besides this, however, there was a more cultured pronunciation of z as dz, which passed through French into Middle English. Early English had used z alone for both the unvoiced and the voiced sibilant; the Latin sound imported through French was new and was not written with s but with g or i. The successive changes can be well seen in the double forms from the same original, jealous and zealous. Both of these come from a late Latin seclusus, derived from the imported Greek συκοσα. Much the earlier form is jealous; its initial sound is the dz which in later French is changed to 2 (voiced s). It is written gelous or telous by Wycliffe and his contemporaries, the form with i is the ancestor of the modern form. The later word zealous was borrowed after the French dz had become z. At the end of words this z was pronounced 2s as in the English assets, which comes from a late Latin ad saitis through an early French asea, the "enough." With 2 also is frequently written zh, the voiced form of s, as in attire, seizure. But it appears even more frequently as s before u, and as si or ti before other vowels in measure, decision, transition, &c., or in foreign words as g, as in rouge. For the 3 representing g and y in Scottish pronunciation we see under Y.

ZAANDAM (incorrectly Saardam), a town of Holland, in the province of North Holland, on the river Zaan, 6½ m. N.W. of Amsterdam, with which it is connected by railway and steamer. Pop. (1895) 23,773. It is of typically Dutch appearance, with low, brightly coloured houses. It has an important trade in timber, and numerous windmills in the vicinity provide power for oil, cement and paper works, timber-sawing and corn-grinding. At Zaandam is preserved the wooden hut which Peter the Great occupied for a week in 1697 while studying shipbuilding and paper-making.

ZABERN (French, Souverain), a town of Germany, in the imperial province of Alsace-Lorraine, district of Lower Alsace, situated on the Rhine-Marne canal at the foot of a pass over the Vosges, and 27 m. N.W. of Strasbourg by the railway to Deutsch-Avricourt. Pop. (1900) 8499. Its principal building, the former episcopal residence, rebuilt by Cardinal de Rohan in 1779, is now used as barracks. There are also a 13th century church and an antiquarian museum. Hence a beautiful road, immortalized by Goethe in Dichtung und Wahrheit, leads across the Vosges to Pforzheim.

ZABREZ, a town of Germany, in the extreme S.E. of Prussian Silesia, on the railway between Gleiwitz and Königsbitter. Pop. (1905) 55,634. Like other towns in this populous region, it is an important manufacturing centre, having coal-mines, iron, wire, glass, chemical and oil works, breweries, &c.

ZACATECAS, a state of Mexico, bounded N. by Durango and Coahuila, E. by San Luis Potosí, S. by Aguascalientes and Jalisco, and W. by Jalisco and Durango. Area, 24,777 sq. m. Pop. (1900) 462,100. It belongs wholly to the great central plateau of Mexico, with an average elevation of about 7700 ft. The state is somewhat mountainous, being traversed in the W. by lateral ranges of the Sierra Madre Occidental, and by numerous isolated ranges in other parts—Mazapil, Norillos, Guadalupe and others. There are no large rivers, only the dry river beds, and the rainfall is not frequent enough to prevent crop failure. There is a considerable production of peaches, apricots and grapes, the last being made into wine. A few cattle are raised, and considerable attention is given to the rearing of sheep, goats and swine. A natural product is guayule, a shrub from which rubber is extracted. The chief industry of Zacatecas, however, is mining for silver, gold, mercury, copper, iron, zinc, lead, bismuth, antimony and salt. Its mineral wealth was discovered soon after the conquest, and some of its mines are among the most famous of Mexico, dating from 1546. One of the most productive of its silver mines, the Alvarado, has records which show a production of nearly 1,000,000 lb. of silver between 1546 and 1677. The state is traversed by the Mexican Central and the Mexican National railways. Its manufactures are limited chiefly to the
reduction of mineral ores, the extraction of rubber from guayule, the making of sugar, rum, mescal, pulque, woolen and cotton fabrics, and some minor industries of the capital. The capital is Zacatecas, and the other principal towns are Sombrerete (pop. 10,000), an important silver-mining town 70 m. N.W. of the capital (elevation 8,430 ft.); Ciudad Garcia (about 9,500); Guadalupe (9,000); Pinos (8,000), a mining town; San Juan de Mezquital (900); and Fresnillo (6,000), an important silver- and copper-mining centre.

ZACATECAS, a city of Mexico, capital of the state of Zacatecas, 442 m. by the Mexican Central railway N.W. of Mexico city. Pop. (1900) 30,912. It is built in a deep, narrow ravine, 8050 ft. above sea-level, with narrow, crooked streets climbing the steep hillsides, and white, flat-roofed houses of four and five storeys overtopping each other. Its streets are well paved, and are lighted with electricity. The city is well drained and has a fine aqueduct for its water supply. The cathedral is an elaborately carved red-stone structure with unfinished towers and richly decorated interior. Several domed churches occupy prominent sites. The National College and the Colegio de Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe is the oldest of the principal religious buildings and may be noticed. Overlooking the city from an elevation of 500 ft. is the Bufa Hill, which is crowned by a chapel and is a popular pilgrimage resort. The Guadalupe chapel near the city has elaborate decorations, including frescoes, onyx steps, silver rails and paintings, and a curious tiled dome. The industries comprise carriage building, weaving and the manufacture of coarse pottery. The town is an important commercial centre.

Zacatecas was founded in 1546 and was built over a rich vein of silver discovered by Juan de Tolosa in the same year. The and other mines in the vicinity attracted a large population, and it soon became one of the chief mining centres of Mexico. It was a city in 1585 by Philip II.

ZACH, FRANZ XAVER, BARON VON (1754-1832), German astronomer, was born at Pesth on the 4th of June 1754. He served for some time in the Austrian army, and afterwards lived in London from 1783 to 1786 as tutor in the house of the Saxon minister, Count Brühl. In 1786 he was appointed by Ernest II. of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha director of the new observatory on the Seeberg at Gotha, which was finished in 1791. From 1806 Zach to the duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha travelled his fine library may be noticed. Overlooking the city from an elevation of 500 ft. is the Bufa Hill, which is crowned by a chapel and is a popular pilgrimage resort. The Guadalupe chapel near the city has elaborate decorations, including frescoes, onyx steps, silver rails and paintings, and a curious tiled dome. The industries comprise carriage building, weaving and the manufacture of coarse pottery. The town is an important commercial centre.

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Zach published Tables of the Sun (Gotha, 1792; new and improved edition, ibid., 1804), and numerous papers on geographical subjects, particularly on the geographical positions of many towns and places in Germany. With such subjects his principal interest was, however, as editor of three scientific journals of great value: Allgemeine Geographische Ephemeriden (4 vols., Gotha, 1798-93), Monatliche Correspondenz zur Beforderung der Erd- und Himmels-Kunde (28 vols., Gotha, 1800-13, from 1807 edited by B. von Lindenau), and Correspondenz astronomique, géographique, hydrographique, et statistique (Genoa, 1818-26, 14 vols., and one number of the 15th suppressed at the instigation of the Jesuits).

ZACHARIAE VON LINGENTHAL, KARL SALOMO (1760-1843), German jurist, was born on the 14th of September 1760 at Meissen in Saxony, the son of a lawyer, and received his early education at the famous public school of St Afra in that town. He afterwards studied philosophy, history, mathematics and law at the university of Leipzig. In 1792 he went to Wittenberg University as tutor to one of the counts of Lippe, and continued his legal studies. In 1794 he became privatdozent, lecturing on canon law, in 1798 extraordinary professor, and 1802 ordinary professor. He died, after a few days' illness, on the 27th of June 1843, with the exception of a short period in which public affairs occupied him, he poured out a succession of works covering the whole field of jurisprudence, and was a copious contributor to periodicals. In 1807 he received a call to Heidelberg, then beginning its period of splendour as a school of law. There, resisting many calls to Göttingen, Berlin and other universities, he remained until his death. In 1820 he took his seat, as representative of his university, in the upper house of the newly constituted parliament of Baden. Though he himself prepared many reforms—notably in the harsh criminal code—he was, by instinct and conviction, conservative and totally opposed to the violent democratic spirit which dominated the second chamber, and brought it into conflict with the grand-duke and the German federal government. After the remodelling of the constitution in a "reactionary" sense, he was returned, in 1825, by the district of Heidelberg to the second chamber, of which he became the first vice-president, and in which he proved himself more "loyal" than the government itself. With the growth of parliamentary liberalism, however, he grew disillusioned with politics, from which he retired altogether in 1829. He now devoted himself wholly to juridical work and to the last days of his life toiled with the arduous of a young student. His fame extended beyond Germany. The German universities then enjoyed, in regard to legal questions of international importance, a jurisdiction dating from the middle ages; and Zachariae was often consulted as to questions arising in Germany, France and England. Elaborate "opinions," some of them forming treatise in the "Einkettte Staatstheik" and der Kirche mit Recht und Gauk, the Die Geschichte der deutschen Rechtsverfassung (1797), a work on the relations of church and state, with special reference to the constitution of the empire, which displayed the writer's power of analysis and his skill in making a complicated set of facts appear to be deductions from a few principles. In 1805 appeared Versuch einer allgemeinen Hermanns der Rechts; and in 1806 Die Wissenschaft der Gesetzegebung, an attempt to find a new theoretical basis for society in place of the political theories of Montesquieu and the "cataclysm" of the French Revolution. This basis he seemed to discover in something resembling Bentham's utilitarianism. Zachariae's last work was Verteilung des Staates (1855-58), to which his admirers point as his enduring monument. It is devoted to Montesquieu's "L'Esprit des lois, and covers no small part of the field of Buckle's first volume of the History of Civilization. But the work contains profound and interesting thoughts as to the future of the state and of law, it lacks logical sequence, and is, consequently, full of contradictions. Its fundamental theory is, that the state had its origin, not in a contract (Rousseau); but in the consciousness of a legal duty. What Machiavelli was to the Italians and Montesquieu to the French, Zachariae aspired to become to the Germans; but he lacked their patriotic inspiration, and so failed to exercise any permanent influence on the constitutional law of his country. Among other important works of Zachariae are his Staatsrecht, and his treatise on the Code Napoléon, of which several French editions were published, and which was translated into German. Zachariae was a man of many parts, and Joseph Mittermaier the Kritische Zeitschrift für die Reichswissenschaft und Gesetzgebung des Auslandes, and the introduction which he wrote illustrates his wide reading and his constant desire for new light upon old problems. His works were superseded, they were in their day epoch-making, and they have been superseded by books which, without them, could not have been written.

For an account of Zachariae and his works, see Robert von Mohl, Geschichte u. Literatur der Staatswissenschaften (1855-58); and Charles Brocher, K. S. Zachariae, sa vie et ses œuvres (1870); and Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie (vol. 44). See also Wilhelm Fischer, and Holtzendorff, Rechts-Lexicon, Zachariae von Lingenthal.

His son, KARL EDUARD ZACHARIAE (1812-1894), also an eminent jurist, was born on the 24th of December 1812, and studied philosophy, history, mathematics and languages, as well as jurisprudence, at Leipzig, Berlin and Heidelberg. Having
made Roman and Byzantine law his special study, he visited Paris in 1832 to examine Byzantine MSS., went in 1834 to St Petersburg and Copenhagen for the same purpose, and in 1835 worked in the libraries of Brussels, London, Oxford, Dublin, Edinburgh and Cambridge. After a few months as a practising lawyer and privadozent at Heidelberg, he went in 1837, in search of materials, to Italy and the East, visiting Athens, Constantinople and the monasteries of Mount Athos. Having a taste for a country life, and none for teaching, he gave up his position as extraordinary professor at Heidelberg, and in 1845 bought an estate in the Prussian province of Saxony. Here he lived, engaged in scientific agriculture and interested in Prussian politics, until his death on the 3rd of June 1894.

He produced an enormous mass of works of great importance for students of Byzantine law. The task to which he devoted his life was, to discover and classify the sources of Byzantine law hidden away in the libraries of the East and West; to re-edit, in the light of modern criticism, those sources which had already been published; to write the history of Byzantine law on the basis of this hitherto undiscovered material; and finally, to apply the results to the scientific elucidation of the Justinian law. His Just Graeco-Romanum, of which the first part was published in 1856, the last in 1903, is the best and most complete collection of the sources known hitherto, and of the period of Justin II. to 1453. On the general history of the subject he wrote two epoch-making works, the Historiae Graeco-Romanii juris de- lineatio, in two parts (Heidelberg, 1867), and Geschichte des griechisch-römischen Rechts. I. Personarecht; II. Handrecht; III. Die Geschichte des Sachenrechts und Obligationenrecht (Leipzig, 1856), the third edition of which appeared under the title Geschichte des griechisch-römischen Rechts (1892). In this last work, which covered ground hitherto unexplored, Byzantine law is treated as a development of Justinian law, and incidentally many obscure points in the economic and agrarian conditions of the Eastern empire are elucidated. For list of Zacharias' other works, see Allgem. Deutsche Biogr., art. by Wilhelm Fischer.

ZACHARIAS, ST, pope from 741 to 752, was a Greek by birth, and appears to have been on intimate terms with Gregory III., whom he succeeded (November 741). Contemporary history dwells chiefly on his great personal influence with the Lombard king Luitprand, and with his successor Rachis; it was largely through his tact in dealing with these princes in a variety of emergencies that the exarchate of Ravenna was rescued from becoming part of the Lombard kingdom. A correspondence, of considerable extent and of great interest, between Zacharias and St Boniface, the apostle of Germany, is still extant, and shows how great was the influence of this pope on events then passing in France and Germany: he encouraged the deposition of Childeric, and it was with his sanction that Boniface crowned Pippin as king of the Franks at Soissons in 752. Zacharias is stated to have remonstrated with the emperor Constantine Copronymus on the part he had taken in the Iconoclastic controversy, but died on the 14th of March 752, and was succeeded by Stephen II.

The letters and decrees of Zacharias are published in Migne, Patrolog. lat. xxxx. p. 917-960.

ZAGAZIG (Zahlazik), a town of Lower Egypt, capital of the province of Sharkia. Pop. (1907) 34,990, including 2617 Copts and 1353 Greeks. It is built on a branch of the Fresh Water or Ismailia canal, and on the Al-Moizz canal (the ancient Tantius channel of the Nile), and is 47 m. by rail N.E. of Cairo. Situated on the Delta in the midst of a fertile district, Zagazig is a great centre of the cotton and grain trade of Egypt. It has large cotton factories and the offices of numerous European merchants. About a mile south of the town are the ruins of Buhabas (q.v.).

ZÄHRINGEN, the name of an old and influential German family, taken from the castle and village of that name near Freiburg-im-Breisgau. The earliest known member of the family was probably one Bezelin, a count in the Breisgau, who was living early in the 11th century. Bezelin's son Bertold I. (d. 1078) was count of Zähringen and was related to the Hohenstaufen family. He received a promise of the duchy of Swabia, which he was not able to contest, from the young duke of Carinthia. Although this dignity was a titular one only Bertold lost it when he joined a rising against the emperor Henry IV. in 1072. His son Bertold II. (d. 1111), who like his father fought against Henry IV., inherited the land of the counts of Rheinfelden in 1090 and took the title of duke of Zähringen; he was succeeded in turn by his sons, Bertold III. (d. 1122) and Conrad (d. 1152). In 1127 Conrad inherited some land in Burgundy and about this date he was appointed by the German king, Lothair the Saxon, rector of the kingdom of Burgundy or Arles. This office was held by the Zähringens until 1218 and because they are sometimes called dukes of Burgundy. Bertold IV. (d. 1186), who followed his father Conrad, spent much of his time in Italy in the train of the emperor Frederick I.; his son and successor, Bertold V., showed his prowess by reducing the Burgundian nobles to order. This latter duke was the founder of the town of Bern, and when he died in February 1218 the main line of the Zähringen family became extinct. By extensive acquisitions of land the Zähringens had become very powerful in the districts now known as Switzerland and Baden, and when their territories were divided in 1218 part of them passed to the counts of Kyburg and thence to the house of Habsburg. The family now ruling in Baden is descended from Hermann, margrave of Verona (d. 1074), a son of Bertold I., and the grand-duke is the present representative of the Zähringens.

See E. J. Leichtlen, Die Zähringer (Freiburg, 1831); and E. Heyck, Geschichte der Herzöge von Zähringen (Freiburg, 1891), and Urkunden, Siegel und Wappen der Herzöge von Zähringen (Freiburg, 1851).

ZÄHRINGEN, a village of Germany, in the grand duchy of Baden, situated under the western slope of the Black Forest, 2 m. from Freiburg-im-Breisgau, and on the railway from Heidelberg to Basel. Pop. (1900) 1200. Above the village on a spur of the mountains, 1500 ft. above the sea, lie the ruins of the castle of Zähringen, formerly the stronghold of the ducal line of that name (see above).

See Schöpfelin, Historia Zaringo-Badensis (Karlsruhe, 1763-66).

ZAILA, or ZELLA; a town on the African coast of the Gulf of Aden, 124 m. S.W. of Aden and 200 m. N.N.E. of Harrar. Zaila is the most western of the ports of the British Somaliland protectorate, being 170 m. N.W. of Berbera by the coast caravan track. The town is surrounded on three sides by the sea; landward the country is unbroken desert for some fifty miles. The principal buildings, which date from the days of Egyptian occupation (1875-1884) are of white (coral) stone; the Somali dwellings are made of grass. Zaila has a good sheltered anchorage much frequented by Arab sailing craft, but heavy draught steamers are obliged to anchor a mile and a half from the town. Small trading boats lie off the pier and there is no difficulty in loading or discharging cargo. The water supply of the town is drawn from the wells of Takasha, about three miles distant; every morning camels, in charge of old Somali women and bearing goatskins filled with water, come into the town in picturesque procession. The population varies from 3000 to 7000, the natives, who come in the cool season to barter their goods, retiring to the highlands in hot weather. The chief traders are Indians, the smaller dealers Arabs, Greeks and Jews. The imports, which reach Zaila chiefly via Aden, are mainly cotton goods, rice, jawaree, dates and silk; the exports—which of 90 per cent. are from Abyssinia—are principally coffee, skins, ivory, cattle, ghee and mother-of-pearl.

Zaila owed its importance to its proximity to Harrar, the great entrepôt for the trade of southern Abyssinia. The trade of the port received, however, a severe check on the opening (1901-2) of the railway to Harrar from the French port of Jibuti, which is 35 m. N.W. of Zaila. A steamer from Aden to Zaila takes fifteen hours to accomplish the journey; caravans proceeding from Zaila to Harrar occupy from ten days to three weeks on the road.

For history and trade statistics, see SOMALILAND, BRITISH.

ZAIMUKHT, the name of a small Pathan tribe on the Kohat border of the North-West Frontier Province of India. The Zaimukhts inhabit the hills to the south of the Orakzais.
between the Miranazai and Kurrum valleys. Their country may be described as a triangle, with the range of hills known as the Samana as its base, and the village of Thal in the Kurrum valley as its apex. This includes a tract on its western side occupied by an Orakzai clan. The total area is about 400 sq. m., of which the Orakzais occupy a fourth. The Zalmukhats are a fine-looking powerful race, with a fighting strength of some 3000 men.

Zaire, a name by which the river Congo was formerly known. Zaire is a Portuguese variant of a Bantu word (nzaari) meaning river. In the 16th and 17th centuries the powerful native kingdom of Congo possessed both banks of the lower river, and the name of the country was in time given to the river also. Until, however, the last quarter of the 19th century "Zaire" was frequently used to designate the stream. It is so called by Canoens in the Lusiads. Since H. M. Stanley's discoveries "Congo" has become the general name for the river from its mouth to Stanley Falls, despite an effort on the part of Stanley to have the stream renamed Livingstone (see Congo, river.)

Zaisan, or Zaisansk, a town of Russian Central Asia, in the province of Semipalatinsk, near the Chinese frontier, at an altitude of 2200 ft. and near the S.E. corner of Lake Zaisan. Pop. (1897) 4471. Lake Zaisan, situated in an open valley between the Altai range on the north-east and the Tarbagatai on the south, lies at an altitude of 1355 ft. It has a length of 65 m., a width of 14 to 30 m., an area of 707 sq. m., and a maximum depth of 50 ft. Its water is fresh, as it receives the Irtysh and Kerulen rivers. It is crossed by several small streams from the west, all of which leave the lake at its north-west extremity by the White Irtysh. The fisheries, which yield abundantly, are in the hands of the Siberian Cossacks. The lake is generally frozen from the beginning of November to the end of April.

Zaleucus, of Locri Epizephyrii in Magna Graecia, Greek lawgiver, is supposed to have flourished about 660 B.C. The statement that he was a pupil of Pythagoras is an anachronism. Little is known of him, and Timaeus even doubted his existence, but it is now generally agreed that this is an error. He is said to have been the author of the first written code of laws amongst the Greeks. According to the common story, the Locrians consulted the Delphic oracle as to a remedy for the disorder and lawlessness that were rife amongst them. Having been ordered to make laws for themselves, they commissioned one Zaleucus, a shepherd and slave (in later tradition, a man of distinguished family) to draw up a code. The laws of Zaleucus, which he declared had been communicated to him in a dream by Athena, the patron goddess of the city, were few and simple, but so severe that, like those of Draco, they became proverbial. They remained essentially unchanged for centuries, and the Locrians subsequently enjoyed a high reputation as upholders of the law. One of the most important provisions was that the punishment for different offences was definitely fixed, instead of being left to the discretion of the judge before whom a case was tried. The penalty for adultery was the loss of the eyes, and in general the application of the lex talionis was enjoined as the punishment for personal injuries. Special enactments concerning the rights of property, the alienation of land, settlement in foreign countries, and various sumptuary laws (e.g., the drinking of pure wine, except when ordered medicinally, was forbidden) are attributed to him. After the code was firmly established, the Locrians introduced a regulation that, if a citizen interpreted a law differently from the cosmopolis (the chief magistrate), each had to appear before the council of One Thousand with a rope round his neck, and the one against whom the council decided was immediately strangled. Any one who proposed a new law or the alteration of one already existing was subjected to the same test, which continued in force till the 4th century and even later. Zaleucus is often confused with Charondas, and the same story is told of their death. It is said that one of Zaleucus's laws forbade a citizen, under penalty of death, to enter the senate-house bearing a weapon. During the stress of war, Zaleucus violated this law; and, on its being pointed out to him, he committed suicide by throwing himself upon the point of his sword, declaring that the law must be vindicated.

See Bentley, Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris; F. D. G. De Vries, Charondas, Pythagoras (1858); G. Busolt, Griechische Geschichte, i.; Schol. ad Pandar. Ox. x. 17; Strabo ii. p. 259; Diod. Sic. xii. 20, 21; Demosthenes, In Timocretam, p. 747; Stobaeus, Florilegium, xiv. 20, 21, where the supposed Greek of Zaleucus is quoted, 744 F.; Eustathius of Thessalonica (v. 505), who attributes the death of Zaleucus to a bolt of lightning; Suidas, s.v., who makes him a native of Thrace; Cicero, De Legibus, ii. 6. See also article GREEK LAW.

Zalmonias, or Zolmonisis, a semi-mythical social and religious reformer, regarded as the only true God by the Thracian Getae. According to Herodotus (v. 94), the Getae, who believed in the immortality of the soul, looked upon death merely as going to Zalmonias. Every five years they selected by lot one of the tribesmen as a messenger to the god. The man was thrown into the air and caught upon the points of spears. If he did not die, he was considered unfit to undertake the mission and another was chosen. By the euhemeristic Hellenspontine Greeks Herodotus was told that Zalmonias was really a man, formerly a slave of Pythagoras at Samos, who, having obtained his freedom and amassed great wealth, returned to Thrace, and instructed his fellow-tribesmen in the doctrines of Pythagoras and the arts of civilization. He taught them that they would pass at death to a certain place, where they would enjoy all possible benefits for all eternity, and to convince them of this he had a subterranean chamber constructed, the fortune of which was to continue for three years. Herodotus, who declines to commit himself as to the existence of Zalmonias, expresses the opinion that in any case he may have lived long before the time of Pythagoras. It is probable that Zalmonias is Sabazius, the Thracian Dionysus or Zeus; Mnaseas of Patrae identified him with Cronus. In Plato (Charides, 138 B) he is mentioned with Abaris as skilled in the arts of incantation. No satisfactory etymology of the name has been suggested.

Zamakhshari [Abū-Jā‘īsī Muḥammad ibn ‘Umar-uz-Zamakhsharī (1079-1153, Arabian theologian and grammarian, was born at Zamakhshar, a village of Khwarzim, studied at Bokhara and Samarkand, and enjoyed the fellowship of the jurists of Bagdad. For many years he stayed at Mecca, from which circumstance he was known as Jārūllāh ("God's client "). Later he returned to Khwarzim, where he died at the capital Jurjānyīa. In theology he was a pronounced Mo‘tāzilīte (see MAHOMMEDAN RELIGION: sects Sects). Although he used Persian for some of his works he was a strong supporter of the superiority of the Arabic language and an opponent of the Qādirī movement. Zamakhshari’s fame as a commentator rests upon his commentary on the book al-Kashf al-Bashiri ("the Revealer "). In spite of its Mo‘tāzilīte theology it was famous among scholars and was the basis of the widely-read commentary of Baidāwī (q.v.). It has been edited by W. Nassau Lees (Calcula, 1856), and has been printed at Cairo (1890). Various glosses on it have been written by different authors. His chief grammatical work is the Kitāb ul-muṣafājat, written about 1120 and edited by J. B. Broch (2d ed., Christiania, 1879). Many commentaries have been written on this work, the fullest being that of Ibn Yā‘īsh (d. 1243), edited by G. Jahn (2 vols., Leipzig, 1876-1886).


Zambesi, the fourth in size of the rivers of Africa, and the largest of those flowing eastwards to the Indian Ocean. Its length (taking all current variations into consideration) is about 2200 m. The area of its basin, according to Dr Bludau, is 313,500 sq. m.,
or rather than less than half that of the Nile. The main channel is clearly marked from beginning to end. The river takes its rise in 11° 21' 3" S., 24° 22' E. The source lies in British territory in a depression of an undulating country 5000 ft. above the sea, covered with bracken and open forest. The water, like that of all the rivers of the neighbourhood, issues from a black-marble cleft, and is of a beautiful clear, wine-coloured, well-defined water. In the first hundred miles of its course the river is known as the Zambezi—its sound almost identical with its name in its lower course, though intervening sections are known as Liami-bese, Lianriamb, &c. Eastward of the source the water-parting between the Congo and Zambezi basins is a well-marked belt of high ground, falling abruptly north and south, and running nearly east and west between 11° and 12° S. This distinctly cuts off the basin of the Luapula (the main branch of the upper Congo) from that of the Zambezi. In the neighbourhood of the source, however, the water-parting is not so clear, but the two river systems do not connect. The Upper River.—The infant Zambezi, after pursuing a southerly course for about 150 miles, turns more directly south and, soon after the 12° S. is crossed, is joined by a stream (coming from the west and waters of a much larger stream than the Kambombo, 4000 ft. above sea-level in 11° 59' 20" S., 22° 10' E.), Lake Dilolo was at one time believed to communicate with the Kasai river, one of the great affluent of the Congo flowing north-west, but this is not the case. Lake Dilolo is one of the few waterfalls. Between it and the two gorges the river is generally unobstructed, but at the western end of the second Kariba navigation is difficult. Above the Shire (gorges) the Luapula and the Kafukwe (also called Katwe) are deflected and the river divides into a number of small tributaries of the Zambezi. The Kafukwe joins the main river in 15° 57' S. in a quiet deep stream about 200 yards wide. From this point the northward up of numberless branches and the stream continues due east. At the confluence of the Luapanga (15° 57' S.) it enters Portuguese territory, and from this point to the sea both banks of the river belong to that kingdom. At the Kebrabasa Rapids, 50 miles below the Victoria Falls, the Zambezi is sharply deflected to the south, the river at this point breaking through the continental escarpment to receive the sea. The Kebrabasa Rapids, which occurred about 45 miles above the Victoria Falls, are absolutely navigable, and with a wind of 25 knots the Zambezi as definitely ends as does the upper river at the Victoria Falls.

The Lower River.—The lower Zambezi—500 miles from Kebrabasa to the sea—presents no obstacles except the shallowness of the stream in many places in the dry season. This shallowness arises from the difference of the character of the river basin, being the southern branch of the Zambezi, flowing mainly through hilly country with well-defined basins, the river traversing a broad valley and spreads out over a large area. Only at one point, the Lupata Gorge, 200 miles from its mouth, is the river confined between high banks. The river itself is from 3 to 5 m. wide, flowing gently in many streams. The river-bed is sandy, the banks are low and reed-fringed. At places, however, and especially in the rainy season, the streams unite into one and the swift-flowing river is about 100 m. wide. The Zambezi receives the drainage of Lake Nyasa through the river Shiré. On approaching the ocean, which it reaches in 18° 50' S., the channel is still well-marked, and the river has a waterway, although its depth at any given time is small. At the Victoria Falls, 60 miles further north is a river called the Qua-Qua or Quellimane, from the town founded by the Portuguese at its mouth. This stream, which is sitting up, receives a considerable amount of water from the upper river.

The region drained by the Zambezi may be represented as a vast broken-edged plateau 3000 or 4000 ft. high, composed in the greater part of the interior of the continent the Zambezi, like all other large African rivers, in greater or less degree, suffers on account of the bar at its mouth, the shallowness of its stream, and the rapids and cataracts which interrupt its course. Nevertheless its importance to commerce is immense. In the southern part of the river, the cataracts, rapids, and sand-bars are numerous, but the course continues as far as the Victoria Falls in 11° 57' S., the point where the river flows out of the plateau, and below it continues as far as the mouth. The river flows swiftly through the gorge, the current being continually interrupted by reefs. West of the gorge are a succession of rapids, amongst which are a few that are difficult, and which caused the early navigators to name them the Victoria Falls. In this distance the fall of the river is 500 ft. From the Devil's Gorge the Zambezi takes a decided trend north whilst still pursuing its general easterly course. For the next 700 miles, until it reaches the Luapula, the Zambezi River is well defined and occasionally rocky banks. Besides the rapids already mentioned there are several others in the middle stretch of the river. The rapids are not particularly abrupt, and consist in most cases of small cascades on a gently sloping bed. They are not capable of being navigated. The possibility of connecting the
Kwando with the navigable waters of the Okavango, at the point where the overflow mentioned below takes place, has likewise been suggested. The Shiri is also navigable for a considerable distance. The sum of such navigable reaches within the Zambezi basin as Extensively known is nearly 4000 m.

**Tributaries.**—The tributaries of the Zambezi are very numerous. The course of the more important streams is as follows: The Kabombo, which flows in from the east about 45° 50' E., enters the Zambesi river in high land which forms the eastern watershed between the Zambezi and Congo systems. In 13° S. it receives on the right bank a tributary, the Lunga, said to be formed by the jointing of two streams which unite itself, and which is a tributary somewhat farther north. The Lungwebungu, which enters the Zambezi from the west in 14° 35' S., is a strong, deep stream 200 yds. wide in its upper course, flowing in a valley bordered by undulation and thick forest, its floor forming at times an inundated plain 2 to 3 m. wide.

The Zambezi, largest of the western affluents of the Zambezi, formerly known as Uggha and from it is spoken of as the Livingstone, is the most ruined capital of the Makoloko, situated on its lower course, rises in about 12° 40' S., 18° 50' E., and flows in a generally straight course south-east to 17° 30' S., at which point it makes a sudden bend to the north. In this eastward stretch the Kwando for some 70 m. flows through a vast reedy swamp or lake studded with alluvial islands. Apart from its head-streams, it receives most of its tributaries on its right bank, and most of its affluents on its more to the north, the Magwe'-kwana, which in time of flood receives some of the surplus water of the Okavango (see Ngami). This surplus water, received afterwards by the Gaborone, has passed the level of the lake and holds up the waters of the Kwando for some miles above it.

The streams which enter the upper Zambezi from the east, the largest of which rises in the Luangwa, which rises in 16° 55' S., 26° E., and flows first north-west, afterwards west-south-west, joining the main river a little north of 15° S. Others are the Nkoko joining in 17° 8' S., the Machili, which enters in about 25° E., the Luvungi, 18° 45' S., and the Umguze, 18° 32' S. The largest tributary of the middle Zambezi—the Kafue—rises in about 11° 35' S. at an elevation of 4000 ft. in thick forest country. The main river, after flowing for a distance of 165 m. and about 400 m. to the west, is joined in 14° 35' S. by the Lunga or Luangwa, an important right-bank tributary, the united stream then flowing first south, afterwards due east. The lower Kafue is a large navigable river until about 40 m. from its mouth, then descending by the sudden plunge of the plateau by a series of falls and cataracts, the drop being over 1000 ft. in 15 m., one very high fall occurring in a stupendous cataract. The next great tributary to the east is the Luangwa (also called Luangwa) which in its upper course runs parallel to the western shores of Lake Nyasa, having its source not far from the north-west corner of the lake. The main stream flows in a generally level valley, bounded by steeply sloping uplands, and is for the most part shallow and rapid, though fairly wide. In 14° 30' S., however, it passes through narrow gorges with a speed of 8 or 9 m. an hour. In 15° 5' S. it is joined by the Lusumu, which, with its tributaries, drains nearly the whole western half of the western half of theLuangwa. The Luangwa joins the Zambezi a little above the town of Zombo, some distance (40 m.) from the mouth of the river from the southern portion between Portuguese and British territory. From the south the middle Zambezi receives various rivers which water northern Matabele and Mashona lands—namely, the Shangani, Sanyati, and Hanyangwe besides minor streams. The Mazoe, which also rises in Mashonaland, joins the Zambezi below the Kebrabasa Rapids.

**Exploration of the River.**—The Zambezi region was known to the medieval geographers as the empire of Monomotapa and the course of the river, as well as the position of Lakes Ngami and Nyasa, was filled in with a rude approximation to accuracy in the earlier maps. These were probably constructed from Arab information. The first European to visit the upper Zambezi was David Livingstone in his exploration from Bechuanaland between 1851 and 1853. Two or three years later he descended the Zambezi to its mouth and in the course of this journey discovered the Victoria Falls. During 1858–60, accompanied by Dr. (afterwards Sir) John Kirk, Livingstone ascended the Zambezi and its tributaries, and in the course of his journey tracing the course of its tributary the Shiri and discovering Lake Nyasa. For the next thirty-five years practically no additions were made to our knowledge of the river system. In 1888 the entrance of vessels from the sea was much facilitated by the discovery by Mr. D. J. Rankin of the Chinde channel north of the main mouths of the river. Major A. St. Hill Gibbons and his assistants, during two expeditions, in 1895–96 and 1898–99, ably continued the work of exploration begun by Livingstone in the upper basin and central course of the river. Of non-British travellers Major Serpa Pinto examined some of the western tributaries of the river and made measurements of the Victoria Falls (1828). Steamers had been used on the lower river—the "Ma-Robert" and the "Pioneer"—by the Livingstone expedition of 1858–61, but the utilization of the Zambezi as a commercial highway was insufficient until after the discovery of the Chinde mouth. The first steamer placed on the river above the Kebrabasa Rapids was the "Constance" launched by the Gibbons expedition at Chikoa in September 1858. She steamed to beyond the Guay confluence, and being ultimately supplanted by a new vessel, was used to carry goods on the middle Zambezi. The first steamer placed on the river above the Victoria Falls was the "Livingstone," launched in August 1902.

See David and Charles Livingstone, Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambezi and its Tributaries (1866); A. de Serpa Pinto, How I Crossed Africa (1881); D. J. Rankin in Proc. R. G. S. (March, 1890); A. Sharpe, ibid. (December, 1890); H. S. Bivor, "Curso medio do Zambeze," B. S. G. Litaba, vol. xxiv. (1906); G. W. Lamplugh in Geo. Jnl., vol. xxxi. (1908); F. Coillard, On the Threshold of Central Africa (London, 1897), and A. St. H. Gibbons. Africa from South to North through Matabeleland (2 vols., London, 1893).

ZAMBOANGA, the capital of the Moro Province, and of the District (or Comandancia) of Zamboanga, and a port of entry, on the island of Mindanao, Philippine Islands, at the S. extremity of the western peninsula. Pop. (1903) 3281; of the comandancia, 26,692. Zamboanga has one of the most healthful sites in the islands, its climate being decidedly cooler than that of Manila. Since the American occupation the trade has greatly increased and various improvements have been planned. The town is an excellent fishing port, with good docks, piers, and wharves. It is connected by road with the interior, and has telegraphs, electric lights, good houses, better facilities for docking, piers, bridges, and public parks. The Provincial Capitol, one of the finest public buildings in the Philippines, was completed in 1908. There is considerable valuable timber in the vicinity, live-stock is extensively raised, and rice, copra, hemp, sugar-cane, tobacco, and sweet potatoes are other important products. Zamboanga was one of the oldest Spanish settlements in the islands, it having been taken and fortified as a base against the Moros, and it still contains an old stone fort. Many of the inhabitants are descendants of Moros who escaped from the Moslem and sought Spanish protection. A Spanish patiño, called "Zamboangueso," is spoken by most of the native inhabitants.

ZAMINDAR, or ZEMINDAR (from Persian zaman = "land"), an Indian landholder. In official usage the term is applied to any person, whether owner of a large estate or cultivating member of a village community, who is recognized as possessing some property in the soil, as opposed to the ryot (q.v.), who is regarded as having only a right of occupancy, subject in both cases to payment of the land revenue assessed on his holding. The zamindari system obtains throughout northeastern and central India, and also in the permanently settled estates of Madras.

The raja of Benares had certain special rights as zaminder, and in 1910 it was arranged to make part of his "family domain" a new native state with an area of 887 sq. m. (pop. 362,000).

ZAMINDAWAR, a district of Afghanistan, situated on the right bank of the Helmund river to the N.W. of Kandahar, bordering the road which leads from Kandahar to Herat via the Kandahar to Kandahar road. The Zamindawar district is a thinly populated, and fertile valleys watered by important affluents of the Helmund. The principal town is Musa Kala, which stands on the banks of a river of the same name, about 60 m. N. of Girishk. The whole of this region is a well-known hotbed of fanaticism, the headquarters of the Achakzais, the most aggressive of all Durani tribes. It was from Zamindawar that much of the strength of the force which besieged Kandahar under Ayub Khan in 1880 was derived; and it was the Zamindar
dawar contingent of tribesmen who so nearly defeated Sir Donald Stewart's force at Ahmad Khel previously. The control of Zamindawar may be regarded as the key to the position for safeguarding the route between Herat and Kandahar.

**ZAMORA**, an inland province of north-western Spain, one of the three into which the former province of Leon has since 1833 been divided; bounded on the W. by Portugal and Orense, N. by Leon, E. by Valladolid, and S. by Salamanca. Pop. (1900) 275,545; area, 4,097 sq. m. Zamora is traversed from east to west by the river Duero or Douro (q.v.), which receives with the Grijalba and Valderas the Agueda on the right and the Guareña on the left; the Turmes also skirts the south-western boundary for some 25 m. Except in the north-west, where it is entered by two outlying ridges of the Cantabrian Mountains, the Sierra de la Culebra and Sierra de Peña Negra, the surface consists of a level or slightly undulating plateau; its lowest point is 170 ft. above sea-level. Its plains, especially the valley of the Esla, yield large quantities of grain and pulse; wine and flax are also produced; and on the higher grounds large numbers of merino sheep and goats are reared, chiefly for export to Portugal. The manufactures of Zamora are unimportant, the most important are woollen cloths and lace, produced in Salamanca on the S., and Medina del Campo on the E., traverse the province and meet at the city of Zamora; there is a lack of good roads, and it is largely for this reason that the mines and extensive forests are neglected. The only towns with more than 5000 inhabitants are Zamora (pop., 1900, 16,287) and Toro (8379), which are described in separate articles. The people of the province are very poor, badly educated, and lacking in enterprise. (See also Leon.)

**ZAMORA**, an Episcopal city, and the capital of the Spanish province of Zamora, on the right bank of the river Duero (Douro), and at the junction of railways from Salamanca, Medina del Campo and Astorga. Pop. (1900) 16,283. Zamora occupies a rocky height overlooking the Duero, a little below its confluence with the Valderaduey. The river is crossed by a fine 14th-century bridge of sixteen pointed arches. The citadel of Zamora dates from the 8th century. The small but beautiful cathedral, one of four 12th-century churches in the city, is a Romanesque building, with a square tower, a dome above the crossing, and an elaborately-decorated interior. It was completed about 1175, and contains some interesting medieval tombs, and paintings by Fernando Gallegos (1475-1550). The other principal buildings are the 14th-century town-hall, the palace of the provincial assembly, a hospital with curious Gothic windows, an ecclesiastical seminary, and a school of engineering. The trade is chiefly agricultural, but linen and woollen goods, pottery, hats, leather, and spirits are manufactured in small quantities.

In the early period of the Christian re-conquest Zamora, from its position on the north bank of the Duero, was a place of considerable strategic importance. It was taken from the Moors by Alphonso I. of Leon in 748, but was again held by them for short periods in 813, 930, 963, 984 and 986. It was entirely repaired by Ferdinand I. of Castile and Leon, who in 1061 gave it to his daughter Doña Urraca. After his death in 1065 his son Sancho II. deserted possession with Urraca and laid siege to the city, but without success, although the famous Ruy Diaz de Bivar was among his warriors, and indeed at this time received his title of "The Cid." Zamora became subject to Alphonso VI. in 1073.

**ZAMOYSKI, JAN** (1541-1609). Polish statesman, was the son of George Zamoyski and grandson of Stanislaus of Chelm, and Anna Herbutowna, who belonged to one of the most ancient and illustrious families in Poland. After completing his education at Paris, Strasbourg, and at Padua, where as rector of the academy he composed his celebrated work *De senatu romano* (Venice, 1563), he returned home in 1565, one of the most consummate scholars and jurists in Europe. His essentially bold and practical genius sought at once the stormy political arena. He was mainly instrumental, after the death of Sigismund II., in remodelling the Polish constitution and procuring the election of Henry of Valois. After the flight of that prince Zamoisy seems to have aimed at the throne himself, but quickly changed his mind and threw all his abilities into the scale in favour of Stephen Báthory and against the Austrian influence. By his advice, at the beginning of January 1576 a diet was summoned to Jedrzejow to confirm the election of Báthory, and from the time of that monarch's arrival in Poland till his death ten years later Zamoisky was his foremost counsellor. Immediately after the coronation, on the 1st of May 1576, Zamoisky was appointed chancellor, and in 1580 wielki hetman, or commander-in-chief, of the Polish army. As such he was the first of the highest dignity in the Polish kingdom. He strenuously supported Stephen during his long struggle with Ivan the Terrible, despite the obstruction and parsimony of the diet. He also enabled the king in 1585 to bring the traitorous Samuel Zborowski to the scaffold in the face of a determined resistance from the nobility. On the death of Stephen, the Zborowski recovered their influence and did their utmost to keep Zamoisky in the background. Their violence prevented the "pasha," as they called him, from attending the convention summoned to Warsaw on the death of Báthory; but at the subsequent election diet, which met at Warsaw on 20th January 1587, and at which the Zborowiski, and intrenched himself with his partisans in what was called the Black Camp in contradistinction to the General Camp of the Zborowski. Zamoisky was at first in favour of a member of the Báthory family, with which he was united by ties of amity and mutual interest; but on becoming convinced of the impossibility of any such candidate, he pronounced for a native Pole, or for whichever foreign prince might he found most profitable to Poland. The Habsburgs, already sure of the Zborowski, bid very high for the support of Zamoisky. But though he was offered the title of prince, with the Golden Fleece, and 200,000 ducats, he steadily opposed the Austrian faction, even at the imminent risk of a civil war; and on the 15th of August procured the election of Sigismund of Sweden, whose mother was Catherine Jagiellonica. The opposition party immediately elected the Austrian Archduke Maximilian, who thereupon made an attempt upon Cracow. But Zamoisky traversed all the plans of the Austrian faction by routing the archduke at the battle of Byczyna (January 24, 1588) and taking him prisoner. From the first there was a certain coldness between the new king and the chancellor. Each had his own plan for coping with the difficulties of the situation; while Zamoysky regarded the Habsburgs with suspicion, Sigismund III. was disposed to act in concert with them as being the natural and strongest possible allies for a Catholic power like Poland. Zamoysky feared their influence upon Poland, which he would have made the head of the Slavonic powers by its own endeavours. Zamoysky was undoubtedly most jealous of his dignity; his patriotism was seldom proof against private pique; and he was not always particular in his choice of means. Thus at the diet of 1586 he prevailed over the king by threatening to leave the country defenceless against the Turks, if in the elections the Austrians were not excluded from the succession. In general, however, his Turkish policy was sound, as he consistently adopted the Jagiellonic policy of being friendly with so dangerous a neighbour as the Porte. His views on this head are set out with great force in his pamphlet, *La defaite des Tartares et Turcs* (Lyons, 1590). The ill-will between the king and the chancellor reached an acute stage when Sigismund appointed an opponent of Zamoyski vice-chancellor, and made other ministerial changes which limited his authority; though ultimately he had the aid of his partisans and the adoption of desperate expedients as the summoning of a confederation to annul the royal decrees in 1592, Zamoyski recovered his full authority. In 1595 Zamoyski, in his capacity of commander-in-chief, at the head of 8000 veterans dethroned the anti-Polish hospodar of Moldavia and installed in his stead a Catholic convert, George Mohila. On his return he successfully sustained in his camp at Cezora a siege by the Tatar khans. Five years later (October 20, 1600) he won his greatest victory at Ter-goist, when with a small well-disciplined army he routed
Michael the Brave, hospodar of Walachia and Moldavia. But beyond securing the Polish frontier Zamoysky would never go. He refused to wage war with Turkey even under the most favourable circumstances, nor could he be drawn into the Holy League against the Ottomans in 1600. When pressed by the papal legate and the Austrian envoys to co-operate at the head of all the forces of the league, he first demanded that in case of success Moldavia, Walachia and Bessarabia should fall to Poland, and that she should in the meantime hold Olmutz and Breslau as guarantees. The refusal of the Austrians to accede to his demand fully justified Zamoysky's suspicion that the league would use Poland as a cat's-paw, and the negotiations came to nothing. Statesman though he was, Zamoysky cannot, however, be called a true patriot. Polish historians, dazzled by his genius and valour, are apt to overlook his quasi treasonable conduct and blame Sigismund III, for every misadventure; but there can be no doubt that the king took a far broader view of the whole situation when he attempted to reform the Polish constitution in 1605 by strengthening the royal power and deciding all measures in future by a majority of the diet. To this project, however, he did not live to see the issue.

The last speech he delivered was in favour of the anarchical principle of free election. He died suddenly at Zamosc on the 3rd of June 1605.

See Vincent Lauroe, 1574-1789, et ses dépeches inédites (Ital.) (Warsaw, 1877); Augustin Theiner, Veto monumenta Poloniae et Lituaniae vol. ii. (Rome, 1862); Adam Tytus Dzialynski, Collectanea vitae et resque gentis J. Zamoyszcji uistuiranet (Posen, 1881). (R. N. B.)

ZANARDELLI, GIUSEPPE (1826-1903), Italian jurisconsult and statesman, was born at Brescia on the 29th of October 1826. A combatant in the volunteer corps during the war of 1848, he returned to Brescia after the defeat of Novara, and for a time earned a livelihood by teaching law, but was molested by the Austrian police and forbidden to teach in consequence of his refusal to contribute pro-Austrian articles to the press. Elected deputy in 1859, he received various administrative appointments, but only attained a political office in 1876 when the Left, of which he had been a prominent and influential member, came into power. Minister of public works in the first Depretis cabinet of 1876, and minister of the interior in the Cairoli cabinet of 1878, he in the latter capacity drafted the franchise reform, but created the discontent of its administrative acts, particularly in regard to the Irredentist agitation, and by his theory of repressing and not in any way preventing crime, which led for a time to a perfect epidemic of murders. Overthrown with Cairoli in December 1878, he returned to power as minister of justice in the Depretis cabinet of 1881, and succeeded in completing the commercial code. Abandoned by Depretis in 1883, he remained in opposition until 1887, when he again joined Depretis as minister of justice, retaining his portfolio throughout the ensuing Crispi ministry until the 31st of January 1891. During this period he promulgated the Criminal Code, and began the reform of the magistracy. After the fall of the Giolitti cabinet in 1893, Zanardelli made a strenuous but unsuccessful attempt to form an administration. Elected president of the chamber in 1894 and 1896, he exercised that office with ability until, in December 1897, he accepted the portfolio of justice in the Rudini cabinet, only to resign in the following spring on account of dissensions with his colleague, Visconti Venosta, over the measures necessary to prevent a recurrence of the tumults of May 1898. Returning to the presidency of the chamber, he again abandoned his post in order to associate himself with the obstructionist campaign against the Public Safety Bill (1899-1900), and was rewarded by being enabled to form an administration with the support of the Extreme Left upon the fall of the Saracco cabinet in February 1901. He was unable to achieve much during his last term of office, as his health was greatly impaired; his Divorce Bill, although voted in the chamber, had to be withdrawn on account of the strong opposition of the country. He retired from the administration on the 2nd of November 1903, and died on the 21st of December following.

ZANELLA, GIACOMO (1829-1888), Italian poet, was born at Chiampo, near Vicenza, on the 9th of September 1829, and was educated for the priesthood. After his ordination he became professor at the lyceum of his native place, but his patriotic sympathies excited the jealousy of the Austrian authorities, and although protected by his diocesan, he was compelled to resign in 1853. After the liberation of Venetia, the Italian government conferred upon him a professorship at Padua, and he achieved distinction as a poet on the publication of his first volume of poems in 1868. In 1872 grief for the death of his mother occasioned a mental malady, which led to the resignation of his professorship. After his complete and permanent recovery he built himself a villa on the bank of his native river, the Astichello, and lived there in tranquillity until his death on the 17th of May 1888. His last published volume contains a series of sonnets of singular beauty, addressed to the river, resembling Wordsworth's "Sonnets to the Dodder," but more perfect in form; and a blank verse idyll, "Il Pettrioso" ("The Redbreast"), bearing an equally strong, though equally accidental, resemblance to the similar compositions of Coleridge. The divinity of Dante, and the setting of his poetry, are distinguished by great dignity. Of his other compositions, the most individual are those in which, deeply impressed by the problems of his day, he has sought to reconcile science and religion, especially the fine dialogue between Milton and Galileo, where the former, impressed by Galileo's predictions of the intellectual consequences of scientific progress, resolves "to justify the ways of God to man." Zanella was a broad-minded and patriotic ecclesiast, and his character is justly held in equal honour with his poetry, which, if hardly to be termed powerful, wears a stamp of peculiar elegance and finish, and asserts a place of its own in modern Italian literature.

ZANESVILLE, a city and the county-seat of Muskingum county, Ohio, U.S.A., on the Muskingum river, at the mouth of the Licking river, about 60 m. E. of Columbus. Pop. (1890) 21,000; (1900) 23,538, of whom 1435 were foreign-born; (1910, census) 28,026. Zanesville is served by the Baltimore & Ohio, the Pennsylvania, the Cleveland, Akron & Columbus, the Ohio River & Western, the Wheeling & Lake Erie, the Zanesville & Western, and the Ohio & Little Kanawha (D. & O. system) railways, by a belt line around the city, and by 600 miles of electric, and the 40-m. East & West electric railway. By an increase of lines by a series of locks and dams the Muskingum river has been navigable for small vessels to the Ohio and above Zanesville to Dresden, where connexion is made with the Ohio Canal extending north to Cleveland. Within the city limits the Muskingum is crossed by seven bridges (including a notable concrete Y bridge) and the Licking by two. The business districts of the city lie on both sides of the two rivers; the residential districts being chiefly on the hills to the north and west. Among the principal buildings are the Federal building, the county court-house, the Soldiers and Sailors Monumental Building, containing a large auditorium, the Masonic and Oddfellows' temples, the Market building, containing city offices, a National Guard armoury, the John McIntire public library, the John McIntire Children's Home (1880), the Helen Purcell home for women, the county infirmary, the Bethesda Hospital (1890), and the Good Samaritan hospital (1902; under the Franciscan Sisters). The John McIntire public library (about 20,000 volumes) is a consolidation of the Zanesville Athenacum (1827) and the Eunice Buckingham library of the former Putnam Female Seminary (1835) here; Andrew Carnegie contributed $50,000 for the erection of the present building. John McIntire (1759-1815), one of the early settlers, provided by will for the maintenance of a school for poor children, and such a school was maintained from 1836 to 1856, when it was transferred to the city school system, annual contributions being made from the fund for poor children; later the McIntire Home was founded, and in 1902 donations to the city school system were discontinued and the entire revenues of the estate devoted to the maintenance of the Home, which is a model of its kind. Zanesville is an important centre for the
manufacture of art and domestic pottery, plain and ornamental tile, building and paving bricks, and other clay products. In 1905 it ranked sixth among the cities of the country in the amount of pottery produced, and third in the degree of the specialization of that industry. In 1905 the value of all factory products was $7,047,637, of which $1,144,834 (16.2 per cent) represented pottery, terra-cotta, and fireclay products.

Zanesville was first settled in 1800 by Ebenezer Zane (1747–1811) of Wheeling, Virginia (see Zane), and his brother Jonathan, who was also a veteran of the Revolution. Jonathan Zane and McIntire selected the land at the point where the new road crossed the Muskingum river. The settlement was first called Westbourne and later was named Zanesville; a post office was established in 1802. Zanesville became the county-seat upon the creation of Muskingum county in 1804, was the capital of the state from 1810 to 1812, was incorporated as a town in 1814, and was chartered as a city in 1830.

ZANGWILL—ZANY

ZANGWILL, Israel (1864– ), Jewish man of letters, was born in London on the 14th of February 1864. His early childhood was spent in Plymouth and at Bristol, where he received his first schooling. He was in his ninth year when his parents settled in Spitalfields, and he entered the Jews' Free School, where eventually he became a teacher. Concurrently with his teaching work he took his degree with honours at London University. He had already written a fantastic tale entitled The Premier and the Painter in collaboration with Louis Cowen, whom he then shared a room with and taught as a teacher along with the school managers and ventured into journalism. He founded and edited Ariel, The London Puck, and did much miscellaneous work on the London press. He made his literary reputation with a novel, The Children of the Ghetto (1892), which was followed by Ghetto Tragedies (1893); The Master (1893); Dreamers of the Ghetto (1898); The Mantle of Elijah (1901); and other tales and novels of great interest dealing with Jewish life. Children of the Ghetto was produced in a play in New York with success in 1899, and has since been extensively played both in English and Yiddish. Others of his plays are: Merely Mary Ann, played at the Duke of York's theatre; and The Serio-Comic Governor; Nurse Marjorie; and The Melting Pot, all produced in New York. Mr Zangwill was the founder of the International Jewish Territorial Organization (see Zionism).

ZANTE (anc. Zanciuthus), an island of Greece, one of the Ionian group, in the Ionian Sea, in 37° 40' N. lat. and 21° E. long., is 25 m. long, about 12,500 m. wide, and has an area of 277 sq. m., and a population in 1907 of 42,502. Zante lies 8 m. S. of Cephalonia, forming with it, Leucas and Ithaca a crescent-shaped insular group, which represents the crests of a submerged limestone ridge facing the Gulf of Patras. Zante is of somewhat irregular oval shape, with its main axis disposed in the direction from north-west to south-east, and indented by a deep inlet at its southern extremity. The surface is mainly occupied by an extensive and highly productive central plain, skirted on the west side by a range of bare limestone hills from 1000 to 1200 ft. high, which fall gently landwards, but present bold steep cliffs towards the sea, and which culminate northwards in Mount Skopos, the ancient Elatos (1600 ft.), the highest point in the island. On the east side the plain is also limited by a low ridge, which still justifies the epithet of 'Phocis' ever attached by Virgil to Zante's bay. These hills are densely clothed to their summits with an exuberant growth of olives, figs, myrtles, laurels, oranges, aloes, vines and other sub-tropical plants. The central plain is highly cultivated, forming an almost continuous stretch of gardens and vineyards, varied here and there with a few patches of cornfields and pasture lands. Here is grown a peculiar dwarf grape, whose fruit, the currant from Corinth of commerce, forms the chief resource and staple export of Zante, as well as of the neighbouring mainland. The vine, which grows to a height of 3 ft., begins to yield in seven years and lasts for over a century. From the grape, which has a pleasant bitter-sweet taste, a wine is also extracted, which is said to excel all others in flavour, fire and strength. Besides this species, there are nearly forty different kinds of vine and ten of the olive, including the karou-dolia, which yields the best edible olive berry. For size, vigorous growth and productiveness the olive tree of Zante is rivalled only by that of Corfu.

The island enjoys a healthy climate; and, although there are no mountains sufficiently high to yield an abundant supply of good water, it is obtained from the numerous springs, occurring especially in the eastern and central districts. But earthquakes are frequent and at times disastrous. During recent times the most destructive were those of 1811, 1820, 1840 and 1853; and, although the prevailing geological formations are sedimentary, chiefly calcareous, there seems no doubt that these disturbances are of igneous origin. Other indications of volcanic agency are the oil springs occurring on the coast, and even in the bed of the sea near Cape Skinari on the north side, and especially the famous pitch or bituminous wells already mentioned by Herodotus, 2. 94, 18. They have been productive throughout the historic period and still yield a considerable supply of pitch. They are situated in a swamp near the coast village of Chieri, and comprise two basins, with alternate layers of water and bitumen, the lower sheet of water apparently communicating with the sea.

Zante, capital of the island, is a considerable seaport on the east side, with a population in 1907 of 13,501. It occupies the site of the ancient city of Zacynthus, said to have been founded by Zacynthus, son of a legendary Arcadian chief, Dardanus, to whom the island was also attributed by Homer. The name was first bestowed on the island by Philip V. of Macedon. But this of, as well as of the temple of Artemis that formerly crowned Mount Skopos, no vestiges can now be discovered.

Traditionally the island formed part of the territory of Ulysses, king of Ithaca. It was peopled in ancient times by settlers variously represented as coming from Achaea or Arcadia. It figures occasionally in history as a base for belligerents in the Ionian Sea. Thus during the Peloponnesian War it served as a naval station for the Athenians, who again in 374 B.C. endeavoured to acquire it for a similar purpose; in 357 it became the headquarters of Dion on his expedition against Syracuse (357); in 354 it was seized by Philip V. of Macedon. The Romans captured it in 211, but restored it temporarily to Philip; in 191, wishing to keep it out of the hands of ambitious Greek powers, they definitely annexed it. In 86 it was raided by Mithridates' admirals Archelaus during a short foray into Ionian waters. Under the Roman Empire Zante was included in the province of Epirus. In the 11th century it passed to the Norman kings of Sicily; after the Fourth Crusade it belonged at various times to the despots of Epirus, the emperors of Constantinople, and the Orsini, counts of Cephalonia. After remaining from 1357 to 1482 in the hands of the Tocco family, it became a Venetian possession. In 1797 it was ceded to France, and after a short occupation by the Russians it was brought under British protection; in 1864 it was ceded with the other Ionian islands to the Greek kingdom.

The long Venetian occupation is reflected in the appearance, character, and to some extent even the language and religion of the Zantiots. Nearly all the aristocracy claim Venetian descent; most of the upper classes are bilingual, speaking both Greek and Italian; and a considerable section of the population are Roman Catholics of the Latin rite. Even the bulk of the people, although mainly of Greek stock, form in their social usages a connecting link between the Hellenes, whose language they speak, and the Western nations by whom they were so long ruled.

See B. Schmidt, Die Insel Zakynthos (Freiburg, 1899); B. V. Head, Historia Numorum (Oxford, 1887), pp. 359–60.

ZANY, a fool or silly person. The word came into English in the 16th century from Ital. Zano, mod. Zanni, an abbreviation of the name Giovanni (John). This familiar form of the name was given by Italians to a special type of clown or buffoon who acted as an attendant or follower of the regular
ZANZIBAR, a sultanate and British protectorate of East Africa. The sultanate, formerly of much larger extent (see below, History), was reduced in 1890 to the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, some adjacent islets, the nominal sovereignty of the coast line—for ten miles inland—of the protectorate of British East Africa (q.v.), and the possession, also nominal, of five ports on the Benadir coast, leased to Italy. (In 1905 the sultan of Zanzibar sold his sovereign rights to these ports to Italy. See SOMALIAND: § Italian.) The islands of Pemba and Zanzibar have a collective area of 1920 sq. m. and an estimated population (1905) of 300,000.

Topography, &c.—The political and commercial, as well as the geographical, centre of the state is the fertile and densely peopled island of Zanzibar, which lies at a mean distance of 20 m. from the mainland, between 5° 40' and 6° 30' S. Pemba (q.v.) to the north and the more distant Mafia (to the south) form with the perch and gilchrist an independent geological system, resting on a foundation of coralline reefs, and constituting a sort of outer coast-line, which almost everywhere presents a rocky barrier to the Indian Ocean. All through its length is separated from the mainland by several tolerable natural harbours, used only by Arab dhows, the port of Zanzibar suffering for the general trade. The forests which formerly covered the island have largely disappeared; the eastern half is now only covered with low scrub. The western part is noted for the luxuriance and variety of its flora, notwithstanding the absence of timber. Among fruit-trees the coco-nut palm is conspicuous. Each tree yields 10 or 15 bunches a year of the valuable nuts. In groves of these trees, elsewhere the palms grow indiscriminately among other trees, which include the mangrove (in swampy districts), lemons, soursop, and sugarcane, bread fruit, papaw, pomegranate, tamarind, the orange and mango trees. The two last-named and plantains and bananas are abundant. The mango trees attain a great size. Many of the fruit-trees and plants have been introduced from India and Malayasia, such as the mangoes, guava, durian, cinnamon, nutmeg and cloves, all of which thrive well. The soil seems specially suited for the clove, which, although nearly destroyed by a terrible cyclone in 1872, is completely recovered from the effects of the destruction.

Although the fauna is almost exclusively continental, Zanzibar till recently possessed a distinct variety of monkey (Colobus kirkii), which is as noted for its habits as the native is noted for his. Although the islands are never visited, the cattle and sheep are mainly of the Bantu-speaking inhabitance, and the number of these groups are noted as good fishermen, cattle raisers, and skilled artisans. In the west, and especially in the capital (for which, see below), the population is of an extremely heterogeneous character, including full-blood and half-caste Arabs, Goanese, Parsees, Hindus, Comoro Islanders, Swahili (q.v.) of every shade, and representatives of tribes from all parts of East Africa. The Arabs number about 7000; Asiatics (mostly British Indians), 20,000; whites (chiefly British), 250. Besides the port of Zanzibar there are no large towns. Chuka is a pleasant health resort on the eastern shore facing the Indian Ocean.

Production.—Clove and copra are the chief products of the island. There are also extensive chilli and rubber plantations. The muhogo (cassava), the tobacco plant and vanilla are cultivated on a smaller scale; experiments in cotton-growing proved unsuccessful. The shambas (plantations) are mostly the property of Arabs. The labourers are chiefly Swahilis, and were formerly slaves. The labour available at harvest time is often inadequate, and year after year a large proportion of the clove crop has remained unpicked. As its prosperity depended much more on its transit trade (Zanzibar being the entrepot for all the East African ports as far south as the Zambezi) than on its agriculture the latter at one time was neglected; but when in the early years of the 20th century the competition of Mombasa and Dar-es-Salaam was felt, efforts were made to increase the number and productivity of the crops and also to decrease costs by providing better means of transport. Good roads were made by the government, and an American company built a 3-ft. gauge railway from Zanzibar town to the north of the island, where are the chief plantations. Rice is imported in large quantities from Rangoon and Bombay. Besides rice, cassava, grown on the island, and fish (which is caught on the coral reefs) are the principal articles of food. The coconut pigeon pea (cajanua Indica) is commonly grown, and the Wahadimu and Watumbata cultivate the betel-nut creeper.

Revenue and Currency.—Custom duties are the chief source of revenue. Other sources are registration and market fees, hut tax (one dollar per hut) on government ground, post office receipts, &c., and the produce of crown shambas. A sum of $17,000 a year is paid to the British government in respect of the German East African sultanate, for the right to administer the mainland portion of the sultanate; the Zanzibar government also receives some $10,000 a year interest on the purchase money paid by Germany and Italy for the part of Zanzibar territory acquired by those Powers. In 1909 the revenue was $123,000 and the expenditure $131,000. In 1902 the sultan, on the advice of the British government, appointed a financial adviser, under whose care the finances steadily improved. In 1906 the customs revenue amounted to $125,000, and the expenditure to $104,000. In 1907 the fiscal year there was a public debt of $88,000. The principal items of expenditure come under the heads of administration, public works, civil list and military police.

The coinage system is somewhat complicated. The Maria Theresa dollar (equalling approximately 3s. 9d.) is used as a standard of value in price quotations, but the coin is not in circulation. The Indian rupee is in universal currency and the British sovereign is legal tender at the fixed rate of 15 rupees to £1. The division of the rupee into annas and pice was abolished in 1908 and the anna was afterwards discontinued. The government issued notes of 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 rupees. British weights and measures are used in wholesale transactions, with the exception of the frassil, which equals 35 lb. avoirdupois.

Religion.—Mahomedanism is the dominant religion. Most of the inhabitants are Sunnis of the Shafi school, but the sultan and his relatives are schismatics of the Izaahni sect. There are several Protestant and Roman Catholic missions with branches on the mainland. These missions maintain schools. The government supports kuttabs in which elementary education is given in Arabic and the vernacular, and more advanced schools in which English, geography and arithmetic are taught. In December 1892 the sultan delegated to the British agent and consul-general his right to try all cases in which a British subject is plaintiff or accused, and the defendant or accused is a Zanzibar subject. The British court also tries all cases in which Europeans (and Americans) are concerned, the consular jurisdiction exercised by other Powers having been finally abolished in 1907. Cases between natives are tried by Moslem tribunals. There is a military police force under a British officer.

History.—From the earliest times of which there is any record the African seaboard from the Red Sea to an unknown point to the southward was under the influence and control of the Arab empire, and the Arabic language was generally understood. At a later period the coast towns were founded or conquered by Persian and Arab Mahomedans who, for the most part, fled to East Africa between the 8th and 11th centuries on account of the religious differences of the times, the refugees being schismatics. Various small states thus grew up along the coast, Mombasa seeming to be the most important. These states are sometimes spoken of as the Zenj empire, though they were never, probably, united under one ruler. Kilwa (q.v.) was regarded as the capital of the "empire." The

professional clown on the stage and made clumsy and ludicrous attempts to mimic his performance.
seaboard itself took the name of Zanquebar (corrupted to Zanzibar by the Banyan traders), the Balid ez-Zenj, or "Land of the Zenj" of the Arabs, a term which corresponds to the Hindu-bar, or "land of the Hindu," formerly applied to the west coast of India. By Ibn Batuta, who visited the coast in 1328, and other Arab writers the Zenj people are referred to in a general way as Mahomedan negroes, and they are the towns still represented by the semi-civilized Mahommedan Rais of Benga, now collectively known as the Swahili or "coast people," and in whose veins is a large admixture of Asiatic blood. The Zenj "empire" began to decline soon after the appearance of the Portuguese in East African waters at the close of the 15th century. To them fell in rapid succession the great cities of Kilwa with its 300 mosques (1503), Mombasa the "Magnificent" (1505), and soon after Malindi and Mokudisho the "Immens" (Ibn Batuta). The Portuguese rule was troubled by many revolts, and towards the end of the 16th century the chief cities were ravaged by the Turks, who came by sea, and by Bar Zimba, a fierce negro tribe, who came overland from south of the Zambezi. On the ruins of the Portuguese power in the 17th century was built up that of the Imams of Muscat. Over their African dominions the Imams placed-Isl or viceroys, who in time became independent of their overlords. In Mombasa power passed into the hands of the Mazrui family. The island of Zanzibar, conquered by the Portuguese in 1503-8, was occupied by the Arabs in 1539, and in 1852 the town of Zanzibar, then a place of no note, was made the capital of his dominions by Sayyid Sulaiman, who rested the separate dominions formerly owning allegiance to the Imams, Mombasa being taken by treachery in 1837. On the death of Said in 1856 his dominions were divided between his two sons, the African section falling to Majid, who was succeeded in 1870 by his younger brother Bargash ibn Said, commonly known as sultan of Zanzibar. Bargash witnessed the dismemberment of his dominions by Great Britain, Germany and Italy (see Africa, § 5), and in March 1885 left to his successor, Sayyid Khalifa, a mere fragment of the territories over which he had once ruled. The Sayyids Majid and Bargash acted largely under the influence of Sir John Kirk (q.v.), who from 1860 to 1875 was consular representative of Great Britain at Zanzibar. By Sir John's efforts a treaty for the suppression of the slave trade throughout the sultanate had been concluded in 1873.

In the negotiations between the Powers for the partition of Africa the supremacy of British interests in the island was acknowledged by Germany, Italy and France, thus rendering a treaty made in 1862 between France and Great Britain recognizing the "independence" of Zanzibar of no effect. On the 4th of November 1890 the sultanate was proclaimed a British protectorate, and the submission of the town of Zanzibar was acknowledged by Great Britain on her part ceded Heligoland to Germany and renounced all claims to Madagascar in favour of France. Sultan (Sayyid) Ali, who had succeeded his brother Sayyid Khalifa in February 1890, in August following issued a decree which resulted in the liberation of large numbers of slaves. Sayyid Ali was succeeded in March 1893 by Hamed bin Thain, on whose death in August 1896 his cousin, Sayyid Khalid, proclaimed himself sultan, and seized the palace. The British government disapproved, and to compel Khalid's submission the palace was bombarded by the British steamer, which rested the town of Zanzibar, was removed to the mainland, and Hamed bin Mahommed, brother of Hamed bin Thain, was installed sultan by the British representative (27th of August 1896). The government was reconstituted under British auspices in October 1891, when Sir Lloyd Mathews* was appointed prime minister, and the

1 By the Zanzibar Order in Council, 1906, the protectorate of Zanzibar was limited to the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, including the territorial waters thereof and any islets within those waters.

2 Sir Lloyd Mathews (1850-1901) was a British naval officer. He served in Ashanti 1873-74 and went to Zanzibar in 1875 as lieutenant on a ship engaged in the suppression of the slave trade. In 1877 he was selected to command the military force being raised by Sayyid Bargash and thereafter devoted his services entirely to the Zanzibar government. He was made a K.C.M.G. in 1894.
ZAPAROS—ZARHÓN

Submarine cables connect Zanzibar with all parts of the world, whilst lines of steamships from Europe and India make it a regular port of call. It was not, however, until 1910 that direct steamship communication with London was established. The average annual value of the external trade for the five years 1902–6 was: imports, £1,075,580; exports, £1,084,724. In 1907 the imports were valued at £1,232,057, the exports at £1,070,067. The figures for 1908 were: imports, £960,841; exports, £977,628. Many of the imports of the British merchants have been cottons, and the export of copra, sent to the United Kingdom; India, however, has a larger trade with Zanzibar than any other country. From it are imported food stuffs (rice, grain, flour, ghee, groceries) and piece goods. The copra is sent almost exclusively to Marseilles. The most valuable articles of import are piece goods and rice. The piece goods come chiefly from the United Kingdom, India, America and the Netherlands, the rice entirely from India. Other imports of value are building materials, coal, petroleum and sugar.

The trade of Zanzibar is indicative of the commercial importance of the city. Its geographical position has made it the key of East Africa from Cape Guardafui to Delagoa Bay. "When you play on the flute at Zanzibar" (says an Arab proverb) "all Africa as far as the lakes dance." From the time (1832) when Seyyid Said of Muscat fixed on the town as the capital of his empire, Zanzibar became the centre of the trade between the African continent, India, Arabia and the Persian Gulf, as well as Madagascar and the Mauritius. It also speedily obtained a large trade with Europe and America. The Americans were the first among white merchants to realize the possibilities of the port, and a United States consulate was established as early as 1836. The name Merikani, applied to cotton goods and blankets on the east coast, is a testimony to the enterprise of the American trader. Zanzibar is to a greater degree than any other city the capital of negro Africa; made so, however, not by the negroes but by Arab conquerors and traders. The aspect of the city has changed since the establishment of the British protectorate, the suppression of the slave market and of slavery itself, and the enforcement of sanitation; but Professor Henry Drummond in Tropical Africa sketched the characteristics of Zanzibar in pre-protectorate days when he wrote of it as a "cesspool of wickedness Oriental in its appearance, Mahomedan in its religion, Arabian in its morals...a fit capital for the Dark Continent." Nevertheless Zanzibar in those days was the focus of all exploring and missionary work for the interior, the portal through which civilizing influences penetrated into the eastern section of equatorial Africa. The growth of the British and German protectorates on the neighbouring shores led in the early years of the 20th century to considerable trade which had hitherto gone through Zanzibar being diverted to Mombasa and Dar-es-Salaam, but Zanzibar maintains its supremacy as the great distributing centre for the eastern seaboard.

ZAPAROS, a tribe or group of tribes of South American Indians of the river Napo. They occupy some 12,000 sq. m. between the Napo and the Pastaza. Their only industries are hammock plaiting and fishing-net weaving. Polygamy is general. They wear a long skirt of bark fibre.

ZARA (Serbo-Croatian Zadar), the capital of Dalmatia, Austria-Hungary. The town proper lies on a height 32 m. S.E. of Trieste, and opposite the islands of Ugljan and Pasman, from which it is separated by the narrow Channel of Zara. It is the meeting-place of the provincial diet, and the seat of a Roman Catholic archbishop and an Orthodox bishop. The promontory on which it stands is separated from the mainland by a deep moat, practically making an island of the city. In 1873 the ramparts of Zara were converted into elevated promenades commanding extensive views to seaward and to landward. Of its four old gates one, the Porta Marina, incorporates the relics of a Roman arch, and another, the Porta di Terraferma, was designed in the 16th century by the Veronese artist Sannichelli. The chief interest of Zara lies in its churches, the most remarkable of which is the cathedral of St Anastasia, a fine Romanesque basilica, built between 1202 and 1205. The churches of St Chrysogonus and St Simeon are also in the Romanesque style, and St Mary's retains a fine Romanesque campanile of 1015. The round church of St Donatus, traditionally but erroneously said to have been erected in the 9th century on the site of a temple of Juno, is used for secular purposes. The church treasuries contain some of the choicest Byzantine and Arab manuscripts. The art of the 14th century, with the exception of copra, are sent to the United Kingdom; India, however, has a larger trade with Zanzibar than any other country. From it are imported food stuffs (rice, grain, flour, ghee, groceries) and piece goods. The copra is sent almost exclusively to Marseilles. The most valuable articles of import are piece goods and rice. The piece goods come chiefly from the United Kingdom, India, America and the Netherlands, the rice entirely from India. Other imports of value are building materials, coal, petroleum and sugar.

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ZARILLO Y ALCARAZ, FRANCISCO (1707–1781), Spanish sculptor, was born in Murcia on the 12th of May 1707. At the age of twenty he completed the statue of St Ines of Montepulciano, which had been begun for the Dominicans at Murcia by his father. On the death of the latter the care of the family fell upon Francisco, who with the help of his brothers and sisters organized a workshop. In 1765 he also founded a small academy, which, however, was speedily dissolved owing to disunion among the members. In the Ermita de Jesús in Murcia may be seen Zarillo's scenes from the Passion of Our Lord, a vast work in which all the sculptor's qualities and defects are revealed. In the church of St Miguel are an Immaculate Conception and a St Francis. Mention should also be made of the Christ at the Well in the church of Santa María delas Gracias in Murcia, and of the sculptures in San Pedro and in the Capucine monastery in Murcia. Zarillo worked in wood, which was coloured. The ascription of the stone sculptures on the façade of the St Nicolás Church in Murcia to him rests on conjecture. He died at Murcia in 1781.

See B. Haendelc, Studien zur Geschichte der spanischen Plastik (Strassburg, 1900).

ZARHÓN, a mountain in Morocco, 93 m. N. of Mequinez, on whose hillside is the town Mulai Idris Zarhón, so called after Mulai Idris I., the founder of the Moorish empire, who was buried there in A.D. 791. The whole town is considered as a sanctuary, pays no taxes, provides no soldiers and is never visited save by Mahomedans. Near the town are the ruins
of Volubilis—Kasar Fara'on or Pharaoh's Castle, once the Roman capital, and the first home of Idris.

ZARIA, a province of the British protectorate of Northern Nigeria. It lies approximately between 5° 30' and 8° 30' E. and 0° 20' and 11° 30' N. It has an area of 22,000 sq. m. and an estimated population of about 250,000. The province, of which a great portion consists of open rolling plains, is watered by the Kaduna affluent of the Niger and its many tributaries, and is generally healthy and suitable for cultivation. The chief towns are Zaria, the capital of the emirate, 87 m. S.W. of Kano, and Zungeru, the headquarters of the British administration for the whole of Northern Nigeria. The British station at Zaria town, with an elevation of 2150 ft., has so far proved the healthiest and most agreeable point of occupation in the protectorate. The climate here for a great portion of the year is bracing, and in the cold season there is frost at night.

The British capital at Zungeru, in the south-western corner of the province, less fortunate than Zaria, has only an elevation of about 450 ft. above the sea. The climate, though better than that of Kokoja, is still relaxing and trying for Europeans. The site of Zungeru, 6° 40' E. 9° 38' 32" N., was selected in 1901. By the summer of 1902 brick houses for the public departments, a residency, a hospital, barracks and a certain number of houses for the civilian staff had been erected, and the town is now a flourishing settlement, having all the appearance of an English suburban town with shaded avenues and public gardens clustering on either side of the river Dago, over which several bridges have been thrown.

Zaria is not a great grain-producing province. Its principal crop is millet, and the surplus is available for purposes of trade, and among the Mahommadan population there is a growing demand for cloth, agricultural and culinary implements, Birmingham goods, soap, oil, sugar and European provisions. The construction of roads, telegraphs and other public works consequent upon the British occupation of the province makes somewhat heavy calls upon the local labour supply and accentuates to some of the large landowners the inconvenience resulting from the abolition of the slave trade, but the practice of owning domestic slaves is not forbidden, and it is the policy of the administration to render the transition from slave labour to freedom as gradual as possible.

The ancient state of Zaria, also called Zeg-Zeg by the geographers and historians of the middle ages, was one of the original seven Hausa states. It suffered all the fluctuations of Hausa history, and in the 13th and early 14th centuries seems to have been the dominating state of Hausaland. At later periods it underwent many conquests and submitted in turn to Kano, Songhol and Bornu. At the end of the 18th century it was an independent state living under its own Mahommadan rulers; but, like the rest of northern Hausaland, it was conquered in the opening years of the 19th century by the emisaries of the Fula Dan Fodio. It remained a Fulani emirate paying allegiance to Sokoto up to the period of the British occupation of Nigeria, January 1900. Early in 1900 a British garrison was placed at Wushishi, a town in the south-western corner of the emirate which marks the limit of navigation of the Kaduna river. The emir of Zaria professed friendship to the British, and at his own request British troops were quartered at his capital, in order to protect him from the threatened attacks of Kontagora. In March 1902 the province was taken under British administrative control throughout that year it was found that, notwithstanding his friendly professions, the emir of Zaria was intriguing with Kano and Sokoto, and then openly hostile to Great Britain, while at the same time he continued, contrary to his undertaking in return for British protection, to raid for slaves and to perpetrate acts of brutal tyranny and oppression. He was deposed in the autumn of 1902, and after the Sokoto-Kano campaign of 1903, which assured the supremacy of Great Britain in the protectorate, another emir was appointed to Zaria. The new emir, Dauda Sali, an ally of Kano, paid obedience to the British crown and accepted his appointment on the conditions required of all the Nigerian native rulers.

The province has been organized for administration on the same system as the rest of the protectorate. It has been divided into four administrative districts, each under a British assistant resident. A good cart road suitable for wheeled traffic has been constructed between Zungeru and Zaria, and the Kaduna has been handsomely bridged at a point near Wushishi, which is the meeting-point of main caravan roads, and whence there is at certain seasons of the year uninterrupted water carriage to the mouth of the Niger. The development of trade was further facilitated in the early days of the British occupation by the building of a light railway from Barijuko, a point on the Kaduna river below Wushishi, to Zungeru. This line was superseded by the construction, in 1907-1909, of a 3 ft. 6 in. railway from Baro, a port on the lower Niger, to Zungeru, whence the line was continued to Zaria.

The taxation scheme introduced by the British administration works satisfactorily, and the revenue shows a regular surplus, the entire income being distributed fairly among the inhabitants. The district courts of justice have been established (E. L. L.)

ZARLINO, GIOSEFFO (1517-1590), Italian musical theorist, surnamed from his birthplace ZARLINO CODENSIUS, was born at Chioiggia, Venice, in 1517 (not 1540, as Burney and Hawkins say). Studying in his youth for the Church, he was admitted to the minor orders in 1539 and ordained deacon in 1541 at Venice; but he soon devoted himself entirely to the study of music under the guidance of Adrian Willaert, then choirmaster at St Mark's. Willaert, dying in 1562, was succeeded by Cipriano di Rore, on whose removal to Parma in 1565 Zarlino was elected choirmaster. Though now remembered chiefly for invaluable contributions to the theory of music, it is evident that he must have been famous both as a practical musician and as a composer; for, notwithstanding the limited number of his printed works, consisting of a volume entitled Modulazioni Sex Vocum (Venice, 1566), and a few motets and madrigals scattered through the collections of Scotto and other contemporary publishers, he both produced and superintended the public performance of some important pieces in the service of the republic. First among these was the music written to celebrate the battle of Lepanto (on the 7th of October 1571). Again, when Henry III. of France passed through Venice on his return from Poland in 1574, Zarlino directed on board the "Bucentaur" the performance of an ode for which he himself had composed the music, to verses supplied by Rocco Benedetti and Cornelio Frangipani. The ode was followed by a solemn service in St Mark's, in which Zarlino's music formed a prominent feature, and the festival concluded with the representation of a dramatic piece entitled Orfeo composed by Zarlino. When the church was in the hands of the Jesuits, with the permission of the plague, he composed a solemn mass for the occasion. No one of these works is now known to be in existence; the only
example we possess of Zarlino’s compositions on a grand scale is a MS. for four voices, in the library of the Philharmonic Lyceum at Bologna. He died at Venice on the 14th, or some time the 4th, of February 1590.

Zarlino’s first theoretical work was the *Istitutioni Armoniche* (Venice, 1558; reprinted 1562 and 1573). This was followed by the *Dimostrazioni Armoniche* (Venice, 1571; reprinted 1573) and the *Discorso Intorno alle Opere di Messer Gioseffe Zarlino* (Venice, 1587), which was the last work he published before his death. Zarlino also reprinted three treatises, accompanied by a *Tract on Patience*, a *Discourse on the True Date of the Crucifixion of Our Lord*, an *essay on the correct division of Solfège* Concerning the Correction of the Julian Calendar (Venice, 1590). 1

The *Istitutioni* and *Dimostrazioni Armoniche* deal, like most other theoretical works of the period, with the whole science of music as it was understood by the earlier composers. Zarlino was chiefly interested in the foundations of the science, differing but little in their line of argument from the principles laid down by Pietro Aron, Zacconi, and the other early writers of the Boerit school; but in bk. ii. of the *Istitutioni* Zarlino boldly attacks the false system of tonality to which the proportions of the Pythagorean tetrachord, if strictly carried out in practice, must inevitably lead. The fact that, so far as can now be ascertained, they were never strictly carried out in the Italian medieval schools, at least after the invention of counterpoint, in no wise diminishes the theoretical strength of the argument, and the inevitable results which must follow from the use of the tetrachord in the harmonic system, are to be found both in the monophonic and the polyphonic. Zarlino was, in addition, one of the most redoubtable champions of the monodic style, and this is no more observable than in the book of *Istitutioni*.

Discorso Intorno alle Opere di Messer Gioseffe Zarlino, and followed it up in his famous *Dialogo*, defending the Pythagorean system in very unmeasured language. It was in answer to these strictures that Zarlino published his *Supplementi*.

ZARZNEK, FRIEDRICH KARL THEODOR (1825-1891), German philologist, was born on the 7th of July 1825 at Zahrenstorf, near Briel, in Mecklenburg, the son of a country pastor. He was educated at the Rostock gymnasium in 1837-1841; studied (1844-1847) at the universities of Rostock, Leipzig and Berlin. In 1848 he was employed in arranging the valuable library of Old German literature of Freiherr Karl Hartwig von Meuschach (1781-1847), and superintending its removal from Baumgartenbrück, near Potsdam, to the Royal Library at Berlin. In 1850 he founded at Leipzig the *Literarischen Centralblatt für Deutschland*. In 1852 he established himself as Privatdozent at the university of Leipzig, and published an excellent edition of Sebastian Brant’s *Narrenschiff* (1854), a treatise *Zur Nibelungenfrage* (1854), followed by an edition of the *Nibelungenlied* (1856, 12th ed. 1882), and Beiträge zur Erläuterung Geschichte des Nibelungenliedes (1857). In 1858 he was appointed full professor, and commenced a series of noteworthy studies on medieval literature, most of which were published in the reports (Berichte) of the Saxon Society of Sciences. Among them were that on the old Hihi German poem *Muspilli* (1860); *Gesang vom heiligen Georg* (1874); the legend of the *Priester Johannes* (1874); *Der Grollempel* (1876), and the *Annalied* (1887). He also wrote a valuable treatise on Christian *Kultur* and the development of German literature, *Die Entwicklung* (1871) and *Die deutschen historischen Werke* (1871). He was particularly devoted to the history of Leipzig university, *Die urkundlichen Quellen zur Geschichte der Universität Leipzig* (1857) and *Die deutschen Universitäten im Mittelalter* (1857). Two volumes of his Kleine Schriften appeared in 1897.

*See Zur Erinnerung an den Heimzug von Dr Friedrich Zarncke (1891); Franz Vogt in Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie; Eduard Sievers in Berliner Beiträge zur Althochdeutscherwissenschaft (1885); and E. Sievers in Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie.*

ZEALAND (also Sealant or Sealand; Danish *Sjælland*), the largest island of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded N. by the Cattegat, E. by the Sound, separating it from Sweden, and the Baltic Sea, S. by narrow straits separating it from Falster, Møen, and smaller islands, and W. by the Great Belt, separating it from Fyn. Its nearer point to Sweden is 3 m., to Fyn 11. Its greatest extent from N. to S. is 82 m., from E. to W. 68 m., but the outline is very irregular. The area is 1690 sq. m. The surface is for the most part barren, but on the southern and eastern coasts the highest elevations are in the southeast, where Cetacraus hill (the oldest geological formation on the island) reach heights of upwards of 350 ft. The coast is indented by numerous deep bays and fjords; the Lise Fjord in the north, with its branches the Roskilde Fjord on the east and the Lamme Fjord on the west, penetrates inland for about 25 m. There are no rivers of importance; but several large lakes, the most considerable being Arre and Esrum, occur in the north-east. The soil is fertile and produces grain, especially rye and barley, in great abundance, as well as potatoes and other vegetables, and fruit. The scenery, especially in the neighbourhood of the fjords, is pleasant, lacking the barrenness of some portions of the kingdom.

Zealand is divided into five amter (counties). (1) Frederiksborg, in the north, named from the palace of Frederiksborg. In the north-east, where the coast approaches most nearly to Sweden, is Roskilde or Eslerslev. (2) Kjøbenhavns, south of Frederiksborg. The capital is that of the kingdom, Copenhagen (Kjøbenhavns). The only other town of importance is the old cathedral city of Roskilde on the fjord of that name. Off the little port of Kjøge in the eastern part of the island is the Roskilde Fjord. (3) Hovedøerne, and in another engagement in 1710 the famous Danish commander Hvitfeldt sank with his ship. (4) Holbæk, west of Kjøbenhavns. The chief town, Holbæk, lies on an arm of the Lise Fjord. In the north is a port of Hvidovre, Kjøbenhavn, with large shipping, and by steamer with Aarhus in Jutland. It has a singular Romanesque church of the 12th century. The district is diversified with small islands, the most prominent of which are the Lolland, in the centre of the island. The chief town, Søllerød, lies among woods on the small Soro lake. It was formerly the seat of a university, and remains an important educational centre. Its church, of the
12th century, contains the tombs of the poet Holberg (d. 1754) and of some of the Danish kings. Slagelse in the west, an agricultural centre, is an ancient town dating back to the 12th century. Here Hans Christian Andersen, the poet, received part of his education. Korsør is an important seaport; (5) Praestø, the most southerly county. The capital, Praestø, is a small port on the inner lagoon of this bay of this name, on the east coast. In the west is the ancient town of Naestved; in the south, Vordingborg, with a ruined castle and a small harbour. The railway here crosses a great bridge on to the small Masnedø, whereas there is a ferry to Ørholm on Falster island, a link in the direct route between Copenhagen and Berlin.

**ZEBRA**, the name used for all the striped members of the horse-tribe, although properly applicable only to the true or mountain zebra. The latter species (Equus zebra) inhabits the mountainous regions of the Cape Colony, where, owing to the advances of civilized man into its restricted range it has become very scarce, and is even threatened with extermination, but it exists in the form of a local race in Angola. The second species, Burchell's zebra (Equus burchelli), is represented by a large number of local races, ranging from the plains north of the Orange river to north-east Africa.

Equus zebra is the smaller of the two (about 4 ft. high at the shoulders), and has longer ears, a tail more scantily clothed with hair, and a shorter mane. The general ground colour is white, and the stripes are black; the lower part of the face is bright brown. With the exception of the abdomen and the inside of the thighs, the whole of the surface is covered with stripes, the legs having narrow transverse bars reaching quite to the hoofs, and the base of the tail being also barred. The outsides of the ears have a white tip and a broad black mark occupying the greater part of the surface, but are white at the base. Perhaps the most constant and obvious distinction between this species and the next is the arrangement of the stripes on the hinder part of the back, where there are a number of short transverse bands reaching to the median longitudinal dorsal stripe, and unconnected with the uppermost of the broad stripes which pass obliquely across the haunch from the flanks towards the root of the tail. There is often a median longitudinal stripe under the chest.

Typically, Burchell's zebra, or the bonte-zebra (Equus burchelli), is a rather larger and more robust animal, with smaller ears, a longer mane, and fuller tail. The general ground-colour of the body is pale yellowish brown, the limbs nearly white, the stripes dark brown or black. In the typical form the stripes do not extend on to the limbs or tail; but there is a great variation in this respect, and as we proceed north the striping increases, till in the north-eastern *E. burchelli granti* the legs are striped to the hoofs. There is a strongly marked median longitudinal ventral black stripe, to which the lower ends of the transverse side stripes are usually united, but the dorsal stripe (also strongly marked) is completely isolated in its posterior half, and the uppermost of the broad haunch stripes runs nearly parallel to it. A much larger proportion of the ears is white than in the other species. In the middle of the wide intervals between the broad black stripes of the flanks and haunches fainter stripes are generally seen. It is closely allied to the quagga, but the typical form, in which the resemblance is closest, is extinct. The Abyssinian and Somali Grevy's zebra (*E. grevyi*) is markedly distinguished by its enormous ears and more numerous and narrower black stripes. The flesh of Burchell's zebra (or quagga, as it is often called) is relished by the natives as food, and its hide is very valuable for leather. Although the many attempts that have been made to break in and train zebras for riding and driving have sometimes been rewarded with partial success, the animal has never been domesticated in the true sense of the word (see Horses)

**ZECHARIAH**, son of Berechiah, son of Iddo (or by contraction, son of 'Iddo), a prophet of the Old Testament. He appeared in Jerusalem along with Haggai (q.v.), in the second year of Darius Hystaspis (520 B.C.), to warn and encourage the

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1 A connexion with a divine name (cf. Baal-Zebul) is not improbable; see H. W. Hogg, Ency. Bib., art. "Zebulun."
Jews to address themselves at length to the restoration of the Temple.† Supported by the prophets, Zerubbabel and Joshua set about the work, and the elders of Judah built and the work went forward (Ezra v. 1 seq., vi. 14). The first eight chapters of the book of Zechariah exactly fit into this historical setting. They are divided by precise chronological headings into three series: (a) v. 1-6; (b) v. 7-vi. 15; on the twenty-fourth day of the eleventh month of the same year; (c) chap. vii.-viii., on the fourth day of the ninth month of the fourth year of Darius. The first section is a preface containing exhortation in general terms. The main section is the second, containing a series of night visions, the significant features of which are pointed out by an angel who stands by the prophet and answers his questions.

i. 7-17. The divine chariots and horses that make the round of the world by Yahweh's orders return to the heavenly palace and report that there is still no movement among the nations, no sign of the Messianic crisis. Seventy years have passed, and Zion and the cities of Judah still mourn. Sad news! Yahweh gives comforting assurance of His gracious return to Jerusalem and the rebuilding of His temple.

i. 18-21 (Heb. ii. 1-4). Four horns, representing the hostile world that oppresses Israel and Jerusalem, are cast down by four smiths.

ii. 1-13 (Heb. ii. 5-17). The new Jerusalem is laid out with the measuring line. It is to have no walls, that its population may not be confined to the limits set by its present boundaries; the catastrophe of "the land of the north" is near to come; then the exiles of Zion shall stream back from all quarters, the converted heathen shall dwell in the midst of them, and even now He stirs Himself from His holy habitation.

iii. 1-10. The high priest Joshua is accused before Yahweh by Satan, but is acquitted and given rule in Yahweh's house and courts, with the right of access to Yahweh in priestly intercession. The restoration of the temple and its service is a pledge of still higher things. The promised "branch" (or "shoot," "simeah"). the Messiah, will come; the national kingdom is restored in its old splendour; and a time of general deliverance dawns, when every man shall sit happy under his vine and under his fig tree. As by rights the Messianic kingdom should follow immediately on the exile, it is prophetic that Zechariah designs to hint in a guarded way that Zerubbabel, who in all other places is mentioned along with Joshua, is on the point of ascending the throne of his ancestor David. The jewel with seven facets is already there, the inscrip.

iv. 1-14. Beside a lighted candlestick of seven branches stand two olive trees—Zerubbabel and Joshua, the two anointed ones of Yahweh. The orchards of the whole earth. This explanation of the vision is separated from the description by an animated dialogue, not quite clear in its expression, in which it is said that the mountain of obstacles shall disappear before Zerubbabel, and that, having begun the building of the temple, he shall also bring it to an end in spite of those who now mock at the day of small beginnings.

v. 5-11. Guilt, personified as a woman, is cast into an ephah-measure with a heavy lid and carried from Judah to Chaldaea, where it shall be kept for the future.

vi. 1-8. The divine teams, four in number, again traverse the world toward the four winds, to execute Yahweh's commands. That which goes northward is charged to wreak His anger on the northern country. The series of visions has now reached its close, returning to its starting-point in v. 7 seq.

An appendix follows (vi. 9-15). Jews from Babylon have brought gold and silver to Jerusalem; of these the prophet must make a personal design. The house with two rooms and with a house and sitting on the throne, but retain a good understanding with the high priest. Zerubbabel is certainly here meant, and, if the revised text names Joshua instead of him (vi. 11), this is only a correction, made for reasons easy to understand, which breaks the context and destroys the sense and the reference of "them both" in verse 13.

The third section (chaps. vii.-viii.), dated from the fourth year of Darius, contains an inquiry whether the fast days that arose in the captivity are still to be observed, with a comforting and encouraging reply of the prophet.

Thus, throughout the eight chapters the scene is Jerusalem in its early part of the reign of Darius. Zerubbabel and Joshua, the prince and the priest, are the leaders of the community. The great concern of the time and the chief practical theme of these chapters is the building of the temple; but its restoration is only the earnest of greater things to follow, viz., the glorious restoration of David's kingdom. The horizon of these prophecies is everywhere limited by the narrow conditions of the time, and their aim is clearly seen. The visions hardly veil the thought, and the mode of expression is usually simple, except in the Messianic passages, where the tortuousness of a personalistry and the secrecy of the holy Eden is hinted at. The affinity between some notions evidently not first framed by the prophet himself and the prologue to Joh—the heavenly hosts that wander through the earth and bring back their report to Yahweh's throne, the figure of Satan, the idea that suffering and calamity are evidences of guilt and of accusations presented before God.

Passing from chaps. i.-vii. to chaps. ix. seq., we at once feel ourselves transported into a different world.

(1) Yahweh's word is accomplished on Syria-Phoenicia and Philistia; and then the Messianic kingdom begins in Zion, and Jerusalem is built on the foundation of Solomon's house. The former combined, receive a part in it. The might of the sons of Javan is broken in battle against this kingdom (ch. ix.). After an interlude (x. 1-6: "vision of Yahweh, not of the diviners") a second and quite analogous Messianic prophecy follows.

(2) The difficult passage about the shepherds follows. The shepherds (rulers) of the nation make their flock an article of trade and exchange it, while the sheared flock is scattered to the four winds. The inhabited world shall fall a sacrifice to the tyranny of its kings, while Israel is delivered to a shepherd who feeds the sheep for those who make a trade of the flock (Is 9:12, xii. 1- "they who sell them," ver. 5) and enters on his office with two staves, "Favour" and "Union." He destroys the three shepherds in one month, but is soon weary of his flock and the flock of him. He breaks the staff "Favour," i.e. the covenant of peace with the nations, and asks the traders for his hire. Receiving thirty pieces of silver, he casts it into the temple treasury and breaks the staff "Union," i.e. the brotherhood between Judah and Israel. He is succeeded by a foolish shepherd, who neglects his flock and lets it go to ruin. At length Yahweh intervenes; the foolish shepherd falls by the sword; two-thirds of the people perish with him in the Messianic crisis, but the remnant of one-third forms the seed of the new theocracy, with Yahweh as their King, etc. (xvi. 9-14: the necessary transposition proposed by Ewald). All this must be an allegory of past events, the time present to the author and his hopes for the future beginning only at xi. 17, xii. 7-9.

(3) Chap. xii. presents a third variation on the Messianic promise. All heathendom is gathered together against Jerusalem and perishes there. Yahweh first gives victory to the countryfolk of Judah and Babylon, who rescue the capital. After this triumph the noble houses of Jerusalem hold each by itself, a great lamentation over a martyr "whom they have pierced" (or "whom men have pierced")

The historical occasion of the emergence of Haggai and Zechariah was supplied by the series of revolts following the suc-

† The alleged foundation of the second temple in 536 (Ezra iii. 8-13; cf. iv. 1-5, 24) is open to doubt, because (a) the statements of the compiler of Ezra are not contemporary evidence, (b) the compiler's narrative goes against the rough chronology mentioned that this work first began in 520 (Hag. ii. 18; Zech. viii. 9; cf. Ezra vii. 9), on the ground of Ezra v. 16, we accept the truth of an original foundation in 536 (so Driver, Minor Prophets, p. 148), that event was probably from the lifetime of Zerubbabel and Joshua, since the beginning was made in 520. Wellhausen (I. s. und. Zed. Gesch. 3rd ed., p. 160) rejects the earlier foundation; on the other hand, he insists, with the majority of scholars and against Koster, on the actual return of exiles in 537 to form the nucleus of the post-exilic community (loc. cit., p. 157 n.).
pierced”). It is taken for granted that the readers will know who the martyr is, and the exegesis of the Church applies the passage to Christ. Chap. xiii. 1–6 is a continuation of chap. xii.; the dawn of the day of salvation is accompanied by a general purging away of idolatry and the enthusiasm of false prophets.

The prophet’s hope of the incoming of the Messianic deliverance is given in chap. xiv. The heathen gather against Jerusalem and take the city, but do not utterly destroy the inhabitants. They destroy all with all his saints on Mount Olivet and destroy the heathen in battle, while the men of Jerusalem take refuge in their terror in the great cleft, that opens where Yahweh sets His foot. Now the new era begins, and even the heathen do homage to Yahweh, and the gospel of the kingdom of heaven is preached to Gentiles. All in Jerusalem is holy down to the bells on the horses and the cooking-pots.

There is a striking contrast between chaps. i.–viii. and chaps. ix.–xiv. The former prophecy is closely linked to the situation and wants of the community of Jerusalem in the second year of Darius I., and relates to the restoration of the temple and, perhaps, the elevation of Zerubbabel to the throne of David. In chaps. ix.–xiv., however, there is nothing about the restoration of the temple, or about Joshua and Zerubbabel; but we read of the evil rulers, foreign and native alike, who maltreat their subjects, and enrich themselves at their expense. There are corresponding differences in style and speech, and it is particularly to be noted that, while the superscriptions in the first part name the author and give the date of each oracle with precision, those in the second part (ix. i., xii. i.) are without name or date. That both parts do not belong to the same author is now generally admitted, as is also the fact that chaps. ix.–xiv. are of much later date. The predictions of these chapters have no affinity either with the prophecy of Amos, Hosea and Isaiah, or with that of Jeremiah. The kind of eschatology which we find in Zech. ix.–xiv. was first introduced by Ezekiel, who in particular is the author of the conception that the time of deliverance is to be preceded by a joint attack of all nations on Jerusalem, in which they come to final overthrow (Ezek. xxxvii. seq.; Isa. lxvi. 18–24; Joel). The importance attached to the temple service, even in Messianic times (Zech. xiv.), implies an author who lived in the ideas of the religious commonwealth of post-exile times. A future king is hoped for; but in the present there is no Davidic king, only a Davidic family standing on the same level with the noble families in Jerusalem (xii. 7, 12). The “bastard” (mixed race) of Ashdod reminds us of Neh. xiii. 23 sqq.; and the words of ix. 12 (“to-day, also, do I declare that I will render double unto thee”) have no sense unless they refer back to the deliverance from Babylonian exile. But the decisive argument is that in ix. 13 the sons of Javan, i.e. the Greeks, appear as the representatives of the heathen world-power. This part of the prophecy, therefore, is later than Alexander, who overthrew the Persian empire in 333. Egypt and Assyria (x. 10, 11) must be taken to represent the Ptolemic and Seleucid kingdoms, which together made up for the Jews the empire of the sons of Javan.

The whole prophecy, however, is not a unity. By reference to the analysis given above, it will be seen that there are four sections in Zech. ix.–xiv., viz. (1) ix. i., (x. i.–3); (2) xi. 4–17, xiii. 7–9; (3) xii. 1–6; (4) xiv. iv., which are more or less independent of each other. The (3) and (4) sections are marked by a similar character, and show little contact with definite historical events except xii. 7, which suggests the Maccabean age. On the other hand (1) implies a period when the Jews were governed by the Gentiles; and (2) refers to some time in the Maccabean dash of persecution. The prophetic mode of directing revelation is a mark of the first directed (ix. 1, 2). This section, therefore, belongs to the first third of the 2nd b.c. When the Jews were first held to be a “people of the great God and the Lord of Heaven” the temple of Jerusalem was already in ruins, and the evil shepherd of xl. 15 f. may be Meneaclus, whilst the disinherited speaker may be Hecuroclus ben Tobias (cf. xiii. 13 and II. Macc. iii. 11).

Recent criticism (for further details see G. A. Smith, The Book of the Twelve Prophets, ii. pp. 450 f., and Driver, Minor Prophets, pp. 232–234) shows some difference of opinion as to the question of unity; and also of actual date within the Greek period. Whilst G. A. Smith (following Stade) and Marti find no adequate ground for the further division of Zech. ix.–xiv., Driver (following Nowack) accepts the fourfold division indicated above ("Four anonymous Prophecy", periphrastic work of four distinct Prophets, cf. p. 235). In regard to date, G. A. Smith (here also following Stade) accepts the earlier part of the Greek period (366–276). With this Driver provisionally agrees, whilst Nowack thinks no more can be said than that (1) belongs to the Greek and (2)–(4) to the post-exilic period in general. On the other hand, Marti assigns the whole to 160 b.C. (Maccabean period); a little later than Wellhausen.

Recent Literature.—Nowack, Die Kleinen Propheten (1897; ed. 2, 1903); Wellhausen, Die Kleinen Propheten,1 (1898); G. A. Smith, The Book of the Twelve Prophets (The Expositor’s Bible), vol. ii. pp. 233–238, 447–450 (1908); Marti, Die Propheten im Maccabäerzeit, ii. (1904); Driver, Minor Prophets, ii. (in The Century Bible, 1906; the most useful for the general reader). The article in Hastings’s Dictionary of the Bible (vol. iv., pp. 967–970) (1902), by Nowack, is a reproduction from his work cited above; the article in the Encyc. Bibl. by Wellhausen is a revision of his article in the 9th edition of the Encyc. Brit., and the present independent revision is in some points indebted to it. (J. W.; H. W. R.)*

ZEDEKIAH—ZEEHAN

ZEDEKIAH (Hebrew for "righteousness of Yahweh"), son of Josiah, and the last king of Judah (2 Kings xxiv. 17 seq.; 2 Chron. xxxvi. 10 seq.). Previously known as Mattaniah ("gift of Yahweh"), he was appointed king by Nebuchadrezzar after the capture of Jerusalem (597 B.C.) and his name changed to Zedekiah. He held his position under an oath of allegiance, but after three years (cf. Jehoiakim, 2 Kings xxiv. 1) began an intrigue with Moab, Edom, Ammon, Tyre and Sidon, which the prophet Jeremiah vigorously denounced (Jer. xxvii. seq.; cf. also Ezek. xvii. 11–21). It is possible that he was summoned to Babylon to explain his conduct (Jer. li. 53; the Septuagint reads "from Zedekiah"; see also xxix. 3). Nevertheless, relations were maintained with Nebuchadrezzar, as very evident from the text. The Babylonian army began to lay siege to Jerusalem in the ninth year of his reign, and a vain attempt was made by Pharaoh Hophra to cause a diversion. The headings to the prophecies in Ezek. xxix. seq. suggest that fuller details of the events were once preserved, and the narratives in Jer. xxxii.–xxxiv., xxxvii. give some account of the internal position in Jerusalem at the time. After six months a breach was made in the city, Zedekiah’s flight was cut off in the Jordan Valley and he was taken to Nebuchadrezzar at Riblah. His sons were killed, and he was blinded and put into a pit (cf. Ezek. xii. 10–14). Vengeance was taken upon Jerusalem, the city was burned, and the seventh day of the fifth month, 586 B.C., Nebuzaradan sacked the temple, destroyed the walls and houses, and deported the citizens, only the poorest peasantry of the land being left behind. See Jews (History), § 17 seq. (S. A. C.)

ZEDEKAN, a town of Montagu county, Tasmania, 225 m. direct N.W. of Hobart, on the Little Henty river. Pop. (1901) 5014. It is an important railway centre, and from it it radiates lines to Strahan, its port on the Macquarie Harbour, to Dunspaugh, to Wilmersford, and to Burnie, where connection is made to the main Queensland railway line. (R. C.)

*Hadrach, i.e. the Assyrian Hatarika, apparently denotes a district S. of Hamath (between Palmyra and the Mediterranean).

1 Wellhausen, Sketch of the History of Israel and Judah, pp. 137, 139.
Launceston and Hobart. The town is lighted by electricity and has an academy of music and a state-aided school of mines. It is the principal centre of the silver-lead mining district, and has large smelting works.

**Zeeland** (or **Zealander**), a province of Holland, bounded S.E. and S. by Belgium, W. by the North Sea, N. by South Holland, and E. by North Brabant. It has an area of 690 sq. m. and a population (1905) of 227,202. Zeeland consists of the delta islands formed about the estuaries of the Maas and Scheldt with its two arms, the Honte or Western Scheldt, and the Ooster Scheldt, together with a strip of mainland called Zeeland-Flanders. The names of the islands are Schouwen and Duiveland, St Flipsland, Tolten, North Beveland, South Beveland and Walcheren. The history of these islands is in every case one of varying loss and gain in the struggle with the sea. They were built up by the gradual accumulation of mud deposits in a shallow bay, separated by dunes from the North Sea. As late as the 12th and 13th centuries each of these islands consisted of several smaller islands, many of whose names are still preserved in the fertile *polders* which have taken their place.

Lying for the most part below sea-level, the islands are protected by a continuous line of artificial dikes, which hide them from view on the seaward side, whence only an occasional church steeple is seen. The islands of Schouwen and Duiveland are united owing to the damming of the Dykewater; St Flipsland, or Philipsland, and South Beveland are connected with the mainland of North Brabant by naturally formed mud banks.

The soil of Zeeland consists of a fertile sea clay which especially favours the production of wheat; rye, barley (for malting), beans and peas, and flax are also cultivated. Cattle and swine are reared, and dairy produce is largely exported; but the sheep of the province are small and their wool indifferent. The industries (linen, yarn-spinning, distilling, brewing, salt-refining, shipbuilding) are comparatively unimportant. The inhabitants, who retain many quaint and archaic peculiarities of manner and dress, speak the variety of Dutch known as Low Frankish.

The chief towns on the island of Schouwen are the ports of Zierikzee and Brouwershaven. On the well-wooded fringe of the dunes on the west side of the island are the two villages of Renesse and Haamstede, the seats in former days of the two powerful lordships of the same name. St Maartensdyk on the adjoining island of Tolen was formerly a seat of a lordship which belonged successively to the families of Van Borssela, Burren and Orange-Nassau. There is a monument of the Van Borssela family on the church at Tolen.

The castle built here in the first half of the 14th century was demolished in 1819. The island of South Beveland frequently suffered from inundations and experienced a particularly disastrous one in 1530. In the same century the flourishing walled town of Reimerswaal and the island of Borosse or Borosse disappeared beneath the waves; but the last-named was gradually recovered during the 17th century. This island gave its name to the powerful lordship of the same name. Goes is the chief town on South Beveland. Oyster-breeding is practised on the north coast of the island, especially at Wemeldinge and Jerske or Yerske. Jerske was once a town of importance and the seat of a lordship, while at Wemeldinge there was formerly an establishment of the Templars. In 1866 South Beveland and Walcheren were joined by a heavy railway dam, a canal being cut through the middle of the former island to restore the connexion between the East and West Scheldt. South Beveland is sometimes called the "granary" and Walcheren the "gardens" of Zeeland. The principal towns in Walcheren are Middelburg, the chief town of the province, Flushing and Veere; all three connected by a canal (1857-72) which divides the island in two. The fishing village of Arnemuiden flourished as a harbour in the 16th century, but decayed owing to the silting up of the sand. Domburg is pleasantly situated at the foot of the dunes on the west side of the island, and in modern times has become a popular but primitive watering-place. It is a very old town, having received civic rights in the 13th century, and from time to time Roman remains and other antiquities have been dug out of the sands. Between Domburg and the village of Westkapelle there stretches the famous Westkapelle sea-dike. The mainland of Zeeland-Flanders was formerly also composed of numerous islands which were gradually united by the accumulation of mud and sand, and in this way many once flourishing commercial towns, such as Sluis and Aardenburg, were reduced in importance. The famous castle of Sluis, built in 1385, was partly blown up by the French in 1794, and totally demolished in 1818. Yzemdyke represents a Hanse town which flourished in the 13th century and was greatly engulfed by the sea. Similarly the original port of Breskens was destroyed by inundations in the 15th and 16th centuries. The modern town rose into importance in the 15th century on account of its good harbour. The old towns of Axel and Halst were formerly important fortresses, and as such were frequently besieged in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries. Ter Neuzen was strongly fortified in 1833-39, and has a flourishing transit trade, as the port of Ghent, by the canal constructed in 1825-27.

**Zeerust**, a town of the Transvaal, 140 m. by rail, via Krugersdorp, N.N.W. of Pretoria and 33 m. N.E. of Mafeking. Pop. (1903) 1945. It was founded in 1868 and is the chief town of the Marico district, one of the most fertile regions of South Africa. In the neighbourhood are lead, zinc and silver mines, and some 20 m. S. are the Malmant goldfields. The Marico River was once a fairly important tributary of the Orange, the mouth of which was for a time the chief port of Mafeking, a town which had come from Zululand. They were driven out by Boer trekkers in 1837. To Boer cultivation the valley of the Marico river owes its fertility. Wheat and oats are largely cultivated and almost all sub-tropical fruits flourish. Following the relief of Mafeking, 17th of May 1900, Zeerust was occupied by the British under General R. S. S. Baden-Powell. Railway connection with Pretoria was established in 1907.

**Zeisberg, Heinrich**, Ritter von (1830-1899), Austrian historian, was born in Vienna on the 8th of July 1839, and in 1865 became professor of history at the university of Lemberg. In 1871 he removed to Innsbruck; in 1873 he was appointed professor at the university of Vienna, and here he was historical tutor to the crown prince Rudolph. In 1891 he was made director of the Vienna institute for historical research, and in 1896 director of the imperial court library at Vienna. He resigned his professorial chair in 1897 and died on the 27th of May 1899.

Zeisberg's writings deal mainly with the history of Austria and of the Austrian imperial and Holy Roman empire, and among them the following may be mentioned: *Die polnische Geschichtsschreibung des Mittelalters* (Leipzig, 1873); Zeisberg, Arno, erster Erzbischof von Salzburg (Vienna, 1863); *Die Kriege Kaiser Heinrichs II. mit Herzog Boleslaw I. von Polen* (Vienna, 1868); *Rudolf von Habsburg und der österreichische Staatsgründungen* (Vienna, 1882); *Über das Rechtverfahren Rudolfs von Habsburg gegen Otto von Böhmen* (Vienna, 1887); and *Der österreichische Erfolgsstreit nach dem Tode des Königs Ludwigs* Posthumus* 1457-58* (Vienna, 1879). Dealing with more recent times he wrote:—*Zur deutschen Kaiserpolitik Österreichs: ein Beitrag zur Geschichte des Revolutionsjahrzehnts 1795* (Vienna, 1893); *Zwei Jahre beigleicher Geschichte 1791-92* (Vienna, 1891); *Belgien unter der Generalstaatsbehörde Erzherzog Karl 1793-94* (Vienna, 1893-94); *Erzherzog Karl von Österreich, Lebensbild* (Vienna, 1895); and *Franz Josef I.* (Vienna, 1888). He edited three volumes of the *Quellen zur Geschichte Deutschlands: Kaisers August der starke und die französischen Revolutionskriege 1792-1801* (Vienna, 1882-1885, 1890).

**Zeitun** ("olive"), the name of several places in Turkey and Egypt, but principally an Armenian town in the Aleppo vilayet, altitude about 2000 ft., situated in the heart of Mt. Taurus, about 20 m. N.N.W. of Marash. The inhabitants, about 16,000, all Christians, are of a singularly fine physical type, though too much inbred, and are interesting from their character and historical position as a remnant of the kingdom of Lesser Armenia. The importance of Zeitun dates from the capture of Leo VI. by the Egyptians in 1375, and it probably became then a refuge for the more active and irreconcilable Armenians; but nothing certain is known of the place till 300 years later. It long maintained practical independence as
a nest of freebooters, and it was only in 1878 that the Turks, after a long conflict, were enabled to station troops in a fort above the town. In 1890 there was a serious revolt, from the worst consequences of which the town was saved by the intercession of the British consul at Aleppo warned in time by the devoted energy of T. Christie, American missionary at Marash; and in 1895, after the Armenian massacres had commenced elsewhere, the people again rose, seized the fort, and, after holding out for more than three months against a large Turkish force, secured honourable terms of peace on the mediation of the consul of the Powers at Aleppo. The inhabitants seem to be abandoning their robber customs and devoting themselves to oil and silk culture. In consequence transit trade through the passes of eastern Taurus (see MARASH), long almost annihilated by fear of the Zeitunli marauders, revived considerably. The governor must be a Christian, and certain other privileges are secured to the Zeitunli during their good behaviour.

(D. G. H.)

ZEITZ, a town of Germany, in the extreme south of the Prussian province of Saxon, pleasantly situated on a hill on the Weisse (White) Elster, 28 m. by rail S.S.W. of Leipzig on the line to Gera, and with branches to Altenburg and Weissenfels. Pop. (1885) 19,797; (1900) 27,592. The river is here crossed by two iron bridges, and on the lime-bridge, and the upper and lower towns are connected by a tunnelling railway. The Gothic abbey church dates from the 12th century, but its Romanesque crypt from the 11th. The old Franciscan monastery, now occupied by a seminary, contains a library of 20,000 volumes. Just outside the town rises the Moritzburg, built in 1564 by the dukes of Saxe-Zeitz, on the site of the bishop's palace; it is now a reformatory and poorhouse. Zeitz has manufactures of cloth, cotton and other textiles, machinery, wax-cloth, musical instruments, vinegar, cigars, &c., and wood-cutting, dyeing and calico-printing are carried on. In the neighbourhood there are considerable deposits of lignite, and mineral-oil works. Zeitz is an ancient place of Slavonic origin. From 968 till 1028 it was the seat of a bishopric, afterwards removed to Naumburg, 153 m. to the N.W., and styled Naumburg-Zeitz. In 1564 the last Roman Catholic bishop died, and his dominions were thenceforward administered by princes of Saxon. From 1653 till 1718 Zeitz was the capital of the dukes of Saxe-Zeitz or Sachsen-Zeitz. It thereafter remained in the possession of the electors of Saxony until 1815, when it passed to Prussia. He became professor of philosophy at Heidelberg in 1862, removed to Berlin in 1872, and retired in 1895. His great work is his Philosophie der Griechen (1844–52). This book he continued to amplify and improve in the light of further research; the last edition appeared in 1902. It has been translated into most of the European languages and became the recognized text-book of Greek philosophy. He wrote also on theology, and published three volumes of philosophical essays. He was also one of the founders of the Theologische Jahrbucher, a periodical which acquired great importance until 1875, when it passed to R. Strauss and Christian Baur. Like most of his contemporaries he began with Hegelianism, but subsequently he developed a system on his own lines. He saw the necessity of going back to Kant in the sense of demanding a critical reconsideration of the epistemological problems which Kant had made but a partially successful attempt to solve. None the less his merits as an original thinker are far outshone by his splendid services to the history of philosophy. It is true that his view of Greek

thought is somewhat warped by Hegelian formalism. He is not alive enough to the very intimate relation which thought holds to national life and to the idiocracy of the thinker. He lays too much stress upon the "concept," and explains too much by the Hegelian antithesis of subjective and objective. Nevertheless his history of Greek philosophy remains a noble monument of solid learning informed with natural sagacity. He received the highest recognition, not only from philosophers and learned societies all over the world, but also from the emperor and the German people. In 1894 the Emperor William II. made him a "Wirklicher Geheimrat" with the title of "Excellenz," and his bust, with that of Helmholtz, was set up at the Brandenburg Gate near the statues erected to the Empress and Empress Frederick. He died on the 19th of March 1908.

The Philosophie der Griechen has been translated into English by S. F. Alleyne (2 vols., 1881) in sections: S. F. Alleyne, Hist. of Gk. Phil. to the time of Socrates (1881); O. J. Reichel, Socrates and the Socratic Schools (1868; 2nd ed. 1877); S. F. Alleyne and T. Goodwin, Plato and the Older Academy (1876); Costelloe and Muirhead, Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics (1897); O. J. Reichel, Stoics, Epicureans and Skeptics (1870 and 1880); S. F. Alleyne, Hist. of Ecclesiastic in Gk. Phil. (1883). The Philosophy appeared in the Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Leipzic (1883; 3rd ed. 1889); Eng. transl. by Alleyne and Evelyn Abbott (1886), under the title, Outlines of the Hist. of Gk. Phil. Among his papers are—Abhandlungen und Zettel (1873); Grundriss der Geschichtskunde (1854; Eng. trans. by J. D. Dampier, 1857–76); Entwurf der Geschichte d. Philosophie (1862); Gesch. d. christl. Kirche (1868); Gesch. d. deutsch. Philos. seit Leibniz. (1873; Eng. trans. 1875); Staats- und Kirchen (1873); Geschichtliche und Schriften (1874; Eng. trans. 1875); Uber Bedeutung und Ausgabe d. Erkenntnis-Theorie (1866); Uber teleolog. und mechan. Naturerklarung (1876); Vortrage und Abhandlungen (1866–84); Philosophie der Griechen (1886, ed. 1871); Philosophie der Griechen (1887).

ZEMARCHUS (fl. 68), Byzantine general and traveller. The Turks, by their conquest of Sogdiana in the middle of the 6th century, gained control of the silk trade which then passed through Central Asia into Persia. But the Persian king, Chosroes Nushirvan, dreading the intrusion of Turkish influence, refused to allow the old commerce to continue, and the Turks after many rebuffs consented to a suggestion made by their mercantile subjects of the Soghd, and in 568 sent an embassy to Constantinople to form an alliance with the Byzantines and "transfer the sale of silk to them." The offer was accepted by Justin II, and in August 568, Zemarchus, "a Cilician, "General of the cities of the East," left Byzantium for Sogdiana. The embassy was under the guidance of Maniakh, "chief of the people of Sogdiana," who had first, according to Menander Protector, suggested to Dizabul (Disiboulos, the Bu min khan of the Turks, the Mogen of the Chinese), the great khan of the Turks, this "Roman" alliance, and had himself come to Byzantium to negotiate the same. On reaching the Sogdian territories the travellers were offered iron for sale, and solemnly exorcised; Zemarchus was made to "pass through the room instead of two fires," and strange ceremonies were performed over the baggage of the expedition, a bell being rung and a drum beaten over it, while flaming incense-leaves were carried round it, and incantations muttered in "Scythian." After these precautions the envoys proceeded to the camp of Dizabul (or rather of Dizabul's successor, Bu Min khan having just died) "in a hollow encompassed by the Golden Mountain," apparently in some locality of the Altai. They found the khan surrounded by astonishing barbaric pomp—gilded thrones, golden peacocks, gold and silver plate and silver animals, hangings of gold and silver, a tent of scarlet, a building of meadow-straw, around a large column. Zemarchus sat upon his march against Persia, passing through Talas or Turkistan in the Syr Daria valley, where Hsuan Tsang, on his way from China to India sixty years later, met with another of Dizabul's successors. Zemarchus was present at a banquet in Talas where the Turkish kagan and the Persian envoy exchanged abuse; but the Byzantine does not seem to have witnessed actual fighting. Near the river Oekhi (Syr Daria?) he was sent back to Constantinople with a Turkish embassy and with
envoys from various tribes subject to the Turks. Halting by the "vast, wide lagoon" (of the Aral Sea?), Zemarchus sent off an express messenger, one George, to announce his return to the emperor. George hurried on by the shortest route, "desert and waterless," apparently the steppes north of the Black Sea, while his superior, moving more slowly, marched twelve days by the sandy shores of the lagoon; crossed the Emha, Ural, Volga, and Kuban (where 4000 Persians vainly lay in ambush to stop him); and passing round the western end of the Caucasus, arrived safely at Trebizond and Constantinople. For several years this Turkish alliance subsisted, while close intercourse was maintained between Central Asia and Byzantium; when another Roman envoy, one Valentinos (Ováäxévrwos), goes on his embassy in 575 he takes back with him 166 Turks who had been visiting Byzantine lands; but from 579 this friendship rapidly began to cool. It is curious that all this travel between the Bosporus and Transoxiana seems not to have done anything to correct, at least in literature, the widespread misapprehension of the Caspian as a gulf of the Arctic Ocean.


ZENÁGA (Sanhája, Senajé), a Berber tribe of southern Morocco who gave their name to Senegal, once their tribal home. They formed one of the tribes which, uniting under the leadership of Yusuf bin Tashfin, crossed the Sahara and gave a dynasty to Morocco and Spain, namely, that of the Almoravides (q.v.). The Zirid dynasty which supplanted the Fatimites in the Maghrib and founded the city of Algiers was also of Zenaga origin. The Zenaga dialect of Berber is spoken in southern Morocco and on the banks of the lower Senegal, largely by the negro population.

ZENANA (Persian zanana), the apartments of an Eastern house in which the women of the family are secluded (see Harem). This is a Mahomedan custom, which has been introduced into India and has spread amongst the Hindoos. The zenana missions are missions to Indian women in their own homes.

ZENATA, or ZANÁTA, a Berber tribe of Morocco in the district of the central Atlas. Their tribal home seems to have been south of Oran in Algeria, and they seem to have early claimed an Arab origin, though it was alleged by the Arabs that they were descendants of Gombars or Gommar (Ibn Khaldun, vol. iii. p. 184 and vol. iv. p. 597). They were formerly a large and powerful confederation, and took a prominent part in the history of the Berber race. The Benimarin and Wattasi dynasties which reigned in Morocco from 1213 to 1548 were of Zenata origin.

ZEND-AVESTA, the original document of the religion of Zoroaster (q.v.), still used by the Parsees as their bible and prayer-book. The name "Zend-Avesta" has been current in Europe since the time of Anquetil Duperron (c. 1771), but the Parsees still sometimes mean (a "misunderstanding"") being specially employed to denote the translation and exposition of a great part of the Avesta which exists in Pahlavi. Text and translation are often spoken of together in Pahlavi books as Avishtak va Zend ("Avesta and Zend"); whence—through a misunderstanding—our word Zend-Avesta. The origin and meaning of the word "Avesta" (or in its older form, Avishtak) are alike obscure; it cannot be traced further back than the Sassanian period. The language of the Avesta is still frequently called Zend; but, as already implied, this is a misname. We possess no other document written in it, and on this account modern Parsee scholars, as well as the older Pahlavi books, speak of the language and writing indifferently as Avesta. As the original home of the language can only be very doubtfully conjectured, we shall do well to follow the usage sanctioned by old custom and apply the word to both. Although the Avesta is a work of but moderate compass (comparable, say, to the Iliad and Odyssey taken together), there nevertheless exists no single MS. which gives it in entirety. This circumstance alone is enough to reveal the true nature of the manuscript which contains the Avesta, and as a hypothesis a copy or copies of the Avesta, as the Old Testament is. It consists, as we shall afterwards see, of the last remains of the extensive sacred literature in which the Zoroastrian faith was formerly set forth.

Sections.—As we now have it, the Avesta consists of five parts—the Yasna, the Visperad, the Vendidad, the Yashts, and the Khordad Avesta.

1. The Yasna, the principal liturgical book of the Parsees, in 72 chapters (hastá, há), contains the texts that are read by the priests at the solemn yasna (Izshee) ceremony, or the general sacrifice in honour of all the deities. The arrangement of the Yasna is rather irregular, and it has nothing to do with the liturgical action. The kernel of the whole book, around which the remaining portions are grouped, consists of the Gathás (chap. 28-54) and the Gathas of Zoroaster (q.v.), the most sacred portion of the entire canon. The Yasna accordingly falls into three sections of about equal length:—(a) The introduction (chs. 1-27) is, for the most part, made up of long-winded, monotonous tracts, the so-called Vispered, which are mostly of a religious or moral character and are written in a metrical style and an archaic language, different in many respects from that ordinarily used in the Avesta. As to the second part of these tracts, they are arranged according to the metres in which they are written, fall into five subdivisions (28-34, 43-46, 47-50, 51, 53). Between chap. 37 and chap. 43 is inserted the so-called Seven-Chapter Yasna (Yazagsháh), a famous small prayers and invocations of the Persians, written after the Gatha; in antiquity (b) The so-called Later Yasna (Apáro Yasna) (chs. 54-72) has contents of considerable variety, but mainly consists of invocations. Special mention ought to be made of the Spenta (Sêna) Yasht (67), the prayer to fire (62), and the great liturgy for the sacrifice to divinities of the water (65-66).

2. The Visperad, a minor liturgical work in 24 chapters (karde), is also in form and substance completely dependent on the Yasna, but is a shorter summary and abridgment to which it is a liturgical appendix. Its separate chapters are interpolated in the Yasna in order to produce a modified—or expanded—Yasna ceremony. The name Vispered, meaning "all the Gathás (zhá) or hymns" of Zoroaster (q.v.), has reference to the spiritual heads of the religion of Ormuzd, invocations to whom form the contents of the first chapter of the book.

3. The Vendidad, the primary code of the Parsees, contains in 22 chapters (Fargard) a kind of dualistic account of the creation (chap. 1), the legend of Yima and the golden age (chap. 2), and in the bulk of the remaining chapters the precepts of religion with their practical applications (chap. 3). It is the care of animals, the protection of the sacred elements, such as earth, fire and water, the keeping of a man's body from defilement, together with the requisite measures of precaution, elaborate ceremonies of purification, etc. The prescriptions, arranged in a religious code, are marked by a conscientious classification based on considerations of material, size and number; but they lose themselves in an exaggerated casuistry. Still the whole of Zoroastrian legislation is subordinate to one great point of view: the war—preached without intermission—against Satan and his noxious creatures, from which the whole book derives its name; for "Vendidad is a modern corruption for zá-dá-dàtim—"the anti- demonic Law." Fargard 18 treats of the true and false priest, of the value of the house-cock, of the four paramours of the she-devil, and of unlawful lust. Fargard 19 is a fragment of the Zoroaster legend of the Smerdis, the pseudo-Zoroaster myth for the revelation of the law, Ahraman and the devils despair, and flee down into hell. The three concluding chapters are devoted to the medicinal system. The Yasna, Visperad and Vendidad together constitute the Avesta in the stricter sense of the word, and the reading of them appertains to the priest alone. For liturgical purposes the separate chapters of the Vendidad and the Yasna and Visperad are laid among those of the Yasna and Visperad. The reading of the Vendidad in this case may, when viewed according to the original intention, be taken as corresponding in some sense to the sermon, while that of the Yasna and Visperad may be said to answer to the hymns and prayers of Christian worship.

4. The Yashts, i.e. "songs of praise," in so far as they have not been already included among the Yasna and Visperad, are the Yashts, and Visperad, written in an poetical mood, and represent the religious poetry of the ancient Iranians. So far they
may be compared to the Indian Rig-Veda. Several of them may have been cemented together from a number of lesser poems or songs. They are a rich source of mythology and legendary history. Side by side with the vivid, fully developed stories of the Zoroastrian deities, they frequently interweave, as in the epicles, stories from the old heroic fables. The most important of all, the 19th Yashat, gives a consecutive account of the Iranian heroic saga in great blocks of lines, together with a prophetic presentation of the end of the world.

5. The Khordah Avesta, i.e. the Little Avesta, comprises a collection of shorter prayers designed for all believers—the fairy included. In the later parts of the Avestan writings, these are the sources of much wisdom. For that reason, we have not included them in this study. The Khordah Avesta is in reality a collection of prayers for all occasions of everyday life. It is the main collection of the sacred Yaznas.

The Larger Avesta and the Twenty-One Nasks:—In its present form, however, the Avesta is only a fragmentary remains of the old priestly literature of Zoroastrism, a fact confessed by the learned tradition of the Parsees themselves, according to which the number of Yashts was originally thirty.

The truth is that we possess but a trifling portion of a very much larger Avesta, if we are to believe native tradition, carrying us back to the Sassanian period, which tells of a larger Avesta in twenty-one books (nasks or naskh), as to the names of which we have several more or less detailed accounts, particularly in the Pahlavi Dinkard (9th century A.D.) and in the Richard Hakluyt’s same works. We learn that this larger Avesta was only a part of a yet more extensive original Avesta, which is said to have existed before Alexander. We are told that of that number of nasks only a small portion was found to be extant after Alexander. For example, of the seventh naskh, which “before Alexander” had as many as fifty chapters, there then remained only thirteen; and similar allegations are made with regard to the eighth, ninth, tenth and other nasks. The Rivayats state that, when after the calamity of Alexander they sought for the books again, they found a portion of each naskh broken into small fragments, incompleteness except the Vendidad.

But even of the remains of the Avesta, as these lay before the author of the 18th century, only a small residue has survived to our time. Of all the nasks one only, the nineteenth, has come down on us intact—the Vendidad. All else, considered as wholes, have vanished in the course of the centuries.

It would be rash summarily to dismiss this old tradition of the twenty-one nasks as pure invention. The number twenty-one points, indeed, to an artificial arrangement of the material; for twenty-one is a sacred number, and the most sacred prayer of the Parsees, the Ashvins, is composed of twenty-one words; and it is also true that in the enumeration of the nasks we miss the names of the books we know, like the Yasna and the Yastis. But we must assume that these were included in such or such a naskh, as the Yastis in the seventeenth or Bûdân Yasth; or, it may be that other books, especially the Yasna, are a compila extracted for liturgical purposes from various books.

Further, the statements of the Dinkard leave on us a very distinct impression that the author actually had before him the text of the nasks, or at all events of a large part of them: for he expressly states that the eleventh naskh was entirely lost, so that he is unable to give the slightest account of its contents. And, besides, in other directions there are numerous indications that such books once really existed. In the Khordah Avesta, as we now have it, we find the same facts; with regard to the first, Yasna, the expression of the fact is given in the Old MSS., that it was taken from the Hûddakh (the twelfth, according to the Dinkard). From the same naskh also a considerable fragment (Vis. 21 and 22 in Westergaard) has been taken. So, also, the Nirangast is a portion of the seventeenth (or Íštrâpam) naskh. Lastly, the numerous other fragments, the quotations in the Pahlavi translation, the many references to the Avesta in the Bundahish to passages of this Avesta not now known to us, all prove that there was in the Sassanian age a large amount of the extensive Avesta literature that the mere prayer-book now in our hands. The existence of a larger Avesta, even as late as the 9th century of our era, is beyond a doubt.

But it is also by no means a certain that a collection of twenty-one nasks, with its twenty-one nasks, we may well believe the Parsees themselves, when they affirm that their sacred literature is made up of successive stages of development, of which is represented by the present Avesta. In fact we can clearly trace this gradual process of decay in certain portions of the Avesta during the last few centuries. The great Yashats are not of very frequent occurrence in the manuscripts: some of them, indeed, are already met with but seldom, and MSS. containing all the Yashats are of extreme rarity. Of the fifteenth, seventeenth and nineteenth Yashats the few useful copies that we possess are derived from a single MS. of the year 1591 A.D.

Origin and History.—While all that Herodotus (i. 132) has to say is that the Magi sang “the theogony” at their sacrifices, Pausanias is able to add (v. 27. 3) that they read from a book. Hermippus, in the 3rd century B.C., affirmed that Zoroaster, the founder of the doctrine of the Magi, was the author of more than a hundred books, each containing 100,000 verses. According to the Arab historian, Tabari, these were written on 12,000 cowhides, and the imperial court of the Caliph of Persia sent an envoy to Zoroaster and gave him the book of the Persians the book called Avesta. It consisted of twenty-one parts, each containing 200 leaves. This book, in the writing which Zartusht invented and which the Magi called the writing of religion, was written on 12,000 cowhides, bound together by golden bands. Its language was the Old Persian, which no one understands.” These assertions sufficiently establish the existence and great bulk of the sacred writings.

Parsee tradition adds a number of interesting statements as to their history. According to the Arda-Viraf-Nama the period for the编纂 of the Avesta (i.e. the collection of the sacred books) was 300 years, when Iskander Rumi (Alexander the Great) invaded and devastated Iran, and burned the Avesta which, written on cowhides with golden ink, was preserved in the archives at Persepolis. According to the Dinkard, there were two copies, of which one was burned, while the second came into the hands of the Greeks. One of the Riviyato relates further: “After the villainy of Alexander, an assemblage of several high-priests brought together the Avesta from various places, and made a collection which included the sacred Yasna, Vairap, Vendid and other scraps of the Avesta.” As to this re-collection and redaction of the Avesta the Dinkard gives various details. One of the Arsacid kings, Vologeses (I. or III.?), ordered the scattered remnants of the Avesta to be carefully preserved and recorded. The first of the Sassanian kings, Ardshahr Babagan (226–240), caused his high-priest, Tanvaras, to bring together the dispersed portions of the holy book, and to compile from these a new Avesta, which, as far as possible, should be a faithful reproduction of the original. King Shapur I. (241–272) enlarged this re-edited Avesta by the addition of new compositions and incorporation of works on medicine, astronomy, geography and philosophy. Under Shapur II. (309–358) the naks were brought into complete order, and the new re-script of the Avesta reached its definitive conclusion.

Historical criticism may regard this tradition, in many of its features, as mere fiction, or as a perversion of facts made for the purpose of transferring the blame for the loss of a sacred literature to other persons than those actually responsible for it. We may, if we choose, absolve Alexander from the charge of vandalism of which he is accused, but the fact nevertheless remains, that he ordered the palace at Persepolis to be burned (Diod., viii. 72; Curt., v. 7). Even the statement as to the one or two complete copies of the Avesta may be given up as the invention of a later day. Nevertheless the essential elements of the tradition remain unshaken, viz. that the original Avesta, or old sacred literature, divided on account of its great bulk and heterogeneous contents into many portions and a variety of separate works, had an actual existence in numerous copies and also in the memories of priests, that, although gradually diminishing in bulk, it remained extant during the period of foreign domination and ecclesiastical decay after the time of Alexander, and that it served as a basis for the reduction subsequently made. The kernel of this native tradition—the fact of a late collection of older fragments—appears indisputable. The character of the book is entirely that of a compilation.

In its outward form the Avesta, as we now have it, belongs to the Sassanian period—the last survival of the compilers’ work already alluded to. But this Sassanian origin of the Avesta must not be misunderstood: from the remnants and heterogeneous
fragments at their disposal, the disusecast or disusecast compo-
posed a new canon—erected a new edifice from the materials of the 
old. In point of detail, it is now impossible to draw a 
sharp distinction between that which they found surviving ready to their hand and that which they themselves added, or to 
define how far they reproduced the traditional fragments with 
verbal fidelity or indulged in revision and remoulding. It may 
reasonably be supposed, not only that they constructed the 
external framework of many chapters, and also some 
additions of their own—a necessary process in order to weld 
their motley collection of fragments into a new and coherent book—but also that they fabricated anew many formulae and 
imitative passages on the model of the materials at their dis-
posal. In this consisted the completion of Tanwasar, ex-
pressed more correctly in the account of the Dinkard. All those 
texts in which the grammar is handled, not with a sense of want of skill, and again with absolute barbarism, may probably 
be placed to the account of the Sassanian redactors. All the 
grammatically correct texts, together with those portions of the 
Avesta which have intrinsic worth, especially the metrical 
passages, are indubitably authentic and taken ad verum from 
the original Avesta. To this class, above all, belong the 
Gathas and the nucleus of the greater Yashts. Opinions differ 
greatly as to the precise origin of the original texts brought 
together by subsequent redactors; according to some, they are 
pre-Achaemenian; according to others, they were written in Media under the Achaemenian dynasty; according to some, their source must be sought in the east, 
according to others, in the west of Iran. But to search for a 
precise time or an exact locality is to deal with the question too 
narrowly; it is more correct to say that the Avesta was 
worked at from the time of Zoroaster down to the Sassanian 
period. Its oldest portions, the Gathas, proceed from the prophet 
himself. This conclusion is inevitable for every one to whom 
Zoroaster is an historical personality, and who does not shun 
the labour of an unprejudiced research into the meaning of thought and language in the Zoroastrian era, the rest of the Avesta, 
in spite of the opposite opinion of orthodox Parsees, does not 
even claim to come from Zoroaster. As the Gathas now con-
stitute the kernel of the most sacred prayer-book, viz. the 
Yasna, so they ultimately proved to be the first nucleus of a 
religion literature in general. The language in which Zoroaster 
could, especially a later development of it, remained as the 
standard with his followers, and became the sacred language 
throughout a large part of the Sassanian Empire, attaining to 
a precise time or an exact locality. But neither the spiritual 
literature nor the sacred tongue remained limited to the east. 
The geography of the Avesta points both to the east and the west, 
particularly the north-west of Iran, but with a decided 
tendency to gravitate towards the east. The vivid descrip-
tion of the basin of the Hilment (Yash 19, 65-66) is peculiarly 
instructive. The language of the Avesta travelled with the 
Zoroastrian religion and with the main body of the priesthood, 
in all probability, that is to say, from east to west; within the 
limits of Iran it became international.

As has been already stated, the Avesta now in our hands is 
based on two portions of the text: first and most important, 
the original Avesta; second, the more barbarous, and under the Sassanians. The larger part perished under the Magian barbarism 
and under the more barbarous tyranny of the Tatars, when through 
conversion and extermination the Zoroastrians became a mere 
remnant. The study of the Avesta was continued, though at a 
slow reproduction of manuscripts. A most meagre proportion only of the 
real religious and ritual writings, the sacred law and the liturgy, 
have been preserved to our time. The great bulk—over three-
quarters—of the whole is now lost. But, when the lay literature collected, has fallen a prey to oblivion. The under-
standing of the older Avesta texts began to die away at an early 
period. It was quite clear that a new translation and interpretation 
was needed; and under the Later Sassanians, one of the books, 
if not the whole of them, were rendered into the current Pahlavi. 
A thorough use of this translation will not be possible until we 
possess an entirely new version, where no word-crystal is unscrupulously 
and language ceases to be the monopoly of a few privileged individuals.

For the interpretation of the older texts it is of great value where 
they are concerned with the fixed, formal statutes of the church. 
In these cases, where they pass rather in the form of the Gathas, the Pahlavi translator becomes a defective and 
unreliable interpreter. The Parsee priest, Neryosangh, subsequently 
translated a portion of the Pahlavi version into Sanskrit.

The MSS. of the Avesta are, comparatively speaking, of recent 
date. The oldest is the Pahlavi Vispered in Copenhagen, dated 
1528. Next come the four MSS. of the Herbad Mihirapán Kai 
Khosro of Anquetil (1322 and 1324), two Vendidasi with the 
Avesta in London and Copenhagen, and two Yasnás with Pahlavi in 
Copenhagen and formerly in Bombay (now Oxford). Generally speaking; 
The MSS. fail off in quality and carefulness in proportion to their 
age. The older MSS. have a very precise and word-crystal 
concerning the texts of those proceeding from Kimran and Yazd in Persia, mostly 
dating from the 17th and 18th centuries.

The Copernican attention to the Avesta was 
Hyde of Oxford, in his Historia Religiosa 
Veternar Persarum 
orumque Magorum (1700), which, however, 
failed to awake any 
hunting in the sacred writings of the Parsees. The merit 
seems to be this book has ever since been entitled 
by the fruit of whose prolonged stay in India (1755-1761) 
the Pahlavi, the Avesta translation; a 
and his acquaintance with the Parsee priests was a 
(very certain) defective of the Zend-Avesta. 
and the foundation of a scientifique the exegesis was laid by Burnouf. The interpretation of the 
composition of the Zoroastrian 
only from the fact that Spiegel's translation, by an excessive reaction. 
Avesta is a monotonous book. The Yasna and 
many Yashts in great part consist of formulae which are as 
poor in contents as they are rich in verbiage. 
texts (Vendidad) is characterized by an 
trated by the pandid doctrine, which a 
church, and from the points of view of thought, feeling, at times, and a pleasant 
the Church, and the sole literary monument of ancient 
the Avesta occupies a prominent position in the literature of the 
the future will doubtless be more just with regard 
the importance of the book for the history of religion in general 
and of the Zoroastrian faith, and the sole literary monument of ancient Iran—
the Avesta occupies a prominent position in the literature of the 
world. At the present day its significance is definitely 
understood.

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ZENGG—ZENO OF ELEA

ZENGG (Hungarian, Zeng; Croatian, Senj; Italian, Segno), a royal free town of Hungary, in the county of Lika-Krbava, Croatia-Slavonia, 34 m. S.E. of Fiume, on the Adriatic Sea. Pop. (1900) 3182. Zengg lies at the entrance to a long cleft among the Velbit Mountains, down which the bora, or N.E. wind, sweeps with such violence as often to render the harbour unsafe, although the Austrian Lloyd steamers call regularly. Apart from the cathedral of its Roman Catholic bishop, a gymnasion, and some ancient fortifications, the town contains little of interest. It carries on a small trade in tobacco, fish and hemp. An elevated road of Veglia faces the town and the port of San Giorgio lies 5 m. S.

The captnacy of Zengg was established, in the 15th century, by King Matthias Corvinus of Hungary, as a check upon the Turks; and subsequently, until 1617, the town became famous as the stronghold of the Uskoks.

ZENITH (from the Arabic), the point directly overhead; its direction is defined by that of the plumb-line.

ZENJAN, or Zanjan, a town of Persia, capital of the Khamseh province, about 205 m. N.W. of Teheran, on the high road thence to Tabriz, has an elevation of 4,373 ft. It has an area of about 25,000 and post and telegraph offices, and was one of the original strongholds of the Bábí sectarians, who held it against a large Persian force from May 1590 to the end of the year, when most of them were massacred. It has extensive gardens, well watered by the Zanjanee river, which flows south of it. The well-stocked bazaar supplies the neighbouring districts.

ZENO, East Roman emperor from 474 to 491, was an Isaurian of noble birth, and originally bore the name of Trascasilua, which he exchanged for that of Zeno on his marriage with Ariadne, daughter of Leo I., in 468. Of his early life nothing is known; after his marriage (which was designed by Leo to secure the Isaurian support against his ambitious minister Aspar) he became patrician and commander of the imperial guard and of the armies in the East. While on a campaign in Thrace he narrowly escaped assassination; on his return to the capital he avenged himself by compassing the murder of Aspar, who had instigated the attempt. In 474 Leo I. died after appointing as his successor Leo the son of Zeno and Ariadne; Zeno, however, with the help of his mother-in-law Verina, succeeded in getting himself crowned also, and on the death of Leo the son of the year, the year of the death of the year, became sole emperor. In the following year, in consequence of a revolt fomented by Verina in favour of her brother Basiliscus, and the antipathy to his Isaurian soldiers and administrators, he was compelled to take refuge in Isauria, where, after sustaining a defeat, he was compelled to shut himself up in a fortress. The growing misgovernment and unpopularity of Basiliscus ultimately enabled Zeno to re-enter Constantinople unopposed (476); his rival was banished to Phrygia, where he soon afterwards died. The remainder of Zeno's reign was disturbed by numerous other less formidable revolts. Since 472 the aggressions of the two Ostrogoth leaders Theodoric had been a constant source of danger. Though Zeno at times contrived to play them off against each other, they in turn were able to profit by his dynastic rivalries, and it was only by offering them pay and high command that he kept them from attacking Constantinople itself. In 487 he induced Theodoric, son of Theodemir, to invade Italy and establish his new kingdom. Zeno is described as a lax and indolent ruler, but he seems to have husbanded the resources of the empire so as to leave it appropriately stronger at his death than it was at his accession. In ecclesiastical history the name of Zeno is associated with the Hecaton or instrument of union, promulgated by him and signed by all the Eastern bishops, with the design of terminating the Monophysite controversy.


ZENO OF ELEA, son of Teleutagoras, is supposed to have been born towards the beginning of the 5th century B.C. The pupil and the friend of Parmenides, he sought to recommend his master's doctrine of the existence of the One by contro-venting the popular belief in the existence of the Many. In virtue of this method of indirect argumentation he is regarded as the inventor of "dialectic," that is to say, disputation having for its end not victory but the discovery or the transmission of truth. He is said to have been concerned in a plot against a tyrant, and on its detection to have borne with exemplary constancy the tortures to which he was subjected; but authorities differ both as to the name and the residence of the tyrant and as to the circumstances and the issue of the enterprise.

In Plato's Parmenides, Socrates, "then very young," meets Zeno, "a man of about forty, tall and personable," and engages him in philosophical discussion. But it may be doubted whether such a meeting was chronologically possible. Plato's account of Zeno's teaching (Parmenides, 128 seq.) is, however, presumably as accurate as it is precise. In reply to those who thought that Parmenides's theory of the existence of the One involved inconsistencies and absurdities, Zeno tried to show that the assumption of the existence of the Many, that is to say, a plurality of things in time and space, carried with it the impossibility of an infinite multitude of individual entities. In early youth he collected his arguments in a book, which, according to Plato, was put into circulation without his knowledge.

Of the paradoxes used by Zeno to discredit the belief in plurality and motion, eight survive in the writings of Aristotle and Simplicius. They are commonly stated as follows.1 (1) If the Existend is Many, it must be at one infinitely small and infinitely great— thereby impossible, illusory; because, the parts of any whole, because indivisible and therefore without magnitude; infinitely great, because, that any part having magnitude may be separate from any other part, the intervention of a third part having magnitude is necessary, and that this third part may be separate from the other two the intervention of other parts having magnitude is necessary, and so on ad infinitum. (2) In like manner the Many is infinite, the argument runs, and so are the numbers, because there are as many things as there are, neither more nor less; numerically infinite, because, that any two things may be separate, the intervention of a third thing is necessary, and so on ad infinitum. (3) If all that is in is in space, space itself must be infinite, and so ad infinitum. (4) If a bushel of corn turned out upon the floor makes a noise, each grain and each part of each grain must make a noise likewise; but, in fact, it is not so. (5) Before a body in motion can reach a given point, it must traverse the half of the distance; before it can traverse the half of the distance, it must first traverse the quarter; and so on ad infinitum. (6) Hence, it is impossible to traverse a distance, and so ad infinitum. (7) If Achilles meets Balaam, and so ad infinitum. (8) Achilles can never come up with the tortoise; for, while Achilles traverses the distance from his starting-point to the starting-point of the tortoise, the tortoise advances a certain distance, and while Achilles has traversed this distance the tortoise makes a further advance, and so ad infinitum. Consequently, Achilles may run ad infinitum without overtaking the tortoise. This paradox is virtually identical with (5), the only difference being that, whereas in (5) there is one body, in (6) there are two bodies, moving towards a limit. The "infinity of the premise is an infinity of subdivisions of a distance which is finite; the conclusion is an infinity of distances. Thus Zeno again confounds a finite distance infinitely divided with an infinite distance. If the tortoise has a start of 100 ft. Achilles, on the other hand, says that what happened between Achilles and the tortoise is an infinite number of spaces—100 ft., 100 ft., &c.—and the tortoise must traverse an infinite number of spaces—100 ft., 10 ft., &c.—before they reach the point, distant from their starting-points 1111 ft. and 1111 ft., respectively, at which the tortoise is overtaken. In a word, 1000+10+10+&c., in (6) and 111111+&c., in (5) are convergent series, and 111111 and 1 are the limits to which they respectively approximate.] (7) So long as anything is infinite, it has the same magnitude at all points of the infinite, it being thus in the rest at every moment of its flight, and therefore also during the whole of its flight. (8) Two bodies moving with equal speed traverse equal spatial paths equal in extent; bodies moving with equal speed in opposite directions, the one passes the other in half the time in which it passes it when at rest. These propositions appeared to Zeno to be irreconcilable. In short, the paradoxes are myths, in philosophy, a myth is a story of the results of criticism or reflection. They are fatal inconsistencies, whence he inferred that Parmenides was justified in distinguishing the mutable movable Many from the

1 See Zeller, Die Philosophie d. Griechen, i. 591 seq.; Grundris, 54.
immutably immovable One, which alone is really existent. In
other words, Zeno re-affirmed the dogma, "The Ent is, the Non-ent
is not."

If tradition has not misrepresented these paradoxes of time, space
and motion, there is in Zeno’s reasoning an element of fallacy. It
is indeed difficult to understand how so acute a thinker should
confound that which is infinitely divisible with that which is infinitely
great; but the latter idea should have been suggested to him and
magnitude, as in (3); that he should neglect the imperfection of
the organs of sense, as in (4); that he should deny the reality of
motion, as in (7); and that he should ignore the relativity of speech
and space, as in (8). In many years it has been thought that
these conventional statements of the paradoxes, and in particular of
those which are more definitely mathematical, namely (5), (6),
(7), (8), do less justice to Zeno’s acumen. Thus, several
philosophers—Tannery, Russell—have studied as dilemmas advanced, with some measure of success, in refuta-
tion of specific doctrines attributed to the Pythagoreans. ’One
of the most notable victims of posterity’s lack of judgment’
says Bertrand Russell, “is the Eleatic Zeno. Having invented
four arguments all immeasurably subtle and profound, the gross-
ess of subsequent philosophers pronounced him to be a more
ingenious juggler, and his arguments to be one and all sophisms.
After two thousand years of continual refutation, these sophisms
were reinstated, and made the foundation of a mathematical
renaissance, by a German professor, who probably never dreamed of any
correlation with the former argument and of banishing all infinitesimals, has at last shown that we live in an
unchanging world, and that the arrow at every moment of its
flight is at rest. The connexion of these paradoxes given by Messrs. Noel and Russell,” says G. H. Hardy,
“may be briefly stated as follows: The notion of time, which
seems at first sight to enter into (5) and (6), should be
eliminated. The same is true of (7) and (8). In that
theorizing temporally, but logically, subsequent to the part, and that there
therefore is an infinite regress in the notion of a whole which is
infinitely divisible—a view which at any rate demands a serious
repetition. The kernel of the latter lies in the perfectly valid
proof which it affords that the tortoise passes through as many
positions as Achilles—a view which embodies an accepted doctrine
of modern mathematics. The paradox of the arrow (7) and (8)
Mr Russell, is a plain statement of a very elementary fact: the
arrow is at rest at every moment of its flight: Zeno’s only mistake
was in inferring (if he did infer) that it was therefore at the same
point at all times. Finally, the last paradox another,
may be interpreted as a valid refutation of the doctrine that space
and time are not infinitely divisible. How far this interpretation
of Zeno is historically justifiable, may be doubtful. But one may
well believe that there was in his mind at any rate a foreshadowing
of some of the ideas by which modern mathematicians have finally
laid to rest the traditional difficulties connected with infinity and
continuity.”

Great as was the importance of these paradoxes of plurality and
motion in stimulating speculation about space and time, their direct influence upon Greek thought was less considerable
than that of another paradox—strangely neglected by historians
of philosophy—the paradox of predication. We learn from
Plato (Parmenides, i, 127 D) that “the first hypothesis of the first
argument” of Zeno’s book above mentioned ran as follows:
“if existences are many, they must be both like and unlike
[unlike, inasmuch as they are not one and the same, and like,
inasmuch as they agree in not being one and the same, Proclus,
On the Parmenides, ii. 143]. But this is impossible for unlike
things cannot be like, nor like things unlike. Therefore
existences are not many.” That is to say, not perceiving that
the same thing may be at once like and unlike in different
relations, Zeno regarded the attribution to the same thing
likeness and unlike as a violation of what was afterwards
known as the principle of contradiction; and, finding that
plurality entailed these attributions, he inferred its unreality.
Now, when without qualification he affirmed that the unlike
thing cannot be like, nor the like thing unlike, he was on the
horizon of his thought to be the doctrine of the modern
century later by the Cynics, that no predication which is not implicit
is legitimate. He was not indeed aware how deeply he had
committed himself; otherwise he would have observed that his
argument, if valid against the Many, of the vulgar, was valid
also against the One of Parmenides, with its plurality of attributes,
as well as that, in the absence of a theory of predication,
it was useless to speculate about knowledge and being. But
others were not slow to draw the obvious conclusions; and it
may be conjectured that Gorgias’s sceptical development of
the Zonian logic contributed, not less than Protagoras’s
development of the Ionic physics, to the diversion of
the intellectual energies of Greece from the pursuit of truth
to the pursuit of culture.

For three-quarters of a century, then, philosophy was at
a standstill; and, when in the second decade of the 4th century
the pursuit of truth was resumed, it was plain that Zeno’s
paradox of predication must be disposed of before the problems
which had occupied the earlier thinkers—the problem of know-
ledge and the problem of being—could be so much as attempted.
Accordingly, in the seventh book of the Republic, where Plato
reared his Sokrat, he had stretched himself to the limit of his
attention of studious youth primarily, if not exclusively, to
the concurrence of inconsistent attributes; and in the Phaedo,
102 B—103 A, taking as an instance the tallness and the short-
ness simultaneously discoverable in Simmias, he offers his own
theory of the immanent idea as the solution of the paradox.
Simmias, he says, has in him the ideas of tall and short.
Again, when it presently appeared that the theory of the
immanent idea was inconsistent with itself, and moreover
inapplicable to explain predication except where the subject
was identical with its predicate, Zeno’s, the Eleatic, theory
of Zeno difficulty continued to demand and to receive Plato’s
best attention. Thus, in the Parmenides, with the paradox of
likeness and unlikeness for his text, he inquires how far the
current theories of being (his own included) are capable of
providing, not only for knowledge, but also for predication,
and in the concluding sentence he suggests that, as likeness
and unlikeness, greatness and smallness, &c., are relations, the
initial paradox is no longer paradoxical; while in the Sophist,
Zeno’s doctrine having been shown to be fatal to reason,
thought, speech and utterance, the mutual konsew of êpó
which are not ares and épiaro is elaborately demonstrated.
It would seem then that, not to Antisthenes only, but to Plato
also, Zeno’s paradox of predication was a substantial difficulty;
and we shall be disposed to give Zeno credit accordingly for
his perception of its importance.

In all probability Zeno did not observe that in his contro-
versial defence of Eleaticism he was interpreting Parmenides’s
 teaching anew. But so it was. For, while Parmenides had
recognized, together with the One, which is, and is the object
of knowledge, a Many, which is not, and therefore is not known,
problems, but nevertheless the object of logical specification
was definitely and unambiguously: "that which is not of the non-
ent, absolute nullity. Thus, just as Empedocles developed Parmenides’s theory of
the Many to the neglect of his theory of the One, so Zeno
developed the theory of the One to the neglect of the theory
of the Many. With the severance of these two members Eleaticism
proper, the Eleaticism of Parmenides, ceased to exist.

The first effect of Zeno’s teaching was to complete the
discomfiture of philosophy. For the paradox of predication,
which he had used to disprove the existence of plurality, was
virtually a denial of all speech and all thought, and thus led
to a more comprehensive scepticism than that which sprang
from the contemporary theories of sensation. Nevertheless,
he left an enduring mark upon Greek speculation, inasmuch as he
not only recognized the need of a logic, and grappled, how-
ever unsuccessfully, with the problem of the nature of logical
thinking, but also by the invention of dialectic provided a new
and powerful instrument against the time when the One and
the Many should be reunited in the philosophy of Plato.

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see G. Noel, Revue de Metaphysique et de Morale, i. 107–125; and Hon. Bertrand

Zeno of Elea
ZENO OF SIDON—ZENODOTUS

Russell, Principles of Mathematics (Cambridge, 1903), pp. 345-354. For histories of the bank of philosophy and other works upon Eleaticism see Parmenides (H. J. A.)

ZENO OF SIDON, Epicurean philosopher of the first century B.C., and contemporary of Cicero. In the De Natura Deorum (i. 34), Cicero states that he was contemptuous of other philosophers and even called Socrates "the Attic Buffoon." Diogenes Laëritius and Cicero both speak of him with respect and describe him as an elevated and polished thinker. He held that happiness includes not merely present enjoyment and prosperity, but also a reasonable expectation of their continuance. His views were made the subject of a special treatise by Posidonius.

ZENO OF TARSUS, Stoic philosopher and pupil of Chrysippus, belonged to the period of the Middle Stoic. He appears to have accepted all the Stoic doctrines except that he denied the final configuration of the universe (see Stoics).

ZENOBIA (Gr. Ζενόβια), queen of Palmyra, one of the heroines of antiquity. Her native name was Septimia Bathshabal, a name also borne by one of her generals, Septimius Zabbiā. This remarkable woman, famed for her beauty, her masculine energy and unusual powers of mind, was said to be the consort of Odainatti (see Οδανατιος) in his proud position as Dux Orientis; during his lifetime she actively seconded his policy, and after his death in A.D. 266 she not only succeeded to his position but determined to surpass it and make Palmyra mistress of the Roman Empire in the East. Wahab-allath or Athanodorus (as the name was Graecized), her son by Odainath, being still a boy, she took the reins of government into her own hands. Under her general-in-chief Zabdi, the Palmyrenes occupied Egypt in A.D. 270, not without a struggle, under the pretext of restoring it to Rome; and Wahab-allath governed Egypt in the reign of Claudius as joint ruler with the title of βασιλεύς (king), while Zenobia herself was styled βασιλευσσα (queen). In Asia Minor Palmyrene garrisons were established as far west as Ancyra in Galatia and Chaledon opposite Byzantium, and Zenobia still professed to be acting in the interests of the Roman rule. In his coins struck at Alexandria in A.D. 270 Wahab-allath is named along with Aurelian, but the title of Augustus is given only to the latter; a Greek inscription from Byblus, however, mentions Aurelian (or his predecessor Claudius) and Zenobia as Σεβαστος and Σεβαστη (i.e. Augustus and Augusta, C.I.C. 4503 b). When Aurelian became emperor in 270 he quickly realized that the policy of the Palmyrene queen was endangering the unity of the empire. It was not long before all disguises were thrown off; in Egypt Wahab-allath began to issue coins without the head of Aurelian and bearing the imperial title, and Zenobia’s coins bear the same. The assumption marked the rejection of all allegiance to Rome. Aurelian instantly took measures; Egypt was recovered for the Empire by Probus (close of 270), and the emperor himself prepared a great expedition into Asia Minor and Syria. Towards the end of 271 he marched through Asia Minor and, overthrowing the Palmyrene garrisons in Chaledon, Ancyra and Tyana, he reached Antioch, where the main Palmyrene army under Zabda and Zabbiā, with Zenobia herself, attempted to oppose his way. The attempt, however, proved unsuccessful, and after suffering considerable losses the Palmyrenes retired in the direction of Emesa (now Homs), whence the road lay open to their native city. The queen refused to yield to Aurelian’s demand for surrender and drew up her army at Emesa for the battle which was to decide her fate. In the end she was defeated, and there was nothing for it but to fall back upon Palmyra across the desert. Thither Aurelian followed her in spite of the difficulties of transport, and laid siege to the well-fortified and provisioned city. At the critical moment the queen’s courage seems to have failed her; she and her son fled from the city to seek help from the Persian king; they were captured on the bank of the Euphrates, and the Palmyrenes, losing heart at this disaster, capitulated (A.D. 272). Aurelian seized the wealth of the city but spared the inhabitants; to Zenobia he granted life; while her officers and advisers, among whom was the celebrated scholar Longinus, were put to death. Zenobia figured in the conqueror’s splendid triumph at Rome, and by the most probable account accepted her fall with dignity and closed her days at Tibur, where she lived with her sons the life of a Roman matron. A few months after the fall of Zenobia, Palmyra revolted again; Aurelian unexpectedly returned, destroyed the city, and this time showed no mercy to the population (spring, 273).

Among the traditions relating to Zenobia it may be mentioned that of her discussions with the Archbishop Paul of Samosata on matters of religion. It is probable that she treated the Jews in Palmyra with favour; she is referred to in the Talmud, as protecting Jewish rabbis (Talm. Jer. Ter. viii. 46 b).

The well-known account of Zenobia by Gibbon (Decline and Fall, i. pp. 302-312 Baye’s edition) is based upon the imperial biographers (Histoires Augustae) and cannot be regarded as strictly historical in detail. An obscure and distorted tradition of Zenobia as an Arab queen survived in the Arabic story of Zabb, daughter of Amr b. Zabir, whose name is associated with Tadmor and with Wahab-allath Zabbai, the queen of Palmyra, and with the name of Zenobia of which Procopius speaks as founded on the famous queen. See C. de Perceval, Essai sur l’histoire des Arabes, ii. 28 f., 197 f.; Tabari, i. 757 f. See further Palmyra. (G. A. C. *)

ZENOBUS, a Greek lexicographer, who taught rhetoric at Rome during the reign of Hadrian (A.D. 117-138). He was the author of a collection of proverbs in three books, still extant in an abridged form, compiled, according to Suidas, from Didymus of Alexandria and "The Sarrhaean" (Lucillus of Tarra in Crete). Zenobius is also said to have been the author of a Greek translation of Sallust and of a birthday poem (γενεθλιακα) on Hadrian.

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ZENODOCHIUM (Gr. ξενοδοχιας, ξενος, stranger, guest, δεχομαι, to receive), the name given by the Greeks to a building erected for the reception of strangers.

ZENODOTUS, Greek grammarian and critic, pupil of Philetas (q.v.) of Cos, was a native of Ephesus. He lived during the reigns of the first two Ptolemies, and was at the height of his fame about 292 B.C. It was the influence of the king that induced him to leave the library at Alexandria and the first critical editor (katalektos) of Homer. His colleagues in the librarianship were Alexander of Aetolica and Lycophrion of Chalcis, to whom were allotted the tragic and comic writers respectively, Homer and other epic poets being assigned to Zenodotus. Although he has been reproached with arbitrariness and an insufficient knowledge of Greek, in his recension he undoubtedly laid a sound foundation for future criticism. Having collated the different MSS. in the library, he expunged or obelized doubtful verses, translated or altered lines, and introduced new readings. He divided the Homeric poems into books (with capitals for the Iliad, and small letters for the Odyssey), and possibly was the author of the calculation of the days of the Iliad in the Tabula Iliaca. He does not appear to have written any regular commentary on Homer, but his Homeric γλωσσα (lists of unusual words) probably formed the source of the explanations of Homer attributed by the grammarians to Zenodotus. He also lectured upon Hesiod, Aenacreon and Pinard, if he did not publish editions of them. He is further called an epic poet by Isocrates, and three epigrams in the Greek Anthology are assigned to him.

There appear to have been at least two other grammarians of the same name: (1) Zenodotus of Alexandria, surnamed

1 See the Palmyrene inscriptions given in Vogüé, Syrie centrale, Nos. 28, 29 = Cooke, North-Semitic Inscriptions, Nos. 120, 131. Zabbiā, an abbreviation of some such form as Zabdi-lā = dayry of God, was a common Palmyrene name; it occurs in the Old Testament, Ezr. x. 26; Neh. iii. 20.

2 Whether Shīrūr or his son Hormuzd is not certain: Shīrūr’s death is variously placed in 269 and 272.
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ó by ðσταν; (2) Zenodotus of Millus, the disciple of Crates, who like his master attacked Aristarchus.


ZENATHE, a market town of Hungary, in the county of Bács-Bodrog, 133 m. S.E. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900) 25,582. It is situated on the right bank of the river Thiess, and is historically known for the decisive victory won in its vicinity by Prince Eugene of Savoy over the Turks on the 11th of September 1701.

ZEOLITES, a family of minerals consisting of hydrated silicates of alumina with alkalies or alkaline earths or both. The water they contain is readily lost, and before the blowpipe it is expelled with intumescence; hence the name zeolite, from the Greek ζεόλιν (to boil) and άλιθος (a stone), given by A. Cronstedt in 1758. In some other characters, as well as in their origin and mode of occurrence, they have points in common. Several species have been distinguished, of which the more important are: Apophyllite (p. 73) and pectoite (see Pyroxene). These are also sometimes included.

Heulandite Group
Heulandite H. CaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Brewsterite H. (Sr, Ba, Ca)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Epistilbite H. CaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Welselite (Ba, Ca, K)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Philippinite H. Ca₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O

Stilbite Group
H. CaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Cäsitellite H. Ca₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Gismondite H. Ca₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Laumontite H. Ca₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O

Chabazite Group
Chabazite (Ca, Na)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O, etc.
Gmelinite (Na, Ca)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Levyvite NaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Analcite NaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Natrolite Na₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Mesolite (Na, Ca)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Scolecite Ca₂Al₃Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Edingtonite BaAl₂Si₃O₈ + 3H₂O
Thomsomite (Na, Ca)₂Al₂Si₃O₈ + 2H₂O

Some of the chemical formulae given above are only approximate, since in some species the composition varies between certain limits and can be best expressed by the isomorphous mixing of different molecules (see, for example, Chabazite). They are all readily decomposed by hydrochloric acid, usually with the separation of gelatinous silica. By the action of various reagents several substitution products have been prepared artificially: thus, crystallized products, in which the alkalis or alkaline earths are replaced by ammonium or silver, &c., have been obtained.

The zeolites are often beautifully crystallized, and belong to several crystal-systems. The crystals usually show evidences of twinning, and when examined in polarized light they frequently exhibit optical anomalies and a complex structure. The hardness (H. 3½-3) and specific gravity (2-0-2-4) are comparatively low, and so are the indices of refraction and the double refraction.

The water of zeolites presents many points of interest. Laumontite loses water on exposure to air; when a crystal is soon crumbly to powder unless they are kept in a moist atmosphere. All the zeolites lose a portion of their "water of crystallization" in dry air (over sulphuric acid), and a considerable portion at a temperature of 100°C., increasing in amount to about 20% of the actual amount lost depending not only on the temperature, but also on the tension of aqueous vapour in the surrounding atmosphere. In some species the remaining water is expelled only at a red heat, and is therefore to be regarded as "water of constitution." With the progressive loss of water there is a progressive change in the optical characters of the crystals. When a partially dehydrated and opaque crystal is exposed to moist air the water is reabsorbed, the crystal becoming again transparent and regaining its original optical characters. Not only may water be reabsorbed, but such substances as ammonia, hydrogen sulphide and alcohol may be absorbed in definite amounts and with an evolution of heat. The water of zeolites may therefore be partly driven off and reabsorbed or replaced by other substances without destroying the crystalline structure; in the main the results thus seem to differ from the water of crystallization of most other hydrated salts.

Zeolites are minerals of secondary origin and in most cases have resulted from the decomposition of the felspars of basic igneous rocks; more commonly they are associated with that of the felspars with the addition of water. Nepheline and sodalite are often altered to zeolites. They usually occur as crystals lining the amygdaloidal and other cavities of basalt, melaphyre, &c. Under the microscope they are associated with agate, calcite and some other minerals. Less frequently they occur in cavities in granite and gneiss, and in metalliferous veins (e.g., in auriferous quartz veins). They are important as industrial raw materials (e.g. analcite) of igneous rocks. Several species have been observed in the Roman masonry at the hot springs of Bourbonnes-Bains in France: and phillipite has been dredged from the Mediterranean deep sea.

See Analcite, Chabazite, Harmotome, Heulandite, Natrolite, Philiblite, Scolecite, Stilbite. (L. J. S.)

ZEOPHANIAH, the ninth of the minor prophets in the Bible. The name (Yahveh) "hides" or "treasures"; there is a similar Phoenician compound of Baal) is borne by various individuals, in Jer. xxix. 25 (cf. liii. 24); Zech. vi. 10, 14; 1 Chron. vi. 36, of among the Jews of the period of the Babylonian captivity (in the 6th century B.C.). The prophet's ancestry is traced to the West (cf. Jer. xxxiii. 14) to his great-grandfather Hezekiah, who may, in spite of 2 Kings xx. 18, xxii. 1, be the well-known king of Judah (c. 720-690). This would agree fairly with the title (i. 1) which makes the prophet a contemporary of King Josiah (c. 637), and this in turn appears to agree (a) with the internal conditions (i. 4-6; cf. 2 Kings xxiii. 4, 5. 12) which, it is held, are evidently earlier than Josiah's reforms (620); (b) with the denunciation of the royal household, but not of the (young) king himself (i. 8, iii. 3); (c) with the apparent allusion in ch. i. 1 to the invasion of the Scythians (perhaps c. 560) and (d) with the anticipated downfall of Assyria and Nineveh (li. 13, 607 B.C.). Zephaniah's prophecies are characterized by the denunciation of Judah and Jerusalem and the promise of a peaceful future, and these are interwoven with the idea of a world-wide judgment resulting in the sovereignty of a universally recognized Yahweh. The theme in its main outlines is a popular one in biblical prophecy, but when these 53 verses are carefully examined and compared with prophetic thought elsewhere, several difficult problems arise, an adequate solution of which cannot as yet be given.

The name (i. 1) is a "prognostication" or divining of the entire destruction of every living thing (2-3), the fate of Judah and Jerusalem is heralded (4-6). The name of Baal (so LXX.; remnant implies a date after Josiah's reforms) and of the idolatrous priests will be cut off together in better times. (condemned later than 620 in Jer. xix. 13, c. xlv. 15-19) and swear by the Ammonite god Milcom (or perhaps by their Moloch) for the persistence of his grim cult (cf. Jer. v. 6). Silence is enjoined at the appearance of Yahweh (i. 15, 17), Zech. xxii. 21; and there follows a fine description of "the day of Yahweh" (v. 7-18). The invertebrate popular belief in the manifestation of the warring deity on behalf of his people (e.g. Isa. xxxiv. 8, liii. 4; Jer. xlvii. 10-13; Obad. 15; Ezek. xxx. 3) is treated (6) ethically, as a day of judgment upon sin and pride (Amos v. 18; Isa. xii. 21-22) and (6) apocalyptically, is bound up with ideas of a universal doom. Punishment will fall upon an oppressive court, upon those who wear foreign apparel and who "leap over the threshold" (v. 9, cf. 1 Sam. v. 5, a Palesine custom)—a protest against heathen intercourse, for which cf. Ezek. xvi. 5, and Costume, Oriental. The blow falls first on the north side of Jerusalem (v. 10 seq., the merchant quarter (?), cf. Zech. xiv. 21); the city will be ransacked and the indifferent or apathetic, who thought that Yahweh could do neither good nor evil (so of the idols, Isa. xlii. 23; Jer. x. 15) will be ruined. With v. 13 contrast the promises Isa. lvii. 21, "That day is a day of wrath" (v. 15) with celebral signs (cf. Amos v. 18, 20, viii. 9; Isa. xiii. 10; Joel ii. 1, 13, 15) and warn distress, with which shall not be compared (v. 18, cf. Hb. x. 29; Ezek. xxi. 28; Matthew Babylon is more generally Ezek. vii. 10). Thus Yahweh's jealousy fired by the dishonour shown towards him in Judah will make an end of all the phenomena of destruction (v. 18, cf. r. 2 seq., and see Isa. x. 23, where a remnant is promised).

1 For "day" (i.e. of battle) cf. the Arab usage, W. R. Smith, Prophec. of Israel, p. 398. The victorious and divine kings of Egypt in the XIXth and XXth Dynasties are likened to Baal in his "hour" (J. H. Breasted, Hist. Doc. Eg., iii. §§ 312, 326, iv. § 106).

2 The Vulgate Dies trae dies illa, whence the striking hymn by Thomas of Celano (c. 1250).
ZEPHANIAH

Chap. ii. opens probably "Get you shame, and be ye ashamed, O nation unabashed, before ye become as that passeth away (cf. Isa. ix. 14); for this is a solemn call to repentance (cf. Amos v. 6, 15; Jer. iv. 14, &c.) is joined to the appeal to "the humble ones of the earth" (v. 3, cf. iii. 12; Isa. xi. 4, Ps. lxxxvi. 9) to seek righteousness and humility, peradventure (cf. Ps. lxxxvi. 9) they may be saved from the day of Yahweh's wrath (cf. "for" the cities of the Philistines shall be destroyed (v. 4, cf. on i. 9 above), and an oracle of woe is uttered against Edom (cf. on ii. 5 seq.)." Against this "remnant of the house of Judah" is promised the maritime coast (v. 7, read by the sea for thereupon), and this is enhanced by the tidings of the return of the captivity. This thought is developed further in chap. iii. 13 seq. (cf. Isa. lixiv. 13 seq.), and especially Ezek. xxvii. 29 sq.; Ezek. xxxv., 12 "the reproach of Moab and the revilings of the Ammonites," and the Lord of Hosts, the God of Israel, swears by his life that both shall be destroyed for their hostility towards the remnant of God's people and their nation (v. 8-10). After turning aside to Yahweh's supremacy (v. 11, seq. 9) the chapter continues with a strong and vague doxology (cf. also "upon" the book (Ethiopic) main by my sword (cf. Isa. lxvi. 16), and a more detailed prophecy upon Assyria and Nineveh. The exulting and boastful city (cf. Babylon, Isa. xlviii. 10, with xv. 5 seq.) shall be a haunt of wild animals (cf. Babylon, Isa. li. seq., and more especially Edom (cf. xxxiv. 11-13), and is pictured as shortly to be made desolate (v. 15, with the last words cf. Jerusalem, Jer. xix. 8, Edom, xlix. 17).

In chap. iii. there are again changing situations. The defiant, proud, and confident people are contrasted with the humble and lowly, failing to regard the warnings. Her secular and religious leaders are denounced, and stress is laid, not upon foreign cults, but upon the rampant treachery and apostasy of the people themselves (v. 1 seq. and especially ii. 25-28). Yahweh in the midst of her is "righteous" (cf. Neh. ix. 33, and especially the "Deutero-Isaiah," xl sq.), but although the nations round about have been cut off and destroyed, Jerusalem itself has not been washed clean from the guilt of its escape; destruction, has been persistently corrupt (v. 1-7; cf. ii. 30 and often). Therefore, wait ye for me, saith Yahweh, for the day when I arise as a valour (so read in v. 8, cf. Mic. iv. 1; Mal. iv. 5). But there is another sudden transition—in that day Yahweh will assemble all nations and kingdoms to pour out upon them his anger (v. 8). This judgment upon the world will be followed by a universal conversion, as of old (cf. ii. 14, and more especially xvii. 1, 7; some reference to a return of dispersed Jew may be suspected in the now corrupt text). In that day "all the nations of the earth shall be gathered together against Jerusalem" and Yahweh will "fight against those who rise up against her" (v. 9). "The remnant of Israel," also, shall dwell in peace and piety (v. 13; cf. the corrupt people who are to be "refined," Jer. iii. 9). Next, a noteworthy jubilant note is struck when the daughter of Zion is "bidden to exult (v. 14, cf. Isa. lix. 10 seq.); for the valour of the enemy is clearly as Yahweh, the mighty deliverer, is in her midst as "king of Israel" (Isa. xxiv. 3, xlv. 6), he will take joy in her (cf. Isa. ii. 15, lxv. 19), and shall not more see evil. Israel herself (where we shall have, as it seems, an anticipation of what is to happen from the sacred festivals, who were a cause of "reproach" (cf. Ezek. xxxvii. 15; Isa. liv. 4; Neh. i. 3) he will "deal with all oppressors (and the) oppressor shall become a spoil (cf. Ezek. xxviii. 16). She shall become a praise and a name (cf. Jer. iii. 9.) when Yahweh brings back the captives before your eyes" (i.e. in your generation).

It is a natural assumption that prophecies have a practical end and refer to existing or impending conditions. But although one single leading motive runs through the book of Zephaniah there are abrupt transitions which do not concern mere subjective considerations of logical or smooth thought, but material and organic changes representing different groups of ideas. The instruments of Yahweh's anger (ch. i.) are not so real or prominent on the political horizon as, for example, in Isaiah, Jeremiah or Habakkuk. The true date of the Scythian inroad and its results for Judah and Philistia are less important when it is observed that the doom upon Philistia, the vengeance upon Moab and Ammon and the promises for Judah (ch. ii.) belong to a large group of prophecies against central and external religious and social conditions, (cf. also Hosea, vii. 1 seq.) who are depicted for their contempt, hostility and intrusion. These prophecies

1 The idea of "righteousness" (δικαιοσύνη), or, more accurately, appears to have implied the mutual bonds uniting the community and its deity, see Journ. Theol. Stud., 1908, p. 632 n. 1; Expositor, Aug. 1910, p. 120. Material familiar to contemporary thought is naturally used (see especially H. Gressmann, Ursprung d. israel.-jud. Eschatologie; J. M. P. Smith, Biblical World, 1910, pp. 223 seq.).

2 The prophecy of the "remnant," and, as in iii. 12, are viewed as a small pious community which, as we find in the Psalms (see Nowack's Comm.),

3 The "humble" (cf. "to be humble) can scarcely be identified with the "remnant," and, as in iii. 12, are viewed as a small pious community which, as we find in the Psalms (see Nowack's Comm.),

4 See further W. R. Smith, art. "Zephaniah," Encyc. Brit., 9th ed., who points out that "in the scheme of Isaiah it is made clear that the power of the Sufferer who shall possess the nations cannot fail to be recognized as Yahweh's work."

are in large measure associated traditionally with the fall of Jerusalem, and to such a calamity, and not to the inroad of the Scythers, the references to the "remnant" and the "captivity" can only refer. The anticipation of future events is of course conceivable in itself, but the promises (in ch. i.) presuppose events other and later than those with which the Scythers were connected. On the other hand, it is entirely intelligible that a prophecy relating to Scythers should have been re-shaped to apply to later conditions, and on this view it is explicable why the indefinite political convulsions should be adjusted to the exile and why the gloom should be relieved by the promise of a territory extending from the Mediterranean to the Syrian desert (ii. 7, 9). After a period of punishment (cf. Lamentations) Yahweh's jealousy against the semi-heathen Judah has become a jealousy for his people, and we appear to move in the thought of Haggai and Zechariah, where the remnant are contrasted with Yahweh's work and the dispersed exiles are to be brought back (cf. Zech. i. 14-17, viii. 2-7). But in ch. iii. other circles of thought are manifest. Israel's enemies have been destroyed, her own God Yahweh has proved his loyalty and has fulfilled his promises, but the city remains polluted (v. 1-7, cf. Isa. liii. seq.; Malachi). Once more doom is threatened, and once more we pass over into a later stage where Yahweh has vindicated his supremacy and Zion is glorified. Instead of the realities of history we have the apocalyptic feature of the gathering of the nations (v. 8); the thought may be illustrated from Zech. xii. 1-12, where Jerusalem is attacked by the world's hostile forces, and in the visions of the Apocalypse where the city is actually captured and half the people are removed into captivity (cf. Zeph. iii. 11 purging, 15 removal of the enemy, 18-20 return of the captivity). The goal is the vindication of Israel and of Israel's God, and the establishment of universal monotheism (ii. 11, iii. 9 seq.). The foe which threatened Judah has become the chastiser of Assyria and Ethiopia (ii.) and the prelude to the golden age (iii., cf. Ezek. xxxviii seq.). No longer does Yahweh contend for recognition with Baal and the "host of heaven" (i. 4-6); the convulsions of history are Yahweh's work for the instruction and amendment of Israel (iii. 6 seq.); the heathen gods prove helpless (ii. 11), but in what manner the conviction of Yahweh's greatness is brought home is not stated.

If Jer. iv. 5-6, 30 originally referred to the Scythers, it has been revised to refer to the Chaldeans; also in Ezek. xxxviii seq. the northern foe has been associated with the great world-judgment. The replacing of the sequel of Amos (q.v.) by one which presupposes a later historical background, the addendum to the prophecy against Moab (Isa. xvi. 13 seq.), the pessimistic glosses in Isa. xlviii., the variations in the Hebrew and Greek translation of "my people", the absolute judgment of prophecy (vi. 10), the judgment and promise, exemplify certain literary processes which illustrate the present form of Zephaniah. In Isaiah and Zechariah, notably, older and later groups of prophecies are preserved, whereas here the new preludes and new sequels suggest that the original nucleus has passed through the hands of writers in touch with those vicissitudes of thought which can be studied more completely elsewhere. It is not to be supposed that the elimination of all later passages and traces of revision will give us Zephaniah's prophecies in their original form. The text as we have it is the result of several stages of development; if 4-6 or iii. 1-4 do not compose a date before Josiah's reforms. The doom of Cushi is still in the future in Ezek. xxx. 4; and if the impending fall of Nineveh (iii. 13) implies an early date, yet it is found in writings which have later additions (Nachum), or which are essentially later (Jonah, cf. Tobit xiv. 4 [LXX], 8, 10, 15); cf. also the use of Assyria for Babylon (Ezra vii. 22) or Syria (Zech. x. 10). Historical references in prophecies are
not always decisive (Ezek. xxxii., for example, looks upon Edom and Sidon as dead), and while the continued revision of the book allows the presumption that the tradition ascribing its invention to the time of Josiah may be authentic, it is doubtful how much of the original nucleus can be safely recognized. These are problems which concern not only the criticism of biblical, prophetic, and historical writings as a whole, but also the annals and vicissitudes of the period over which they extend (see Jews; Palestine: History).

According to late tradition Zephaniah, like Habakkuk, was of the tribe of Simeon (cf. Micah of Mareshah and Obadiah of Beth-haccerem, see Cheyne, Ency. Bib., col. 3455). The apocryphal prophecy of Zeph (Clement of Alex., Stromata, v. 11, 777) in Gesch. Völk. Isr., iii., 271 seq.) merely illustrates the tendency to utilize older traditions. See further on textual, metrical and literary details, W. R. Smith (note 4, previous page), reprinted in Ency. Bib., with additions by S. R. Driver. J. A. Selbie in Haselgrove's Diet. Bib. J. Lippin in Bibl. Studien (1910), and the commentaries on (or all portions of) the Minor Prophets by A. B. Davidson (Camb. Bible, 1896); G. A. Smith (1898); W. Nowack (1900); K. Marti (1905; especially valuable): Driver (Cent. Bib., 1906); Von Hoornacker (1908). (S. A. C.)

**ZEPHYRUS, ST.** bishop of Rome from about 198 to 217, succeeded Victor I. He is described as a man of little intelligence or strength of character, and the somewhat important controversies on doctrine and discipline that marked his pontificate are more appropriately associated with the names of Hippolytus and of Callixtus, his principal adviser and afterwards his successor.

**ZEUS,** in Greek mythology, the west wind (whence the English "zephyr," a light breeze), brother of Boreas, the north wind, and son of the Titan Astraus and Eos, the dawn. He was the husband of Chloris, the goddess of flowers, by whom he had a son, Cupid, the god of fruit (Ovid, Fasti, v. 197); by the harpy Podarge he was also the father of Xanthus and Ballus, the horses of Achilles. Being spurred by Hyacinthus (q.v.), he caused his death by accident at the hands of Apollo. He was identified by the Romans with Favonius, and Chloris with Flora.

**ZERBST,** a town of Germany, in the duchy of Anhalt, situated on the Nuthe, 11 m. N.W. of Dessau and 27 m. S.E. of Magdeburg by the railway Dessau-Leipzig. Pop. (1900) 17,095. It is still surrounded in part by old walls and bastions, while other portions of the whither fortifications have been converted into pleasant promenades. It contains five churches, one of which (St Nicholas), built in 1446-88, is a good example of the late Gothic style as developed in Saxony, with its spacious proportions, groined vaulting, and bare simple pillars. The town hall dates from about 1480, but it was disfigured by additions in the beginning of the 17th century. It contains the magnificent ceiling, among the few that remain of the Luther Bible illustrated by Lucas Cranach the younger. The palace (1681-1750) has been used as a depository of archives since 1872. There are several quaint old houses, with high gables, in the market-place, in the middle of which stand a Roman column, about of 1445, and a bronze figure known as the Bultjerunger (butter-girl), of uncertain origin and meaning, but now regarded as the palladium of the town. The old Franciscan monastery, with fine cloisters, founded in 1230, contains the gymnasium; a Cistercian nunnery of 1241 has been converted into barracks; and the Augustinian monastery of 1390 has been a hospital since 1525. Gold and silver articles, silk, plush, cloth, leather, soap, starch, chemicals and carriages are among the chief manufactures. Iron-founding is carried on; and several breweries are engaged in the preparation of Zerbst bitter beer, which enjoys considerable repute.

Zerbst is an ancient town, mentioned in 940. In 1307 it came into the possession of the Anhalt family, and from 1603 till 1793 was the capital of the collateral branch of Anhalt-Zerbst. In 1793 it passed to Anhalt-Dessau.

**ZEUTHEN, MARIANNE.** poet and theophatic writer; village at the head of the Visp valley and at the foot of the Matterhorn of the Valais, Switzerland. It is 224 m. by rail from Visp in the Rhône valley, and there is also a railway from Zermatt past the Riffel inns to the very top of the Gornergart (10,289 ft.). The village is 5315 ft. above the sea, and in 1900 had 741 permanent inhabitants (all Romanists save 9, and all but 17 German-speaking), resident in 73 houses. Formerly Zermatt was called "Pra- borge," and this name is mentioned in the Swiss census of 1888. Its originally Romance population seems to have been "Toutounised" in the course of the 19th century, the name "Matt" (now written "Zermatt," i.e. the village on the meadows) first occurring at the very end of that century. Zermatt was long known to botanists and geologists only, and has an interesting though very local history. De Saussure in 1780 was one of the first tourists to visit it. But it was not till the arrival of M. Alexandre Seiler in 1854 that its fame as one of the chief tourist resorts in the Alps was laid, for tourists abound only there where there are good inns. When M. Seiler died in 1859 he was proprietor of most of the great hotels in and around Zermatt. The Matterhorn, which crowds over the village from which it takes its name, was not conquered till 1865 by Mr. E. Whymper and two guides then alone surviving the terrible accident in which their four comrades perished. The easy glacial pass of the St Théodule (10,890 ft.) leads S. in six hours from the village to the Val Tournanche, a tributary glen of the valley of Aosta.

**ZERO,** the figure 0 in the Arabic notation for numbers, nought, cipher. The Arabic name for the figure was sifr, which meant literally an empty thing. The old Latin writers on arithmetic translated or transaliterated the Arabic word as nullus, and this is its Latin name (zero, sifr) borrowed by F. Sera, whence it came late into English. The Spanish form cifra, more closely resembling the original Arabic, gave O. Fr. cifer, mod. chiffre, also used in the sense of monogram, and English "cipher" which is thus a doublet. In physics, the term is applied to a point with which phenomena are quantitatively compared, especially to a point of a graduated instrument between a positive and negative or ascending and descending scale, as in the scales of temperature.

**ZEULENRODA,** a town of Germany, in the principality of Reuss-the-Elter, situated on a high plateau in a well-wooded and hilly country, 33 1/2 m. from Halle by the railway to Werdau. Pop. (1900) 9419. The town contains a handsome town hall, several churches and schools, and carries on an active industry in cotton and woollen stocking manufacture. Zeulenroda is mentioned as a village as early as 1390, and it obtained municipal rights in 1438. Since 1500 it has belonged to the Greiz branch of the Reuss line of princes.

**ZEUS,** the Greek counterpart of the Roman god, Jupiter (q.v.). In the recorded periods of Hellenic history, Zeus was accepted as the chief god of the pantheon of the Greeks; in religious progress of the human race, from lower to higher ideals can be well illustrated by the study of his ritual and personality. His name is formed from a root dír, meaning "bright," which appears in other Aryan languages as a formative part of divine names, such as the Sanskrit Dvīs, "sky"; Latin Divis, Jovis, Diespiter, divus; Old English Tūs; Norse Tyr. The conclusion that has been frequently drawn from these facts, that all the Indo-Germanic stocks before their dispersal worshipped a personal High God, the Sky-Father, has been now seen to be hazardous. Nevertheless, it remains probable that Zeus had already been conceived as a personal and pre-eminent god by the ancestors of the leading Hellenic tribes before they entered the peninsula which became their historic home. In the first place, his pre-eminence is obviously pre-Homerian; for Homer was no preacher or innovator in religion, but gives us some at least of the primary facts of the contemporary religious beliefs prevailing about 1000 b.c.; and he attests for us the supremacy of Zeus as a belief which was unquestioned by the average Hellene of the time; and appreciating how slow was the process of religious change in the earlier period, we shall believe that the god had won this position long before the Homeric age. In the next place, we cannot trace the origin of his worship.
back to any special stock or particular locality; we cannot
find a single community that did not possess his worship or
that preserved any legend that suggests a late date for its
introduction. Doubtless, it has very ancient and close asso-
ciations with Thessaly; for most of the leading tribes must
have entered Hellas by this route, and remembered the moun-
tain Olympus that dominates this region as the earliest home
of his cult, and took with them to their most distant settlements
the memory of his deeds. Also the name Zeus, which is used
in Thessaly, like the Achaean Aeacids, may have regarded
him as specially their ancestor. But to maintain therefore
that he originated in Thessaly as the special deity of a single
tribe, who were able to impose him upon the whole of Hellas,
is against the analogies offered by the study of the special
cults of Greek polytheism. But if we assume that he was the
aboriginal Hellenic High God, we must be quite ready to admit
that the separate communities were always liable to cherish
other divinities with a more ardent and closer devotion, whether
divinities that they brought with them or divinities that they
found powerfully established in the conquered lands, Athena
or Hera, for instance, in Attica or Argolis, or Poseidon in
the Minyan settlements. This in fact is a frequent fate of a “High
God” in polytheistic systems; he is vaguely praised and reverenced,
but lower divine powers are nearer to the people's love or fear.

The Cretan legend of his birth and origin, which gave rise to
the Cretan cult of Zeus Кηρυγαγειας, “Zeus born in Crete,”
may appear evidence against the theory just set forth. But it is
not likely that any birth-legend belongs to the earliest stratum
of the Zeus-religion. The Aryan Hellenes found in many of
the conquered lands the predominant cult of a mother-goddess,
to whom they gradually had to affiliate their own High God;
and in Crete they found her cult associated with the figure of
a male divinity who was believed to be born and to die at certain
periods; probably he was an early form of Dionysus, but owing
to his prominence in the island the Hellenic settlers may have
called him Zeus; and this would explain the markedly
Dionysiac character of the later Zeus-religion in Crete.

We can now consider the question how the god was imagined
in the popular belief of the earliest and later periods. Homer
is our earliest literary witness; and the portrait that he presents
of Zeus is too well known to need minute description. To
appreciate it, we must distinguish the lower mythologic aspect
of him, in which he appears as an amorous and capricious deity
lacking often in dignity and real power, and the higher religious
aspect, in which he is conceived as the All-Father, the Father
of Gods and men in a spiritual or moral sense, as a God
omnipotent in heaven and earth, the sea and the realms below,
as a God of righteousness and justice and mercy, who regards
the sanctity of the oath and bears the voice of the suppliant
and sinner, and in whom the pious and the lowly trust. In
the fact the later Greek religion did not advance much above
the high-water mark of the Homeric, although the poets and
philosophers deepened certain of its noble traits. But Homer
we now know to be a relatively late witness in this matter.
How much of his sketch is really primitive, and what can we
learn or guess concerning the millennium that preceded him?
His God is pronouncedly individual and personal, and probably
Zeus had reached this stage of character at the dawn of Hellenic
history. Yet traces of a pre-delitian and animistic period sur-
vived here and there; for instance, the pre-Hellenic cult of
the thunder itself called Zeus (Zeus Кηρυγαγειας) in a Mantinian inscrip-
tion, and the stone near Gythium in Laconia on which Orestes
sat and was cured of his madness, evidently a thunder-stone,
was named itself Zeus Кηρυγαγειας, which must be interpreted as
“Zeus that fell from heaven”; we here observe that the personal
God does not yet seem to have emerged from the divine
thing or divine phenomenon. Yet the Arcadians, like the
other Greeks, had probably long before Homer risen above
this stage of thought; for Greek religion was so strongly
conservative that it preserved side by side the deposits of differ-
ent ages of thought surended perhaps by thousands of years.

Again the Homeric Zeus is fully anthropomorphic; but in
many domains of Greek religion we discover the traces of therio-
morphism, when the deity was regarded as often incarnate
in the form of an animal or the animal might itself be worshiped
in its own right. We seem to find it latent in the Arcadian
worship of Zeus Δαίας and the legend of King Lycaon. The
story of that king, who gave a shape of the wild goat to
him into a wolf for his sins; and the later Arcadian ritual
in honour of this God betrays a hint of lynanthropy; some one
who partook of the sacrifice or who swam across a certain lake
was supposed to be transformed into a wolf for a certain time.4
Robertson Smith5 was the first to propose that we have here
the traces of an ancient totemistic sacrifice of a wolf-clan, who
offered the “theanthropic” animal “the man-wolf” to the
wolf-God. The totemistic theory in its application to Greek
religion cannot be here discussed; but we may note that there
is a hint in the story that the wold was offered to Zeus and
that the name Δαίας could not originally have designated the
“wolf”-God: for from the stem λυκο- we should get the
adjective λυκος, not Δαίας; the latter is better derived from a
word such as λυκω-, “light,” and may allude to the God of the
clear sky; in fact the wolf, which was a necessary animal
in the ritual and legend of Apollo Δαίας, may have strayed
casually into association with Zeus Δαίας, attracted by a
false etymology. Another ritual, fascinating for the glimpse
it affords of very old-world thought, is that of the Dipolia,
the yearly sacrifice to Zeus Polies on the Acropolis at Athens.6
In this ox was slaughtered with ceremonies unique in Greece;
the priest who slew him fled and remained in exile for a period,
and the axe that was used was tried, condemned and flung
into the sea; the hide of the slain ox was stuffed with hay,
and this effigy of the ox was yoked to the plough and feigned
to be alive. Again Robertson Smith saw here the “thean-
thropic” animal, the Ox-God-man, eaten sacramentally by an
ox-tribe, and so sacred that his death is a murder that must
be atoned for in other ways and by a feigned resurrection. We
recognize indeed the sacramental meal and the sanctity of the
ox; but the animal may have acquired this sanctity tempo-
rarily through contact with the altar; we need not suppose
an ox-clan—the priest was merely βουτός “the herdman”7
nor assume the permanent sanctity of the ox, nor the belief
that the deity was permanently incarnate in the ox: the main
part of the ceremony can be explained as cattle-magic intended
to appease the rest of the oxen or to prevent them suffering
sympathetically through the death of one. We may indeed
with Mr Andrew Lang explain the many myths of the bestial
transformations of Zeus on the theory that the God was the
tribal ancestor and assumed the shape of the animal-living
in order to engender the tribal patriarchy;8 but on the actual
cults of Zeus theriomorphism has left less trace than on those
of many other Hellenic deities. The animal offered to him
can become temporarily sacred; and its skin would have
magic properties: this explains his use of the aegis, the goat-
skin, as a battle-carm; but of a Goat-Zeus, a Ram-Zeus, or a
Wolf-Zeus, there is no real trace.

The peculiar characteristic of his earliest ritual was the
human sacrifice; besides the legend of King Lycaon, we find
it in the story of the house of Athamas and in the worship of
Zeus Aσιδαρός of Thessaly,9 and other examples similarly recorded.
The cruel rite had ceased in the Arcadian worship before Pliny
wrote, but seems to have continued in Cyprus till the reign of
Hadrian. It was found in the worship of many other divinities
of Hellas in early times, and no single explanation can be
given that would apply to them all. A hypothesis favoured by
Dr Frazer, that the victim is usually a divine man, a priest-king

1 Corp. Insr. Grec. 2254.
3 Pausan. iii. 22. 1. 
4 Pausan. viii. 82: Pausan. viii. 2, § 3 and § 6.
5 Myth. Ritual and Religion, ii. 176.
7 Cf. Porphyrii, ii. 29, 30 (from Theophrastus) and Pausan. i.
8 Pliny, Nat. Hist. viii. 82; Pausan. viii. 2, § 3 and § 6.
incarnating the God, may be well applied to the Athamanthid sacrifice and to that of King Lycaon; for he derives his name from the divinity himself, and according to one version he offers his own child; and the Lycaonid legend presents one almost unique feature, which is only found elsewhere in legendary Dionysiac sacrifice, the human flesh is eaten, and the sacrifice is a cannibalistic-sacrament, of which the old Mexican religion offers conspicuous example. Yet it is in this religion of Zeus that we see most clearly the achievement of progressive morality; Zeus himself punishes and abolishes the savage practice; the story related by Plutarch,1 how a kid was armed and disposed of by Helen for Helen when she was led to the altar to be offered, is a remarkably close parallel to the biblical legend of Abraham's sacrifice of Isaac.

We can now consider the special attributes of the anthropomorphic God. His character and power as a deity of the sky, who ruled the phenomena of the air, so clearly expressed in Homer, explains the greater part of his cult and cult-titles. More personal than Ouranos and Helios—with whom he has only slight associations—he was worshipped and invoked as the deity of the bright day (Adeon and Aetaos, Aeta), who sends the rain, the wind and dew ('Omurows, Naios, Tires, Orios, Etmowos, Ekmioi), and such a primitive adjective as aterpeta, applied to things “that fall from heaven,” attests the primeval significance of the name of Zeus. But the thunder was his most striking manifestation, and no doubt he was primarily a thunder-God, Keraivos, KeravnofOdos, 'Astrapanos. These cult-titles had originally the force of magic invocation, and much of his ritual was weather-magic: the priest of Zeus Awaivos, in time of drought, was wont to ascend Mount Lyceum and dip an oak-bough in a sacred fountain, and by this sympathetic means produce moisture. A god of this character would naturally be worshipped on the mountain-tops, and that these were very frequently consecrated to him is shown by the large number of appellatives derived from the names of mountains. But probably in his earliest Hellenic period the power of Zeus in the natural world was not limited to the sky. A deity who sent the fertilizing rains would come to be regarded as a god of vegetation, who descended into the earth and whose power worked in the life that wells forth from the earth in plant and tree. Also the close specific associations of the heavens and the earth, and the thunder and the rain, which Zeus has so recently been exposed.2 Homer calls the God of the lower world Zeos Karakhivos,3 and the title of Zeus Xbivos which was known to Hesiod, occurred in the worship of Corinth, fourth century bc, and there is reason to believe that Euboules of Eleusis and Trophoun of Lebedaeia are fabled forms of the nether Zeus; in the Phrygian religion of Zeus, which no doubt contains primitive Aryan elements, we find the Thunder-God associated also with the nether powers.4

A glimpse into a very old stratum of Hellenic religion is afforded us by the records of Dodona. A Dodonian liturgy has been preserved which, though framed in the form of an invocation and a dogma, has the force of a spell-prayer—"Zeus was and is and will be, oh great Zeus: earth gives forth fruits, therefore call on Mother Earth."5 Zeus the Sky-God is seen here allied to the Earth-Goddess, of whom his feminine counterpart, Dione, may have been the personal form. And it is at Dodona that his association with the oak is of the closest. His prophet-priests the Seloi "with unwashed feet, coughing on the ground,"6 lived about the sacred oak, which may be regarded as the primeval shrine of the Aryan God, and interpreted its oracular voice, which spoke in the rustling of its leaves or the cooing of its doves. Achilles hails the Dodonian God as Πελανις, either in the sense of "Thessalian" or primitive;7 and Zeus, we may believe, long remained at Dodona such as he was when the Hellenic tribes first brought him down from the Balkans, a high God supreme in heaven and in earth.

We may also believe that in the earliest stages of worship he had already acquired a moral and a social character. The Homeric view of him as the All-Father is a high spiritual concept, but one of which many savage religions of our own time are capable. The family, the tribe, the city, the simpler and more complex organisms of the Hellenic polity, were specially under his care and direction. In spite of the popular stories of his amours and infidelities, he is the patron-God of the monogamic marriage, and his union with Hera remained the divine type of human wedlock.8 "Reverence Zeus, the Father-God: "all fathers are sacred to Zeus, the Father-God, and all brothers to Zeus the God of the family": these phrases of Aristophanes and Epicetetus9 express the ideas that engendered his titles Parwos, Γαμηδος, Τελειος, Όψινος. In the Eumenides of Aeschylus10 the Erinyes are reproached in that by aiding Clytemnestra, who slew her husband, "they are dishonouring and bringing to naught the pledges of Zeus and Hera, the marriage-goddess"; and these were the divinities to whom sacrifice was offered after the wedding,11 and it may be that some kind of mimetic representation of the "Holy Marriage," the Ιερος γαμος, of Zeus and Hera formed a part of the Attic nuptial ceremonies.12 The "Holy Marriage" was celebrated in many parts of Greece, and certain details of the ritual suggest that it was of great antiquity: here and there it may have had the significance of vegetation-magic,13 like the marriage of the Lord and Lady of May; but generally it seems to have been only regarded as a divine counterpart to the human ceremony. Society may have at one time been matrilineal in the communities that became the historic Hellenes; but of this there is no trace in the worship of Zeus and Hera.14

In fact, the whole of the family morality in Hellas centred in Zeus, whose altar in the courtyard was the bond of the kinsmen; and sins against the family, such as unnatural vice and the exposure of children, are sometimes spoken of as offences against the High God.15 He was also the tutelary deity of the larger organization of the phratría; and the altar of Zeus Φάραος was the meeting-point of the phrateres, when they were assembled to consider and settle the intimacy of the new applicants for admission into their circle.16

His religion also came to assist the development of certain legal ideas, for instance, the rights of private or family property in land; he guarded the allotments as Ζεως Κλαρος,17 and the Greek commandment "thou shalt not remove thy neighbour's landmark" was maintained by Zeus Ορος, the god of boundaries, a more personal power than the Latin Jupiter Terminus.18

His highest political functions were summed up in the title Iheros, a cult-name of legendary antiquity in Athens, and frequent in the Hellenic world.19

His consort in his political life was not Hera, but his daughter Athena Polias. He sat in her judgment court τη πελανία where cases of involuntary homicide were tried.20 With her he shared the chapel in the Council-Hall of Athens dedicated to them under the titles of Βουλαίω and Βουλαία, "the inspirers of counsel," by which they were worshipped in many parts of

1 Clemens, Protrept. p. 31 P.
2 Parallela, 35.
3 Farnell, Cults of the Greek States, i. 1541; ref. 66-39.
4 See Chadwick, in "Anthropological Journ.", 1909, on "The Oak and the Thunder-God."
5 ll. 457.
6 Works and Days, 45; Pausan. ii. 2. 8.
8 Pausan. x. 12. 10.
9 Chadwick, op. cit.
10 "primitive;" and Zeus, we may believe, long remained at Dodona such as he was when the Hellenic tribes first brought him down from the Balkans, a high God supreme in heaven and in earth.
11 ll. 233.
12 Arist. Nub. 1468; Epict. Diatrib. iii. ch. 11.
13 ll. 7-24.
15 Phoebus, s.v. "Ιερος γαμος.
16 See Frazer's Golden Bough, 2nd ed. i. 226-227.
17 The attempts to discover the traces of matrilineal society in Greek religion may be regarded as mainly unpersuasive: ride A. B. Cook, Class. Rev. 1900 (October, November). "Who was the wife of Zeus?"
18 Dio. Chrys. Or. 7 (Dind. i. 139).
20 Pausan. viii. 53. 9.
21 Plate's Laws, 842 E.
22 Vide Farnell, op. cit. i. 159; ref. 107-109.
23 Corp. Inscr. Attic. iii. 71 and 73.
ZEUXIS

Greece. The political assembly and the law-court were consecrated to Zeus 'Agamemnor, and being the eternal source of justice he might be invoked as Δικαιόνος "The Just." As the god who brought the people under one government he might be worshipped as Πάρνιασος; as the deity of the whole of Hellas, 'Ελλάντωος, a title that belonged originally to Aegina and to the prehistoric tribe of the Aeacidae, and had once the narrower application to the "Thessalian Hellenes," but acquired the Pan-Hellenic sense, in fact expanded into the form Πανελλάντωος, perhaps about the time of the Persian wars, when thanksgiving or victory took the form of dedications and sacrifice to Zeus the Liberator. Finally, in the formulae adopted for the public oath, where many deities were invoked, the name of Zeus was the masterword.

There is reason for thinking that this political character of Zeus belongs to the earliest period of his religion, and it remained as long as that religion lasted. Yet in one respect Apollo was more dominant in the political life; for Apollo possessed the more powerful oracle of Delphi. Zeus spoke directly to his people at Dodona only, and with authority only in ancient times; for owing to historical circumstances and the trend of events a new position was forced upon it. It remains to consider briefly certain moral aspects of his cult. The morality attaching to the oath, so deeply rooted in the conscience of primitive peoples, was expressed in the cult of Zeus Ορκος, the God who punished perjury. The whole history of Greek legal and moral conceptions attaching to the guilt of homicide is studied in relation to the cult-appealatives of Zeus. The Greek consciousness of the sin of murder, only dimly awakened in the Homeric period, and only sensitive at first when a kinsman or a suppliant was slain, gradually expanded till the sanctity of all human life becomes recognized by the higher morality of the people: and the names of Ζεύς Μιλχιως, the bread deity, of the ghost-world whom the sinner must make "placable," of Ζεύς Ιδάκως and Προσταρατως, to whom the conscience-stricken outcast may turn for mercy and pardon, play a guiding-part in this momentous evolution.

Even this summary reveals the deep indebtedness of early Greek civilization to this cult, which engendered ideas of importance for the higher religious thought of the race, and which might have developed into a monothestic religion, had a prophet-philosopher arisen powerful enough to combat the polytheistic proclivities of Hellas. Yet the figure of Zeus had almost faded from the religious world of Hellas some time before the end of paganism; and Lucian makes him complain that even the Egyptian Anubis is more popular than he, and that men think they have done the outworn God sufficient honour if they sacrifice to him once in five years at Olympia. The history of religions supplies us with many examples of the High God losing his hold on the people's consciousness and love. In the case of this cult the cause may well have been a certain coldness, a lack of enthusiasm and mystic ardour, in the service. These stimulants were offered rather by Demeter and Dionysus, later by Cybele, Isis and Mithras.


ZEUXIS, a Greek painter, who flourished about 430-390 B.C., and described himself as a native of Heraclea, meaning probably the town on the Black Sea. He was, according to one

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1 Antiphon vi. p. 789; Pausan. i. 3, 34; Corp. Insr. Attic. iii. 683.
2 Farnell, op. cit. vol. i. p. 162.
5 Herod. i. 237; Pausan. v. 15 (Schol.).
6 Simonides, Frags. 140 (Bergk), Strab. 412.
7 There was a minor oracle of Zeus at Olympia. See Oracle.
8 Pausan. v. 24, 9.
9 Alcmena, possibly another name for 7.
10 Helena at Croton.
11 Penelope.
12 Menelaus.
13 An old Woman.
14 Boy with grapes.
15 Monochromes.
16 Monochromes.
17 Plastic works in clay.

In ancient records we are told that Zeuxis, following the initiative of Apollodoros, had introduced into the art of painting a method of representing his figures in light and shadow, as opposed to the older method of outline, with large flat masses of colour for draperies, and other details, such as had been practised by Polygnotus and others of the great fresco painters. The new method led to smaller compositions, and 44 years after his death and single figure was it more easy for the painter to demonstrate the combined effect of the various means by which he obtained perfect roundness of form. The effect would appear strongly realistic, as compared with the older method, and to this was probably due the origin of such stories as the contest in which Zeuxis painted a bunch of grapes so like reality that birds flew towards it, while Parrhasius painted a curtain which even Zeuxis mistook for real. It is perhaps a variation of this story when we are told (Pliny) that Zeuxis also painted a boy holding grapes towards which birds flew, the artist remarking that if the grapes had been as well painted as the grapes the birds would have kept at a distance. But, if the method of Zeuxis led him to real roundness of form, to natural colouring, and to pictures consisting of single figures or nearly so, it was likely to lead him also to search for striking attitudes or motives, which by the obviousness of their meaning should emulate the plain intelligibility of the larger compositions of older times. Lucian, in his Zeuxis, speaks of him as carrying this search to a novel and strange degree, as illustrated in the group of a female Centaur with her young. When the picture was exhibited, the sculptor admired its novelty and, overcome by the skill of the painter, to the vexation of Zeuxis. The pictures of Hercules strangling the serpents to the astonishment of his father and mother (7), Penelope (10), and Menelaus Weeping (11) are quoted as instances in which strong motives naturally presented themselves to him. But, in spite of the tendency towards realism inherent in the new method of Zeuxis, he is said to have retained the ideality which had characterized his predecessors. Of all his known works it would be expected that this quality would have appeared best in his famous picture of Helena, for this reason, that we cannot conceive any striking or effective incident for him in her career. In addition to this, however, Quintilian states (Inst. Orat. xii. 10, 4) that in respect of robustness of types Zeuxis had followed Homer, while there is the fact that he had inscribed two verses of the Iliad (iii 176 seq.) under his figure of Helena. As models for the picture he was allowed the presence of five of the most beautiful maidens of Croton at his own request, in order that he might be able to "transfer the truth of life to a mute image." Cicero (De Invent. ii. 1, 4) assumed that Zeuxis had found distributed among these five the various elements he wished to use, and to make up a figure of ideal beauty. It should not, however, be understood that the painter had made up his figure by the process of combining the good points of various models, but rather that he found among those models the points that answered to the ideal Helena in his own mind, and that he merely required the models to guide and correct himself by during the process of transferring his ideal to form and colour. This picture also is said to have been exhibited publicly, with the result that Zeuxis made much profit out of it. By this and other means,
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we are told, he became so rich as rather to give away his pictures than to sell them. He presented his Alcmena to the Agrigentines, his Pan to King Archelaus of Macedonia, whose palace he is also said to have decorated with paintings. According to Pliny (N.H. xxxv. 62), he made an ostentatious display of his wealth at Olympia in having his name woven in letters of gold on his dress. Under his picture of an athlete (12) he wrote that "It is easier to revile than to rival" (μισθοντες τοις μεγαλουσ η μισθοφόρα). A contemporary, Isocrates (De Furtium. 28), remarks that no one would say that Zeuxis and Parrhasius had the same profession as those persons who paint pinokia, or tablets of terra-cotta. We possess many examples of the vase-painting of the period circa 400 B.C., and it is noticeable on them that there is great freedom and facility in drawing the human form, besides great carelessness. In the absence of fresco paintings of that date we have only these vases to fall back upon. Yet, with their limited resources of colour and perspective, they in a measure show the influence of Zeuxis, while, as would be expected, they retain perhaps more of the simplicity of older times.

ZHELESNOVODSK, a health resort of Russian Caucasia, in the province of Terek, lying at an altitude of 1853 ft. on the S. slope of the Zhelesnaya Gora (2805 ft.), 10 m. by rail N.N.W. from Pyatigorsk. It possesses chalybeate springs of temperature 56°—60° Fahr.; the buildings over the springs were erected in 1863. The season lasts from early in June to the middle of September.

ZHITOMIR, or ZHITOMIR, a town of western Russia, capital of the government of Volhynia, on the Teteriv river, 85 m. W.S.W. (1900) 52,290, more than one-third Jews. It is the see of an archbishop of the Orthodox Greek Church and of a Roman Catholic bishop. Two printing offices in Zhitomir issue nearly one-half of all the Hebrew books printed in Russia. The Jewish merchants carry on a considerable export trade in agricultural produce, and in timber and wooden wares from the forests to the north. Kid-gloves, tobacco, dyestuffs and spirits are manufactured.

Zhitomir is a very old city, tradition tracing its foundation as far back as the times of the Scandinavian adventurers, Askold and Dir (9th century). The annals, however, mention it chiefly in connexion with the invasions of the Tartars, who plundered it in the 13th, 14th and 17th centuries (1660), or in connexion with destructive conflagrations. It fell under Lithuanian rule in 1326, and during the 13th century was one of the chief cities of the kingdom. Later it became part of Poland, and when the Cossacks rose under their chieftain, Bogdan Chmielnicki (1648), they sacked the town. It was annexed to Russia along with the rest of the Ukraine in 1778.

ZHOB, a valley and river in the N.E. of Baluchistan. The Zhob is a large valley running from the hills near Ziarat first eastward and then northward parallel to the Indus frontier, till it meets the Gomal river at Khajuri Kach. It thus becomes a strategic line of great importance, as being the shortest route between the North-West Frontier Province and Quetta, and dominates all the Pathan tribes of Baluchistan by cutting between them and Afghanistan. Up to the year 1884 it was practically unknown to Europeans, but the Zhob Valley Expedition of that year opened it up, and in 1886 the Zhob Valley and Gomal Pass were taken under the control of the British Government. The Zhob Valley was the scene of punitive British expeditions in 1884 and 1890. In 1890 Zhob was formed into a district or political agency, with its headquarters at Fort Sandeman: pop. (1901) 3552. As reconstituted in 1903, the district has an area of 926 sq. m.; pop. (1901) 60,718, mostly Pathans of the Kakar tribe.

See Sir T. H. Holdich's Indian Borderland (1901); Bruce's Forward Policy (1900); McFall's With the Zhob Field Force (1895); and Zhob District Gazetteer (Bombay, 1907).

ZIARAT ("a Mahomedan shrine"), the summer residence of the chief commissioner of Baluchistan, and sanatorium for the European troops at Quetta: 8830 ft. above the sea and 33 m. by cart-road from the railway. There is a very good supply of fine sand-dunes, and the hills around are well-wooded and picturesque.

ZICHY (of Zich and Vásonyék), the name of a noble Magyar family, conspicuous in Hungarian history from the latter part of the 13th century onwards. Its first authentic ancestor bore the name of Zayk, and this was the surname of the family until it came into possession of Zich in the 15th century. It first came into great prominence in the 16th century, being given county rank in 1579 in the person of the imperial general Ferdinand, who married a daughter of Count Odon (d. 1605). His descendants divided into two branches: those of Zichy-Palota and Zichy-Karhlov. The Palota line, divided again into three: that of Nagy-Láng, that of Adony and Szent-Miklós, and that of Palota, which died out in the male line in 1874. The line of Zichy-Karhlov (since 1811 Zichy-Ferraris) split into four branches: that of Védri, that of Vészony, and those of Daruvár and Csicó, now extinct.

COUNT KÁROLY ZICHY (1753—1826) was Austrian war minister in 1800 and minister of the interior in 1813—1814; his son, Count Ferenc Zichy (1783—1862) was the Austrian field-marshal condemned to ten years’ imprisonment for surrendering the town to the insurgents in 1848 (he was pardoned in 1851). Count ODÖN [EDMUND] ZICHY (1800—1848), administrator of the county of Veszprém, was hanged on the 3oth of September 1848 by order of a Hungarian court-martial, presided over by Görgő, for acting as Jellachich’s emissary to the imperial general Roth. COUNT FERENC ZICHY (1811—1900) was secretary of state for commerce in the Széchenyi ministry of 1848, but retired on the outbreak of the revolution, joined the imperial side, and acted as imperial commissionaire; from 1874 to 1880 he was Austrian ambassador at Constantinople. Count ODÖN ZICHY (1811—1894) was remarkable for his great activity in promoting art and industry in Austria-Hungary; he founded the Oriental Museum in Vienna. His son, Count Eugen Zichy (b. 1837), inherited his father’s notable collections, and followed him in his economic activities; he three times visited the Caucasus and Central Asia to investigate the original seat of the Magyars, publishing as the result Voyages au Caucase (2 vols., Budapest, 1897) and Dritte asiatische Forschungsreise (6 vols., in Magyar and German; Budapest and Leipzig, 1900—1905). COUNT FERDINAND ZICHY (b. 1839), vice-president of the Hungarian stadtholdership under the Mailath régime, was condemned in 1863 under the press laws to the loss of his titles and to imprisonment. In 1867 he was elected to the Hungarian parliament, at first joining the party of Déák, and subsequently becoming one of the founders and leaders of the Catholic People’s Party (see HUNGARY, History). His second son, Count Aladár Zichy (b. 1864), also a member of the Catholic People’s Party, was made minister of the royal household in the Wéckerle cabinet of 1906. COUNT JáSOS ZICHY (b. 1868), also from 1896 to 1906 a member of the Catholic People’s Party in the Lower House, and after 1906 attached to Andrassy’s Constitutional Party, was of importance as the confidant of the heir to the throne, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand. COUNT GÉZA ZICHY (b. 1849), nephew of the Count Ferenc mentioned above, studied under Liszt and became a professional pianist; in 1891 he became intimate of the Hungarian national opera-house, a member of the Hungarian Upper House and head of the Conservatoire at Budapest. COUNT MIHÁLY ZICHY (b. 1859), one of the most conspicuous Hungarian painters, was appointed court painter at St. Peters-Burg and accompanied the Russian monarch on various journeys. The National Gallery at Budapest possesses some of his paintings, notably that of “Queen Elizabeth before the coffin of Francis Déák;” but he is best known for his illustrations of the works of the great Magyar writers (Petőfy, Arany, &c.).

ZIEM, FÉLIX FRANÇOIS GEORGE PHILIBERT (1821— ), French painter, was born at Beaune (Côte d’Or) in 1821. Having studied at the art school of Dijon, where he carried off the grand prix for architecture, he went to Rome in 1839 and there continued his studies. The years from 1845 to 1849
were spent in travel in the south of France, Italy and the East, where he found the glowing sunlight and the rich colour peculiarly suited to his temperament. His reputation is, however, not based so much on his orientalist canvases as on his pictures of Venice, which are generally characterized by the intensity of the sunny glow on the red sails and golden-yellow buildings under a deep blue sky. Many of his Venetian pictures are purely imaginative, and their appeal is entirely due to their qualities of colour, his architectural drawing being frequently faulty and careless. After "Sunrise at Stamboul," which Théodore Gautier called "the finest picture of modern times," he received the Legion of Honour in 1857, and was made an officer in 1878. The majority of his paintings have gone to American private collections, but two of his pictures, "The Doge's Palace in Venice" (1852), and a marine-painting, are at the Luxembourg Museum, and a "View of Quai St Jean, Marseilles" at the Marseilles Gallery, whilst many others are to be found in the leading private collections of modern pictures in France, England and Germany. In collaboration with Luc de Vos he illustrated The Death of Paganini.

See Félix Ziem, by L. Roger-Milès (Librairie de l'Art, Paris).

ZIERIKSEE, a town in the province of Zeeland, Holland, on the south side of the island of Schouwen. Pop. 6800. It is a very old town, and formerly flourished exceedingly on account of its trade and fishing, and important salt-making industry, and now is the chief market centre and port in the island. Among the principal buildings are the town-hall (15th century); the Great Church, which was rebuilt after a fire in 1852, but retains the lofty tower (1454) belonging to the earlier building; the Little Church, the prison and the exchange. The chief public square occupies the site of a residence of the counts of Zeeland dating from 1048.

ZIETEN, HANS JOACHIM VON (1600-1786), Prussian general-field-marshal, began his military career as a volunteer in an infantry regiment. He retired after ten years' service, but soon afterwards became a lieutenant of dragoons. Being involved in some trade transactions of his squadron-commander, he was cashiered, but by some means managed to obtain reinstatement, and was posted to a hussar corps, then a new arm. At that time light cavalry work was well known only to the Austrians, and in 1735 Rittmeister von Zieten made the Rhine campaign under the Austrian general Baronay. In 1741, when just promoted lieutenant-colonel, Zieten met his old teacher in battle and defeated him at the action of Rothschloss. The chivalrous Austrian sent him a complimentary letter a few days later, and Winterfeld (who was in command at Rothschloss) reported upon his conduct so favourably that Zieten was at once marked out by Frederick the Great for command. Within the year he was colonel of the newly formed Hussar regiment, and henceforward his promotion was rapid. In the "Moravian Foray" of the following year Zieten and his hussars penetrated almost to Vienna, and in the retreat to Silesia he was constantly employed with the rearguard. Still more distinguished was his part in the Second Silesian War. In the short peace, the hussars, like the rest of the Prussian cavalry, had undergone a complete reformation; to iron discipline they had added the dash and skirrelshing qualities of the best irregulars, and the hussars were considered the best of their arm in Europe. Zieten fought the brilliant action of Moldau Tein almost on the day he received his commission as major-general. In the next campaign he led the famous Zietenrilt round the enemy's lines with the object of delivering the king's order to a distant detachment. At Hohenfriedberg-Streigau and at Katholisch-Hennersdorf the hussars covered themselves with glory. Hennerstorf and Kesselsdorf ended the second war, but the Prussian army did not rest on its laurels, and their training during the ten years' peace was careful and unceasing. When the Seven Years' War broke out in 1756 Zieten was made inspector-general. At Reichenberg and at Prag he held important commands, and at the disastrous battle of Kolin (18th June 1757) his left wing of cavalry was the only victorious corps of troops. At Leuthen, the most brilliant battle of the 18th century, Zieten's cavalry began the fighting and completed the rout of the Austrians. He continued, during the whole of the war, to be one of Frederick's most trusted generals. Almost the only error in his career of battles was his misdirection of the frontal attack at Torgau, but he redeemed the mistake by his desperate assault on the Sipititz heights, which eventually decided the day. At the peace, General Zieten went into retirement, the hero among the army and the people. He died in 1786. Six years later Frederick's suc- cessor erected a column to his memory on the Wilhelmsplatz in Berlin.


ZIMBABWE, a Bantu name, probably derived from the two words zimba ("houses") and mabgi ("stones"), given to certain ruins in South-East Africa. Its use is not confined to Southern Rhodesia and should not properly be restricted to any one particular site. For, as the medieval Portuguese stated, it is merely a generic term for the capital of any considerable chief, and it has been applied even by them to several distinct places. From about 1550 onwards the Zimbabwe generally referred to by Portuguese writers was at a spot a little north of the Afur district, not far from the Zambezi. There is some reason, however, to suppose that before this the capital of the Monomo-tapa was situated much farther south, and it may plausibly be identified with the most extensive ruins as yet known, viz. those near Victoria (Mashonaland) to which popular usage has now attached the name of Zimbabwe.

These ruins were discovered by Adam Renders in 1868 and explored by Karl Mauch in 1871. They became well known to English readers from J. T. Bent's account of the Ruined Cities of Mashonaland, but the popularity of that work disseminated a romance concerning their age and origin which was only dispelled when scientific investigations undertaken in 1903 showed it to be wholly without historical warrant. Even before this it had been clear to archaeologists and ethnologists that there was no evidence to support the popular theory that Zimbabwe had been built in very ancient days by some Oriental people. Swan's measurements, which had misled Bent into accepting a chronology based on a supposed orientation of the "temple," had been shown to be inexact. There was no authentic instance of any inscription having been found there or elsewhere in Rhodesia. Numerous objects had been discovered in the course of excavations, but not one of them could be recognized as more than a few centuries old, while those that were not demonstrably foreign imports were of African type.

The explorations conducted in 1905 added positive evidence. For it was proved that the medieval objects were found in such positions as to be necessarily contemporaneous with the foundation of the buildings, and that there was no super-position of periods of any date whatsoever. Finally from a comparative study of several ruins it was established that the plan and construction of Zimbabwe are by no means unique, and that this site only differs from others in Rhodesia in respect of the great dimensions and the massiveness of its individual buildings. It may confidently be dated to a period not earlier than the 14th or 15th century A.D., and attributed to the same Bantu people the remains of whose stone-fenced kraals are found at so many places between the Limpopo and the Zambezi.

There are three distinct though connected groups of ruins at Zimbabwe, which are commonly known as the "Elliptical Temple," the "Acropolis" and the "Valley Ruins." The most famous is the first, which is doubtless misnamed, since it is not a temple and its contour is too unsymmetrical to be described properly as elliptical. It is an irregular enclosure over 800 ft. in diameter, a maximum height of 18 ft. and a maximum breadth of 220 ft., surrounded by a dry-built wall of extraordinary massiveness. This wall is in places over 30 ft. high and 14 ft. wide, but is very erratic in outline and
variable in thickness. The most carefully executed part is on the south and south-east, where the wall is decorated by a row of granite monoliths beneath which runs a double line of chevron ornament. The interior has been much destroyed by the ravages of gold-seekers and amateur excavators. Enough, however, remains to show that the scheme was a combination of such a stone *kradl* as that at Nanatali with the plan of a fort like those found about Iinyanga. The only unique feature is the occurrence of a large and a small conical tower at the southern end, which Bent and others considered to be representatives of the human phallus. Their form, however, is not sufficiently characteristic to allow this hypothesis. Moreover, it has been noted that the nearest approximation to phallic worship is found amongst the most typical of African peoples, viz. the Ewe-speaking natives of the West Coast. The floor of the enclosure is constituted as in the other Zimbabwe buildings by a thick bed of cement which extends even outside the main wall. This cement mass is heightened at many places so as to make platforms and supports for huts. Groups of these dwellings are enclosed by subsidiary stone walls so as to form distinct units within the larger precinct.

The term "kraal" is in some ways more remarkable than the *great kraal* which has just been described. It is a hill rising 200 to 300 ft. above the valley, fortified with the minutest care and with extraordinary ingenuity. The principles of construction, the use of stone and cement are the same as in the "elliptical" *kradl*; there is no definite plan, the shape and arrangement of the enclosures being determined solely by the natural features of the ground. Between this and the "elliptical" *kradl* are the "Valley Ruins," consisting of smaller buildings which may have been the dwellings of those traders who bartered the gold brought in from distant mines. Zimbabwe was probably the distributing centre for the gold traffic carried on in the middle ages between subjects of the Monomotapa and the Mahommedans of the coast.

Compare also the articles Rhodesia: Archaeology, and Monomotapa.

See D. Randall-MacIver, Mediaeval Rhodesia (London, 1906); *Journal of Anthr. Inst., vol. xxxv.; Geog. Journal* (1906); Mauch's report in *Austral* (1872) is now only of bibliographical interest, while Bent's *Ruinized Cities of Mashomaland* (1892) and R. N. Hall's *Great Zimbabwe* (1905) are chiefly valuable for their illustrations.

ZIMMERMANN, JOHANN GEORG, RITTER von (1728–1795), Swiss philosophical writer and physician, was born at Brugg, in the canton of Aargau, on the 8th of December 1728. He studied at Göttingen, where he took the degree of doctor of medicine, and was afterwards appointed by the Dutch East India Company, *De irritabilitate* (1751). After travelling in Holland and France, he practised as a physician in his native place, and here he wrote *Über die Einsamkeit* (1756, emended and enlarged, 1784–85) and *Vom Nationalstode* (1758). These books made a great impression in Germany, and were translated into almost every European language. They are now only of historical interest. In Zimmermann's character there was a strange combination of sentimentalism, melancholy and enthusiasm; and it was by the free and eccentric expression of these qualities that he excited the interest of his contemporaries. Another book by him, written at Brugg, *Von der Erfahrung in der Arzneiwissenschaft* (1764), also attracted much attention. In 1768 he settled at Hanover as private physician of George III, with the title of Hofrat. Catherine II. invited him to the court of St. Petersburg, but this invitation he declined. He attended Frederick the Great during that monarch's last illness, and afterwards issued various books about him, of which the chief were *Über Frederich den Grossen und meine Unterredung mit ihm kurz vor seinem Tode* (1788) and *Fragmente über Friedrich den Grossen* (1790). These writings display extraordinary personal vanity, and convey a wholly false impression of Frederick's character. Zimmermann died at Hanover on the 7th of October 1798.

See A. Rengger, Zimmermann's Briefe an einige seiner Freunde in der Schweiz (1830); E. Bodemann, Johann Georg Zimmermann, sein Leben und bisher ungedruckte Briefe an ihn (Hann., 1878); and R. Ischer, Johann Georg Zimmermann's Leben und Werke (Bern, 1903).

**ZINC**, a metallic chemical element; its symbol is Zn, and atomic weight 65.37 (O = 16). Zinc as a component of brass (CuZn3, Cu2Zn3) had currency in metallurgy long before it became known as an industrial metal. From the 18th century the brass as the "metal of the Mosynoed," which is produced as a bright and light-coloured CuZn3, not by addition of tin, but by fusing up with an earth. Pliny explicitly speaks of a mineral *kaluba* or *cadmia* as serving for the conversion of copper into aurichalcum, and says further that the deposit of (zinc oxide) formed in the brass furnaces could be used instead of the mineral. The same process was used for centuries after Pliny, but its rationale was not understood. Stahl, as late as 1702, quoted the formation of brass as a case of the union of a metal with an oxide, and brought out a metallic compound; but he subsequently adopted the view propounded by Kunckel in 1717, that "cadmium" is a metallic calx, and that it dyes the copper yellow by giving its metal up to it.

The word zinc (in the form *sinken*) was first used by Paracelsus, who regarded it as a bastard or semi-metal; but the word was subsequently used for both the metal and its ores. Moreover, zinc and bismuth were confused, and the word *spalter* (the modern spelter) was indiscriminately given to both these metals. In 1597 Libavius described a "peculiar kind of tin" which was prepared in India, and of which a friend had given him a quantity. From his account it is quite clear that that metal was zinc, but he did not recognize it as the metal of calamine. It is not known to whom the discovery of isolated zinc is due; but we do know that the art of zinc-smelting was practised in England from about 1730. The first continental zinc-works were erected at Liège in 1807.

**Occurrence.**–Zinc does not occur free in nature, but in combination it is widely diffused. The chief ore is zinc blende, or sphalerite (see BLEND), which generally contains, in addition to zinc sulphide, small amounts of the sulphides of iron, silver and cadmium. It may also be accompanied by pyrites, galena, arsenites and antimonides, quartz, calcite, dolomite, &c. It is widely distributed, and is particularly abundant in Germany (the Harz, Silesia), Austria-Hungary, Belgium, the United States and in England (Cumberland, Derbyshire, Cornwall, North Wales). Second in importance is the carbonate, calamine (*q.v.*) or zinc spar, which at one time was the principal ore; it almost invariably contains the carbonates of cadmium, iron, manganese, magnesium and calcium, and may be contaminated with clay, oxides of iron, galena and calcite; "white calamine" owes its colour to much clay; "red calamine" to admixed iron and manganese oxides. Calamine chiefly occurs in England and in the United States. Of less importance is the silicate, ZnSiO$_3$·H$_2$O, named electric calamine or hemi-morphite; this occurs in quantity in Altenburg near Aix-la-Chapelle, Sardinia, Spain and the United States (New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Missouri, Wisconsin). Other zinc minerals are willemite (*q.v.*), Zn$_2$SiO$_4$, hydrozincite or zinc bloom, ZnCO$_3$·Zn(OH)$_2$, zincite (*q.v.*) or red zinc ore, ZnO, and franklinite, 3(Fe,Zn)$_2$·(Fe,Mn)$_3$.O$_6$.

**Production.**–Until about 1833 the supply of zinc was almost entirely obtained from Germany, but in this year Russia began to contribute about 2000 tons annually to the 6000 to 7000 derived from Germany. Belgium entered in 1837 with an output of about 2000 tons; England in 1855 with 3000; and the United States in 1875 with 2000 tons. The productions of Germany, the United States and Belgium are now annually and fairly regularly increased; the rise has been most rapid in the United States, where the Zn mine is in the middle of a flourishing mining district.
ZINC

States. England, France, Spain and Austria have been fairly constant producers. Germany produced 155,799 tons in 1900, and 188,208 in 1905; Belgium, 120,000 in 1900 and 143,165 in 1905; the United States, 111,000 in 1900 and 183,014 in 1905. The world's supply was 445,438 tons in 1900, and 654,367 in 1905.

Metallurgy

The principles underlying the extraction of zinc may be summarized as: (1) the ore is first converted into zinc oxide; (2) the oxide is distilled with carbon and the distillate of metallic zinc condensed. Oxide of zinc, like most heavy metallic oxides, is easily reduced when the metallic state is approached, reduces charcoal; pure red zinc ore may be treated directly; and the same might be done with pure calamine of any kind, because the carbon dioxide of the zinc carbonate goes off below redness and the zinc oxide does not. The only requisite for success is then to prevent the reducing action of the charcoal. Zinc blende, however, being zinc sulphide, is not directly reducible by charcoal; but it is easy to convert it into oxide by roasting; the sulphur goes off as sulphur dioxide whilst the zinc remains in the (insoluble) form of 

In practice, however, we never have to deal with pure zinc minerals, but with complex mixtures, which must first of all be subjected to mechanical operations, to remove at least of the gangue, and if possible also of the heavy metallic impurities (see Ore-Dressing).

As ores of zinc are usually shipped before smelting from widely separated sources, Spain, Sweden, Italy, Germany, and the Rocky Mountains of North America—it is important that they be separated from their mixtures at the mines. The difficulty in separating zinc blende from iron pyrites is well known, and the simple block of ore has never been designed with this end in view. The Wetherill system of magnetic concentration has been remarkably successful in separating these two substances and concentrates as well-known and by no means completely

The magnetic concentrates contain enough zinc to be well adapted to the manufacture of zinc oxide. Magnetic concentration is also applied in the removal of an excess of iron from partially roasted blende, which is magnetic, and the reduction is very much in the way of separation when, as in many complex ores, carbonates of iron, calcium and magnesium replace the isomorphic zinc carbonate, when some iron sulphide containing less sulphur than pyrites replaces zinc sulphide, and when gold and silver are contained in the zinc ore itself. Hence in exceptional circumstances it is possible to utilize a large class of widely distributed ores, carrying from 10 to 35 per cent. of zinc, in which the zinc alone, estimated at 2d. a pound, is worth from about £2 to £7 per ton of ore. The ores of the Joplin district, in the Ozark uplift in the Mississippi Valley, are remarkable in that they are specially adapted to the Wetherill system and are probably not average over 10 per cent. of zinc, but the dressed zinc ore as sold ranges from 45 to 62 per cent. of zinc. This region now supplies a large part of the ore required by the smelters of Illinois, Missouri and Kansas.

The ore, even if it is not blende, must be roasted or calcined in order to remove all volatile components as completely as possible, because it will be difficult to remove them in proper proportion of the zinc vapour during the distillation. If the zinc is present as blende, this operation offers considerable difficulties, because the zinc sulphide passes into zinc oxide as the first instance into sulde, which demands a high temperature for its conversion into oxide. Another point to be considered in this connexion is the mass of sulphur dioxide evolved, being destructive of vegetable life, are an intolerable nuisance to the neighbourhood in which the operations take place. For the desulphurization of zinc blende where it is not intended to collect and save the sulphur there are many mechanical kilns, generally called "sulphur vents," heayed with a horizontal passage in which these may be made, to do good work on moderately clean ores which do not melt at the temperature of desulphurization. But the problem of saving the sulphur is yearly becoming more important. In roasting a ton of rich blende containing 60 per cent. of zinc enough sulphur is liberated to produce one ton of strong sulphuric acid, and unless this is collected not only are poisonous gases evolved, but the whole mass of waste is laden with 

sulphuric acid is to be collected, it is important to keep the fuel gas from admixture with the sulphur gases, and kilns for this purpose require some modification. If hot air is introduced into the retort, then the sulphur, that evolves with the zinc and the sulphur is sufficient to keep up a part of the reaction; but for the complete expulsion of the sulphur an externally-fired metal of zinc is required. This must be provided in a sheltered furnace, where the distillate is collected in a ladle held under the outlet end of the pipe. For manufacturing purposes a furnace similar to that used for the making of glass was employed to heat a circular row of crucibles in which zinc was smelted in a shell of the furnace. This system, however, has long been abandoned.

The modern processes may be primarily divided into two groups according to the method of distillation employed, viz., one in which the zinc is collected in a ladle held under the outlet end of the pipe. For manufacturing purposes a furnace similar to that used for the making of glass was employed to heat a circular row of crucibles in which zinc was smelted in a shell of the furnace. Various combinations and modifications of these two types of furnace have given rise to distinctive names, and as each system has its advantages and disadvantages local conditions determine which is the better.

In the Belgian process the reduction and distillation are carried out in cylindrical or elliptical retorts of fire-clay, from 3½ to 4 in. long, 9 in. in diameter, and 10 in. in internal diameter. Some forty or six more retorts, arranged in parallel horizontal rows, are heated in one furnace. The furnaces are square and open in front, to allow the outlet ends of the retorts to project; they are grouped in three or four layers, each layer being divided into vertical sections. Each retort is provided with two adapters, namely, a conical pipe of fire-clay, about 15 in. long, which fits into the retort end, and a conical tube of sheet iron, which fits over the flues of the kiln and plays the same part as the chimney in a smelting furnace. The gases pass through the flues of the kiln and the chimney. In the Belgian process the zinc is roasted in the retort, heated as before, to a white heat, and then allowed to cool. The retorts, after having been heated to redness, are inserted in corresponding sets. The charge of the retorts consists of a mixture of 1100 lb. of roasted calamine and 750 lb. of dry powdered coal per furnace. A newly started furnace, however, is used for a time with smaller charges. Supposing the last of these preliminary distillations to have been completed, the residues left in the retorts are removed, the charge of the retorts is renewed, and the zinc is roasted as before. The retorts of the second and third charges are of cylindrical shape, and are adapted to the specially made retorts of the Wetherill system.

For the charging and discharging of the retorts there are cylindrical openings in the side of the kiln, equipped with iron doors, and the zinc which is to be distilled is introduced through these doors. The zinc passes through the flues of the kiln, and the residue is removed through the chimney. The retorts are heated to a temperature of about 1500°, the zinc is distilled, and the furnace is cooled down, after which the zinc is collected in a ladle held under the outlet end of the pipe. For manufacturing purposes a furnace similar to that used for the making of glass was employed to heat a circular row of crucibles in which zinc was smelted in a shell of the furnace. Various combinations and modifications of these two types of furnace have given rise to distinctive names, and as each system has its advantages and disadvantages local conditions determine which is the better.

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ZINC

Three modes of gas-firing are to be noticed, each of which is adapted to special local conditions. (a) The gas is made from the fuel in a detached fireplace and conducted while hot into the combustion chamber of the furnace, and the air for complete combustion is admitted to the furnace by means of a sloping belt containing the fuel. (b) Both the producer gas and the air are heated before they enter the combustion chamber, as in the Siemens system of regenerative firing. (c) Natural gas is piped to the furnace, where it meets air under pressure and is burned in an open combustion chamber. Further details of the primary advantages of gas-firing are that less fuel is required, that there is better control of the heat in the furnace, and that larger and more accessible furnaces can be built. In Silesia the introduction of gas-firing is now in progress.

In the United States, Belgian furnaces of type (a) are built to contain 864 retorts; of type (b), to contain 300 to 400 retorts; and of type (c), preferably with the air heated. The furnace simplifies manual labour. On a direct-fired furnace at least one man, the bricklayer, must be an expert in all the operations involved; but with a gas furnace a division of labour is possible. One man who understands the use of gaseous fuel can regulate the heat of a thousand or more retorts. The men who charge and empty the retorts, those who draw and cast the metal, and those who keep the furnace in repair, need not know anything about the making or using of gas, and the men who make the gas need not know anything about a zinc furnace. Again, in direct-fired furnaces there are commonly seven or eight rows of retorts, one above another. At random it is possible for an upper row to overhang a lower one, and it is the job of a helper to watch the man who is engaged upon a table, where he is exposed to the full heat of the furnace and requires a helper to wait upon him. With gas-firing the retorts can be arranged in four horizontal rows, all within reach of a man on a crane, but also separated so that, in any case in which gas-making makes possible mechanical appliances may be substituted for manual labour in many operations, such as removing and replacing battens, melting out, casting into moulds, drawing and casting the metal, charging and emptying the retorts, and removing the residues and products.

Refining.—The specific effects of different impurities on the physical and chemical propensities of zinc and the uses to which it is put, have been described by Ashcroft. Fortunately, however, the small amounts of any of them that are likely to be found in commercial zinc are not for most purposes very deleterious. It is generally recognized that the purest ores produce the purest metal. Chemical analysis based on selected ores, and brands, when they mean anything, usually mean that the metal is made from certain ores. Chemical control of the metal purchased is not nearly as common as it should be, and the refining of zinc is at best an imperfect operation. To obtain the metal chemically pure a specially prepared pure oxide or salt of zinc is distilled. A redistilled zinc, from an ordinarily pure commercial zinc, is often called chemically pure, but redistillation is seldom practiced except for the recovery of zinc from galvanizer’s dross and from the skimmings and bottoms of the melting furnaces of zinc rolling mills. The only other method of refining zinc is by electric electrolysis. Impure zinc, which has been reduced by hydrogen to zinc or impure zinc, is allowed to stand at about the temperature of the melting-point of the metal for forty-eight or more hours, whereupon it becomes nearly perfect. When zinc is melted, the impurities rise to the top, the heavier metals such as lead and iron settling towards the bottom. This method is rarely practiced except by the rollers of zinc. A certain amount of refined zinc can be obtained from the molten metal of the electric furnace by distilling off the zinc vapor in the bottom of the bath in a subsequent slow remelting, and it is sometimes possible to eliminate a zinciferous lead which collects in the sump of the furnace. Owing to the fact that at temperatures between its melting and boiling point zinc has a strong affinity for iron, it is often contaminated by the scraper while being drawn from the crucible, as is shown by the fact that the scraper wears away rapidly. As each retort in a furnace is in all essentials a separate crucible, and as the metal from only a few of them goes into a single ingot, there can be no uniformity either in the ingots made from various furnaces or in the ingots themselves from several furnaces treating the same ore. Some brassfounders break from a single ingot the quantity of zinc required to produce an amount of brass they wish to compound in one crucible, but when perfect uniformity is desired the importance of remelting the zinc on a large scale cannot be too strongly emphasized.

Electrolytic Separation of Zinc.—The deposition of pure zinc is brought about by the use of a more or less strong solution, solution, or a low current-density, was used, and that hydrogen was usually evolved simultaneously; sound deposits resulted from the use of a compound of zinc and hydrogen, and from strongly and strong solutions. The cause of the spongy deposit is variously explained, some (Siemens and Halske) ascribing it to the existence of a compound of zinc and hydrogen, and others, among whom are W. Borchers, trace it to the presence of oxide, produced, for example, either by the use of a solution containing a trace of basic salt of zinc (to prevent which the bath should be kept just—almost—imperceptibly—acid), or by the presence of a more electro-negative element, or by the absence of a more electro-positive element, of the zinc. Many processes have been patented, the ore being acted upon by the solution, and the resulting solution treated, by either chemical or electrolytic means, for the production of the refining of zinc. The process of zinc is then electrolysed. E. A. Ashcroft patented a process of dealing with complex ores of the well-known Broken Hill type, containing sulphides of silver, copper, and zinc. The ores were smelted in a reverberatory furnace. The metallic products of zinc, silver, and copper were then recovered by the system, which was worked on a practical scale. A full account of the process (Trans. Inst. Min. and Met., 1898, vol. vi. p. 282) has been published by the inventor, describing the practical trial at the Cockle Creek Works. When the ore was roasted, and leached with sulphuric acid (with or without ferric sulphate); the solution was purified and then electrolysed for zinc with lead anodes and with a current-density of 5 amperes per sq. ft. at 275 volts when diaphragms were used, or 2.5 volts when they were dispensed with, or with 10 amperes per sq. ft. at 3 or 2.5 volts respectively, the electrolyte containing 1.2 lb. of zinc in the form of sulphate, and 1 oz. of sulphuric acid, per gallon. The current efficiency was said at 83 per cent. Canvas diaphragms were used to prevent the acid formed by electrolysis at the anode from mixing with the cathode liquor, and so hindering deposition. C. Hoepfner has patented a new zinc electrolysis process. He used a zinc anode, and a rotating cathode is used in a chloride solution, a porous portion separating the tank into anode and cathode compartments, and to which the generated hydrogen is evolved at the anode being recovered. Hoepfner’s processes have been put in practice in Germany. Halske’s process, with an electrolyte containing alkaline sulphate and zinc sulphate, has been used in Germany. Another process involves the use of zinc dust as anode, and iron plate as cathode, in the mine country. Siemens and Halske have proposed the addition of oxidizing agents such as free halogens, to prevent the formation of zinc hydride, to which they attribute the formation of zinc carbonate and zinc chloride. Borchers, after many experiments, in Borchers’ process the chlorine is heated partly by external iron, partly by the heat generated owing to the use of a current-density of 90 to 100 amperes per sq. ft.

Properties

Zinc is a bluish-white metal, showing a high lustre when freshly fractured. It fuses at 415° C. and under ordinary atmosphere boils at 1040° C. its vapour density shows that it is monatomic. The molten metal on cooling deposits crystals belonging to the hexagonal system, and freezes into a compact crystal line solid, which may be brittle or ductile according to circumstances. If zinc be cast into a mould at a red heat, the ingot produced is laminar and brittle; if cast at just the freezing-point, a metal of a tenacious character is obtained. Zinc is used externally to prevent the ordinary temperature. According to some authorities, pure zinc always yields ductile ingots. Commercial "spelter" always breaks at the grain, while zinc produced in any other way is likely to be rolled out into even a very thin sheet. Such a sheet, if once produced, remains flexible when cold. At about 200° C, the metal becomes so brittle that it can be pounded in a mortar. The specific gravity of zinc is not to be expected to stand perfect comparison according to Karsten, that of pure ingot is 6.915, and rises to 7.191 after rolling. The coefficient of linear expansion is 0.002505 for 100° from 0° upwards (Fizeau). The specific heat is 0.3955 (Regnault). Compact zinc is bluish white; it does not tarnish much in the air. It is fairly soft, and clogs the file. If zinc be heated to near its boiling-point, it catches fire and burns with a brilliant light into its powdery white oxide, which forms a red in the air (lana philosophica, "philosopher's wool"). Boiling water attacks it appreciably, but slightly, with evolution of hydrogen and formation of the hydroxide, Zn(OH)₂. A rod of perfectly pure zinc need be exposed in water for many months before it is attacked that there is no visible evolution of gas; but, if a piece of platinum, copper or other more electro-positive metal be brought into contact with the zinc, it dissolves readily with evolution of hydrogen, and formation of zinc chloride. The ordinary metal dissolves at once, the more readily the less pure it is. Cold dilute nitric acid dissolves zinc as nitrate, with evolution of nitrous fumes and oxygen. Lead nitrate, NO₃, is not reduced, but is not oxidized. NO, is produced besides or instead of nitrous. Zinc is also soluble in soda and potash solutions, but not in ammonia.

Applications.—Zinc is largely used for "galvanizing" iron, sheets of copper, and other Zinc is corrosion, and is being oxidized, in galvanizing. Silver is attacked, and then removed, so that a coat of zinc remains on the iron, which is thereby protected from atmospheric corrosion. It is also a constituent of the typical high-voltage materials, such as stannic acid, nicotine, toluene, are examples. In technologic chemistry it is used as a reducing agent, e.g., in the production of aniline from benzene, but the use of iron is generally preferable in view of the cheapness of this metal.
ZINCITE

**ZINC**

Zinc forms only one oxide, ZnO, from which, by dehydration, a yellowish white powder is obtained. One of the marks of a good product is its being well marked; one distinction is that zinc is less basigean. Zinc is capable of isomorphous replacing many of the bivalent metals—magnesium, manganese, iron, nickel, cobalt and cadmium.

Zinc is a compound of oxygen and zinc, and is obtained in the following manner: by two processes—directly from the ore mixed with coal by volatilization on a grate, as in the Wetherill oxide process, and by oxidizing the vapour given off from the slag of the zinc furnace. The oxide thus obtained is black, and the latter method has generally a better colour, a finer texture, and a greater covering power. It is also manufactured by the latter process from the metallic zinc liquefied out of galvanizer’s dust. It is dried in the ordinary furnace, which is a heated stove, and when set on fire, as on cooling becomes white. This at least is true of the oxide produced from the metal by combustion; that produced from the carbonate by burning, or by yellow rouge, retains a yellow shade permanently. By heating the latter in a current of air, hemorphous pyramids belonging to the hexagonal system; and by heating the chloride in a current of steam as hexagonal prismas. It is insoluble in water; it dissolves readily in all aqueous solutions of alkalis, with formation of salts. It also dissolves in aqueous acetic alkalies, including ammonia, forming “zincates” (e.g., Zn(OH)₂).

Zinc oxide is used in the arts as a white pigment (zinc white); it has a high refractive index and the density of the compound, and offers the advantages of being non-poisonous and of not becoming discoloured in sulphuretted hydrogen. It is used also in medicine.

Zinc chloride is precipitated by the continuous addition of a solution of any zinc salt to a caustic potash. The alkali must be free from carbonate and an excess of it must be avoided, otherwise the hydrate redissolves. It is a white powder, and is insoluble in water, but to acids and alkalis it behaves like the oxide, but dissolves more readily.

**Zinc chloride, ZnCl₂**, is produced by heating the metal in dry chlorine gas, when it distils over as a white translucent mass, fusing at 250° and being at about 400°. Its vapour-density at 300° corresponds to ZnCl₂. It is extremely hygroscopic and is used in synthetic organic chemistry as a condensing agent. It dissolves in an equal volume of water, or in an equal volume of cold water, forming a syrupy solution. A solution of zinc chloride is easily produced from the metal and hydrochloric acid; it cannot be evaporated to dryness without considerable decomposition of the hydrated salt into a mixture of hydrochloric and hydrochloric acids, forming a solution of 

$$\text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{ZnCl}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}. $$

A concentrated solution of zinc chloride converts starch, cellulose and a great many other bodies into soluble compounds; hence the application of the fused salt as a caustic in surgery and the impossibility of filtering a strong ZnCl₂ solution through paper (see CELLULOSE). At a boiling heat, zinc chloride dissolves in any proportion of water, and highly concentrated solutions, of course, boil at high temperatures; hence they afford a convenient medium for the maintenance of high temperatures.

Zinc chloride solution readily dissolves the oxide with the formation of oxychlorides, some of which are used as pigments, cements and masticating agents. One of the products of the action of zinc chloride has the property of dissolving silk, and hence is employed for removing this fibre from wool.

**Zinc sulphide, ZnS**, occurs in nature as the blende (q.v.), and is artificially obtained as a white precipitate by boiling obtained by mixing hydrogen into a neutral solution of a zinc salt. It dissolves in mineral acids, but is insoluble in acetic acid.

**Zinc sulphate, ZnSO₄·H₂O**, or white vitriol, is prepared by dissolving the metal in dilute sulphuric acid. If care be taken to keep the zinc in excess, the solution will be free from all foreign metals except iron and perhaps manganese. Both are easily removed by recrystallization from the mother liquors, and if perfectly freed from ferric and manganic salt, and then digesting the liquid with a washed precipitate of basic carbonate, produced from a small portion of the solution by means of sodium carbonate. The iron and manganese are precipitated as precipitates, and are filtered off. The filtrate is acidified with a little sulphuric acid and evaporated to crystallization. The salt crystallizes out on cooling with 7 molecules of water, forming a yellow orthorhombic plate, being small and thin. They are peculiar in their form. According to Poggiale, 100 parts of water dissolve respectively of (H₂O) salt, 115.2 parts at 0°, and 653.6 parts at 100°. At 100° C. the crystal lost 6 molecules of water, or 40.15 per cent., and if the remaining salt goes off at 250°, a temperature which lies close to that at which the salt begins to decompose. The anhydrous salt, when exposed to a red heat, breaks up into oxide, sulphur dioxide and oxygen. An example of the use of this salt is the formation of an emetic when the temperature is low. In the arts it is employed in the preparation of varnishes, and as a mordant for the production of colours on calico.

A green pigment known as Rösswitz’s green is prepared by mixing 100 parts of zinc vitriol with 2·5 parts of cobalt nitrate and heating the mixture to redness, to produce a compound of the two oxides.

Zinc sulphate, like magnesium sulphate, unites with the sulphates of many metals and of ammonium into crystalline double salts, ZnSO₄·R₂SO₄·6H₂O, isomorphous with one another and the magnesium salts.

**Zinc carbonate, ZnCO₃**, occurs in nature as the mineral calamine (q.v.), and has never been prepared artificially, basic carbonate 

$$\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot \text{xZn(OH)}_2,$$ 

where x is variable, being obtained by precipitating a solution of the carbonate with zinc carbonate. To produce a product free from CaO, there must be an excess of alkali and the zinc salt must be poured into the hot solution of the carbonate. The precipitate, even after exhausting washing with hot water, still contains a trace of alkali; but from the oxide, precipitated from it in the cold, can be washed away. The basic carbonate is used as a pigment.

Of zinc phosphates we notice the minerals hopeite, Zn₃(PO₄)₂·4H₂O, and anykite, Zn₆(PO₄)₃(OH)₂·H₂O.

**Analysis.** From neutral solutions of its salts zinc is precipitated by sulphuretted hydrogen as sulphide, ZnS—a white precipitate, soluble, but by no means readily, in dilute mineral acids, but insoluble in hydrochloric acid. In the case of the acerate the precipitation is quite complete; from a sulphate or chloride solution the greater part of the metal goes into the precipitate; in the presence of a sufficient quantity of HCl the metal remains dissolved; sulphide of ammonium precipitates the metal completely, even in the presence of ammonium salts and free ammonia. The precipitate, when heated, passes into oxide, which is yellow in the heat and white after cooling; and thus zinc chloride solution, on igniting and re-heating, it exhibits a green colour after cooling.

Zinc may be qualitatively estimated by precipitating as basic carbonate, which is dried and ignited to zinc oxide. It may also be determined as basic carbonate, Zn₂(CO₃)₂, which is weighed on a filter tared at 100°. Volumetric methods have also been devised.

**Pharmacology and Therapeutics of Zinc Compounds**

Zinc chloride is a powerful caustic, and is prepared with plaster of Paris in the form of sticks for destroying warts, &c. Its use for this purpose at the present day is, however, very rare, the knife or galvanocautery being preferred in most cases. The salt is a positive tritant poison when taken internally. Its treatment is to wash out the stomach or give such an emetic as apomorphine, and, when the stomach has been emptied, to administer sickness powders. Such a salt as may be left on the hands in handling zinc dust or zinc salts, of used in medicine, are of value as containing this metal. Certain others are referred to in relation with the important radiance contained in the salt. Those treated here are the sulphate, oxide, carbonate, oleate and acetate. All these salts are mild astringents when applied externally, as they coagulate the albumen of the tissues and of any discharge which may be present. In virtue of their property they are also mild haemostatics, tending to coagulate the blood and thereby to arrest haemorrhage.

Lotito Rubra, the familiar “Red Lotus,” a solution of zinc sulphate, is widely used in many catarrhal inflammations, as of the ear, and is an important remedy for catarrhal inflammations.

These salts have been extensively employed internally, and indeed they are still largely employed in the treatment of the more severe and difficult cases of nervous disease. The sulphate is a very potent emetic in cases of poisoning, acting rapidly and without much nausea or depression. For these reasons it may also be given with advantage to children suffering from acute bronchitis or acute laryngitis.


**ZINCITE**, a mineral consisting of zinc oxide (ZnO), crystallizing in the hemimorphic-hemidrical class of the rhombohedral system. Distinct crystals are of rare occurrence; they have the form of a hexagonal pyramid terminated at one end only by a basal plane. There is a perfect cleavage parallel to the basal plane, and usually the mineral is found as platy foliated masses. The blood-red colour and the orange-yellow streak are characteristic features. The hardness is 4½, and the specific gravity is 4.5. Some manganese is usually present, replacing zinc. It is found in the zinc mines at Sterling Hill and Franklin Furnace in Sussex county, New Jersey, where it is associated with franklinite and willemite in crystalline limestone, and is mined as an ore of zinc. Artificial crystals of a white or yellowish colour are not infrequently formed by sublimation in zinc furnaces.
ZINDER, a town on the northern margin of the central Sudan. Zinder is a great emporium of the trade across the Sahara between the Hausa states of the south and the Tuareg countries and Tripoli in the north. Its ruler was formerly subordinate to Bornu, but with the decline of that kingdom shook off the yoke of the sultan, and on the conquest of that country by Rabah (q.v.) seems to have maintained his independence. The country of which Zinder is the capital is known as Damergu. It is semi-fertile, and supports considerable numbers of horses and sheep, besides troops of camels. By the Anglo-French agreement of June 1898 it was included in the French sphere, having already been the object of a French protectorate in 1882. By the armistice of 1920 Zinder was placed under the rule of France, and was reconstructed in 1897, but the town was occupied in July 1909, after a slight resistance, by Lieutenant Pallier of the reconstructed Voulet-Chanoine mission (see SENEGAL, country). A French post (named Fort Cazemajou) was built outside the town on a mound of huge granite blocks. Zinder was the first point in the Sudan reached by F. Foureau after his great journey across the Sahara via Air in 1899. Subsequently Commandant Gadel, from his headquarters at Zinder, mapped and pacified the surrounding region. Some of the huts of the nomads (camel-corps) which occupied the oasis of Air and Bilma in 1906. Zinder is a large and fine town surrounded with high earthen walls, very thick at the base and pierced with seven gates. Its houses, in part built of clay, in part of straw, are interspersed with trees. There is an important colony of Tuareg merchants, who occupy the suburb of Zengu, and who deal in a variety of wares, from cotton, silks, spices, ostrich feathers, &c., to French scent bottles. Salt is a great article of merchandise. A busy market is held outside one of the gates. Administratively Damergu is dependent on the French colony of Upper Senegal and Niger.


ZINGERLE, IGNAZ VICENZ (1825–1892), Austrian poet and scholar, was born, the son of the Roman Catholic theologian and orientalist, Pius Zingerle (1801–1881), at Meran on the 6th of June 1825. He began his studies at Trient, and entered for a while the Benedictine monastery at Marienberg. Abandoning the clerical profession, he returned to Innsbruck, where, in 1848, he became teacher in the gymnasium, and in 1859 professor of German language and literature at the university. He died at Innsbruck on the 17th of September 1892.

Zingerle is known as an author by his Zeitgedichte (Innsbruck, 1848); Von den Alpen (1850); Die Miihlerin, a village tale (1853); Der Bauer von Longval (1874); and Erzahlungen aus dem Burggrafenamt (1885). His ethnographical writings and literary studies, dealing especially with the Tirol, have, however, rendered him more famous. Among them may be mentioned his editions of König Laurin (1850), of the legend, Von den heyligen drei Königen (1855); Sagen von Tirol (1850, 2nd ed. 1861); Tirol. Natur, Geschichte und Sage im Spiegel deutscher Dichtung (1851); Die Personen- und Taufnamen Tirols (1853); Süden, Brüche und Meinungen der Tiroler-Volks (2nd ed. 1871); Das deutsche Landbuch und das Gesprächenbuch im Mittelalter (2nd ed. 1873); Schilderzieher im Tirol (1877, new series, 1888). With E. Inama-Sternegg, he edited Tirolische Weiszüisser (5 vols., 1875–1891).

ZINNIA, in botany, a genus of the natural order Compositae, containing about a dozen species of half-hardy annual or perennial herbs or undershrubs, natives of the southern United States and Mexico. The numerous single and double garden forms are mostly derived from Zinnia elegans, and grow about a ft. high, producing flowers of various colours, the double ones being about the size of asters, and very handsome. The colours include white, yellow, orange, scarlet, crimson and purple. Zinnias do best in a rich, deep loamy soil, in a sunny position. They should be sown on a gentle hothot at the end of March or in April and planted out early in June.

ZINZENDORF, NICOLAUS LUDWIG, COUNT OF ZINZENDORF AND POTTENDORF (1700–1750), German religious and social reformer, was born on the 26th of May 1700 at Dresden. His ancestors belonged to Lower Austria, but had taken the Protestant side in the Reformation struggle, and settled near Nuemberg. Both his parents belonged to the Pietist circle and the lad had Philipp Jakob Spener for his godfather. His father died six weeks after he was born. His mother married again when he was four years old, and he was educated under the charge of his pious and gifted grandmother, Catherine von Gersdorf, who did much to shape his character. His school days were spent at Halle amidst Pietist surroundings, and in 1716 he went to the university of Wittenberg, to study law and fit himself for a diplomatic career. Three years later he was appointed private secretariat to the German ambassador at Paris, where, he married the daughter of a German merchant, who made him the personal acquaintance of men distinguished for practical goodness and belonging to a variety of churches. On his return he visited the branches of his family settled at Oeberberg and at Castell. During a lengthened visit at Castell he fell in love with his cousin Theodora; but the widowed countess, her mother, objected to the marriage, and the lady afterwards became the wife of Count Henry of Reuss. Zinzendorf seems to have considered this disappointment to be a call to betake himself to some special work for God. He had made a reputation as a landowner and diplomatist, the latter by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence. He might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence might have been a successful diplomatist, but by tract and book distribution and by practical benevolence.
satisfy the authorities that his religious community could be brought under the conditions of the peace of Augsburg; he had to quiet the suspicions of the Lutheran clergy; and, hardest of all, he had to rule in some fashion men made fanatical by persecution, who, in spite of his unwaried labours for them, on more than one occasion, it is said, combined, in his own house to denounce him as the Beast of the Apocalypse, with Rothe as the False Prophet. Patience had at last its perfect work, and gradually Zinzendorf was able to make his home into something like a militia Christi, based not on monastic but on family life. He was able to establish a common order of worship in 1727, and soon afterwards a common organization, which has been described in the article Moravian Brethren. Zinzendorf took the deepest interest in the wonderful missionary enterprises of the Brethren, and saw with delight the spread of this Protestant family order in Germany, Denmark, Russia and England. He travelled widely in its interests, visiting America in 1741–42 and spending a long time in London in 1750. Missionary work had by this time been settled in the West Indies (1732), in Greenland (1733), amongst the North American Indians (1735); and before Zinzendorf's death the Brethren had sent from Herrnhut missionary colonies to Livonia and the northern shores of the Baltic, to the slaves of North Carolina, to Surinam, to the Negro slaves in several parts of South America, to Trancanore in the East Indies, to the Copts in Egypt and to the west coast of South Africa. The community in Herrnhut, from which almost all these colonies had been sent out, had no money of its own, and its expenses had been almost exclusively furnished by Zinzendorf. His frequent journeys from home made it almost impossible for him to live on it; he was compelled from time to time to raise money by loans, and about 1750 was almost reduced to bankruptcy. This led to the establishment of a financial board among the Brethren, on a plan furnished by a lawyer, John Frederick Köber, which worked well. In 1752 Zinzendorf lost his only son, Christian Renatus, whom he had hoped to make his successor; and four years later he lost his wife Erdmude, who had been his counsellor and confidante in all his work. Zinzendorf remained a widower for one year, and then (June 1757) contracted a second marriage with Anna Nitschmann, on the ground that a man in his official position ought to be married. Three years later, overcome with his labours, he fell ill and died (on the 9th of May 1760), leaving John de Wattlewille, who had married his eldest daughter Benigna, to take his place at the head of the community.

Zinzendorf had a naturally alert and active mind, and an enthusiastic temperament that made his life one of ceaseless planning and executing. Like Luther, he was often carried away by strong and vehement feelings, and he was easily upset both by sorrow and joy. He was an eager seeker after truth, and could not understand men who at all costs kept to the opinions they had once formed; yet he had an exceptional talent for talking on religious subjects even with those who differed from him. Few men have been more solicitous for the happiness and comfort of others, in little things. His activity and varied gifts sometimes landed him in oddities and contradictions that not infrequently looked like equivocation and dissimulation, and the courtly training of his youth made him susceptible about his authority even when no one disputed it. He was a natural orator, and though his dress was simple his personal appearance gave an impression of distinction and weight. His projects were of a grander kind, and in 1736 he was even banished from Saxony, but in 1749 the government rescinded the decree and begged him to establish within its jurisdiction more settlements like that at Herrnhut.

He wrote a large number of hymns, of which the best known are: 'Jesus, Thy blood and righteousness,' and 'Jesus, still lead on.' A selection of his Sermons was published by G. Clemens in 10 vols., his Diary (1716–1719) by G. Reichel and J. Th. Müller (Herrnhut, 1800), and his Hymns, ec., by H. Bauer and G. Burkhardt (Leipzig, 1800).


**ZION, or Zion (Heb. גָּפֶּ֣ר, perhaps from גָּפֶּ֣י to be dry, גָּפֶּ֣י to set up, or גָּפֶּ֣י to protect); Arabic analogies favour the meaning 'hump,' 'summit of a ridge,' and so ['citadel'], the name of the Jebusite stronghold at Jerusalem captured by David (2 Sam. v.). Zion (which is synonymous with the Ophel) is properly the southern part of the eastern hill on the top of which was built the temple, so that the name came to be given to the whole hill (2 Kings xix. 31, Isaiah xxiv. 23 and throughout 1 Maccabees), to all Jerusalem (Isaiah i. 27, c. iv. and even to the nation or its spiritual nucleus. Thus the people of Jerusalem are spoken of as the 'daughter of Zion' (Isaiah i. 8), the name being often personified and idealized, especially in Isaiah ii., and in the Psalm, e.g. Ps. lxxxvii. 5, "Every one calls Zion his mother."

See G. A. Smith, Jerusalem (London, 1898).

**ZIONISM.** One of the most interesting results of the anti-Semitic agitation (see Anti-Semitism) has been a strong revival of the national spirit among the Jews in a political form. To this movement the name Zionism has been given. In the same way that anti-Semitism differs from the Jew-hatred of the early and middle ages, Zionism differs from previous manifestations of the Jewish national spirit. It was originally advocated as an experiment, without the object of permanent political proposals, and has remained almost harshly modern. None the less it is the lineal heir of the attachment to Zion which led the Babylonian exiles under Zerubbabel to rebuild the Temple, and which flamed up in the heroic struggle of the Maccabees against Antiochus Epiphanes. Without this national spirit it could, indeed, never have assumed its present formidable proportions. The idea that it is a set-back of Jewish history, in the sense that it is an unnatural galvanization of hopes long since abandoned for a spiritual and cosmopolitan conception of the mission of Israel, is a controversial fiction. The consciousness of a spiritual mission exists side by side with the national idea. The great bulk of the Jewish people have throughout their history remained faithful to the dream of a restoration of their national life in Judaea. Its manifestations have suffered temporary modifications under the influence of changing political conditions, and the intensity with which it has been held by individual Jews has varied according to their social circumstances, but in the main the idea has been passionately clung to.

The contention of some modern rabbis that the national idea is Messianic, and hence that its realization should be left to the Divine initiative (e.g. Chief Rabbi Adler, Jewish Chronicle, 25th November 1898), is based on a false analogy between the politics of the Jews and those of other oppressed nationalities. As all Hebrew politics were theocratic, the national hope was necessarily Messianic. It was not on that account less practical or less disposed to express itself in an active political form. The Messianic dreams of the Prophets, which form the framework of the Jewish liturgy to this day, were essentially political-national. They contemplated the redemption of Israel, the gathering of the people in Palestine, the restoration of the Jewish state, the rebuilding of the Temple, and the establishment of the Davidic throne in Jerusalem with a prince of the House of David. How little the dispersed Jews regarded this essentially political programme as a mere religious ideal is shown by their attitude towards the pseudo-Messiahs who endeavoured to fulfil it. Bar Cochba (A.D. 117–138) lived at a period when a Jewish national uprising might well have been exclusively political, for the dissolution of the kingdom was

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1. Christians of the 4th century removed the name to the S.W. hill, and this tradition has persisted until modern times, when archaeological and topographical evidence has re-identified Zion with the S. hill.
scarcely half a century old, and Palestine still had a large Jewish population. None the less Bar Cochba based his right to lead the Jewish revolt on Messianic claims, and throughout the Roman Empire the Jews responded with enthusiasm to his call. Three centuries later Moses of Crete attempted to repeat Bar Cochba's experiment, with the same results. In the 8th century, when the Jews of the West were sufficiently remote from the days of their political independence to have developed an exclusively spiritual conception of their national identity, the Messianic claims of a Syrian Jew named Serene shook the whole of Jewry, and even among the Jews of Spain, Abba played the part of the Saviour in the hands of Providence. It was the same with another pseudo-Messiah named Abu-Isa Obadiah, who unfurled the national banner in Persia some thirty years later.

During the middle ages, though the racial character of the Jews was being transformed by their Ghetto seclusion, the national yearning suffered no relaxation. If it expressed itself exclusively in literature, it was not on that account undergoing a process of idealization. (Cf. Abraham's Jewish Life in the Middle Ages, pp. 24-25.) The truth is that it could not have expressed itself differently. There could have been no abandonment of national hopes in a practical sense, unless the prospect of entering the national life of the peoples among whom they dwelt had presented itself as an alternative. Of this there was not the remotest sign. The absence of militant Zionism during this period is to be accounted for partly by the want of conspicuous pseudo-Messiahs, and partly by the terror of persecution. Unlike the modern Greeks, the medieval Jews could expect no sympathy from their neighbours in an agitation for the recovery of their country. One may imagine what the Crusaders would have thought of an international Jewish conspiracy to recapture Jerusalem. In the 15th century the aversion from political action, even had it been possible, must have been strengthened by the fact that the Grand Signor was the only friend Jews had in the world. The national spirit of the medieval Jews is sufficiently reflected in their liturgy, and especially in the works of the poet, Jehuda Halevi. It is impossible to read his beautiful Ziamide without feeling that had he lived another twenty years he would have gladly played towards the pseudo-Messiah David Alroy (circa 1160) that part that Abraham Bar Kochba played.

The strength of the national feeling was practically tested in the 16th century, when a Jewish impostor, David Reuben (circa 1530), and his disciple, Solomon Molcho (1501-1532), came forward as would-be liberators of their people. Throughout Spain, Italy and Turkey they were received with enthusiasm by the bulk of their brethren. In the following century the influence of the Christian Millenarians gave a fresh impulse to the national idea. Owing to the frenzy of persecution and the apocalyptic teachings of the Chilists, it now appeared in a more mystical form, but a practical bias was not wanting. Menasseh ben Israel (1604-1657) co-operated with English Millenarians to procure the resettlement of the Jews in England as a preliminary to their national return to Palestine, and he regarded his marriage with a scion of the Davidec family of Aharbanel as justifying the hope that the new Messiah might be found among his offspring. The increasing dispersion of the Marranos or crypto-Jews of Spain and Portugal through the Inquisition, and the persecution of the Jews in Poland, deepened the Jewish sense of homelessness the while the Millenarians encouraged their Zionist dreams. The Hebraic and Judeophobe tendencies of the Puritan revolution in England still further stirred the prevailing unrest, and some Jewish rabbis are said to have visited England in order to ascertain by genealogical investigations whether a Davidec descent could be ascribed to Oliver Cromwell. It only wanted a leader to produce a national movement on a formidable scale. In 1666 this leader presented himself at Smyrna, in the person of a Jew named Sabbatai Zevi (1626-1676), who proclaimed himself the Messiah. The news spread like wildfire, and despite the opposition of some of the leading rabbis, the Jews everywhere prepared for the journey to Palestine. Not alone was this the case with the poor Jews of Lithuania and Germany, but also with well-to-do communities like those of Venice, Leghorn and Avignon, and with the great Jewish merchants and bankers of Hamburg, Amsterdam and London. Throughout Europe the nationalist excitement was intense. Even the downfall and apostasy of Sabbatai were powerless to stop it. Among the wealthier Jews it partially subsided, but the great bulk of the people refused for a whole century to be disillusioned. A Messianic frenzy seized upon them. Encouraged on the one hand by Christian Millenarians as the work of Messiah, Ogier Faust and Johannes Speeck, pandered to by Sabbatai himself in his capacity of Messiah, and on the other hand by such Gentiles as Menachem of Eisenstadt, Jacob Querido, Judah Chassid, Nehemiah Chayon and Jacob Franks, and maddened by fresh oppressions, they became fanaticized to the verge of demoralization.

The reaction arrived in 1778 in the shape of the Mendelssohbian movement. The growth of religious toleration, the attempted emancipation of the English Jews in 1753, and the same Judeophilism of men like Lessing and Dohm, showed that at length the dawn of the only possible alternative to nationalism was at hand. Moses Mendelssohn (1729-1786) sought to present his brethren to the new liberal and rationalistic lands in which they dwelt, by emphasizing the spiritual side of Judaism and the necessity of Occidental culture. His efforts were successful. The narrow nationalist spirit everywhere yielded before the hope or the progress of local political emancipation. In 1866 the Jewish Sanhedrin convened by Napoleon virtually repudiated the nationalist tradition. The new Judaism, however, had not entirely destroyed it. It had only reconstructed it on a wider and more sober foundation. Mendelssohbian culture, by promoting the study of Jewish history, gave a fresh impulse to the racial consciousness of the Jews. The older nationalism had been founded on traditions so remote as to be almost mythical; the new race consciousness was fed by a glorious martyr history, which ran side by side with the histories of the newly adopted nationalities of the Jews, and was not unworthy of the companionship. From this race consciousness came a fresh interest in the Holy Land. It was an ideal rather than a politico-nationalist interest—a desire to preserve and cherish the great monument of the departed national glories. It took the practical form of projects for improving the circumstances of the Jews in the lands in which they dwelt, and for reviving something of the old social condition of Judea by the establishment of agricultural colonies. In this work Sir Moses Montefiore, the Rothschild family, and the Alliance Israélite Universelle were conspicuous. More or less passively, however, the older nationalism still lived on—especially in lands where Jews were persecuted—and it became strengthened by the revived race consciousness and the new interest in the Holy Land. Christian Millenarians also helped to keep it alive. Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, Colonel Gawler, Mr Walter Cresson, the United States consul at Jerusalem, Mr James Finn, the British consul, Mr Laurence Oliphant and many others organized and supported schemes for the benefit of the Jews of the Holy Land on avowedly Restoration grounds. Another vivifying element was the reopening of the Eastern Question and the championship of oppressed nationalities in the East by the Western Powers. In English political writers were found to urge the re-establishment of a Jewish state under British protection as a means of assuring the overland route to India (Hollingsworth, Jews in Palestine, 1852). Lord Palmerston was not unaffected by this idea (Finn, Zion, Times, vol. i. pp. 150-152), and both Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury supported Mr Laurence Oliphant in his negotiations with the Porte for a concession which was to pave the way to an autonomous Jewish state in the Holy Land. In 1854 a London Jew attempted to float a company "for the purpose of enabling the descendants of Israel to obtain and cultivate the Land of Promise" (Hebrew Observer, 12th April). In 1876 the publication of George Eliot's Daniel Deronda gave to the Jewish nationalist spirit the strongest stimulus it had experienced since the appearance of Sabbatai Zevi.
It was not, however, until the spread of anti-Semitic doctrines through Europe made men doubt whether the Mendelssohnian denationalization of Judaism possessed the elements of permanency that the Jewish national spirit reasserted itself in a practical form. As long as the anti-Semites were merely polemical, the nationalists were mute, but when in Russia their agitation took the form of massacres and spoliation, followed by legislation of medical harassment, the nationalist remonstrated, and acted for itself. In 1882 several pamphlets were published by Jews in Russia, advocating the restoration of the Jewish state. They found a powerful echo in the United States, where a young Jewish poetess, Miss Emma Lazarus, passionately championed the Zionist cause in verse not unworthy of Jehuda Halevi. But the movement did not limit itself to literature. A society, "Chovevi Zion," was formed with the object of so extending and methodizing the establishment of agricultural colonies in Palestine as to make the eventual acquisition of the country by the Jews possible. From the beginning it was a great direct appeal to their "tengu"; as they were illiterate, it was established all over the world. At the same time two other great schemes for rescuing the Jewish people from oppression were brought before the public. Neither was Zionist, but both served to encourage the Zionist cause. One was due to the initiative of Mr. Cazalet, a financier who was interested in the Euphrates Valley Railway project. With the assistance of Mr. Laurence Oliphant he proposed that the concession from the Porte should include a band of territory two miles wide on each side of the railway, on which Jewish refugees from Russia should be settled. Unfortunately the scheme failed. The other was the "Herzl's Colonial Scheme" from Hirsch, Mauricé de (see HIRSCH, MAURICE DE). This was neither political nor Zionist, but it was supported by a good many members of the "Chovevi Zion," among them Colonel Goldsmit, on the ground that it might result in the training of a large class of Jewish yeomen who might be invaluable in the ultimate settlement of Palestine. (Interview in Daily Graphic, 10th March 1892.)

None of these projects, however, proved sufficiently inspiring to attract the great mass of Jewish nationalists. The Chovevi Zion was too timid and prosaic; the Hirsch scheme did not do anything to impress the masses; but Herzl's scheme was strikingly change manifested itself. A new Zionist leader arose in the person of a Viennese journalist and playwright, Dr. Theodore Herzl (1860-1904). The electoral successes of the anti-Semites in Vienna and Lower Austria in 1895 had impressed him with the belief that the Jews were unassimilable in Europe, and that the time was not far distant when they would be once more submitted to civil and political disabilities. The Hirsch scheme did not, in his view, provide a remedy, as it only transplanted the Jews from one uncongenial environment to another. He came to the conclusion that the only solution of the problem was the segregation of the Jews under autonomous political conditions. His first scheme was not essentially Zionist. He merely called for a new exodus, and was ready to accept any grant of land in any part of the world that would secure to the Jews some form of self-government. The idea was not new. In 1566 Don Joseph Nasi had proposed an autonomous settlement of Jews at Tiberias, and had obtained a grant of the city from the Sultan for the purpose. In 1652 the Dutch West India Company in Curacao, in 1654 Oliver Cromwell in Surinam, and in 1659 the French West India Company at Cayenne had attempted similar enterprises. Marshal de Saxe in 1749 had projected the establishment of a Jewish kingdom in South America, of which he should be sovereign; and in 1825 Major M. M. Noah purchased Grand Island, in the river Niagara, with a view to founding upon it a Jewish state. All these projects were failures. Dr. Herzl was not slow to perceive that without an impulse of real enthusiasm his scheme would share the fate of these predecessors. He accordingly resolved to identify it with the nationalist idea. His plan was set forth in a pamphlet, entitled The Jewish State, which was published in German, French and English in the spring of 1896. It explained in detail how the new exodus was to be organized and how the state was to be managed. It was to be a tribute-paying state under the suzerainty of the Sultan. It was to be settled by a chartered company and governed by an aristocratic republic, tolerant of all religious differences. The Holy Places were to be extinguitorialized. The pamphlet produced a profound sensation. Dr. Herzl was joined by a number of distinguished Jewish literary men, among whom were Dr. Max Nordau and Mr. Israel Zangwill, and promises of support and sympathy reached him from all quarters of the world. The haute finance and the higher rabbinates, however, stood aloof.

The most encouraging feature in Dr. Herzl's scheme was that the Sultan of Turkey appeared favourable to it. The motive of his sympathy has not hitherto been made known. The Armenian massacres had inflamed the whole of Europe against him, and for a time the Ottoman Empire was in very serious peril. Dr. Herzl's scheme provided him, as he imagined, with a means of securing powerful friends. Through a secret emissary, the Chevalier de Newinsky, whom he sent to London in May 1896, he offered to present the Jews a charter in Palestine provided they used their influence in the press and otherwise to solve the Armenian question on lines which he laid down. The English Jews declined these proposals, and refused to treat in any way with the persecutor of the Armenians. When, in the following July, Dr. Herzl himself came to London, the Maccabeean Society, though ignorant of the negotiations with the Sultan, declined to support the scheme. None the less, it secured a large amount of popular support throughout Europe, and in 1910 Zionism had a following of over 300,000 Jews, divided into a thousand electoral districts. The English membership of the movement was about 30,000. Between 1897 and 1910 the Zionist organization held nine international congresses. At the first, which met at Basel, a political programme was adopted on the following terms:

"Zionism aims at establishing for the Jewish people a publicly and legally assured home in Palestine. For the attainment of this purpose the Congress considers the following means serviceable: (1) The promotion of Jewish immigration to Palestine. (2) The promotion of the Jewish in Palestine. (3) The federation of all Jews into local or general groups, according to the laws of the various countries. (4) The strengthening of the Jewish feeling and consciousness. (5) The appointment of the representatives of the states for the attainment of those governmental grants which are necessary to the achievement of the Zionist purpose."

Subsequent congresses founded various institutions for the promotion of this programme, notably a People's Bank known as the Colonial Trust, which is the financial instrument of political Zionism, a National Fund for the purchase of land in Palestine and a Palestine Commission with subsidiary societies for the study and improvement of the social and economic condition of the Jews in the Holy Land. For the purposes of these bodies about £400,000 was collected in small sums and invested. Very little practical work of any abiding value, however, was accomplished, and on the political side the career of Zionism had up to the end of 1910 proved a failure.

In May 1901 and August 1902 Dr. Herzl had audiences of the Sultan Abdul Hamid, and was received with great distinction, but the negotiations led to nothing. Despairing of obtaining an immediate charter for Palestine, he turned to the British government with a view to securing a grant of territory on an autonomous basis in the vicinity of the Holy Land, which would provisionally afford a refuge and a political training-ground for persecuted Jews. His overtures met with a sympathetic reception, especially from Mr. Chamberlain, then Colonial Secretary, and Earl Percy, who was Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs (October 1902). At first a site for the proposed settlement was suggested in the Sinai peninsula, but owing to the waterless character of the country the project had to be abandoned. Then Mr. Chamberlain, who in the interval had paid a visit to Africa, suggested the salubrious and uninhabited highlands of the East Africa Protectorate, and in 1903 the British government formally offered Dr. Herzl the Ras Gishiu plateau, 6,000 sq. m. in area. No such opportunity for creating a Jewish self-governing community had presented itself since
the Dispersion, and for a moment it seemed as if Zionism were really entering the field of practical politics. Unhappily it only led to bitter controversies, which nearly wrecked the whole movement. The British offer was submitted to the Sixth Congress, which assembled at Basel in August 1903. It was received with consternation and an explosion of wrath by the ultra-nationalist, who interpreted it as an abandonment of the Palestine idea. By his personal influence Dr Herzl succeeded in obtaining the appointment of a commission to examine the proposed territory, but its composition was largely nationalist, and in the following year the Congress gladly availed itself of certain critical passages in the report to reject the whole scheme.

Meanwhile Zionism had suffered an irreparable blow by the death of Dr Herzl (1904). He was succeeded by Mr David Wolffsohn, a banker of Cologne, but there was in truth nobody who in ability and personal dignity and magnetism could take his place. The movement was further shaken by the dissensions which followed the rejection of the East African project. Mr Israel Zangwill led an influential minority which combined with certain non-Zionist elements to found a rival organization under the title of the TTO (Terra Territorial Organisatie), with a view to taking over the East African offer or to establish an autonomous place of refuge elsewhere. Thus freed from all moderating elements the Zionists hardened into an exclusively Palestinian body, and under the auspices of Mr Wolffsohn fresh negotiations were opened with the Porte. These, however, were rendered finally hopeless by the Turkish revolution, which postulated a united Ottoman nationality, and resolutely set its face against any extension of the racial and religious autonomies under which the integrity of the Empire had already severely suffered.

During 1905-1910 the Jewish national idea, for all practical purposes, was in a state of suspended animation. The recovery of the Holy Land appeared more distant than ever, while even the establishment of an independent or autonomous Jewish state elsewhere, for which the ITO was labouring, had encountered unexpected difficulties. On the rejection of the British offer by the Zionists Mr Zangwill approached the Colonial Office, but he was too late, as the reserve on the Nasi Gishiu plateau had already been officially withdrawn. The ITO then turned its attention to Cyrenaica, and an expedition to examine the country was sent out (1908), but it was not found suitable. A project for combining all the Jewish organizations in an effort to secure an adequate foothold in Mesopotamia in connection with the scheme for the irrigation of that region was subsequently proposed by Mr Zangwill, but up to January 1911 it had not been found practicable. The ITO, however, did valuable work by organizing an Emigration Regulation Department for deflecting the stream of Jewish emigration from the overcrowded Jewry of New York to the Southern states of the American Union, where there is greater scope for employment under wholesome conditions. For this purpose a fund was formed, to which Mr Jacob Schiff contributed £100,000 and Messrs Rothschild £20,000.

Although the Zionist organization was numerically strong—indeed, the strongest popular movement Jewish history had ever known—its experience from 1897 to 1910 rendered it very doubtful whether its nationalist aspirations could, humanly speaking, ever be fulfilled. From Turkey, either absolutist or democratic, it appeared hopeless to expect any willing relaxation of the Ottoman hold on Palestine, while in the event of a disintegration of the Empire it was questionable whether Christendom—and especially the Roman and Greek Churches—would permit the Holy Land to pass to the Jews, even though the Holy Places were exterminialized. Should these obstacles be overcome, still more formidable difficulties would await the Jewish state. The chief of these is the religious question. The state would have to be orthodox or secular. If it were orthodox it would desire to revive the whole Levitical polity, and in these circumstances it would either pass away through internal chaos or would so offend the modern political spirit that it would be soon extinguished from outside. If it were secular it would not be a Jewish state. The great bulk of its supporters would refuse to live in it, and it would ultimately be abandoned to an outlawed population consisting of Hebrew Christians and Christian Millennials.

Modern Zionism is vitiated by its erroneous premises. It is based on the idea that anti-Semitism is unconquerable, and thus the whole movement is artificial. Under the influence of religious toleration and the naturalization laws, nationalities are daily losing more of their racial character. The coming nationality will be essentially a matter of education and economics, and this will not exclude the Jews as such. With the passing away of anti-Semitism, Jewish nationalism will disappear. If the Jewish people disappear with it, it will only be because either their religious mission in the world has been accomplished or they have proved themselves unworthy of it.

LITERATURE.—A Zionist bibliography has been published by the Federation of American Zionists. Besides the works already cited in the body of this article, see on the early nationalist movement Greenstein, Geschichte der Juden, under the heads of the various pseudo-Messiahs and their adherents. Jewish agricultural colonies will be found discussed very fully in The Jewish Encyclopedia, vol. 1, pp. 240-242. For early Zionist projects see Publications of the American Jewish Historical Society, No. 8, pp. 75-118; Laurence Oliphant, Land of Gilead; Mr Oliphant, Life of Laurence Oliphant, pp. 168 et seq. The Zionist movement since 1895 is fully recorded in its official organ, Die Welt (Vienna). For proceedings of the Congresses see the Official Protocols published for each year by the society "Erez Israel" of Vienna; also Herzl, Der Basler Congress (Vienna, 1897). On the movement generally, see Herzl's Zionistische Schriften, edited by Dr Leon Kellner: Ten Years of Zionism (Cologne, 1907); Nordau, Zionism, its History and its Aims (London, 1905); J. de Haas, Zionism, Jewish Needs and Jewish Ideals; also articles by I. Zangwill in Cosmopolis (October 1897), Contemporary Review (October 1899) and Forimbus Review (April 1910); Dr Gaster in Asiatic Quarterly Review (October 1907); H. Bentwich in Nineteenth Century (October 1897), and Forimbus Review (December 1898); Reich in Nineteenth Century (August 1897); Lucien Wolf in Jewish Quarterly Review (October 1904: "The Zionist Peril"). On the ITO see pamphlets and leaflets published by the Jewish Territorial Organization; also the Report of the Commission on Cyrenaica (London, 1905). (L. W.)

ZIRCON, a mineral composed of zirconium silicate, sometimes used as a gem-stone. It is believed that the name comes from the Arabic zarqun, and is essentially the same as "jargon", the name formerly used. The mineral crystallizes in the tetragonal system, generally in combinations of square prisms and square pyramids, as in figs. 1 and 2. Zircon is isomorphous with cassiterite and rutile, and like them may occur in geniculated twins. There is no distinct cleavage, and the mineral breaks with a conchoidal fracture. The hardness is about 7.5. It is notable that the specific gravity is very wide range, extending from a little below 4 to rather more than 4.7, and being thus greater than that of any other gem-stone. Rarely colourless, zircon is usually brown or red, sometimes orange, yellow or green, and occasionally parti-coloured or zoned. Whilst common zircon is opaque, the gem-varieties are transparent. The dichroism of coloured zirconos is always feeble; the double refraction usually strong and of positive sign; and the optical properties of some zircons suggest a biaxial mineral. It was pointed out long ago by Sir A. H. Church that many transparent zircons afford a spectrum

![Fig. 1](image1)

![Fig. 2](image2)
marked by certain absorption-bands, a property perhaps due to the presence of uranium. The effect of heat on zircon is remarkable. Most coloured zircons, exposed to a high temperature, either change or lose their colour, but this loss is attended by a gain in brilliancy. The "Matura diamonds" of Ceylon are zircons which have been thus artificially decolorized. Certain zircons when heated in a crucible and ground in a glass mortar may lose their colour, others may emit an orange glow when ground on a copper wheel fed with diamond-dust. Even exposure to sunlight will sometimes modify the colour and lustre of a zircon. Some zircons suffer contraction when heated, so that the specific gravity becomes raised; but the behaviour of zircons in this respect shows such anomalies that S. Stevanov has been led to suggest the existence of three classes of zircon. One group has a specific gravity of 4-0 and another of 4-7, both remaining unchanged in density when heated. L. J. Spencer, who has studied some remarkable crystals from Ceylon, describes the former as zircon, and the latter as zircon. A third class has specific gravity between 4-0 and 4-7, and increases in density on heating. These stones consist, according to Spencer, of an intergrowth of α-zircon or β-zircon, with a third unstable modification which he designates as γ-zircon.

Whilst zircon is usually regarded as a zirconium silicate, ZrSiO₄, it is sometimes placed with the oxides as consisting of ZrO₂SiO₃. A small proportion of ferric oxide seems to be always present, and to this the colour of zircon, according to G. Spezia, may be due. Traditionally so many minerals have been called zircons that it was at one time proposed to call the species polycrasite from the Greek πολυς (many) and κρασις (mixture). Zircon is used as a source of zirconia in various preparations, for incandescent gas mantles, &c. It was in this mineral that zirconia was originally discovered by M. H. Klaproth in 1789.

Zircon fit for use as a gem-stone is often known as "noble" or "precious zircon." The red and orange stones are termed hyacinth (g.) and jaclin, whilst those of other colours, as also the colourless transparent zircons, are called jargoon (g.). The lustrousness of the most precious zircons is a most unusual property, and they have been known to change to a dark brown when held near a fire. Zircon is readily attacked by water at a dull heated point and quenched in water to render it brittle, and then reduced to a fine powder, which is fused with three to four parts of acid potassium fluoride in a platinum crucible. When the mass is quite fusing, the liquid is poured out and is boiled, and then again fused; the porcelain-like melt is powdered, boiled with water, and acidified with hydrofluoric acid, and the residual potassium fluorosilicate is converted into potassium silicate. The remaining zirconium fluoride, K₂ZrF₆, is purified by crystallization from hot water. The double fluoride is decomposed with hot concentrated sulphuric acid; the mixed sulphate is dissolved in water; the anhydrous fluoride is precipitated, being difficult to wash, is (after a preliminary washing) re-dissolved in hydrochloric acid and re-precipitated with ammonia. Zirconium hydroxide, Zr(OH)₄, as thus obtained, is quite appreciably soluble in water and easily in mineral acids, with formation of zirconium salts, e.g. ZrCl₄. But, if the hydroxide is precipitated in the heat, it demands concentrated acids for its solution. The anhydrous fluoride is readily attacked by water at a dull heated point, gives the anhydride with vivid incandescence. Zirconia can be obtained crystalline, in a form isomorphous with cassiterite and rutile, by fusing the amorphous modification with borax, and dissolving out the borate, then treating the hydrated zirconium fluoride. The anhydrous oxide is with difficulty soluble even in hydrofluoric acid; but a mixture of two parts of concentrated sulphuric acid and one of water dissolves it on continued heating as the sulphate, ZrSO₄. Zirconia, when heated to whiteness, remains fusible, and radiates a fine white light, which suggested its utilization for making incandescent gas mantles; and, in the form of disks, as a substitute for the lime-cylinders ordinarily used in the manufacture of metal dust. Zirconia, being insoluble in all organic acids, unites not only with acids but also with basic oxides. For instance, if it be fused with sodium carbonate, sodium zirconate, Na₂ZrO₄, is formed. If the carbonate be in excess, the salt Na₂ZrO₄·Na₂CO₃ (which was formerly called zirkon) is obtained, in which crystals in hexagonal plates. When heated in a loosely covered crucible with magnesia the nitride ZrN₄ is formed. Zirconium hydroxide, Zr(OH)₄, is supposed to be formed when zirconia is heated with magnesium in an atmosphere of hydrogen. Zirconium fluoride, ZrF₄, is obtained as glittering monoclinic plates (with 3H₂O) by heating zirconia with acid ammonium fluoride. It forms double salts, namely zircono-fluorides, which are isomorphous with the stannni- and titanii-fluorides. Zirconium chloride, ZrCl₄, is prepared as a white sublimate by igniting a mixture of zirconia and charcoal in a current of chlorine. It has the exact vapour-density corresponding to the formula. It dissolves in water with evolution of heat; on evaporation a basic salt, ZrOCl₂·8H₂O, separates out in the slightest acid but remains almost unaffected when converted similarly to the chloride. Water gives the oxobromide ZrOBr₂. Zirconium iodide, ZrI₄, was obtained as a yellow, microcrystalline solid on acting with hydroiodic acid on heated zirconium (Wedekind, Berlin, 1904, 37, p. 1135). It fuses with water; with water it gives ZrO₂H₂O·H₂O; and with alcohol ethyl iodide and zirconium hydroxide are formed. The iodide combines with liquid ammonia to form ZrI₄·8NH₃, and with ethylamine to give Zr(OC₂H₅)₄. Zirconium combines with sulphur to form a sulphide, and with carbon to form several carbides. The sulphate, Zr(SO₄)₂, is a white mass obtained by dissolving the oxide or hydroxide in sulphuric acid, evaporating the solution and drying the mass. In water it forms a series of double sulphates, Ruer (Zeit, anorg. Chem., 1904, 42, p. 87) regards it as a dibasic acid, Zr₂SO₄·2H₂O, and that the crystalline sulphate is Zr₂SO₄·5H₂O. The type Zr₂(SO₄)₂·5H₂O, where M = K, Rb, Cs, and n = 8 for K, 15 for Rb, and 11 for Cs (Rosenheim and Frank, Berlin, 1905, 38, p. 812). The atomic weight was determined by Mangac to be 107-93; Bailey (Proc. Roy. Soc., 1890, 45, p. 74) deduced the value 89-95.
ZIRKEL, FERDINAND (1838– ), German geologist and petrographer, was born at Bonn on the 20th of May 1838. He was educated in his native town, and graduated Ph.D. at the university in 1861. In early years he was engaged in teaching geology and mineralogy in Vienna. He became professor of geology in 1865 in the university of Lemberg, in 1868 at Kiel, and in 1870 professor of mineralogy and geology in the university of Leipzig.

His numerous papers and essays include Geologische Skizze von der Westhste Schollands (1871); Die Struktur der Varolite (1875); Microscopical Petrography. Monograph of U.S. Geological Survey of 40th Par., vol. vi., 1876; Limnuris aus der Vallee de Lepont (1879); Über den Zittern (1880). His separate works include Lehrbuch der Petrographie (1886; 2nd ed. 1893, 1894); Die mikroskopische Beschaffenheit der Mineralien und Geoleine (1873).

ZITHER (Ger. Zither, Schlachtsieber, Streichsieber; Ital. cithara), a name applied in modern Germany to the ancient cithara (q.v.), to the cittern (q.v.), and to an instrument which is a kind of psaltery, consisting of a shallow sound-chest with ribs having the outline of a flattened jug (termed in German Flaschenform, bottle-shaped). In the centre of the sound-board is a rose sound-hole, and the finger-board, with frets lies along the straight side of the zither in front of the performer. The number of the strings varies, but 36, 38 and 42 are the most usual. Over the finger-board are four or five strings known as violin, on which the melody is played. These five melody strings are stopped with the thumb and fingers of the left hand and plucked with the thumb of the right hand, which usually has a thumb ring with plectrum. Nos. 1 and 2 are steel strings; No. 3 of brass, and 4 and 5 of spun wire; the bass is played with the fingers of the right hand, and in order to facilitate the fingering the strings are tuned in fourths and fifths.

Most of the other strings from the 6th are of gut. All the strings lie horizontally across the sound-board, being fastened in the usual manner to hitch and wrest pins. The zither is placed on the table in front of the performer, who holds his right arm so that the wrist rests on the side of the zither parallel with the hitch pins, the thumb being over the finger-board.

The foregoing remarks apply to the discant and concert zither; the elegiæ or bass zither is of similar construction but larger, and is a transposing instrument, having the same notation as the former. The real sounds being a fourth lower. These zithers are the favourite instruments of the peasants in the Swiss and Bavarian highlands, and are sometimes seen in the concert halls of north and western Germany. The discant or a bowed zither, has a body of heart- or pear-shape similar to that of the cittern, but without the long neck of the latter. The finger-board covers the whole of the sound-board with the exception of a few inches at the tapering end, which is finished off with a raised nut or bridge, the bow being applied in the centre of this gap. The bowed zither has little feet and is placed on a table when being played. There are four strings corresponding to those of the violin or viola, but the tone is nasal and glassy.

The spelling of the word with a "Z" had already become usual in the early 17th century, for, although the instrument described above did not then exist, Zither was the name by which the cittern was known in Germany, and Michael Praetorius, writing in 1618, spells it both with "C" and "Z."

ZITTEL, KARL ALFRED VON (1839-1904), German palaeontologist, was born at Balinghen in Baden on the 25th of September 1839. He was educated at Heidelberg, Paris and Vienna. For a short period he served on the Geological Survey of Austria, and as assistant in the mineralogical museum at Vienna. In 1863 he became teacher of geology and mineralogy in the polytechnic at Carlshue, and three years later he succeeded Oppel as professor of palaeontology in the university of Munich, with the charge of the state collection of fossils. In 1880 he was appointed to the geological professorship, and eventually to the directorship of the national history museum of Munich. His earlier work comprised a monograph on the Cretaceous bivalve mollusca of Gosau (1863-66); and an essay on the Tithonian stage (1870), regarded as equivalent to the Purbeck and Wealden formations. In 1873-74 he accompanied the Rohils expedition to the Libyan desert, the primary results of which were published in Über den geologischen Bau der libyschen Wüste (1880), and further details in the Palaeonotographica, where he published the palaeontological researches. From 1869 until the close of his life he was chief editor of the Palaeonotographica (founded in 1826 by W. Dunker and H. von Meyer). In 1876 he commenced the publication of his great work, Handbuch der Palaeontologie, which was completed in 1893 in five volumes, the fifth volume on palaeobotany being prepared by W. P. Schimper and A. Schenk. To make his work as trustworthy as possible Dr Zittel made special studies of each great group, commencing with the fossil sponges, on which he published a monograph (1877-79). In 1891 he issued a summary of his work entitled Grundzüge der Palaeontologie (ed. 2, part 1, Invertebrata, revised by Dr Zittel in 1903; the American edition of 1900 by C. R. Eastman is so revised, sometimes in opposition to Zittel's views, as to be practically an independent work). He was author of Aus der Urzeit (1873, ed. 2, 1875); and Die Sahara (1883). In 1890 he published Geschichte der Geologie und Palaeontologie bis Ende des 10. Jahrhunderts, a monumental history of the progress of geological science (Eng. trans., Mrs Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, 1901). Dr Zittel was from 1869 president of the Royal Bavarian Academy of Sciences, and in 1894 he was awarded the Wollaston medal by the Geological Society of London. He died on the 5th of January 1904.

Obituary with portrait and bibliography, by Dr F. L. Kitchin. Geol. Mag. (February 1904).
ZIZKA, JOHN (c. 1376-1424), Bohemian general and Hussite leader, was born at Trocnov in Bohemia, of a family which belonged to the gentry. He took part in the civil wars in Bohemia in the reign of Wenceslaus IV., during which he lost one eye in a skirmish. He was from his youth connected with the continued and his campaigns against the enemy. Zizka's name first became prominent when the Hussite movement began. When in 1419 a Hussite procession was stoned at Prague from the town hall, Zizka headed those who threw the town councillors from its windows. When a temporary armistice was concluded between the partisans of King Sigismund and the citizens of Prague, Zizka marched to Pilsen (Pilsen) with his followers, but soon left that city, and, after defeating at Sudomer the partisans of Sigismund, arrived at Tabor, the newly founded stronghold of the advanced Hussites. Zizka's success in the first standard of the new militant community and became one of the four captains of the people (hejmané) who were at its head. Meanwhile Sigismund, king of the Germans and king of Hungary, invaded Bohemia, claiming the crown as the heir of his brother Wenceslaus. Menaced by Sigismund, the citizens of Prague entreated the Taborites for assistance. Led by Zizka and their other captains, the Taborites set out to take part in the defence of the capital. At Prague Zizka and his men took up a strong position on the hill then known as the Vitkov, on the spot where Zizka, a suburb of Prague, stands. The next morning the enemy, driven back by the siege, at the city began, and on the 14th of July the army of Sigismund made a general attack. A strong German force assaulted the position on the Vitkov which secured the Hussite communications with the open country. Mainly through the heroism of Zizka, the attack was repulsed, and the forces of Sigismund abandoned the siege. Shortly afterwards (August 22, 1420) the Taborites left Prague and returned to Tabor. Zizka was now engaged in constant warfare with the partisans of Sigismund, particularly with the powerful Romanist, Ulrich of Rosenberg. By this struggle, in which Zizka was invariably successful, the Hussites obtained possession of the greatest part of Bohemia, which Sigismund now left for a time. It was proposed to elect a Polish prince to the throne; but meanwhile the estates of Bohemia and Moravia, who met at Časlav on the 1st of June 1421, decided to appoint a provisional government, consisting of twenty members chosen from all the political and religious parties of the country, Zizka, who took part in the deliberations at Časlav, being elected as one of the two representatives of Tabor. He summarily suppressed some disturbances on the part of a fanatical sect called the Adamites. He continued the campaigns against Sigismund, and the heretics of Sigismund; and having captured a small castle near Litoměřice (Leitmeritz) he retained possession of it—the only reward for his great services that he ever received or claimed. According to the Hussite custom he gave the biblical name of "Challice" to this new possession, and henceforth adopted the signature of "Zizka of the Chalice." Later, in 1421, he was severely wounded while besieging the castle of Rábi, and lost the use of his remaining eye. Though now totally blind, he continued to command the armies of Tabor. At the end of 1420, Sigismund of Poland, and later Prince of Prussia, entered Bohemia, obtained possession of the important town of Kutna Hora (Kuttenberg). Zizka, who was at the head of the united armies of Tabor and Prague, at first retreated to Kolín; but after having received reinforcements he attacked and defeated Sigismund's army at the village of Nebovid between Kolín and Kutna Hora (January 6, 1422). Sigismund lost 25,000 men and only escaped himself by rapid flight. Sigismund's forces made a last stand at Německý Brod (Deutschbrod) on the 10th of January, but the city was stormed by the Bohemians, and, contrary to Zizka's orders, its defenders were put to the sword. Early in 1423 internal dissensions among the Hussites led to civil war. Zizka, as leader of the Taborites, defeated the men of Prague and the Utraquist nobles at Hörlic on the 27th of April; but shortly afterwards the news that a new crusade against Bohemia was being prepared, induced the Hussites to conclude an armistice at Konopist on the 24th of June 1423. As soon, however, as the so-called crusaders had dispersed without even attempting to enter Bohemia, the internal dissensions broke out afresh. During his temporary rule over Bohemia Prince Sigismund Kuba of Poland had appointed as the stolnik of the Kingdom of Bohemia, Count of Borek of Milešinek, who belonged to the moderate Hussite, the so-called Utraquist, party. After the departure of the Polish prince the city of Králové Hradec, in which the democratic party now obtained the upper hand, refused to recognize Borek as its ruler, and called Zizka to its aid. He acceded to the demand and defeated the Utraquists under Borek at the farm of Strachov, near the city of Králové Hradec (August 4, 1423). Zizka now attempted to invade Hungary, which was under the rule of his old enemy King Sigismund. Though this Hungarian campaign was unsuccessful owing to the great superiority of the Hungarians, it ranks among the greatest military exploits of Zizka, on account of the skill he displayed in retreat. In 1424, civil war having again broken out in Bohemia, Zizka decisively defeated the Pragians and Utraquists nobles at Skalice on the 6th of January, and at Malesov on the 7th of June. In September he marched on Prague, but on the 14th of that month peace was concluded between the Hussite parties through the influence of John of Rokycan, afterwards Utraquist archbishop of Prague. It was agreed that the now reunited Hussites should attack Moravia, which was held by Sigismund's partisans, and that Zizka should be the leader in this campaign. But he died of the plague at Přibyslav (October 11, 1424) before reaching the Moravian frontier.

See Count Lützow, Bohemia: an Historical Sketch (London, 1896); Louis Leger, Jean Zizka in "Nouvelles études Slaves, deuxième série" (Paris, 1886), the best account of Zizka's career for those unacquainted with the Bohemian language; Tomek, Jan Zizka, and Dějiny Mezi Prahy; Palacky, History of Bohemia. Zizka is the hero of a novel by George Sand, of a German epic by Meissner, and of a Bohemian tragedy by Alois Jirasek.

ZLATOUST, a town of Russia, in the government of Ufa, close to the river Ufa, in a picturesque valley of the middle Ural, 1925 ft. above sea level, 199 m. by rail E.N.E. of the town of Ufa. Pop. 20,973. The town has a first-class meteorological and magnetic observatory, a cathedral and a museum; it is the seat of the mining administration for the Zlatoust district, and has a brisk trade in agricultural produce and manufactured wares.

ZNAIM (Czech Znojmo), a town of Austria, in Moravia, 50 m. S.W. of Brunn by rail. Pop. (1900) 16,261, mostly German. This town contains a famous Romanesque church. The site of the former fortifications is occupied by a promenade. The Ráuturm is a relic of the old castle of the margraves of Moravia; the round castle-chapel, known as the heathen temple (Heiden-Tempel), in the Romanesque style of the 12th century, was at one time considered the most ancient building in Moravia. The Gothic church of St Nicholas was built about 1348 by the emperor Charles IV.; the town house, with a Gothic tower, 250 ft. high, dates from about 1440. The ancient and once powerful Premonstratensian abbey of Bruck, east of the town, is now a ruin and is surrounded by a modern village.

The present town of Znaim was founded in 1226 by Ottcar I. of Bohemia on the site of Znojmo, the ancient capital of the tributary margraves of Moravia, which had been destroyed in 1145. Znaim is best known for history for the armistice concluded here in 1809 after the battle of Wagram between Napoleon I. and the archduke Charles. In 1866 the Prussians occupied the town from July 13th till September 3rd. The novelist Karl Postl (1793-1854), who wrote under the pseudonym of Charles Sealsfield, was born at Poppitz, 23 m. S.W. of Znaim. Palacky, the Austrian and Sudanese governor, came of the Gembaj section of the Jaalin, and was a member of a family which claims descent from the Korish tribe through Abbas, uncle of Mahomet. He became prominent as the most energetic and intelligent of the Arab ivory and slave traders who about 1860 established themselves
on the White Nile and in the Bahr-el-Ghazal. Nominally a subject of Egypt, he raised an army of several thousand well-armed blacks and became a dangerous rival to the Egyptian authorities. ‘At the height of his power Zobeir was visited (1871) by George Schweinfurth, was arrested him “surrounded with a court which was little less than princely in its details” (Heart of Africa, vol. ii., chap. xv.). In 1869 an expedition sent from Khartoum into the Bahr-el-Ghazal was attacked by Zobeir and completely defeated, its commander being slain. Zobeir represented that he was blameless in this matter, received a “pardon,” and was himself appointed governor of the Bahr-el-Ghazal, where he was practically independent. In 1873 he attacked the sultan of Darfur, and the khedive Ismail gave him the rank of bey and sent troops to co-operate. After he had conquered Darfur (1874), Zobeir was asked by the authorities, the more substantial reward of being made governor-general of the new province, and went to Cairo in the spring of 1876 to press his title. He was now in the power of the Egyptian authorities, who prevented his return, though he was allowed to go to Constantinople at the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War. In 1878, however, his son Suleiman, having got possession of the Bahr-el-Ghazal, and acting on instructions from his father, defied the authority of General Gordon, the new governor-general of the Sudan. Gordon sent Romolo Gessi against Suleiman, who was subdued after an arduous campaign. During the campaign Zobeir offered, if he were allowed to return to the Sudan, to restore order and to pay a revenue of £25,000 a year to the khedive. Gordon declined this help, and subsequently, for his instigation of the revolt, Zobeir was condemned to death, but the trial was a farce, the sentence was remitted, and he remained at Cairo, now in high favour with the khedivial court. In March 1884, Gordon, who had been sent to Khartoum to effect, if possible, the relief of the Egyptian garrisons in the Sudan, astonished Europe by requesting that Zobeir, whose son he had overthrown and whose trade he had ruined, should succeed him as his successor. Zobeir, described by Sir Reginald Wingate, who knew him well, as “a quiet, far-seeing, thoughtful man of iron—" a born ruler of men” (Mahdisim and the Egyptian Sudan, book v.), might have been able to stem the mahdist movement. But to reinstate the notorious slave-dealer was regarded in London as too perilous an expedient, even in the extreme circumstances then existing, although Colonel Stewart (Gordon’s companion in Khartoum), Sir Evelyn Baring and Nubar Pasha in Cairo, and Queen Victoria and Mr Gladstone, all favoured such a course. During the campaign Gordon was, by order of the British government for treasonable correspondence with the mahdi and other enemies of Egypt, and was interned at Gibraltar. In August 1887 he was allowed to return to Cairo, and after the reconquest of the Sudan was permitted (1890) to settle in his native country. He established himself on his estates at Geili, some 30 m. N. of Khartoum.

See Gordon, Charles George, and the authorities there cited.

Zodiac (δ ϊώδος κόσμος, from ϊώδος, “a little animal”), in astronomy and astrology, an imaginary zone of the heavens within which lie the paths of the sun, moon and principal planets. It is bounded by two circles equidistant from the ecliptic, about eighteen degrees apart; and it is divided into twelve signs, and marked by twelve constellations. These twelve constellations, with the symbols of the signs which correspond to them, are as follows:

- **Aries**, the Ram
- **Taurus**, the Bull
- **Gemini**, the Twins
- **Cancer**, the Crab
- **Leo**, the Lion
- **Virgo**, the Virgin
- **Libra**, the Balance
- **Scorpio**, the Scorpion
- **Sagittarius**, the Archer
- **Capricornus**, the Goat
- **Aquarius**, the Water-carrier
- **Pisces**, the Fishes

1 Gordon and Zobeir met in Cairo on the 25th and 26th of January (see Egypt No. 12 of 1884) and Gordon from that time onward asked for Zobeir’s help. It was not, however, until the 10th of March that his wish was made public, in a telegram from Khartoum published in The Times.

The signs—the Greek δεκακατμούρα—are geometrical divisions thirty degrees in extent, counted from the spring equinox in the direction of the sun’s progress through them. The whole series accordingly shifts westward through the effect of precession by about the results of several thousand years. At the moment of crossing the equator towards the north the sun is said to be at the first point of Aries; some thirty days later it enters Taurus, and so on through Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius and Pisces. The zodiacal bearings the same names coincided approximately in position, when Hipparchus observed them at Rhodes, with the divisions they designate. The discrepancy now, however, amounts to the entire breadth of a sign, the sun’s path in Aries lying among the stars of Pisces, in Taurus among those of Orion.

 Assyria and Babylonia.—The twelvefold division of the zodiac was evidently suggested by the occurrence of twelve full moons in successive parts of it in the course of each year. This approximate relation was first systematically developed by the early inhabitants of Mesopotamia, and formed the starting-point for all their divisions of time. As the year separated, as it were of itself, into twelve months, so the day was divided into twelve “double hours,” and the great cosmical period of 43,200 years into twelve “sars.” Each sar, month and hour was represented at once visibly and symbolically by a twelfth part of the “furrow” drawn by the single Bull across the heavens. The idea of tracing the sun’s path among the stars was, when it occurred to Chaldaean astronomers, an original and, relatively to their means, a recondite one. We owe it to its realization by them the constitution and nomenclature of the twelve signs of the zodiac. Assyrian cylinder inscriptions indicate for the familiar series of our text-books an antiquity of some four thousand years. Ages before Assur-bani-pal reigned at Nineveh the eighth month (Marchesvan) was known as “the month of the star of the Scorpion,” the tenth (Tebet) belonged to the “star of the Goat,” the twelfth (Adar) to the “star of the Fish of Ea.”1 The motive underlying the choice of symbols is in a few cases obvious, but in most remains conjectural. The attributes of the deities appointed to preside over the months and signs were to some extent influential. Two of them, indeed, took direct possession of their respective portions of the sky. The zodiacal Virgo is held to represent the Assyrian Venus, Ishtar, the ruling divinity of the sixth month, and Sagittarius the archer-god Nergal, to whom the ninth month was dedicated. But no uniform system of selection was pursued. The rather picturesque and symbolic items, adopted at various epochs, and under the influence of varying currents of ideas, became amalgamated in the final series.

This, there is reason to believe, was the upshot of a prehistoric reform. So far as positive records go, Aries was always the first sign. But the arrangement is, on the face of it, a comparatively modern one. None of the brighter stars of the constellation could be said even roughly to mark the equinox much before 1800 B.C.; during a long stretch of previous time the leading position belonged to the stars of Taurus. Numerous indications accordingly point to the invading primitive zodiac. Setting aside as doubtful evidence derived from interpretations of cuneiform inscriptions, we meet, in connexion with Mithraic and Mithlistic legends, reminiscences of a zodiac and religious calendar in which the Bull led the way.4 Virgil’s

Candidus auratis aperit cum cornibus annum Taurus

perpetuates the tradition. And the Pieiades continued, within historical memory, to be the first asterism of the lunar zodiac.

1 Lenormant, Origines de l’Histoire, l. 236.

2 The possibility should not, however, be overlooked that the “stars of the months” were determined by their heliacal risings (see Bosanquet and Sayce on Babylonian astronomy, in Monthly Notices Roy. Astr. Soc. xl. 117). This would give a further extension back of the civil years, during which the equinox might have occurred in the month of the Ram.

In the Chaldaean signs fragments of several distinct strata of thought appear to be embedded. From one point of view they shadow out the great epic of the destinies of the human race; again, the universal solar myth claims a share in them; hence traditions were sought into eft post factum connexions with them; or they served to commemorate simple meteorological and astronomical facts.

The first Babylonian month Nisan, dedicated to Anu and Bel, was that of "sacrifice"; and its association with the Ram as the chief primitive object of sacrifice is thus intelligible. According to an alternative explanation, the heavenly Ram, placed as leader in front of the flock of the stars, merely embodied a spontaneous figure of the popular imagination. An antique persuasion, that the grand cycle of creation opened under the first sign, has been transmitted to modern cognizance by Dante (Inf. i. 38). The human race, on the other hand, was supposed to have come into being under Taurus. The solar interpretation of the sign goes back to the far-off time when the year began with Taurus, and the sun was conceived of as a bull entering upon the great furrow of heaven as he ploughed his way among the stars. In the third month and sign the building of the first city and the fratricidal brothers—the Romulus and Remus of Roman legend—were brought to mind. The appropriate symbol was at first indifferently a pile of bricks or two male children, always on early monuments placed feet to feet. The retrograde movement of a crab typified, by an easy association of ideas, the retreat of the sun from his fairest northern excursion, and Cancer was constituted the sign of the summer solstice. The Lion, as the symbol of fire, represented the culmination of the solar heat. In the sixth month, the descent of Ishtar to Hades in search of her lost husband Tammuz was celebrated, and the sign of the Virgin had thus a purely mythological significance.

The history of the seventh sign is somewhat complicated. The earlier Greek writers—Eudoxus, Eratosthenes, Hipparchus—knew of only eleven zodiacal symbols, but made one do double duty, extending the Scorpion across the seventh and eighth divisions. The Balance, obviously indicating the equality of day and night, is first mentioned as the sign of the autumnal equinox by Geminus and Varro, and obtained, through Sosigenes of Alexandria, official recognition in the Julian calendar. Nevertheless, Virgil (Georg. i. 32) regarded the space it presided over as so much waste land, providentially occupied by the "Claws" of the Scorpion, but readily available for the apotheosis of Augustus. Libra was not of Greek invention. Ptolemy, who himself chiefly used the "Claws" (Xyphοδ), speaks of it as a distinctively Chaldaean sign; and it occurs as an extrazodiacal asterism in the Chinese sphere. An ancient Chinese law, moreover, prescribed the regularization of weights and measures at the spring equinox. No representation of the seventh sign has yet been discovered on any Euphratean monument; but it is noticeable that the eighth is frequently doubled, and it is difficult to avoid seeing in the pair of zodiacal scorpions carved on Assyrian cylinders the prototype of the Greek scorpion and claws. Both Libra and the sign it eventually superseded thus owned a Chaldaean birthplace. The struggle of rival systems of nomenclature, from which our zodiacal series resulted, is plainly visible in their alternations; and the claims of the competing signs were long sought to be conciliated by representing the Balance as held between the claws of the Scorpion.

The definitive decline of the sun's power after the autumnal sign was typified by placing a Scorpion as the symbol of darkness in the eighth sign. Sagittarius, figured later as a Centaur, stood for the Babylonian Mars. Capricornus, the sign of the winter solstice, is pleasingly connected with the capricorn head of the young solar god in Oriental legend, as was which of Zeus and Amalthis is a variant. The fish-tailed Goat of the zodiac presents a close analogy with the Mexican calendar sign Cipactli, a kind of marine monster resembling a narwhal. Aquarius is a still more exclusively meteorological sign than Leo. The eleventh month was known in Euphratean regions as that of "want and rain." The deluge was traditionally associated with it. It was represented in zodiacal symbolism by the god Ramman, crowned with a tiara and pouring water from a vase, or more generally by the vase and water without the god. The resumption of agricultural labours after the deluge was commemorated in the twelfth month, and a mystical association of the fishes, which were its sign, with the life after death is evident in a monument of Assyrian origin described by Clermont-Ganneau, showing a corpse guarded by a pair of fish-gods. The doubling of the sign of Pisces still recalls, according to Sayce, the arrangement of the Babylonian calendar, in which a year of 360 days was supplemented once in six years by a thirteenth month, a second Adar. To the double month corresponded the double sign of the Fishes.

Cyclical Meaning of the Succession of Signs.—The cyclical meaning of the succession of zodiacal signs, though now obscured by interpolations and substitutions, was probably once clear and entire. It is curiously reflected in the adventures of the Babylonian Hercules, the solar hero Gilgamesh (see Gilgamesh, Epic 09). They were recorded in the comparatively late surviving version of the 7th century B.C., on twelve tablets, with an obvious design of correlation with the twelve divisions of the sun's annual course. Gilgamesh's conquest of the divine bull (the sacred ox), placed under the sign of Leo, is the victory of light over darkness, represented in plastic art by the group of a lion killing a bull, which is the form ordinarily given to the sign Leo on Ninevite cylinders. The wooing of Ishtar by the hero of the epic falls under Virgo, and his encounter with two scorpion men, guardians of the rising and the setting sun, under Scorpio. The eleventh tablet narrates the deluge; the twelfth associates the apotheosis of Ebabni with the zodiacal emblems of the resurrection.

In the four middle constellations of the zodiac little regard was paid to similar configurations. The Chaldaeans chose three stars in each sign to be the 'councillor gods' of the planets. These were called by the Greeks 'decans,' because ten degrees of the ecliptic and ten days of the year were presided over by each. The college of the decans was conceived as moving, by their annual risings and settings, in an 'eternal circuit' between the infernal and supernal regions. Modern asterisms first appear in the Phaenomena of Eudoxus about 370 B.C. But Eudoxus, there is reason to believe, consulted, not the heavens, but a celestial globe of an anterior origin, with which the signs were forced into unnatural agreement. The representation thus handed down (in the verses of Aratus) has been thought to tally best with the state of the sky about 2000 B.C., and the mention of a polar star, for which Eudoxus was rebuked by Hipparchus, seems, as W. T. Lynn pointed out, to refer to the time when a Draconis
stood near the pole. The data afforded by Eudoxus, however, are far too vague to serve as the basis of any chronological conclusion.

Egyptian Zodiacal Signs.—The Egyptians adopted from the Greeks, with considerable modifications of its attendant symbolism, the twelve-fold division of the zodiac. Aries became the Fleece; two Sprouting Plants, typifying equality or resemblance, stood for Gemini; Cancer was re-named Scarabaeus; Leo was converted, from the axe-like configuration of its chief stars, into the Knife: Libra into the Mountain of the Sun, a reminiscence, apparently, of the Euphratean association of the seventh month with a "holy mound," designating the biblical tower of Babel. A Serpent was the Egyptian equivalent of Scorpio; the Arrow only of Sagittarius was retained; Capricornus became "Life," or a Mirror as an image of life; Aquarius survived as Water; Taurus, Virgo and Pisces remained unchanged.1 The motive of some of the substitutions was to avoid the confusion which must have ensued from the duplication of previously existing native asterisms; thus, the Egyptian and Greek Lions were composed of totally different stars. Abstractions in other cases replaced concrete objects, with the general result of effacing the distinctive character of the Greek zodiac as a "circle of living things."

Spread of Greek System.—Early Zoroastrian writings, though immersed with star-worship, show no traces of an attempt to organize the heavenly array. In the Bundahish, however (4th century), the twelve "Akhkârs," designated by the same names as our signs, lead the army of Ormâzid, while the seven "Awakhtârs" or planets (including a meteor and a comet) fight for Ahriman. The knowledge of the solar zodiac thus turned to account for dualistic purposes was undoubtedly derived from the Greeks. By them, too, it was introduced into Hindustan. Aryabhata, about the beginning of the Christian era, reckoned by the same signs as Hipparchus. They were translated into Chaldaean, borrowed by Bactrian missionaries to China, but remained in abeyance until the Jesuit reform of Chinese astronomy in the 17th century.

Chinese Zodiacal Signs.—The native Chinese zodiacal system was of unexampled complexity. Besides divisions into twenty-eight and twenty-four parts, it included two distinct duodenary series. The 13th or "stations" were referred by E. C. Biot to the date 1111 B.C. Measured from the winter solstice of that epoch, they corresponded, in conformity with the Chinese method of observation by intervals of what we now call right ascension, to equal parts of the celestial equator.2 Projected upon the ecliptic, these were considerably unequal, and the tse accordingly differed essentially from the Chaldaean and Greek signs. Their use was chiefly astrological, and their highly figurative names—"Great Splendour," "Immensely Void," "Fire of the Phoenix," &c.—had reference to no particular stars. They became virtually merged in the European series, stamped with official recognition over two centuries ago. The twenty-four tiâi or demi-1se were probably invented to mark the course of weather changes throughout the year. Their appellations are purely meteorological.

The characteristic Chinese mode of dividing the "yellow road" of the sun was, however, by the twelve "cyclical animals"—Rat, Ox, Tiger, Hare, Dragon or Crocodile, Serpent, Horse, Sheep, Monkey, Hen, Dog, Pig. The opening sign corresponds to our Aquarius, and it is remarkable that the rat is, in the far East, frequently used as an ideograph for "water." But here the agreement ceases. For the Chinese series has the strange peculiarity of proceeding in a retrograde direction or against the course of the sun. Thus the second sign (of the Ox) occupies the position of Capricorn in the third that of Sagittarius, and so on. The explanation of this seeming anomaly is to be found in the primitive designation of the "animals" to the purposes of an "horary zodiac." Their succession, established to mark the hours of day and night, was not unnaturally associated with the diurnal revolution of the sphere from east to west.3 They are unquestionably of native origin. Tradition ascribes their invention to Tajao, minister of the emperor Han-Hwang, who reigned c. 206 B.C., and it can scarcely be placed later than the 7th century B.C.4

The Chinese circle of the "animals" obtained early a wide diffusion. It was adopted by Tatars, Turks and Mongols, in Tibet and Tong-king, Japan and Korea. It is denominated by Humboldt5 the "zodiac of hunters and shepherds," and he adds that the presence in it of a tiger gives it an exclusively Asiatic character. It appears never to have been designed for astronomical employment. From the first it served to characterize the divisions of time. The nomenclature not only of the hours of the day and of their minutest intervals was supplied by it but of the months of the year, of the years in the Oriental sixty-year cycle, and of the days in the "little cycle" of twelve days. Nor has it yet fallen into desuetude. Years of "the Rat," "of the Tiger," "of the Pig," still figure in the almanacs of Central Asia, Cochín China and Japan.

Aztec Zodiacal Signs.—A large detachment of the "cyclical animals" even found its way to the New World. Seven of the twenty days constituting the Aztec month bore names from those of the Chinese horary signs. The Hare, Rabbit; Monkey, Dog and Serpent reappeared without change for the Tiger, Crocodile and Hen, unknown in America. The Ocelot, Lizard and Eagle were substituted as analogues.6 The Aztec calendar dated from the 7th century; but the zodiacal tradition embodied by it was doubtless much more ancient. Of the zodiac in its true sense of a partitioned belt of the sphere there was no aboriginal knowledge on the American continent. Mexican acquaintance with the signs related only to their secondary function as days (so to speak) with which to stamp recurring intervals of time.

Lunar Zodiac.—The sidereal revolution of the moon laid down only the course of the sky, its sidereal revolution those of the lunar zodiac. The first was a circle of "full moons"; the second marked the diurnal stages of the lunar progress round the sky, from and back again to any selected star. The moon was the earliest "measurer" both of time and space; but its services can scarcely have been rendered available until stellar "milestones" were established at suitable points along its path. Such were the Hindu nakshatras, a word originally signifying stars in general, but appropriated to designate certain small stellar groups marking the divisions of the lunar track. They exhibit in an exaggerated form the irregularities of distribution visible in our zodiacal constellations, and present the further anomaly of being frequently reckoned as twenty-eight in number, while the ecliptic arcs they characterize are invariably twenty-seven. Now, since the moon revolves round the earth in 27 1/2 days, hesitation between the two full numbers might easily arise; yet the real explanation of the difficulty appears to be different. The superfluous asterism, named Abhijli, included the bright star a Lyrae, under whose influence the gods had vanquished the Asuras. Its invocation with the other nakshatras, remoteness from the ecliptic notwithstanding, was thus due (according to Max Müller's plausible conjecture)7 to its being regarded as of especially good omen. Acquaintance with foreign systems of twenty-eight lunar divisions tended doubtless to fix its position, which remained, nevertheless, always equivocal.8 Alternately admitted into or rejected from the series, it was finally, some six or seven centuries ago, eliminated by the effects of precession in reversing the order of culmination of its limiting stars.

The notion of a twofold division of the zodiac was deeply rooted in Hindu tradition. The number and the name were in early times almost synonymous. Thus a nakshatra-mula

1 Humboldt, Vues des Cordillères, p. 168.
2 G. Schlegel, Ur. Chin., pp. 37, 561.
4 Ibid., p. 152; Prescott, Conquest of Mexico, ii. 321 (ed. 1862).

1 Brugsch, Z. D. M. G., ix. 515.
denoted a necklace of twenty-seven pearls; and the fundamental equality of the parts was figured in an ancient legend, by the compulsion laid upon King Soma (the Moon) to share his time impartially between all his wives, the twenty-seven daughters of Prajapati. Everything points to a native origin for the system of nakshatras. Some were named after exclusively Vedic deities; they formed the basis of the sacrificial calendar of the Brahmins; the old Indian names of the months were derived from them; their existence was pre-supposed in the entire structure of Hindu ritual and science. They do not, however, obtain full recognition in Sanskrit literature until the Brāhmaṇa period (7th or 8th century B.C.). The Rig-Veda contains only one allusion to them, where it is said that 'Soma is placed in the nakshatras'; and this is in a part including later interpolations.

Positive proof of the high antiquity of the Hindu lunar zodiac is nevertheless afforded by the undoubted fact that the primitive series opened with Krittikā (the Pleiades) as the sign of the vernal equinox. The arrangement would have been correct about 3500 B.C.; it would scarcely have been possible after 1800 B.C. We find nowhere else a well-authenticated zodiacal sequence corresponding to so early a date. The reform by which Krittikā, now relegated to the third place, was superseded as the head of the series by Agni or Vivasvan, is believed to have been made during the influence somewhere near the beginning of the Christian era. For purposes of ritual, however, the Pleiades, with Agni or "Fire" as their presiding deity, continued to be the first sign. Hindu astronomy received its first definite organization in the 6th century, with results embodied in the Śāryu-Siddhānta. Here the "signs" and the "constellations" of the lunar zodiac form two essentially distinct systems. The ecliptic is divided into twenty-seven equal parts, called bhogas or arcs, of 80° each. But the nakshatras are twenty-eight, and are represented by as many "junction stars" (yogātārā), carefully determined by their co-ordinates and co-planarity. The sphere of the moon and planetas into the nakshatras (the ascertainment of which was of great astrological importance) were fixed by means of their conjunctions with the yogātārā. These, however, soon ceased to be observed, and already in the 11th century, al-Biruni could meet with no Hindu astronomer capable of pointing out to him the complete series. Their successful identification by Colebrooke in 1807 had a purely archaeological interest. The modern nakshatras are twenty-seven equal ecliptical divisions, the origin of which may be that of the signs of the zodiac with the vernal equinox of the sun, and the bḥogas of the Śāryu-Siddhānta. The mean place of the moon in them, published in all Hindu almanacs, is found to serve unexceptionably the ends of astral vaticination.

The system upon which it is founded is of great antiquity. Belief in the power of the nakshatras evidently inspired the invocations of them in the Akhaṇa-Veda. In the Brāhmaṇa period they were distinguished as "deva" and "yama," the fourteen lucky asterisms being probably associated with the waxing, the fourteen unlucky with the waning moon. A special nakshatra was appropriated to every occurrence of life. One was propitious to marriage, another to entrance upon school-life, a third to the first ploughing, a fourth to laying the foundation of a house. Festivals for the dead were appointed to be held under those that included but one star. Propitiatory abstinences were recommended when the natal asterism was menaced by unfavourable planetary conjunctions. The various members of the body were parcellled out among the nakshatras, and a system of food was prescribed as a wholesome accompaniment of the moon's revolution among them.⁴

The nomenclature of the Hindu signs of the zodiac, save as regards a few standard asterisms, such as Āvini and Krittikā, was far from uniform. Considerable discrepancies occur in the lists given by different authorities.⁵ Hence it is not surprising to meet in their evidence of foreign communications. Reminiscences of the Greek signs of Gemini, Leo, Libra, Sagittarius, Capricornus and Pisces are obviously prevalent in the Hindu Two Faces, Lion's Tail, Beam of a Balance, Arrow, Gazelle's Head (figured as a marine nondescript) and Fish. The correspondence does not, however, extend to the stars; and some coincidences adverted to by Humboldt between the nakshatras and the zodiacal animals of Central Asia are of the same nominal character.⁶ Mexican loans are more remarkable. They were apparently a second-hand adoption, and the Hindu zodiacal calendar includes nakshatra titles borrowed, not only through the medium of the Tatar zodiac, but likewise straight from the Indian scheme, apart from any known intervention. The "three footprints of Vishnu," for example, unmistakably gave its name to the Mexican day Olín, signifying the "track of the sun"; and both series further contain a "flint weapon," a "stick," and a "house." Several houses and couches were ranged along the Hindu zodiac with the naive idea of providing resting-places for the wandering moon.

Relative Antiquity of Hindu, Chinese, and Arabian Systems.— Relationship of a more intimate kind connects the Hindu lunar mansions with those of the Arabs and Chinese. The resemblance between the three systems is indeed so close that it has been assumed, almost as axiomatic, that they must have been framed from a single model. It appears nevertheless to have become tolerably clear that the nakshatras were both native to India, and the siu to China, but that the mánḍāsī were mainly of Indian derivation. The assertion, paradoxical at first sight, that the twenty-eight "hostelries" of the Chinese sphere had nothing to do with the moon's daily motion, seems to convey the sense of an actual fact. The division of the heavens into the four "elements" was well established; the Arab, described by the quaternary partition of the heavens, fundamental in Chinese astronomy. It was considered by Biot to have been originally twenty-four, but to have been enlarged to twenty-eight about 1100 B.C., by the addition of determinants for the solstices and equinoxes of that period. The essential difference, however, between the nakshatras and the siu is that the latter were equatorial, not ecliptical, divisions. They were measured by the meridian-passages of the limiting stars, and varied in amplitude from 8° 42′ to 30° 24′. The use of the nakshatras, however, continued, some idea of the moon was as points of reference for the movements of sun, moon and planets. They served, in fact, and still serve (though with astrological ends in view), the precise purpose of "fundamental stars" in European astronomy. All that is certainly known about the antiquity of the siu is that they were well established in the 3rd century B.C. Their initial point at the autumnal equinox marked by Kio (Spica Virginis) suits a still later date; and there is no valid evidence that the modern series resulted from the rectification of an older superannuated arrangement, analogous to the Krittikā sequence of nakshatras. The Hindu zodiacal constellations belong then to an earlier epoch than the Chinese "stations," such as they have been transmitted to our acquaintance. Yet not only were the latter an independent invention, but it is almost demonstrable that the nakshatras, in their more recent organization, were, as far as possible, assimilated to them. The whole system of junction stars was doubtless an imitation of the siu; the choice of them by the Hindu astronomers of the 6th century A.D. was plainly instigated by a consideration of the Chinese list, compiled with a widely different motive. The order in which the signs were arranged varied from one authority to another; the reason can generally be assigned for the change. Eight junction stars lie quite close to seven others are actually identical with, Chinese determinants; and many of these coincidences

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⁵ Humboldt, Vues des Cordillères, p. 154.
⁶ Ibid., p. 152.
⁸ G. Schlelegel, Ut. Chin., p. 77.
⁹ Biot, Études, p. 136.
are between insignificant and, for the purposes of ecliptical division, inconveniently situated objects.

**Arabian Mansions of the Moon.**—The small stellar groups characterizing the Arab "mansions of the moon" (mandal al-bakandār) were more equably distributed than either the Hindu or Chinese series. They presented, nevertheless, striking resemblance to the latter. Twenty-four out of twenty-eight were forward, at least in perspective, of the Chinese stars. That the Arab was essentially a copy of the Hindu lunar zodiac can scarcely admit of doubt. They were divided on the same principle; each opened at the spring equinox; the first Arab sign Sharaštān was strictly equivalent to the Hindu Avinī; and eighteen constellations in each were virtually coincident. The model of the sieu was, however, also regarded. Eighteen Chinese determinants were included in the Arab asterisms, and of these five or six were not nakšatra stars; consequently, they must have been taken directly from the Chinese series. Nor were the Greek signs without effect in determining the names of the mandālis, the late appearance of which, in a complete form, removes all difficulty in accounting for the various foreign influences brought to bear upon them. They were first enumerated by Alfarāhī early in the 9th century, when the Arabs were in astronomy the avowed disciples of the Hindus. But, although they then received perhaps their earliest quasi-scientific organization, the mansions of the moon had ages previously figured in the popular lore of the Bedouin. A set of twenty-eight names associated their heliacal risings with the changes of the seasons. The vernal and autumnal settings were of meteorological and astrological import: in the Koran (x. 5) they are regarded as indispensable for the reckoning of time. Yet even this intimate penetration into the modes of thought of the desert may be explained by prehistoric Indian communication. The alternative view, advocated by Weber, that the lunar zodiac was primitively Chaldean, rests on a very shadowy foundation. It is true that a word radically identical with mandālīl occurs twice in the Bible, under the form man̂sūl and mazāloth (2 Kings xxiii. 5; Job xxviii. 32); but the heavenly halting-places which it seems to designate may be solar rather than lunar. Euphratean exploration has so far brought to light no traces of eclipsal partition by the moon's diurnal motion, unless, indeed, zodiacal associations be claimed for a set of twenty-eight deprecatory formulae against evil spirits inscribed on a Ninevite tablet. 1

The safest general conclusions regarding this disputed subject appear to be that the sieu, distinctively and unvaryingly Chinese, cannot properly be described as divisions of a lunar zodiac, that the nakshatras, though of purely Indian origin, became modified by the successive invasion of Greek and Chinese rectifications and supposed improvements; while the monāsas constituted a frankly eclectic system, in which elements from all quarters were combined. It was adopted by Turks, Tatars and Persians, and forms part of the astronomical paraphernalia of the Bundākīsh. The sieu, on the other hand, were early naturalized in Japan.

**Astrological Systems.**—The refined system of astrological prediction based upon the solar zodiac was invented in Chaldaea, obtained a second home and added elaborations in Egypt, and spread irresistibly from thence. To the beginning of the Christian era. For genealogically purposes the signs were divided into six solar and six lunar, the former counted outward from Leo, the "house" of the twelve, and from the moon's domicile in Cancer. Each planet had two houses—solar and a lunar—distributed according to the order of their revolutions. Thus Mercury, as the planet nearest the sun, obtained Virgo, the sign adjacent to Leo, with the corresponding lunar house in Gemini; Venus (Libra) (solar) and Taurus (lunar); and so for the rest. A ram frequently stamped on coins of Antiochus, with head reversed towards the moon, was supposed to be the "house" of the moon, and was abroad. Mars was so connected to be the lunar house of Mars. With the respective and relative positions in the zodiac of the sun, moon and planets, the character of their action on human destiny varied indefinitely. The influence of the signs, though secondary, was hence overmastering: Julian called them "the guiding stars," and to the gods corresponded. Cities and kingdoms were allotted to several patronage on a system fully expounded by Manilius:

* Hos erit in fines orbis pontusque notandus, Quiem Deus in partes per singula dividit astra, At sua cura sancta regna per orbem, Et propias gentes atque urbes addidit alatas.*

In quibus exercent praestantia sidera vires.*

Syria was assigned to Aris, and Syriac coins frequently bear the effigy of a ram; Scythia and Arabia fell to Taurus, India to Gemini, and Aquarius was allotted. In the bodhisattva, claimed the favour of Libra, Zeugma that of Capricorn; Leo protected Miletus, Sagittarius Singara. The "power of the signs" was similarly distributed among the parts of the human body:—

* Et quanquam communis eat tutela per omne Corpus, et in proprium divisio artibus exit: Namque ariis capit, taurus cervicibus haecest; Brachia sub geminis cenistant, pectora cancro.*

Warning were uttered against surgical treatment of a member through whose sign the moon happened to be passing: and the sign of Leo was a dispensable branch of the healing art in the Middle Ages. Some curious municipalities of the suppliant have survived in rings and amulets, engraved with the various signs, and worn as a kind of astral defensive armour. Many such, the signs of Cancer and Libra, and have been engraved by Thanes. Individuals, too, adopted zodiacal emblems. Capricornus was impressed upon the coins of Augustus, Libra on those of Pythodorus, queen of Pontus; a sultan of Iconium displayed Leo his "homing emblem" for sovereignity; Stephen of Edessa chose the protection of Sagittarius.

**Egyptian Astrology.**—In Egypt celestial influences were considered emanating almost entirely from the thirty-six "decans" of the signs. They were called the "sieve of the whole circle of the zodiac"; each ten-day period of the Egyptian year was consecrated to the decanal god whose celestial rote at that epoch determined the ceremonial order of the religious cycle, and disease was cured by invoking the zodiacal regent of the part affected. As early as the 14th century B.C. a complete list of the decans was placed among the hieroglyphs adorning the tomb of Seti I. Among the figures an Egyptian was wont to portray, and characterize every Egyptian astronomical monument. Both the famous zodiaces of Dendera display their symbols, unmistakably identified by Lenormant. The origin of these representations was established by the detection upon them of the cartouches of Tiberius and Nero. As the date of inception of the circular zodiac in Egypt is 46 B.C., has, however, been suggested with high probability, from (among other indications) the position of the signs of the emblem of the planet Jupiter. Its design was most likely to serve as a sort of *hora coeli* at the time of the birth of Caesar. The companion rectangular zodiac still in situ on the walls of the temple of Dendera at Aris, the body was corresponding with that of the Egyptian, and was esteemed by the ancient authorities, the date 29 A.D. It forthwith, there is reason to believe, the natal scheme, not of the emperor Tiberius, as had been conjectured by Leuth, but of the building it served to decorate. The Egyptian signs of the months have been generally obvious upon both these monuments, which have thrown useful light upon the calendar system and method of stellar grouping of the ancient Egyptians.

**Planispheres.**—An Egyptian-Greek planisphere, first described by Bianchini, resembles in its general plan the circular zodiac of Dendera. The decans are ranged upon the outermost of its five concentric zones; the planets and the glreek zodiac in duplicate occupy the next three; while the inner circle is unaccountably reserved for the Chinese cyclical animals. The relic was dug up upon the Avila in 1705, and is now in the Louvre. It dates from the 2nd or 3rd century A.D. The Tatar zodiacs are frequently found engraved on Chinese mirrors in polished bronze or steel of the 7th century, and figured on the "plateau of the twelve hours" 1

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1 Whitney, Notes to Surya-Sthādhānta, p. 200.
2 Ibid., p. 206.
4 Lenormant, Chaldean Magic, p. 1.

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2 Astr. bk. iv. ver. 690 seq.
3 Eckhel, Descriptio Nummorum Antiquiorum, syriar, pp. 18, 25.
4 Manilius, Astr. bk. vi. ver. 12; Venus (Libra) (solar) and Taurus (lunar); and so for the rest. A ram frequently stamped on coins of Antiochus, with head reversed towards the moon, was supposed to be the "house" of the moon, and was abroad. Mars was so connected to be the lunar house of Mars. With the respective and relative positions in the zodiac of the sun, moon and planets, the character of their action

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1 A. J. Peirce, Science of the Stars, p. 84.
2 Journal, Arch. Soc. xiii. 254, 310, and xx. 80.
3 In a fragment of Hermes translated by Th. Taylor at p. 362 of his version of Iamblichus,
4 Pettigrew, Superstitions Connected with Hist. of Medicine, p. 30.
5 Lepsius, Chronologie der Aegyptier, part i. p. 68.
6 Lepsius, op. cit., p. 30.
7 Les Zodiaces de Denderah, p. 78.
8 See Riel's Das feste Jahr von Denderah (1878).
9 Mem. de l'Acad., Paris, 1708, Hist., p. 110; see also Humboldt, Vues des Cordeliers, p. 170; Lepsius, op. cit., p. 83; Fröhner, Sculpture du Louvre, p. 17.
in the treasury of the emperors of the Tang dynasty.1 Probably the most ancient zodiacal representation in existence is a fragment of an early Chinese painted zodiacal planisphere, inscribed with the names of the twelve months and their governing signs. Two only now remain.2

A zodiacal altar, the "astrological altar of Gabies" in the Louvre, illustrates the apportionment of the signs among the inmates of the Roman Pantheon;3 and they occur as a classical reminiscence in the mosaics of San Miniato and the baptistery at Florence, the bamboos of Lucca, and the crypt of San Savino.4 Zodiacal symbolism became conspicuous in medieval art. Nearly all the French cathedrals of the 12th and 13th centuries exhibit on their exterior surfaces the signs of the zodiac, in each month and sign its corresponding labour. The zodiac of Notre Dame of Paris, opening with Aquarius, is a noted instance.5 A similar series, in which sculptured figures of Christ and the Apostles are associated with their zodiacal signs, is to be seen in perfect preservation on the chief doorway of the abbey church at Vezelay. The cathedrals of Amiens, Sens and Rheims are decorated in the same way. In Italy the signs and works survive fragmentarily in the baptistery at Parma, completely on the porch of the cathedral of Cremona and on the west doorway of St Mark's at Venice. They are less common in England; but St Margaret's, York, and the church in Oxfordshire offer good specimens of the zodiac at Merton College, Oxford. Libra is represented by a judge in his robes and Pisces by the dolphin of Fitzjames, warden of the college, 1482–1507.6 The great rose-windows of the Early Gothic period were often enriched with zodiacal signs; and some frescoes in the cathedral of Cologne contain the signs, each with an attendant angel, just as they were depicted on the vault of the church at Mount Athos. Giotto's zodiac at Padua was remarkable (in its union with the signs of the months), and the arrangement of the signs so as to be struck in turns, during the corresponding months, by the sun's rays.7 The "zodiac of labours" was replaced in French cathedrals at earliest by a separate altar, in which hunting, hawking, fishing and dancing were substituted for hoeing, planting, reaping and ploughing.8

It is curious to find the same sequence of symbols employed for the same decorative purposes in India as in Europe. A perfect set of signs was copied in 1764 from a pagoda at Verdapatnath near Cape Comorin, and one equally complete existed at the same period in the clustering of a temple near Madurah.9

The hieroglyphs representing the signs of the zodiac in astronomical works are found in manuscripts of about the 10th century, but in carvings not until the 15th or 16th.10 Their origin is unknown; but they, and the figures of them, have antique associations. The hieroglyph of Leo, for instance, occurs among the symbols of the Mithraic worship.11

See also the article ASTRONOMY, and the separate articles on the constellations. The whole subject of the history of the zodiac is very obscure. See generally Franz Boll, Sphaera (Leipzig, 1903); also the bibliographies to Astrology and Babylonian and Assyrian Religion. (A. M. C.)

ZODIACAL LIGHT, a faint illumination of the sky, surrounding the sun and elongated in the direction of the ecliptic on each side of the sun. It is lenticular in form, brightest near the sun, and shaded off imperceptibly gradations, generally becoming invisible at a distance of 90° from the sun. It will be noticed, however, that it is never observed in the same zodiac; hence its designation. Its breadth varies with the time and place of observation, depending upon the position of the ecliptic with respect to the horizon. In the tropics, where the ecliptic is nearly perpendicular to the horizon, it may be seen after the end of twilight on every clear evening; and before twilight on every clear morning, unless blotted out by moonlight. It then presents a nearly vertical wedge-shaped form, the base of which extends 15° or 20° on each side of the point at which the ecliptic intersects the horizon. The point of the wedge is quite indefinite, the extremely diffuse light gradually fading into invisibility at a height which may range from 50° to 70° or even more, according to the keenness of the observer's eyesight. The breadth of the wedge is not so great as to make any exact statement of the extent of the light can be made. The brightness is at its maximum along its central line, called the axis of the light. Along this axis the brightness continually increases as the sun is approached. Owing to the softness of the outline, it is not possible to fix the position of the axis with precision; but, so far as observations have been made, it is found that it lies near the ecliptic, though deviating from it by a quite sensible amount.

Having this position, the conditions of visibility will be best when the ecliptic, and therefore the axis of light, are nearly perpendicular to the horizon, and, as the angle between the ecliptic and horizon becomes acute, will deteriorate, slowly at first, more and more rapidly afterwards, owing to the increasing effect of atmospheric absorption. This effect is enhanced by the light being brighter as we approach the sun. More and more of the brighter regions of the light will then be near the horizon the more acute the angle. The result is that the light can only be distinctly seen when the angle with the horizon is less than 45°, unless in a region where the atmosphere is unusually free from all turbidity. From the statement of the conditions it will be seen that the tropical zones is the most favourable for the observation, and that the most favourable hour of the day at which the light can be seen must always be the earliest after sunset and the last before sunrise. Practically this is when twilight is first ended in the evening, and about to begin in the morning. At these hours the angle of the ecliptic with the horizon varies with the season. At the close of evening twilight the angle is greatest about three weeks before the vernal equinox. The months of February and March are therefore best for the evening observations in the northern hemisphere, but the light can generally be seen from January until April. Similar favourable conditions prevail in the morning from September to November. It is clear that the light proceeds from a region surrounding the sun, and lenticular in form, the axis of the lens being nearly perpendicular to the ecliptic, while the circumference extends at least to the orbit of the earth. If it did not extend so far as this it could not be seen as frequently as it is at a distance of 90° from the sun. The accompanying figure shows the form of the outline, as it would appear to an observer on an outer planet were the light of the sun cut off. The hypothesis which best accounts for the variable nature of the phenomenon is that reflected from an extremely tenuous cloud of particles having the form and extent described, and becoming more and more tenuous as the earth's orbit is approached until, immediately outside the orbit, it fades into complete invisibility. The fact that the light widens out toward the sun leads to the inference that it entirely surrounds the sun. It is therefore of interest to test this inference by observations at midnight in such a latitude that the distance of the sun below the horizon is no more than necessary to preclude the possibility of twilight. Such an opportunity is offered when the sun is near the summer solstice, in latitudes not differing much from 50° north. A transparent atmosphere and clear horizon are necessary, conditions which can best be secured on a mountain top. The visibility of a light corresponding to the inference was shown by Simon Newcomb, by observations at the top of the Brienz Rothorn, in 1905. Previously to this, E. E. Barnard had observed the same phenomenon at Chicago. The only source of doubt as to the validity of the conclusion that this is really the zodiacal light arises from the possibility that, after the close of the ordinarily recognized twilight, there may be a faint illumination arising from the reflection of light by the very rare upper atmosphere, shown by the phenomena of meteors to extend some hundred miles or more above the earth's surface. The problem of

3 Ménard, Le Mythologie dans l'Art, p. 388.
4 Fowler, Archéologie, xiv. 172.
6 Fowler, Archéologie, xiv. 150.
7 Viollet-le-Duc, Dict. de l'Arch., ix. 551.
8 John Call, Phil. Trans. lxii. 353. Cf. Houzeau, Bibliographie Astronomique, vol. i. pt. i. p. 136, where a useful sketch of the general results of zodiacal research will be found.
9 R. Peters, archæologia, xv. 341; Sayce, in Nature, xvi. 525.
10 See Lajard, Culte de Mithra, pl. xxvii. fig. 5, &c. The actual symbols of the signs are referred to above (see Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, vol. 50 (1884), 171, No. 20, and plate 17, No. 6); it occurs there with an Assyrian winged bull. But there is nothing to prove that it there, or elsewhere, means Taurus; it is found, in the same early period, with a lion as well as with a bull —on coins, seals, &c.
ZODIACAL LIGHT

separating a possible effect produced in this way from the zodiacal light proper may seem to offer some difficulty. But the few observations made show that, after ordinary twilight has ended in the evening, the northern base of the zodiacal light extends more and more toward the north as the hours pass until, towards midnight, it merges into the light of the sky described by the two observers mentioned. Yet more conclusive are the observations of Maxwell Hall at Jamaica, who reached conclusions identical with those of Barnard and Newcomb, from observations of the base of the light at the close of twilight, which he estimated at 5° in the line of the sun.

These observations show that the outline on that portion of the light commonly seen in the morning or evening is concave instead of convex, as it would be were the cloud strictly lenticular. The actual outline of the cloud is that of which a section through the sun is shown in the figure. Since the tenuous edge of the lens extends beyond the earth's orbit it follows that there must be some zodiacal light, whether it can be seen or not, passing entirely across the sky, along or near the ecliptic. Observations of this zodiacal band are therefore of great interest. It has been seen to stretch across the sky at midnight by several observers, especially Barnard, to whom it appears 3° to 4° wide. He found it to be best seen during the months of October, November and May.

Intimately connected with this band and with the zodiacal light is the Gegenschein, or counter-glow, a faint illumination of the sky in the region opposite the sun, which may generally be seen by a trained eye when all the conditions are favourable. Unfavourable conditions are moonlight, nearness to the Milky Way, and elevation of the light above the horizon (and therefore a depression of the sun below the horizon) of less than 20°, and the presence in the region of any bright planet. The Milky Way renders the object invisible during the months of June, July, December and January. Its light is so faint and diffuse that it is impossible to assign dimensions to it, except to say it covers a region of several degrees in extent. Barnard, the most successful observer, assigns diameters of 5° or even 10° or more. From what has been said of its position it is evident that the zodiacal band, when seen across the sky, must include it. It may therefore be regarded as an intensification of this band, possibly produced by the increased intensity of the light when reflected nearly back toward the sun, and therefore toward the earth. From the description given of the zodiacal band and the Gegenschein, it is clear that these objects should be best seen at the highest elevation, especially within the tropics. But the only well-authenticated observations we have of this kind show anomalies which have never been cleared up. This is especially the case with those of Chaplain George Jones, who spent eight months at Quito, Peru, at an elevation of more than 9000 ft., for the express purpose of observing the phenomenon in question. He saw the zodiacal band at midnight as a complete arch spanning the sky, agreeing in this point with the observations of Barnard. One anomaly of his observations is his description of the arch as sometimes so bright to the transparency of the atmosphere. Barnard reports it as sometimes best seen when the sky is slightly milky, while during the observations already mentioned from the Rothorn the Gegenschein was scarcely, if at all, visible, though the conditions were exceptionally favourable. It has even been said that observers at great elevations have failed to see the zodiacal light; but it is scarcely credible that this failure could arise from any other cause than not knowing what it was or where to look for it. Moreover, it has been well seen by Hanks from the observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc.

In studying the causes of the phenomenon we must clearly distinguish between the apparent light from the earth, and the real form of the lenticular-shaped cloud. The former refers to the earth, which is continually changing the point of view of the observer as he is carried around the sun, while the latter relates to the invisible position of the matter which reflects the light. First in importance is the question of the position of the principal plane, passing through the sun, and containing the circumferential regions of the cloud. This plane must be near, but not coincident with, that of the ecliptic. It has therefore a node and a certain inclination to the ecliptic. The determination of these elements requires that, at some point within the tropics where the atmospheric maximum, observations of the position of the axis of the light among the stars should be made from time to time through an entire year. In view of the simplicity of the necessary appliances, and of the small amount of labour that would be required, we find a singular paucity of such observations. The most elaborate attempt in the required direction was made by the American chaplain, George Jones, during a voyage of the "Mississippi" in the Pacific Ocean, in 1875-5. Owing to the varying latitude of the ship, and the fact that the observer attempted to draw curves of equal brilliancy instead of the central line, the required conclusions cannot be drawn with certainty from these observations. More recently Maxwell Hall in Jamaica made a satisfactory determination during the months from January to March, July and October, and carefully discussed his results. But the observations do not extend continuously throughout the year, and do not include a sufficient length of the central line on each evening to enable us to distinguish certainly the heliocentric latitude of the central line, as distinct from its apparent geocentric position. Yet his observations are of the first importance as showing the smallness of the deviation of the central line from the ecliptic. When smoothed out, the result is that the maximum latitude is less than 3°, which seems to preclude the coincidence of the central plane of the light with that of the sun's equator. Hall also reaches the interesting conclusion that the plane in question seems to lie near the invariable plane of the solar system, a result which might be expected if the light proceeded from a swarm of independent meteoric particles moving around the sun. Chaplain Jones concluded, from his observations at Quito, that the central line of the arch made an angle of 3° 26' with the ecliptic, the ascending node being in Taurus, near longitude 63°. This is about 40° from the ascending node of the invariable plane, so that there is a well-marked deviation of his results from those of Hall.

Yet more divergent are the conclusions of Francis J. Bayliss, R.N.R., who made many observations while on voyages through the Pacific Ocean between Australia and the west coast of North America. He places the ascending node at the vernal equinox, and assigns an inclination of 4°. He found that as the observer moved to the north or south the axis of the light appeared to be displaced in the direction of the motion, which is the opposite of the effect due to parallax, but in the same sense as the effect of the greater atmospheric absorption of the light on the side nearest the horizon. He also describes the moon as adding to the zodiacal light during her first and last quarters, a result so difficult to explain that it needs confirmation. It is noteworthy that he could see the zodiacal band across the entire sky during the whole of every very clear moonless night in tropical regions.

If we accept the general conclusion already drawn as to the
form and boundary of the region from which the light emanates, the next question is that of the matter sending it forth. The most plausible view is that we have to do with sunlight reflected from meteoric particles moving round the sun within the region of the lens. The polariscopes and the spectroscope are the only instruments by the aid of which the nature of the matter can be inferred. The evidence afforded by these instruments is not, however, altogether consistent. At Upsala, in March, at the same time as the zodiacal line (W.L. 5567), and concluded that in the zodiacal light there was the same material as is found in the aura and in the solar corona, and probably through all space. Upsala, however, is a place where the auroral spectrum can often be observed in the sky, even when no aura is visible, and it has generally been believed that what Ångström really saw was an auroral and not a zodiacal spectrum.

Professor A. W. Wright, of New Haven, also made careful observations leading to the conclusion that the spectrum differs from sunlight only in intensity. Some evidence has also been found by the same observer of polarization, showing that a considerable portion of the light must be reflected sunlight. The observations of Maxwell Hall also embraced some made with the spectroscope. He was unable to see any marked deviation of the spectrum from that of the sun; but it does not appear that either he or any other of the observers distinctly saw the dark lines of the solar spectrum. Direct proof that we have to do with reflected sunlight is therefore still incomplete.

The question whether the Gegensechein can be accounted for by the reflection of light from the same matter as the zodiacal band is still unsettled. Taking the general consensus of the observations it would seem that its light must be so much brighter than that of the band as to imply the action of some different cause. In this connexion may be mentioned the ingenious suggestion of S. Arrhenius, that the phenomenon is due to corpuscles sent off by the earth and repelled by the sun in the same way that they are sent off from a comet and form its tail. In other words, the light may be an exceptionally tenuous cometary tail to the earth, visible only because seen through its very great length. The view that no cause intervenes additional to that producing the zodiacal band is strengthened, though not proved, by a theorem due to F. R. Moulton of Chicago. He shows that, supposing the cloud of particles to move around the sun in nearly circular orbits immediately outside the earth, the perturbations by the earth in the motion of the particles will result in their retardation in that part of the orbit nearest the earth, and therefore in their always being more numerous in a given space, that is to say, in the region of the orbit nearest the earth, and that this may account for some intensification of the light, to which may be added the intensification produced by the vertical reflection of the sunlight.

A new interest was given to the subject by the investigations of H. H. Seeliger, published in 1906, who showed that the observed excess of motion of the peripheral part of Mercury may be accounted for by the action of that portion of the matter reflecting the zodiacal light which lies nearest to the sun. Plausible though his result is, the subject still requires investigation. It seems not unlikely that the true explanation may be that instead of the reflecting matter being composed of solid particles it is an exceedingly tenuous gaseous envelope surrounding the sun and revolving on an axis the mean position of which is between that of the sun's equator and that of the apsidal line of the solar system.

Bibliography

ZOFFANY—ZOISITE


ZOFFANY, JOHANN (1733-1810), British painter, whose father was architect to the prince of Thurn and Taxis, was born in Frankfort-on-Main. He ran away from home at the age of thirteen and went to Rome, where he studied art for nearly twelve years. In 1756 he left for England, and after undergoing some hardship he was brought into favour at court, and in 1772 was included among the foundation members of the Royal Academy. He went to Florence in 1772 with an introduction from George III. to the grand duke of Tuscany, and did not return until 1779. During this second stay in Italy he met with much success, and was commanded by the empress Maria Theresa to paint a picture of the royal family of Tuscany; this work he executed so much to the satisfaction of the empress that in 1778 he was created a baron of the Austrian empire. He went next to India, where he lived from 1783 to 1790, to which period belong some of his best-known paintings: but the last twenty years of his life were spent in England. He died in 1810 and was buried in Kew churchyard. His portrait group of dramatic celebrities are, perhaps, the most highly esteemed of his many productions; they have considerable technical merit and show much shrewd insight into character. Several of the best are in the Garrick Club, London.

ZOILOS (c. 300-330 B.C.), Greek grammarian of Amphipolis in Macedonia. According to Vitruvius (vii., pref.) he lived during the age of Ptolemy Philadelphus (285-247 B.C.), by whom he was produced in his youth. He did not write against his own time, but left a collection of papers on the substrata of many of his fellowmen. He was held in high esteem by Posterius, who draws the portrait character. Zoilos was chiefly distinguished for the acerbity of his attacks on Homer (which gained him the name of Homeromastix, "scurril of Homer"), chiefly directed against the fabulous element in the Hymric poems. Zoilos also wrote against Isocrates and Plato, who had attacked the style of Lysias of which he approved. The name Zoilos came to be generally used of a spiteful and malignant critic.

See U. Friedländer, De Zoiolo aitique Homer Obitractatiorurn (Königsberg, 1869); J. E. Sandys, History of Classical Scholarship (2nd ed. 1890).

ZOISITE, a rock-forming mineral, consisting of basic calcium and aluminium silicate, Ca_2Al_2Si_3O_10(OH)_4, crystallizing in the orthorhombic system. It is closely related to epidote (both in the angles of the crystals and in chemical composition): a zoisite containing some iron replacing aluminium may be identical in composition with an epidote ("clinozoisite") poor in iron. The crystals are prismatic in habit and are deeply furrowed parallel to their length; terminal planes are rare; there is a perfect cleavage parallel to the brachy-pinacoid. Columnar and compact masses are more common. The hardness is 5½ and the specific gravity 3.25-3.37. The colour is often grey; a rose-red variety, known as "thulite," occurs with a white veining. A variety known as "Thulite of Sweden" has been used to a limited extent as an ornamental stone. According to differences in the optical characters, two kinds of zoisite have been distinguished. Zoisite is a product of dynamometamorphism, and occurs as a constituent of some crystalline
schists, such as amphibolite and eclogite. It was first observed by Baron Zois (after whom it was named) in the eclogite of Sau-Alpe in Carinthia; other localities are the Ducktown copper mines in Tennessee, where it occurs embedded in chalcopyrite; Loch Garve in Ross-shire, &c. The "sau-
surite" of the Alps and elsewhere, which has resulted from the alteration of the plagioclase feldspar of gabбро, consists largely of zoisite with epidote.

ZOLA, ÉMILE ÉDOUARD CHARLES ANTOINE (1840-1902), French novelist, was born in Paris on the 2nd of April 1840, his father being an engineer, part Italian and part Greek, and his mother a Frenchwoman. The father seems to have been an energetic, visionary man, who, dying while his only son was a little lad, left to his family no better provision than a lawsuit against the municipality of the town of Aix. It was at Aix, which figures as Plassans in so many of his novels, that the boy received the first part of his education. Thence he proceeded, in 1858, to Paris, where, as at later Marseilles, he failed to obtain his bachelor's degree. Then came a few years of terrible poverty; but at the beginning of 1862 he obtained a clerkship, at the modest salary of a pound a week, in the house of Hachette the publisher. Meanwhile he was writing apace, but nothing of particular merit. His first book, Contes à Nînon, appeared on the 24th of October 1864, and attracted some attention, and in January 1866 he determined to abandon clerking and take to literature. Vigorous and aggressive as a critic, his articles on literature and art in Villemessant's paper L'Événem-
ment created a good deal of interest. So did the gruesome but powerful novel, Germinal (1885). Meanwhile, Zola, his characteristic energy, Zola was projecting something more im-
portant: the creation of a world of his own, like that of Balzac's

Comédie Humaine—the history of a family in its various rami-
fications during the Second Empire. The history of this family, the Rougon-Macquart, was to be told in a series of novels con-
taining a scientific study of heredity—science was always Zola's
ignis fatuus—and a picture of French life and society. The
first novel of the series, La Fortune des Rougon, appeared in
book form at the end of 1871. It was followed by La Curée
(1874), La Ventre de Paris (1874), La Conquête de Plassans
(1875), La Fante de l'Abbé Mouret (1875), Son Excellence Eugène
Rougon (1876)—all books unquestionably of immense ability,
and in a measure successful, but not great popular successes.
Then came L'Assommoir (1878), the epic of drink, and the
author's fortune was made. Edition followed edition. He
became the most discussed, the most read, the most bought
novelist in France—the sale of L'Assommoir being even exceeded
by that of Nana (1880) and La Débâcle (1892). From

La Fortune des Rougon to the Docteur Pascal (1893) there are some twenty novels in the Rougon-Macquart series, the second half of which includes the powerful novels Germinal (1885) and
La Terre (1888). In 1888 Zola departed from his usual vein in
the idyllic story of Le Rêve. Zola also wrote a series of three
romances on cities, Lourdes, Rome, Paris (1894-98), novels on the "gospels" of population (Fécondité) and work (Travail), a
volume of plays, and several volumes of criticism, and other
things. These books are based on study and observation; the
novels are crowded with characters. The whole is a gigantic
opus, the fruit of immense labour, of an admirable tenacity—
so many pages written, morning after morning, without inter-
mission for years. He prided himself on his motto, Nulla dies sine linea.

Zola was the apostle of the "realistic" or "naturalistic"
school; but he was in truth not a "naturalist" at all, in so
far as "naturalism" is to be regarded as a record of fact. He
was an idealist, but while other idealists idealize the nobler
elements in human nature, so has he, for the most part—the
later books, however, show improvement—idealized the elements
that are bestial. He saw man's lust, greed, gluttony, as in a
vision, magnified, overwhelming, portentous. And what he
saw he presented with tremendous power. His style may lack
the classic qualities of French prose—lightness, delicacy,
sparkle; it certainly has not Daudet's colour and felicity of
touch. The first impression it produces may be one of heaviness,
and the later "gospels" on population and work are distinctly ponderous. But for rendering the gloomy horror of the sub-
jects in which he most delights—detail on detail being accumu-
lated till the result is overwhelming—Zola has no superior.
Some of his descriptions of crowds in movement have never
been surpassed.

Zola played a very important part in the Dreyfus affair,
which convulsed French politics and social life at the end of the
19th century. At an early stage he came to the conclusion that
Dreyfus was the innocent victim of a nefarious conspiracy, and
on the 13th of January 1898, with his usual intrepidity, he
published in the Aurore newspaper, in the form of a letter begin-
ing with the words J'accuse, a terrible denunciation of all those
who had had a hand in hounding down that unfortunate officer.
Zola's object was a prosecution for libel, and a judicial inquiry
into the whole affaire, and at the trial, which took place in Paris
in February, a fierce flood of light was thrown on the case.
All this and much more Zola's career put forth all their power, and Zola was condemned. He appealed. On the 2nd of April the Cour de Cassation quashed the proceedings. A second trial took place at
Versailles, on the 18th of July, and without waiting the result
Zola, by the advice of his counsel and friends, and for reasons
of legal strategy, abruptly left France and took refuge in
England. Here he remained in hiding, writing Fécondité, till
the 4th of June 1899, when, immediately on hearing that there
was to be a revision of the first Dreyfus trial, he returned to
Paris. Whatever may be thought of the affaire itself, there
is no question of Zola's superb courage and disinterested-
ness.

On the morning of the 29th of September 1902 Zola
was found dead in the bedroom of his Paris house, having been
accidentally asphyxiated by the fumes from a defective flue.
He received a public funeral, at which Captain Dreyfus was
present. Anatole France delivered an impassioned oration at
the grave. At the time of his death Zola had just completed a
novel, Vérité, dealing with the incidents of the Dreyfus trial.
A sequel, Justice, had been planned, but not executed. After
a life of constant struggle and an obloquy which never relaxed,
the death of the close of Zola's career was the signal for an
extraordinary burst of eulogy. The verdict of posterity will
probably be kinder than the first, and less unmeasured than
the second. Zola's literary position would have more than
qualified him for the French Academy. He was several times
a candidate in vain.

(F. T. M.)

See Émile Zola, Novelist and Reformer (1904), giving a full account
of his life and work, by E. A. Vizetelly, who translated and edited
many of his works in English; also Émile Zola, Novis, A Life of
Zola, by Aubert and W. F. Bruce, and the two volumes, Zola, The Roman Novels, English
translation by C. H. S. Smith, 1904., where he was an ardent
partisan of the chancellor Zamoyski, and supported the can-
didature of Stephen Báthory, under whose banner he learned
the art of war in the Muscovite campaigns. On the death of
Stephen, Zolkiewski vigorously supported the policy of Zamoyski,
and took an active part in the battle of Buczyna, when the
Austrian archduke Maximilian was defeated by the Polish
chancellor. Shortly afterwards Zolkiewski was made castellan
of Lemberg and acting commander-in-chief. On the accession
of Sigismund III. he retired from court and divided his time
between improving his estates, where he built towns and for-
tresses, and disciplining the Cossacks, with whom he enjoyed
great influence. In 1601-2 he served with distinction in the
Livonian war against the Swedes, whom he defeated at Reval.
During the insurrection of Nicholas Zebrzydowski he led the
army which routed the rebels at Guzow in 1607, though pro-
testing against the necessity of shedding "his brothers' blood." For his services he received the palatinate of Klev. He was op-
posed to the expedition sent to place the false Demetrius on the throne of Muscovy; but nevertheless accompanied the king. In the spring of 1618, he was with a band of men against Moscow. On his way thither he defeated and captured
Tsar Vasily Shuiski at the battle of Klushino (July 14, 1610), and
two months later entered the Russian capital in triumph. His tactful and conciliatory diplomacy speedily won over the
boyars, whom he persuaded to offer the Muscovite crown to the
Polish crown prince, Vladislaus. For a moment it seemed
possible that the Vasai family might occupy the throne of Ivan
the Terrible; but Sigismund III. would not consent to the re-
ception of his son into the Greek Church, and refused to ratify
the terms made with the boyars. Zolkiewski then returned to
the Polish camp and assisted in the reduction of Smolensk,
but Moscow in the meantime drove out the Polish garrison and
proclaimed a native dynasty under Michael Romanov. When
Zolkiewski presented his captives, Tsar Vasily and his family,
to the Polish diet, he received an ovation and was rewarded with the
dignity of hetman wielki (commander-in-chief). For the next
few years he defended the Ukraine against the Tatars and
Cossacks, and in 1617 was involved in a war with the Porte
owing to the unauthorized interference of the Polish nobles
in the affaires of Wallachia and Moldavia. Unable to defeat
the sturdy supple劲uates of the Porte, Zolkiewski, in con-
clusion with him an advantageous treaty at Jaruda (27th of
August 1618), by the terms of which he pledged himself to
curb the Cossacks and at the same time renounced all the claims
of Poland to the Danubian principalities. Thus he saved the
one army of Poland to guard her southern frontier from ap-
parently inevitable destruction. On his return he was fiercely
assailed by the diet for not risking everything in a pitched
battle, but Zolkiewski defended himself with an eloquence which
silenced his most venomous opponents. The peace of Jaruda was
then confirmed, and the king conferred upon Zolkiewski
the grand-chancellorship, an honour he had neither desired
nor expected. Fresh attacks were presently made against him
for failing, it was alleged, to prevent the Tatar incursions.
So deeply wounded was the hero by these calumnies that when
in 1619 he was sent against the Turks he publicly declared that
he would never return alive unless victorious. He was as good
as his word. Surrounded near the Dniester by countless hosts
of Turks, Tatars and Janissaries, he retreated through the
Steppes, fighting night and day without food or water, towards
Cecora. By the time he reached it, he saw clearly that his
emperor was impossible, and deliberately determined to die where
he stood. Disguising himself so that his dead body might not be
recognized, he turned upon the pursuers and was slain after
a desperate resistance (6th of October 1620). His head was
cut off, exhibited in the Turkish camp and then sent to Con-
stantinople as a present to the sultan, from whom it was subse-
quently ransomed at a great price. Zolkiewski is one of the
most heroic figures in Polish history. An accomplished general,
а skilful diplomatist, and a patriot who not only loved his
country above all things, but never feared to tell his countrymen
the truth as he conceived it in all private and public virtues. As a
writer he made his name by an important history of his Muscovite
campaigns.

See Stanislaw Gabryd Kozlowski, Life of Stanislaus Zolkiewski (Pol.) (Cracow, 1904). (R. N. B.)

ZÖLLNER, JOHANN KARL FRIEDRICH (1834-1882),
German astronomer and physicist, was born at Berlin on the
8th of November 1834. From 1872 he held the chair of astro-
physics at Leipzig University. He wrote numerous papers
on photometry and spectrum analysis in Poggendorff's Annalen
and Berichte der k. sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften,
two works on celestial photometry (Grundzüge einer allgemeinen
Photometrie des Himmels, Berlin, 1861, 4to, and Photometrische
Untersuchungen, Leipzig, 1865, 8vo), and a curious book, Ueber
die Natur der Cometen (Leipzig, 1872, 3rd ed. 1883). He died
at Leipzig on the 25th of April 1882.

ZÖLLVEREIN (Germ. Zoll, toll, customs, and Verein, union),
a term used generally for a certain form of Customs Union, but
specially for the system among the German states which was in
existence between 1819 and 1871 (see Tariff, and Germany:
History). ZÖLMER, a town in Hungary, capital of the county of Bács
Bodrog, 146 m. S. of Budapest by rail. Pop. (1900) 29,936,
two-thirds Servians. It is situated in a fertile plain near the
Franz Josef canal, which connects the Danube and the Theiss,
and is the centre of the corn and cattle trade of an extensive
area.

ZONARAS, JOANNE (John), Byzantine chronicler and theo-
logian, flourished at Constantinople in the 12th century. Under
Alexius I. Comnenus he held the office of commander of the
bodyguard and private secretary to the emperor, but in the
succeeding reign he retired to Hagia Glykeria (one of the Princes'
Islands), where he spent the rest of his life in writing books.
His most important work, Euprouk Iotopouk (compendium
of history), in eighteen books, extends from the creation of
the world to the death of Alexius (1118). The earlier part is largely
drawn from Josephus; for Roman history he chiefly followed
Dio Cassius, whose first twenty books are not otherwise known
to us. His history was continued by Nicetas Acominatus. Various
ecclesiastical works have been attributed to Zonaras—com-
ments upon the Gospels and the authors and the poems of Gregory of Nazianzus;
lives of Saints; and a work on Prognostics and there is no reason to doubt their genuineness. The lexicon,
however, which has been handed down under his name (ed.
J. A. H. Tittmann 1808) is probably the work of a certain
Antonius Monachus (Stein's Herodotus, ii. 479 f.).

Complete edition in Migne, Patrologia Graeca, cxxxiv. cxxv.
cxxvii.; the Chronicle by M. Pinder and T. Bütter-Wobst in
the Bonn Corpus Scriptorum Hist. Byz. (1841-97) and by L. Dink-
dorf in the Teubner series (1868-76); see bibliography in C. Rump-
bacher, Geschichte der byzantinischen Literatur (2nd ed. 1897).

ZONE (Gr. ζώνη, a girdle, from zowelw, to gird), a term
for a belt or girdle, now used chiefly in the transferred sense
of a demarcated area. Thus the earth's surface is divided, for
classification of climates, into five climatic zones: the two
temperate and the two frigid zones and the tropical or torrid
zone. (See Climate and Climatology.)

ZOOLOGICAL DISTRIBUTION (also known as Zoogeography),
the science dealing, in the first place, with the distribution of
living animals on the surface of the globe (both land and water),
considered secondly with that of their forerunners (both in time
and in space). The science is thus a side-branch of zoology,1 in-
timately connected on the one hand with geography and on the
other with geology. It is a comparatively modern science,
which dates, at all events in its present form, from the second
half of the 19th century.

Different parts of the land-surface of the globe are inhabited
by different kinds of animals, or, in other words, by different
faunas. These differences, in many cases at any rate, are not
due to differences of temperature or of climate; and they do
not unreservedly follow on the one hand from the conditions on
the other. The warm-blooded land-animals of Japan are, for example, very
much more closely related to those of the British Isles than is
the corresponding fauna of Africa to that of Madagascar.
Again, on the hypothesis of the evolution of one species from another,
in the case of land-animals unprovided with the means
of flight such resemblances and differences between the faunas
of different parts of the world depend in a great degree on the
presence or absence of facilities for free communication by
land between the areas in question. Prima facie, therefore,
it is natural to suppose that the fauna of an island will differ
more from that of the adjacent continent than will those of
different parts of that continent from one another.

To a great extent this is the case; and if the present con-
tinents and islands had always been in statu quo, the proposition

1 For the distribution of plants, see PLANTS: Distribution.
would, for the most part at any rate, be universally true. Geology has, however, taught us that many parts of what are now continents formed at earlier periods of the earth's history portions of the ocean-bed, while what are now islands have in some instances been connected with the adjacent mainlands, or even with land-masses the sites of which are now occupied by the open sea.

We can hope, therefore, to understand and explain the present distribution of terrestrial animal life only by taking into account what geology teaches us as to past changes in the configuration of the land-masses of the globe, accompanied by investigations into the past history of animals themselves, as revealed by their fossil remains.

Although to understand the reason of many facts in the present distribution of animals—as, for example, why tapirs are confined to the Malay countries and South America—it is essential to study fossil faunas, yet it has been found possible from the consideration of existing faunas alone to map out the land-surface of the globe into a number of zoological "regions," or provinces, more or less independent of the ordinary geographical boundaries, and severally characterized by a greater or smaller degree of distinctness in the matter of their faunas. One of the pioneers in this line of research was Dr P. L. Sclater, who in a paper on the geographical distribution of birds, published in the Journal of the Linnean Society of London for 1858, was enabled to define and name six of such zoological regions; these being mainly based on the distribution of the perching or passerine birds. Two years later Dr A. Russel Wallace, in the same journal, discussed in some detail the problems presented by the distribution of animals in the Malay Archipelago and Australasia. This preliminary essay was followed in 1876 by the appearance of the latter author's Geographical Distribution of Animals, an epoch-making work, which may be said to have first put the study of the distribution of animals generally on a thoroughly firm and scientific basis. With some slight modifications, the names proposed for the six zoological regions by Dr Sclater were adopted by Dr Wallace. Certain changes in regard to the limits and number of the zoological regions adopted by Sclater and Wallace have been proposed; but the original scheme forms the basis of all the later modifications, and these eminent naturalists are entitled to be regarded as the fathers of the study of distributional zoology. T. H. Huxley was also one of those who did much to advance the science in its early days, while among those who have proposed more or less important modifications of the original scheme special mention may be made of Dr W. T. Blanford, Dr A. H. Selby, Prof. P. Matschie and Prof. Max Weber.

The zoological regions proposed by Dr Sclater were based mainly on the distribution of the perching birds; but in the writings of Dr Wallace and of later authors mammals were very largely taken into consideration, and in later schemes there has been a similarly extensive use of the evidence afforded by mammalian distribution. That different groups of animals do not agree with another in the matter of geographical distribution will be evident when we reflect that in many instances there are very great differences in the relative ages of such groups, or, at all events, in the dates of their dispersal, or "radiation," on the surface of the earth. The radiation and distribution of reptiles, for example, greatly antedated that of either birds or mammals. Consequently, the zoological regions indicated by the present geographical distribution of the former group are very different from those suggested by the distribution of the two latter. If zoological regions are based on the evidence of the existing distribution of animals, groups with a relatively late radiation are clearly to be preferred to those the dispersal of which was earlier. Mammals and birds, therefore, are of greater value from this point of view than reptiles; while the absence of the power of flight in the great bulk of the class renders the evidence afforded by mammals superior to that derived from birds. The marked general agreement between the geographical distribution of birds on the one hand and of mammals on the other is, however, a fact of the greatest importance in regard to the value of the zoological regions established on their evidence. Further testimony in the same direction is afforded by the distribution of certain other groups, more especially spiders (Arachnida); and it is also noteworthy that the distribution of the three main divisions of the human race accords to a certain extent with the boundaries of some of the zoological regions based on the distribution of the lower animals.

With regard to the theory of the polar origin of life and the gradual dispersal of animals from the arctic regions, it may be briefly stated that the presumed series of radiations of life southward from the northern pole can have nothing to do with the present geographical distribution of animals, since we have abundant evidence that mammals have been spread over the whole of the warmer parts of the globe since, at any rate, the commencement of the Tertiary period, while the radiation of reptiles commenced at a much earlier epoch.

As regards barriers to the free dispersal of nonvolant terrestrial animals these may be grouped under two main heads, namely, climatic and geographical, of which the second is by far the more important. At the present day a certain number of animals are fitted to live respectively only in hot and in cold climates. The man-like apes and elephants among mammals, and trogons and parrots among birds, are, for example, now exclusively dwellers in tropical or subtropical climates; whereas the polar bear, the musk-ox and ptarmigan are equally characteristic of the arctic zone. To a great extent this must be regarded as a comparatively modern adaptive feature, since many of these arctic and tropical animals belong to groups the distribution of which, either in the past or the present, is more or less independent of climate. Elephants, for instance, formerly inhabited Siberia at a time when the climate, although probably less cold than at present, was certainly not tropical; while the polar bear is a specialized member of a group some of the representatives of which are denizens of the tropics.

It is true, indeed, that within the limits of the different zoological regions temperature-control has had an important influence on the distribution of animals, and has resulted in certain cases in the formation of life-zones, as in North America. As remarked, however, by H. A. Fillsby and J. H. Ferriss in connexion with the distribution of land-molluscs, the life-zones of the United States as mapped by Dr C. H. Merriam emphasize the secondary and not the primary facts of distribution. The laws of temperature-control do not define trans-continental zones of primary import zoologically. These zones are secondary divisions of vertical life-areas of which the molluscs may be evolved in large part independently. And what is true of molluscs will hold good in the case of several other groups.

There is also the phenomenon of vertical temperature-control. On this subject Dr A. R. Wallace has written (Encyc. Brit., 9th ed., art. "Distribution"): "As we ascend lofty mountains, the forms of life change in a manner somewhat analogous to the changes observed in passing from a warm to a cold country. This change is different from that observable in animals than in plants; and it is so unequal in its action, and can so frequently be traced to mere change of climate and deficiency of food, that it must rank as a phenomenon of secondary importance. Vertical distribution among animals will be found in most cases to affect species rather than generic or family groups, and to involve in each case a mass of local details. . . . The same remarks apply to the bathymetrical zones of marine life. Many groups are confined to tidal, or shallow, or deeper waters; but these differences of habit are hardly geographical, but involved in each case a mass of local details. Temperature-control is therefore mainly a factor which has acted independently in the different zoological regions of the globe, and as such demands little or no further mention in a general sketch of the present nature.

The same remark will apply in the case of the influence of humidity on distribution, and also as regards "station." To illustrate the latter we may take the instances of the European squirrel and the chamois, the former of which is found only in wooded districts and is entirely absent from the open plains, while the chamois is normally found on the mountains, in the Pyrenees, Alps, Apennines and the Carpathians. The distributional area of both may, however, be regarded as including Europe generally, so that these local restrictions of range have nothing to do with the wider problems of distribution.

Very different is the case with regard to geographical barriers to the free dispersal of terrestrial animals. It should be observed, however, that even these act with different degrees of intensity in the case of different groups. From the fact that the great majority of them are oviparous, reptiles, whose powers of dispersal in the adult state are generally as restricted as those of mammals, have an advantage over the latter in that their eggs may be carried long distances on floating timber down rivers and thence across the ocean, or may even be occasionally transported by birds. The eggs of batrachians, like those of fresh-water fishes, will in some cases at any rate withstand being frozen, and hence conceivably may be transported by floating ice. Adult insects may be carried in the same manner as the eggs of reptiles. After all, however, such unusual means of transport are probably of no great importance; and it seems most likely that the varying features in the geographical distribution of animals and plants may be traced to the differences in the dates of radiation, or dispersal of those groups, than to varying degrees of facility for overcoming natural geographical barriers to dispersal.

The greatest barriers of all are formed by the ocean and the larger rivers; and from the former factor it follows that zoological regions coincide to a considerable extent—although by no means altogether—with the main geographical (as distinct from political) divisions of the earth's surface. In these, mammals and other nonvolant terrestrial animals are debarked from crossing anything more than comparatively narrow channels of the sea, while even these and the larger rivers form a more or less effectual barrier to the dispersal of the great majority of the species. Hence it results that oceanic islands are usually devoid of such forms of life; while it may be laid down, as a general rule, that the existence of nearly allied types of terrestrial animals in countries now separated by stretches of sea implies a former land-connexion between them. There are, however, in many cases great difficulties in determining the nature of such connexions, largely owing to the fact that we are still in the dark as to whether the dispersal of many groups of animals has taken place down the lines of the present continents from north to south or equatorially by means of belts of land long since swallowed up by the ocean. In this connexion it may be remarked, as tending against the old idea of the radiation of all the modern groups of terrestrial animals from the north towards the south, that there is decisive evidence to prove the existence during the Tertiary period (so far at least as mammals are concerned) of certain great centres of development, and in some instances, at all events, also of radiation, in the southern hemisphere; one of these developmental centres is found in Africa a second in South America, and a third in Australia.

To the general law that straits and arms of the sea form an effectual barrier to the dispersal of the larger land-animals, and more especially mammals, certain exceptions may be pleaded. Jaguars have, for instance, been known to cross the Rio de la Plata, while tigers constantly swim from island to island in the delta of the Ganges and probably also in the Malay Archipelago, and a polar bear has been observed swimming twenty miles away from land in Bering Sea. Deer, certain antelopes, pigs and elephants are also good swimmers; hippopotamuses and crocodiles—especially the latter—can cross channels of considerable width. The great tropical and subtropical rivers also carry down masses of floating soil or large trees upon which mammals and reptiles are borne, and although in many or most instances such are swept out to sea and their occupants drowned, in other instances they may be stranded upon the opposite bank or shore where their living freight can effect a landing. Such instances, however, cannot be very frequent, and they cannot affect widely spread forms. It is a matter of common observation, supposing a mammal to have reached a new land, unless it happened to be a pregnant female, or unless another individual of the opposite sex be similarly stranded, it would eventually die without progeny. Even in the case of a pregnant female, there is no certainty that the offspring, if but one, would be a male; and even supposing this to be the case, the progeny might perish from the attacks of other animals or from inbreeding. On the whole, it may be said, that instances of such methods of dispersal must be relatively few and can affect only countries not very widely separated. The most important case that can be cited is the occurrence of a pig and an extinct hippopotamus in Madagascar, which probably reached that island by swimming from Africa. As a rule, a strait like that separating Ceylon from India may be considered an effectual barrier to the dispersal of large land-animals.

Although the Rio de la Plata has effectively prevented the amphibious carpincho from reaching Argentina, deserts form even more impassable barriers than large rivers, the Sahara having prevented the North African fauna from reaching the heart of that continent. High and continuous mountain chains, such as the Andes and Himalaya, are likewise the most effectual in restricting the range of animals; this being more especially the case when, like the Himalaya, their trend is equatorial instead of, as in the case of the Rocky Mountains and the Andes, from north to south in the direction of the main continental extension. Forests also present great obstacles to animal migration, although this is to a great extent of a local nature and comes, in fact, under the category of "station." Indeed, there appears to be no instance of the separation of one zoological region from another by forest alone.

Lastly it should be mentioned that ice may serve as a factor in the dispersal of animals by acting as a bridge between different land-areas; and at some period this means of communication may have aided in the great migrations of animals that have taken place between the Old and the New World by way of what is now Bering Sea.

I. Terrestrial Distribution

The zoological regions recognized by Dr A. R. Wallace in 1876, which are in the main identical with those proposed by Dr P. L. Sclater in 1858, are chiefly based on the distribution of birds and mammals, and are as follows:

1. Palearctic, which includes Europe to the Azores and Iceland, temperate Asia from the high Himalaya and west of the Indus, with Japan, and China from Ningpo to the north of the watershed
of the Yang-tse-kiang; also North Africa and Arabia, to about 
the line of the tropic of Cancer.
2. Nearctic, comprising Africa south of the tropic of Cancer, 
and as well as the southern part of Arabia, with Madagascar and the 
adjacent islands.
3. Oriental, or Indo-Malay, comprising India and Ceylon, the 
Indo-Chinese countries and southern China, and the Malay Archi-
pelago as far as the Philippines, Borneo and Java.
4. Australian, composed of the remainder of the Malay Archi-
pelago, Australia, New Zealand and all the tropical islands of the 
Pacific, including those of the Marianas and the Low Archipelago.
5. Neotropical, which comprises South America and the adjacent 
islands, the West Indies or Antilles, and Central America and Mexico.
6. Neartic, consisting of temperate and arctic North America, 
and Greenland.

"These six regions," remarks Dr Wallace, "although all of 
primary importance from their extent, and well marked 
by their total assemblage of animal forms, vary greatly in their 
zooological richness, their degree of isolation, and their relation-
ship to each other. The Australian region is the most peculiar and 
the most isolated, but it is comparatively small and poor 
in the higher animals. The Neotropical region comes next in 
peculiarity and isolation, but it is extensive and excessively 
rich in all forms of life. The Ethiopian and Oriental regions are 
also very rich, but they have much in common. The Palaearctic 
and Nearctic regions being wholly temperate are less 
rich, and they too have many resemblances to each other; but 
while the Neartic region has many groups in common with the 
Neotropical, the Palaearctic is closely connected with the Oriental 
regions.

In Dr Sclater's original scheme the first four of the above regions 
were bracketed together under the designation of Palaega, 
and the fifth and sixth, or those belonging to the New World, 
as Neogaea. T. H. Huxley, in a paper on the distribution of 
game-birds, published in the Proceedings of the Zoological 
Society of London for 1868, instead of dividing the world into 
an eastern and a western division, adopted a northern and a 
southern division, calling the former Arctogaea, and the latter 
(which included Australasia and the Neotropical region of Mears 
Sclater and Wallace, but not the Ethiopian region) Neogaea.

In 1874 Dr Sclater, taking mammals as well as birds into 
consideration, adopted Huxley's Arctogaea as the major northern 
division to include the Nearctic, Palaearctic, Oriental and 
Ethiopian regions; and instead of Huxley's Neogaea recognized 
three primary divisions, namely, Dendrogaea for the Neotropical 
region, Antarctogaea for the Australian region (in a somewhat 
restricted sense), and Ornithogaea for New Zealand and Poly-
nasia.

The tendency of these amendments on the original scheme of a 
division into six regions was to recognize three primary 
subdivisions of higher rank than such "regions." This 
view was adopted in 1890 by Dr W. T. Blanford, who proposed to 
designate these three major divisions of the earth's land 
surface respectively the Australian, the South American and 
the Arctogaea regions. A weak point in this scheme is that 
since the term "region" is likewise applied to the subdivisions 
of Arctogaea, there is a danger of confusion between the primary 
and secondary divisions. An amendment proposed anony-
mously ¹ in 1893 was to substitute the names Notogaea, 
Neogaea and Arctogaea for the three primary divisions of 
Dr. Blanford. Yet another emendation, suggested by R. 
Lydekker ² and subsequently adopted by Prof. H. F. Osborn,³ 
was to designate these three primary divisions as "realms," 
and to reserve the name "region" for their subdivisions.

Emendations on the original scheme also included modific-
ations in the limits of the regions themselves. In 1878, for 
instance, Dr A. H. Heilprin ⁴ (in accordance with a suggestion of 
¹ Manchester Science Lectures, ser. 5 and 6, p. 202 seq.
³ Natural Science, iii. 289.
⁴ "Geographical Distribution of Mammals (London, 1896), p. 27.
⁵ "Correlation between Tertiary Mammal Horizons of Europe and America," Annals New York Academy, xiii. 48 (1900).
peculiar avian families include the birds-of-paradise (Paradisaeidae), the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae), the passerines (Passeriformes), the hawks and owls (Strigiformes), the penguins (Spheniscidae) and the flightless birds (Casuariidae). All these families are represented in New Zealand, although the former are not abundant. The peculiarities of the region are also marked by the absence of certain widely spread family groups, such as the babblers (Megalaimidae), the bower-builders (Ptilonorhynchidae) and the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae). The peculiarities of the region are also marked by the absence of certain widely spread family groups, such as the babblers (Megalaimidae), the bower-builders (Ptilonorhynchidae) and the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae). The peculiarities of the region are also marked by the absence of certain widely spread family groups, such as the babblers (Megalaimidae), the bower-builders (Ptilonorhynchidae) and the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae). The peculiarities of the region are also marked by the absence of certain widely spread family groups, such as the babblers (Megalaimidae), the bower-builders (Ptilonorhynchidae) and the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae). The peculiarities of the region are also marked by the absence of certain widely spread family groups, such as the babblers (Megalaimidae), the bower-builders (Ptilonorhynchidae) and the honeyeaters (Meliphagidae).
in favour of a land-connection between Neogaea and Notogaea cannot be attributed to it by Mr. W. J. Sinclair.

The typical Edentata (sloths, ant-eaters and armadillos) are at the present day practically confined to Neogaea where they have existed from the date of the Santa Cruz beds of Patagonia; and probably much longer. Whether they have ever penetrated into Texas; and in the Pleistocene epoch several representatives of the extinct ground-sloths (Megatheriidae) and a ground-sloth (Mammuthus) from South America are known. The group is, however, essentially Neogaeic. Among the monkeys of the Cebidae, or American monkeys, and their relatives the Hapalidae, or marmosets, are likewise peculiar to Neogaea, where they date from the time of the Santa Cruz beds. The primates, as a matter of fact, are by no means restricted; the lemurs (Lemuridae), are likewise peculiar to this realm, and are doubtless also endemic. With the exception of a few shrew-mice, which have extended to Neogaea from the north, continental Neogaea seems to have presented day devoted to the specialists, however, a very noteworthy fact is that one peculiar family (Solenodontidae) of the order, apparently nearly allied to the Malagasy Centetidae (tenrecs), occurs in the West Indies, while the extinct Neororycia, believed to be near akin to the African golden moles (Chrysolophoridae), is found in the Santa Cruz beds. Rodents of more or less peculiar types are highly characteristic of Neogaea and for the most part date from the Santa Cruz epoch. Among these the Caviidae, Chinchillidae and Octodontidae are peculiar to this realm, while the Capromyidae are common to the Ethiopian region of Arctogaean, being not uncommon in the latter.

Ungulates are in the main very poorly represented in Neogaea and include only the llama group (guanaco, &c.), tapirs, and certain small or medium-sized deer related to North American types. Members of the deer family are however, comparatively few in number, the peculiar genera of horses now extinct (such as Hippiodromus) and mastodonts, were comparatively recent intruders into the realm from the north. On the other hand, Neogaea at the date of the deposition of the Santa Cruz beds was more than one-third occupied by the proboscideans (Perissodactyla), a group of ungulates, such as the Toxodontia and Litopterna, some of the representatives of which (Toxodon and Macrochoerus) flourished during the Pliocene epoch.

Of the Carnivora, the cievet group (Viveridae) is absent, and the representatives of the dog tribe (Canidae), bears (Ursidae), of which there is only a single existing representative, cats (Felidae), and the raccoons (Procyonidae) are found in the latter region. The latter group, however, have spread into several regions of the northern hemisphere. Among the large-fanged carnivores, the Viverridae, which are like the Viverridae, the big-billed toucans (Rhamphastidae), puff-birds (Bucconidae), jacamars (Galbulidae), motmots (Eumomota), and the screech owls (Insololata), are in the main peculiar to this realm, although some of the last-named family wander to the northward in summer. The condors (Cathartidae), form a highly characteristicNeogaeic family; while the dog-like carnivores (Canidae) and ferrets (Mustelidae) are far more abundant in the southern continents, especially as their earliest known representative is African.

Among the reptiles, the tortoises, with the exception of representatives of the terrestrial genus Testudo, all belong to the Pleistocene, and include several peculiar generic types such as Chelys (matamata) and one, Podocnemis, common to Madagascar. To the occurrence in the Pleistocene of almost the entire Neogaeic reptilia (a group whose fossil remains can only be known from the Pleistocene of Queensland, has been already mentioned. A number of snakes of the boa group (Boinae) occur in the realm, to which the genus Eunectes (anacondas) is restricted; but Boy itself, like Podocnemis among the tortoises, is common to Neogaea and Madagascar. The blind burrowing-snakes of the family Glaucophiidae occur throughout the warmer parts of the realm, and are also found in Africa and south-western Asia. The caimans or South American alligators (Caiman) are exclusively Neogaeic; the iguanas (Iguanidae) are mainly peculiar to the realm, although a few individuals have reached the Northern United States. The two outlying genera in Madagascar and a third in Fiji. The teju (Tejuide) are wholly Neogaeic. The Xantusiidae are exclusively Neogaeic, as are the spiny-tailed lizards (Teiidae). The Agamidae, which are practically restricted to Neogaea and Africa. On the other hand, Lacertidae, Varanidae and Agamidae are absent. Tailed amphibians are unknown south of central Central America; but the region is the home of several peculiar types of tortoises (Geochelone and Ornithocheilus) belonging to an otherwise Ethiopian section, and the majority of the family Cistugnathidae, as exemplified by the horned toad (Phrynoderus) and the Arabian cistugnat (Cistugnatophryne), the remainder of the group being Australian.

Freshwater fishes are very abundant in Neogaea, where they are represented by a number of peculiar generic and certain family types; some of the members have developed the remarkable habit of feeding upon the floating fruits abundant in the rivers of the tropical forest-districts.

The electric eels (Gymnotidae) are peculiar to the waters of Neogaea, as are certain other groups, such as the armoured catfishes (Loricariaidae), while true cat-fishes (Siluridae) are extremely abundant. Perhaps, however, the most remarkable feature of the freshwater fish fauna of Neogaea is the absence of a large group (Chondrostomi). Among the lung-fishes the family Lepidosirenidae is, for example, restricted to the two areas, with one genus in each, as is also the family Characinidae. Much the same may be said of the Cichlidae. There is, however, a general tendency for the more specialized groups, such as the flightless aquatic birds, to be absent. Whether the southern fringe of the Palaearctic sub-region and a considerable portion of the Oriental region.

From the first edition of the History of Neogaea, Professor Carl Eigenfin, writing in the Popular Science Monthly for June 1906, observes that "in the earliest Tertiary epoch the South American continent occupied the same area that it does at present; it was a land-mass, between Africa and South America, possibly in contact with Guiana and some point in tropical Africa. This land-mass, which was inhabited, among other things, by fishes remaining from the family Lepidosirenidae (lung-fishes), sank beneath the surface of the ocean, forcing the fauna in two directions, towards Africa and towards South America, exterminating all types not moved to the east or to the west. From these two rudiments have developed the present diverse fauna of Africa and South America, each reinforced by intrusions from the ocean and neighbouring regions of the northern land-mass, and by species from the southern land border. . . . The connexion between Africa and South America existed before the origin of present genera, and even before the origin of some of the present families and sub-families, some time about the early Tertiary. But the connexions of South America and Australia, with neither of these, afford any exchange between Africa and South America since that time."

This connexion between Neogaea and Africa was doubtless a continuous one for the greater part of the time that these areas have been in existence. An allusion has been already made; freshwater fishes being probably a group of earlier radiation than mammals. Perhaps the distribution of the repilin genera common to Neogaea and Madagascar may be explained in the same manner, although tortoises apparently identical with Podocnemis occur in the Eocene of Europe (as well as in that of Africa and India). So that this group may have radiated into the north. Whether the evidence of the Cistugnathidae among the amphibians and of the extinct Mitaarion among the ichthyopods is also evidence of the persistence of the Jurassic connexion between Neogaea and Notogaea till a considerably later epoch must, for the present, be left unascertained. As the evidence of the occurrence of lizards of Madagascar, that is, in Notogaea, is, however, not in favour of such a connexion, the Lacertidae and Agamidae being confined to the Old World, inclusive of Africa but exclusive of Madagascar, while the cosmopolitan Cistugnathidae, so abundant in Neogaea, are extremely scarce in Neogaea.

Reverting to the mammalian fauna, its evidence, combined with that of geology, indicates that during the greater portion of the Tertiary period South America was isolated from North America, and inhabited by its autochthonous fauna of monkeys, marsupots, sloths, ground-sloths, ant-eaters, armadillos, glyptodonts, toxodonts, sloths, saurians (turtles), and rodents, marsupials and creodonts, as well as Varanoids, toads, and some of the other birds now peculiar to the area. This state of things continued till the close of the Tertiary, and was therefore the connexion established with North America by way of the isthmus of Darien. By means of this new land-bridge a certain proportion of the autochthonous fauna of Neogaea was enabled
to effect an entrance into North America, as is exemplified by the occurrence there of ground-sloths and glyptodonts. Simultaneously a large immigration of northern forms took place into Neogaea; this is in all probability a resolved fact, and includes the migrations of such animals as the mammoths and mastodons, and probably also of certain groups of Marsupials. In the former part of the Tertiary period there was, it seems, a large portion of the autochthonous fauna. This it may be well to notice that the evidence for the inhabitation of Neogaea during a large portion of the autochthonous period is supplied by forms which have extended only on that supplied by mammals. C. H. Gilbert and E. C. Starks, for instance, in a work on the fishes of the two sides of the isthmus of Darien, wrote as follows:—"The ichthyological evidence is overwhelming and leaves no existence of any connection between the two oceans, which must have become closed at a period sufficiently remote from the present to have permitted the species of the two regions to become the very large majority of the forms involved." All evidence concurs in showing that at the time of that connexion at some time prior to the Pleistocene, probably in the early Miocene. This it will be observed, agrees almost precisely with the conclusion drawn from the fossil mammalian faunas of North and South America, which indicate that land-communication between those two continents was interrupted during a considerable portion of the Tertiary epoch, and only re-established (or [1] established for the first time) either towards the close of the Miocene or the early part of the Pliocene epoch.

The South American mammalian fauna, as we now know it, is that of an extinct autochthonous element and of a large foreign infusion from the north. As the result of the latter, there is no difficulty; but some degree of obscurity still prevails as to the source of the autochthonous fauna. According to the hypothesis of a tropic boundary, it must be supposed that the fresh-water fishes the early Tertiary Atlantic "Hellenis" may have been in contact with the Guiana on the one side and tropical Africa on the other. Such a connexion did really exist in Tertiary times is the conclusion reached by Dr C. W. Andrews, as the result of his studies of the Tertiary vertebrate fauna of the Fayum district of Egypt, as expressed in the following passage:—"Once established, the idea of a Tertiary connexion between South America and Africa is undoubted; (2) in the Cretaceous period the sea encroached southwards over this land, forming what is now the South Atlantic. How far this depression extended southwards, and in what is now the northern part of South America, the Cretaceous period is not clear, but it appears certain that the final separation of the two continents did not take place till Eocene times, and that there may have been a chain of islands between the northern part of Africa and Brazil which persisted even till the Miocene.

By this route, as was suggested considerably earlier by Prof. W. B. Scott and subsequently by the present writer, Neogaea may have received a considerable portion of its autochthonous mammal fauna. Further reference to this point is made later; but it may be added that the evidence of the land-faunas is supplemented by that of the shallow-water marine faunas on the two sides of the Atlantic, strikingly similar.

In an address to the British Association at the meeting in 1905 in South Africa Mr G. A. Bouleenger expressed himself, however, as not subscribing to the evidence of a Tertiary connexion between Africa and South America. It is understood he observed, "that the hypothesis of a Tertiary land-communication in the Eocene has much in its favour, and when this is coupled with the evidence of islands in the North Atlantic, it is possible that the Cichlidae will have disappeared. In the meanwhile, we must not construct bridges without being sure of our points of attachment." In this connexion it may be mentioned that those who explain the distribution of certain forms of life by the present existence of land-connexion between the southern continents by way of "Antarctica," have attached some importance to the existence of fishes of the genus Galaxias in the freshwaters of New Zealand, Australia, South America and the Cape. This evidence has been shattered by Mr Bouleenger's description (in memoir of the fishes of the Congo) of a marine representative of the genus commencing in the Northern Ocean.

For the zoological subregions of Neogaea the reader must refer, as in the case of most of the other regions, to special works on zoological distribution.

Artocaea. The region comprises the whole of the land-surface of the globe (with the exception of Antarctica) it is almost impossible to give any general diagnosis even of its mammal fauna, as a number of present day monotremes are wholly wanting, while marsupials are represented only by one or two species of opossums (Didelphes) in North America and by cuscuses (Phalanger) in the Australo-Melanesia subregion. Subsequent writers will be able to treat a number of late wanderers from Neogaea into North America, absent from this realm at the present time and during the Pleistocene; the alleged occurrence of a ground-sloth in the Pleistocene of Madagascar being probably due to a misinterpretation. On the other hand, this region, and more especially its eastern half, is the great home of the ungulate mammals. Indeed rhinoceroses may be almost considered the typical representatives of this mammalian family, and it is probable that in former times they have ranged over the whole area, except Madagascar, and are quite unknown elsewhere. The modern land Carnivora are likewise an essentially Neogaeo-Malagasy region, in the comparatively recent period; and the realm may be said to have been the birthplace of most of the higher groups of placental mammals. The tortoises of the family Testudinidae, Pan, and the geckos, are all exclusively of this range.
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TERRESTRIAL!
distinct.

The

Prosimiae, or lemuroids, include the galagos (Galago)
(Perodictycus), of which the latter are akin to the Oriental
while the former are quite distinct from the Malagasy

and pottos
loriscs,

Among the Carnivora, the aard-wolf (Proteles), the
hunting-dog (Lycaon) and the long-eared fox (Otocyon) are peculiar
generic types, as are several forms of mungooses (Herpestinae)
while the spotted hyaena forms a subgenus by itself. The bearIn the
family (Ursidae), on the other hand, is totally absent.
order the African elephant is widely sundered from
great ungulate
its Asiatic cousin, as are the two species of rhinoceros from their
representatives in the Oriental region; indeed each group is subgenerically distinct. The hyraxes, forming the suborder Hyracoidea, are, with the exception of a single outlying Syrian species,
Zebras and true wild asses are likewise
confined to Ethiopia.
More remarkable is the extraordinary
peculiar to the region.
number of peculiar genera of antelopes, a few of which range,
however, into North Africa, Syria and Arabia; the African
buffaloes are markedly different from those of Asia; and sheep
and goats are absent from the region, with the exception of intruding
.into it to some extent in the mountains of the Sudan and Abyssinia.
lemurs.

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The

as represented
giraffe-family (Giraffidae),

by

giraffes ((riraffa)

absolutely confined to this region, from
is completely absent.
Chevrotains,
or mouse-deer, are represented by the peculiar genus Dorcatheriitm
(or Hyomoschus) in the pigs the wart-hogs (Phacochoerus), foresthogs (Hylochoerus), and the bush-pigs (subgenus Potamochoerus)
with the exception of one Malagasy species, are now unknown
elsewhere, as are also hippopotamuses. Rodents include a number
of peculiar types, among which may be noticed the scaly-tailed
squirrels (Anomaluridae), the jumping-hares (Pedetes), the strandmoles (Bathyergidae), the crested-rats (Lophiomys), and the caneallied to
rats (Thryonomys, or Aulacodus); the last being
nearly
South American forms. In the Insectiyora, moles (Talpidae) are
absent, the jumping-shrews (Macroscelididae) are solely African,
although ranging north of the Sahara, while the golden moles
(Chrysochloridae) and the Potamogalidae are exclusively EthioLastly, the ant-bears, or aard-varks (Orycteropodidae),
pian.
represent a suborder of the Edentata unknown elsewhere; while
the African pangolins (Manidae) differ markedly from their Oriental
kindred.
The Ethiopian birds are less peculiar. The ostrich (Struthio)
ranges, in suitable localities, all over the region, thus entering
The guineathe Mediterranean transition-region in the north.
fowls (Numidinae) form a subfamily confined to Ethiopia and
Madagascar, where true pheasants are unknown. Other peculiar
types are plantain-eaters (Musophagidae), colics (Coliidae), woodhoopoes (frrisoridae), barbets (Megalaemidae), ground-hornbills
(Bucorvus), secretary-birds (Serpentariidae), glossy starlings (Lamprotornis), ox-peckers (Buphaga), the genera Laniarius and Telephorus, as well as a number of others, all of which are unknown
in Madagascar.
In addition to true pheasants, wrens (Troglodytidae) and water-ousels (Cinclidae) are unknown in the Ethiopian

and the okapi (Ocapia),

is

which the deer-tribe (Cervidae)
;

,

region.

Apart from the widespread Trionychoidea

(of

which there are

two genera peculiar to the

region), the Ethiopian fresh-water
Pelotortoises belong to the section Pleurodira; the two
genera
medusa and Sternothaerus being common to Africa and Madagascar,

and unknown elsewhere. The Amphisbaenidae are common to
Neogaea and Ethiopia, to the exclusion of Madagascar; but the
Gerrnosauridae and Zonuridae, on the other hand, are restricted to
the present region and Madagascar, which also form the headquarters of chameleons. In contrast to the latter community is
the absence in Madagascar of Agamidae and Varanidae, which are
common in Ethiopia. The absence of slow-worms and their kindred
(Anguidae) is a marked negative feature of the present region.
As regards batrachians, the region has no salamanders or other

forms, but, in common with India, possesses caecilians
(Apoda); while it shares the group of tongueless toads (Aglossa)
with Neogaea, its peculiar family being the Xenopodidae, in contradistinction to the South American Pipidae. The Pelobatidae are
absent, and true toads are few, but frogs are abundant.
Among fishes, Africa south of the Sahara possesses a number of
tailed

With Neogaea it shares the possession of the
peculiar types.
typical lung^-fishes (Lepidosirenidae), while it is the habitat of the
species of bichir (Polypterus) and Caiamoichthys, the sole survivors
of the ancient group of fringe-finned ganoids (Crossopterygii).
The other families peculiar to Ethiopia are the Mormyridae (proboscis-fishes), Pantodontidae, and Phractolaemidae the two latter
represented only by a single species each. The Notopteridae,
;

being
Ophiocephalidae, Anabantidae, Osphromenidae and Mastacembelidae are common to Ethiopia and the Oriental region. In addition
to the Lepidosirenidae, the Characinidae are peculiar to this region
and Neogaea. The Cichlidae occur in Madagascar, Ethiopia, the
Oriental region and Neogaea; and the Osteoglossidae are common
to the last three of these regions, as well as Australia, while the
Nandidae are Ethiopian, Oriental and Neotropical.
On the
whole, the affinities of the fish-fauna of Ethiopia are nearest to
that of the Oriental region, and, secondly, to that of South
America.
Although invertebrates do not come within the scope of the

present article,

it

may be mentioned

1009
that Ethiopia

is

remarkable

for the total absence of fresh-water cray-fishes.
As regards its past history, Ethiopian Africa was in connexion
with India during the Triassic and Jurassic periods, the two areas
"
Gondwanaland," which doubtless constituted
collectively forming
a portion of the equatorial land-belt referred to as existing during
the epochs in question. Gondwanaland was the home of a large
section of the anomodont reptiles from which mammals have
sprung; and it is quite probable that the evolution of the latter
Between the Trias
group took place within the present area.
and the Eocene little or nothing is known of the vertebrate palae1
ontology of Ethiopia; and in Egypt there is also a long gap
between the lower Miocene and certain Pliocene beds in the Vvadi
Natrun. The Tertiary deposits of southern Europe and northern

India indicate, however, that Ethiopian Africa was m"free communication with these countries during the upper Miocene and Pliocene
epochs. There occur, for instance, either in south-eastern Asia or
southern Europe, or both, during the_ latter period numerous genera of
antelopes now restricted to Ethiopia, as well as giraffes, okapi-like
ruminants (Palaeotragus), elephants and rhinoceroses of an African
type, probably zebras, hippopotamuses, baboons, chimpanzees and
ostriches. Owing to imperfect knowledge of Pliocene Africa, it is
impossible to say whether these types were first developed in
Ethiopia or to the north-east, and consequently whether or not
Professor Huxley was right in his theory that the modern higher
mammalian fauna of Ethiopia came from the north. It has, however, been suggested that while the Bovidae are an autochthonous
Ethiopian group, the Cervidae originated in either the Holarctic
or the Oriental region; a theory which if confirmed will materially
aid in explaining the absence of the latter group from Ethiopia.
It is
supported to some extent by the fact that we are acquainted
with primitive ancestral deer in the European
while the
Tertiary,
ancestors of the Bovidae are at present unknown. Whatever be
the truth on this point, it is manifest that whether the middle
Tertiary Bovidae migrated from Ethiopia to Asia or in the opposite
direction, there must have been some cause which barred the
entrance by the same route into the latter area of all members
of the deer-tribe (as well as bears).
It should be added that
although the ancestral Proboscidea were Ethiopian, the passage
from the mastodons into the true elephants
appears to have taken
place in Asia; a circumstance which would imply the Asiatic
of
the
African
origin
elephant.
The evidence in favour of the continuation of the Mesozoic landbetween
bridge
Ethiopia and Neogaea has been discussed under
the heading of the latter area.
If the arguments in favour of
suoh a connexion are valid, it is to the old mammal fauna of
Ethiopia that we must probably look for the progenitors of the
Santa Cruz fauna of Patagonia. Very noteworthy is the alleged
occurrence of remains of primitive armadillos in the Oligocene beds
of southern Europe in association with those of
pangolins and
aard-varks; since, if these fossils be rightly determined, there at
once arises the probability of Africa having been the original home
of the entire Edentate order.
In the case of an island lying so close to the African continent
as does Madagascar the natural expectation would be that its
fauna should be intimately related to that of the former. ..
As a matter of fact in the case of mammals and birds,
j"^
at any rate
is much more distinct from the
Ethiopian
^it
fauna than is the latter from the fauna of either the Oriental or
the Holarctic region. The
evidence^ from the above-mentioned
groups in favour of recognizing a distinct Malagasy region is in
fact positively overwhelming, while it is also
in some
supported
degree by the distribution of groups other than those named. In
place of the Ethiopian assemblage of apes, monkeys, baboons,
galagos and pottos, Madagascar (together with the Comoro islands)
possesses an absolutely unique fauna of lemurs, constituting the
as now understood, is confined to this
family Lemuridae, which,
island, where it is represented by the three subfamily-groups of
sifakas (Indrisinae), true lemurs (Lemurinae), and aye-ayes (Chiromyinae). All these animals agree with one another in the characters of the tympanic region of the skull; thereby differing from
the African and Oriental Prosimiae, but agreeing with the European
Oligocene Adapts,^ which must apparently be regarded as the ancestral form.
This is a striking confirmation of the theory advanced
many years ago by Huxley that Madagascar received its lemuroid
fauna from Europe at a very early date, since which time, at any
rate, it has been isolated from Africa.
Some of the Pleistocene
Malagasy lemurs were much larger than any of the living forms,
The Carnivora are reprerivalling in this respect a chimpanzee.
sented only by a small number of species, mostly referable to
peculiar genera, of Viverridae, among which the fossa (CryploIn the ungulates there are only two extinct
procta) is the largest.
species of hippopotamus and a living bush-pig, the ancestors of all
three of which probably crossed the Mozambique channel
by swimming; and Edentata are equally conspicuous by their absence.
Insectivora, on the other hand, are represented by the tenrecs
(Centetidae), with numerous generic types, whose nearest relatives
1
The fossils of the Uitenhage beds, now generally classed as
Jurassic, consist chiefly of invertebrates and plants.


appear to be the west Indian polliwogs. The bats are likewise
differentiated from the mainland, a notable feature being the occurrence of flying-foxes of the Asiatic and Australian genus Pteropus. Of the countless rodents of Africa, all are wanting; while the only members of that group inhabiting the island are certain rat-like animals collectively constituting the family Nesocidae.

The birds are scarcely less remarkable than the mammals, such conspicuous orders as the Ardeidae, the Tinamidae, the Psophophagidae, and the Podocnemidae is remarkable. The former, the American bird family of the birds of prey, is represented in the Seychelles by an Endemic species, Pogoniulus semitorquatus. Whether the predilection for the sea is due to a peculiarity of the Caspian region; or to the fact that the Punjab differs so remarkably in its fauna from the rest of India that it cannot be included in the Oriental region, and must be assigned to the Mediterran-

Euryceros, is, a third subregion, the Malayan, includes southern Tenasserim, the Malay Peninsula, and the Malay Archipelago exclusive of Celebes. In the map in the present article the last-named island is included among Borneo and Sumatra, which are divided from it by a water line. A third subregion, the Ethiopian, is a great region of extension, which, occurring through the Solitaire islands, to an Austro-Malay transitional region. Wallace drew the main line dividing the Oriental from the Australian region between the two islands; while the street through Bali and Lombok is in the direction of "Walter's line." On the contrary, it passes east of Timor and through the Banda and Molucca seas, separating Sula from Buru, and is entirely different from "Walter's line," Dr. A. Pelseneer has proposed the name of "Walter's line." It is this "Weber's line" which marks the real division between the Arctogaean and the Notogaean faunas, although it has been taken by some as the line to make Celebes the centre of an intermediate transi-

The Oriental region agrees with the Ethiopian in being inhabited by elephants, rhinoceroses, buffaloes, several large representatives of the Cervidae (amphibious deer), boas and vipers, etc., and by many species of bats. The pigeons, doves, and pelicans are, however, all limited to the Oriental region. It may be added that Madagascar differs from Ethiopia in possessing one fresh-water cray-fish, the representative of a genus by itself.

The radical distinctness of the Malagasy fauna is thus demonstrated from all sides. That the island has been separated from Ethiopia during the greater portion of the Tertiary period is self-evident. The interpretation of its relationships with other regions is, however, a subject of controversy. The African and Madagascar faunas are widely separated in the Eocene, as well as in the Pliocene. The spider-tortoise (Pyxis) is a peculiar cryptodiran Malagasy genus. In the matters of batrachian the Malagasy region lacks both coelacians (Apoda) and toad-like toads (Anura), while it has in greater variety the Asiatic and African genera, among them the Oriental genus Rhacophorus. Of fishes, the peculiar Ethiopian types are absent from the present region, although the community of the Cichlidae to Neogaea and the Ethiopian region. It may be added that Madagascar differs from Ethiopia in possessing one freshwater cray-fish, the representative of a genus by itself.

In the opinion of Captain F. Hutton 4 the landshells of the genus Endodina, which ranges all the way from Polynesia, New Zealand, eastern Australia, New Guinea and the Philippines, with an outlier in Ceylon, afford the best evidence in favour of a Polynesian continent, the Singalese pointing to the conclusion that this group of molluscs originally came from the north. The molluscian evidence will not, however, explain the South American connexion.

Zoological evidence of the latter connexion, by way of Antarctica, is afforded by the earthworms of the family Acanthodrilidae, which are unknown north of the equator, although their occurrence in Madagascar may point to a northern origin. Additional evidence of a connexion with Patagonia is afforded by the occurrence in the Tertiary strata of South America and New Zealand of a number of shallow-water marine invertebrates. Further, the occurrence of these forms in older strata in South America than in New Zealand suggests that the migration took place from the Eocene to the latter era.

The relatively small and wholly tropical or subtropical Oriental region is also characterized by its distinct aspects, of which an abstract appeared in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for 1900 (vol. lvii. p. 484), Dr Blanford came
to the conclusion that the Punjab differs so remarkably in its fauna from the rest of India that it cannot be included in the Oriental region, and must be assigned to the Mediterra-

One member of this group has recently been described from the Shan States.
zoological distribution

terrestrial | halves of the holarctic region (or in some instances of portions of the adjacent transitional zones to the southward) the following may be mentioned: elk (Alces), reindeer (Rangifer), wapiti (Cervus elaphus), mountain hare (Lepus timidus and its relatives), ptarmigan (Lagopus), beavers (Castor), marmots (Arctomys), chipmunks (Tamias), squirrels (Spermophilus, or Citellus), jumping-mice (Zapus), field-mice, or voles (Microtus, or Arvicola), lemurs (Lemmus and Dicrostonyx), redshanks (Tringa totanus), and several others. Among these may be added, as more exclusively arctic forms, the polar bear (Ursus maritimus), and the arctic fox (Canis lagopus). There are, however, many genera which are restricted to the holarctic region. Among reptiles, the pond-tortoises of the genus Emys, if we include their Pleistocene range, are an essentially holarctic (and mediterranean-Sonoran) group. In regard to fishes, the entire area is characterized by the abundance of sturgeons (Acipenseridae), carp (Cyprinidae), pike (Esoxidae), and the salmon group (Salmonidae), coupled with the scarcity of cat-fishes (Siluridae).

Further testimony in favour of the unity of the holarctic region is afforded by the presence on the two sides of the pacific (and in most cases nowhere else) of true alligators (Alligator), giant eels (Conger), and the false alligators (Gavialis, proper), with the latter group of unknown distribution in the far eastern region of the holarctic. Again, it is highly probable that Père David's deer of Central Asia, alone representing the genus Elaphurus, is akin to the fork-antlered deer (Cervus elaphus) of Europe and Asia Minor, but no further instances might be quoted. Finally, the distribution of earth-worms affords the strongest confirmation of the view that the two halves of the holarctic region form but a single zoological province, with the mediterranean and Sonoran zones as transitional appendages.

In briefly reviewing some of the chief faunistic areas of the palearctic, as distinct from the holarctic, it will be convenient to include some of the groups and species inhabiting the transitional mediterranean zone, much of which is in reality only a portion of the palearctic subregion. Of this transitional mediterranean zone, the first characteristic feature is that of a number of wild sheep, such as Ovis musimon, gmelini, ammon, poli, etc., which have representatives on the other side of bering strait, as well as wild goats, like Capra hircus-cervus, C. ibex, and C. sibirica, belonging to an exclusively old world genus, the saiga antelope (Saiga) and the chamois (Rupicapra) may also be regarded as palearctic (in the sense of old world) types; as are also wild horses (Equus caballus-przewalskii), and the kiang (E. hemionus) and onager (E. hemippus), the latter being commonly termed wild ass, although widely different from the african animals properly so-called. There are also many peculiar types of birds, including the many peculiar varieties of passerines. Père David's deer (Elaphurus), the roe-deer (Capreolus), and the musk-deer (Moschus); while the chinese water-deer (Hydropotes) is one of the characteristic forms from the mediterranean zone. As regards reptiles (and amphibians) and mammals, a few may be quoted. Among the carnivora, reference may be made to the raccoon-dog (Nyctereutes), the panda (Ailurus), and the wild dog (Canis), as well as the vonderhorstian dogs (Canis orientalis) and the weasels (Mustela), or long-tailed weasel (Mustela frenata), with its relative the short-tailed weasel (Mustela nivalis). Among the insectivora, reference may be made to the water-shrew (Neomys or Cossutus) is exclusively palearctic, as is the allied Diplomastodon, while the desmans (Myogale), although a palearctic type, are solely old world types. Among the rodents, reference may be made to the Old world family of the dormice (Gliiridae or Myoxidae), of which the genera glis and muscardinus are restricted to the area; as are the hamsters (Cricetus) and siberian hamsters (Phodopus), and the marmots (Marmota). Among the birds, the thrushes, warblers, jays, magpies, buntings, sparrows, and (in the eastern part of the mediterranean zone) pheasants, pratincoles,

1 The American of form is often separated as Neotrichus, but this does not affect the relationship of the two areas.
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coursers (Glareolidae), and bustards (Otididae), of which there are numerous genera confined to the area. The two families last named are characteristic of the Nearctic region, the first (represented by the bearded tit), being solely Old World, are of themselves sufficient to distinguish the Palearctic from the Nearctic fauna.

Of the remaining subregion-to-the restoration of the Palearctic—underlies the subregion, in its restricted sense, being characterized by the poverty of its fauna, several of the widely spread families of the Old World, such as the Varanidae and Agamidae, stopping short of its southern limits. In other families, such as the Ctenodactylidae, represented in this and the Mediterranean region (as in the northern hemisphere generally), the genera Salamandra and Chialosoma, as well as the frogs and toads of the genera Alytes and Pelobates, being entirely absent. Only a small number of species of reptiles, however, is found in the Palearctic and are rare in the Nearctic subregion. The ophidian (Python) is a native of the Mediterranean rather than the Palearctic.
independent region, is best ranked (on Prof. Max Weber's scheme) as a transitional zone between the Nearctic subregion of the Holarctic region of Arctogaea, on the one hand, and Neogaea on the other. Its fauna is essentially a mixture of the two, and hence may be considered as largely derived from them, and not (as is often supposed) as being based on the pocket-gophers (Geomysidae) and kangaroo-rats (Heteromyidae), some of the genera of which are peculiar to this area. Among the more striking features of the bird fauna of the more southerly parts is the fact that the region is characterized by a large number of tropical species, and by a number of birds which are otherwise confined to the Orient. The latter, for instance, include the tucan (Ramphastos) and the toucan (Asio), which are confined to the south-eastern parts of the continent.

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For the distribution of invertebrate animals generally, the reader may be referred to the articles dealing with the various groups of that assemblage. An exception must, however, be made with regard to the spiders, known as the Mygalomorphae (which includes the trap-door spiders) on account of the remarkable general similarity presented by its distribution to that of mammals. According to Mr. R. I. Pocock the distribution of the Mygalomorphae is the same as that of the Myomorphae (excluding the Vespidae). The world is divided into the following zoological regions:—

1. The Holarctic, including Europe north of the southern mountain-chains, North Asia, and North America north of about the 50th parallel of latitude.
3. The Sonoran, comprising the United States of America south of about the 45th parallel and the plateau of Mexico.
4. The Ethiopian, embracing Africa south of the Sahara, the South Arabian and Madagascar.
5. The Antarctic, comprising all regions of the earth south of the 60th parallel of latitude.
6. The Australian, constituting all regions of the earth south of the 20th parallel of latitude.
7. The Ethiopian, comprising all regions of the earth south of the 20th parallel of latitude.

These spiders furnish, moreover, strong evidence in favour of a former union between Africa and South America, and of a connection between the Australo-American and Australian continents on the one hand and the Australian and south-western regions of South America on the other. As regards the first regions, and with regard to the last, the distribution of these spiders accords with remarkable closeness to that of mammals, if we except the more intimate connexion indicated between the faunas of Ethiopian Africa and Madagascar.

Dr. Ortmann adds in a later paragraph, "the chief aim of z&oelig;no-geographical study consists—as in any other branch of biology—in the demonstration of its geological development."}

II. MARINE DISTRIBUTION

That the fauna of the ocean, apart from the influence of temperature, would be much more uniform, and therefore less susceptible of being divided into zoological provinces, or regions, will be apparent from a glance at the map of the world on Mercator's projection, in which the fact that the three great oceans—the Pacific, the Atlantic, and the Indian—are in free communication with one another in the southern hemisphere is clearly brought out. There is, however, more than this; for there is evidence that during the early part of the Tertiary period the Pacific and the Atlantic were not separated by the isthmus of Darien; while there is a probability that the Mediterranean was at one time in communication with the Red Sea, and that other connexions of a like nature have existed.

In addition to this general community of the marine fauna of the world, there is the further important fact that such faunas may be divided into three main, and for the most part perfectly distinct, groups: namely, the littoral, or shallow water, fauna, the abyssal, or deep-sea, fauna, and the pelagic, or surface, fauna. Of these three the first alone is really susceptible of division into more or less ill-defined zoological regions, the other two being practically uniform in character. Moreover, these three faunas are for the most part perfectly well defined; the pelagic being very sharply separated from the abyssal, although there may in certain instances be a tendency for the littoral to merge locally into the abyssal. As regards the sharp demarcation between the pelagic and the abyssal faunas, an idea it was formerly current that whales, which are essentially pelagic animals, when "sounding," descended to abyssal depths in the ocean. A moment's reflection will show the absurdity of such a supposition; for no surface-dwelling animal could possibly support the enormous pressure existing at great depths, in the body-cavities of animals so situated. The abyssal fauna is afforded by the fact that when fishes are brought to the surface from great depths their bodies are practically broken to pieces by the removal of the normal pressure, while their scales start from the skin and the eyes from their sockets. The absolute darkness prevailing at great depths would be another bar to pelagic animals descending to the ocean abysses. We may accordingly regard the pelagic and the abyssal faunas as perfectly distinct and widely separated from one another; as widely separated in the case of some species as are beings living in three-dimensional space from these (if such there be) in two-dimensional space.

Modern research shows that invertebrates, and probably also fishes, live at the greatest depths that have yet been reached by the dredge, and the inference from this is that they occur everywhere. The general results of the various expeditions have led to the belief that the fauna of the ocean depths is much the same all the world over, and that identical species occur at points sundered as widely as possible from each other. The more than double the ocean floor, however, has been well remarked, with the same uniformity in the matter of temperature, food, station and general conditions of life, contains, in fact, no effective barriers to the almost indefinite dispersal of species.

The foregoing general considerations with regard to the deep-sea fauna were arrived at after working out the material and evidence obtained during the cruise of H.M.S. "Challenger."—(1) Animals, belonging to the orders that have been described from abyssal depths, are not so abundant as at moderate depths; but since representatives of all classes of marine invertebrates are met with at all depths, this poverty probably depends more upon certain causes affecting the composition of the bottom deposits, and the degree to which the bottom-water is provided with chemical substances necessary for animals, rather than upon conditions immediately associated with depth. (2) There is reason to believe that the fauna of "blue water" is chiefly restricted to two belts; one at or near the surface, and the other near the bottom, the intervening zone being more or less completely devoid of inhabitants. (3) The surface-water, particularly the cold bottom-water, is rich to the bottom, which, however, in the case of the greatest depths may be completely dissolved in descensus. (4) Although all the chief groups of invertebrates are represented in the abyssal fauna, their relative proportions are very unequal; molluscs, including cephalopods, would, as a rule, scarce, while echinoderms and sponges predominate. (5) Depths below 500 fathoms are inhabited by a practically uniform fauna, the genera being usually represented by allied forms in widely sundered areas. (6) The abyssal fauna, so far as invertebrates are concerned, is of an archaic type as compared with shallow-water fauna. (7) The most characteristic and archaic abyssal types seem to be most abundant and to attain their maximum dimensions in the southern ocean. (8) In general character the abyssal fauna approximates to that of shallower water in polar latitudes, doubtless owing to the fact that the conditions of temperature and the distribution of marine animal life mainly depends, are nearly the same.

In consequence to the abundance of sponges in the deep-sea fauna, it may be mentioned that the calcareous group is absent, and that among the siliceous section, the Hexactinellidae, of which the Venus flower-basket (Euplectella) and glass-robe sponge (Hyalonema) are familiar representatives, are exceedingly abundant; the conditions of temperature being likewise of great geological antiquity. Corals are scarce and belong for the most part to the Turbinolidae. Echinoderms are represented by all the existing classes, but the stone-ossuaries (Cupulidae) and the family Aplacidae, which attained its maximum development during the Jurassic epoch; and somewhat similar relationships are exhibited by certain of the Cephalopoda. The Ophiuridae are also notably rich in the general development of the sea-cucumber group (Holothuroidea), and likewise the bizarre forms assumed by some of its abyssal representatives. Molluscs, however, are poorly represented, and it is not improbable that of the cephalopod cuttle-fishes (Cephalopoda) Bivalves of the genera Leda and Arca have, however, been obtained from a depth of 16,000 ft. Lamp-shells (Brachiopoda) are likewise scarce.

Considerable difficulty exists in determining from what depths fishes are dredged. Although many species display various structural peculiarities, such as a huge head, or an attenuated ribbon-like body, while special phosphorescent organs are very generally present, each species has developed as a result of an isolated and sectional group by itself, but are drawn from a number of families, certain members of which have adapted themselves to an abyssal existence. A preponderance of representatives of the families Macruridae, Ophidionidae and Scopelidae is, however, noticeable.

Whether light or temperature is the prepotent agency in regulating the limits of distribution of deep-sea forms is a question long before it was first noted that reef-building corals, which require an average temperature of from 70° to 75° F. and one which never falls below 68°, are never found below a depth of 20 fathoms (120 feet) and where an average temperature of from 70° to 77° obtains to depths of between 80 and 100 fathoms. It is further remarkable that well-characterized deep-sea faunas are locally met with in comparatively shallow waters. One instance is that of the pelagic Clio, which was

Changed

ocean, fathoms.

The number 155 of the Clio, a derivate of the old Mesozoic Mediterranean, the south-polar fauna of the old Pacific fauna. The first developed along the shores of the northern continents, while the second had its original home on the shores of the Antarctic continent. We know that there is a strange element among the littoral fauna of the southern extremities of the continents, differing entirely from the arctic fauna, and wholly different from the tropical and the south-polar. The above consideration give us the threefold origin of the present deep-sea fauna:—(1) An ancient Mesozoic (or pre-Tertiary) constituent, derived from a transformed part of the old warm-water fauna of the deep sea, adapted to the changed climatic conditions. It is clearly autochthonous. (2) A more modern, immigrant, Tertiary constituent, which came from the north-polar littoral waters, and immigrated into the deep sea together with the cool water (or after it had passed). This element goes back to an old pre-Tertiary stock that lived in the warm littoral waters of the old Tethys (Mediterranean Sea), but as a cold-water fauna, it is not older than Tertiary. (3) A Tertiary element, corresponding to the second one, but belonging to the south pole, which is finally to be traced back to the warm waters of the old Pacific Ocean of pre-Tertiary times.

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American region; so that the eastern and western shores of the Atlantic appear decidedly more distinct than the eastern and western coasts of America. The extensive Oriental region is by far the richest.

From the distribution of the species (not genera) of barnacles, or cirripeds, which are an aberrant group of Crustacea, Darwin considered the main divisions of the zoological regions, viz.-(1) The North Atlantic, comprising North America and Europe down to N. lat. 30°; (2) The West American, from Bering Strait to Tierra del Fuego; (3) The Malayan, from India to New Guinea, and (4) The Australian, comprising Australia and New Zealand: the Malayan and Australian regions being the richest in cirripeds.

One of the earliest students of the geographical distribution of marine animals was Dr S. P. Woodward, who, in his Manual of the Mollusca, proposed a scheme of zoö-geographical regions. He adopted three main divisions for the warmer parts of the ocean; namely, the Atlantic, the Indo-Pacific and the West American; and these Wallace was inclined to regard as the only valid marine molluscan regions. The Indo-Pacific region extends from the Red Sea and the east coast of Africa to the eastern Pacific islands, and corresponds to Prof. Dana's Oriental region for Crustacea, many species ranging over nearly the whole area. The Atlantic region unites the fauna of the east coast of America with that of West Africa and South Europe, but has considerable affinity with that of West America, many genera being common to both areas. Several genera appear restricted to the north temperate zone, which in Wallace's opinion should perhaps form a distinct region. Numerous genera are confined to the Indo-Pacific region. The Atlantic coasts have few peculiar genera of importance, while the west coast of America has hardly any, the difference of its fauna from that of the Atlantic on the one side and the Indo-Pacific on the other being chiefly specific. It is stated that while there is not a single species common to the east and west coasts of tropical South America, the corresponding coasts of North America have a large number in common, while others are so closely representative as to be almost identical.

Inclusive of an Arctic province of somewhat doubtful value, Dr Woodward's three main regions were divided into 18 subregions; but, according to a somewhat modified later scheme, these may be arranged in four main groups, as follows:-

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Subregions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. ATLANTIC and CIR-</td>
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<td>B. Indo-Pacific</td>
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<td>8. Transatlantic</td>
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**Fish Regions.**—From the distribution of shore-haunting fishes, Dr A. C. L. G. Günther 1 suggested the following marine zoological regions, the characteristic family and generic types of which we are prevented by limitations of space from discussing:-

I. Arctic Ocean.
II. Northern Temperate Zone.
   A. Temperate N. Atlantic.
   1. British district.
   2. Mediterranean district.
   3. N. American district.
   B. Temperate N. Pacific.
   1. Kamchatkan district.
   2. Japanese district.
   3. Californian district.
III. Equatorial Zone.
   A. Tropical Atlantic.
   B. Tropical Indo-Pacific.
   C. Pacific Coast of Tropical America.
   1. Central American district.
   2. Galapagos district.
   3. Peruvian district.
IV. Southern Temperate Zone.
   1. Cape of Good Hope district.
   2. South American district.
   3. Chilean district.
   4. Patagonian district.
V. Antarctic Ocean.

**Mammal Regions.**—The last scheme of marine zoological regions necessary to mention is one proposed by Dr P. and W. L. Scater 2 on the distributional evidence afforded by seals, sea-cows and cetaceans. According to this, we have the following six regions, viz.:-

(i) Articatiticia (North Atlantic), characterized by the presence of seals of the subfamily Phocaee, with the genera Halichoerus peculiar to it, and Phoca common to it and No. iv.; the absence of sea-cows; and (it is stated) by the bottle-nosed whales (Hydrodocent) being peculiar to this area.
(ii) Mesatitelia (Mid Atlantic), the sole habitat of the monk-seal (Monachus) and the manit (Phalina).
(iii) Philolititelia (Indian Ocean), characterized by the presence of dugongs and the absence of seals.
(iv) Arctitelia (North Pacific), agreeing with No. i. in the possession of Phoca but distinguished by also having sea-bears and sea- lions (Otaridae): formerly the habitat of the northern sea-cow (Rhybia), and now of the grey whale (Rabicinaetex).
(v) Mesitielia (Mid Pacific), without Phoca or sea-cows, but with the elephant-seal (Macrorhinus), from the south, and also Otaridae.
(vi) Notolititelia (Southern Ocean), with four peculiar genera of seals (Phocaee), numerous sea-bears and sea- lions, and two peculiar genera of cetaceans, the pigma-whale (Noebula) and Arno's beaked-whale (Baradus).

To explain the absence of sea-bears and sea- lions from the North Atlantic, and likewise the existence of manit on both Atlantic coasts, the authors of this scheme call in the aid of a land-connexion between Africa and South America, which presented a barrier to the migration of the northern species of seals; and the consequent ceiling of dispersal to the latter. As the Otaridae are at present unknown previous to the Miocene, such an explanation, if valid, requires the persistence of the ancient land-bridge across the Atlantic to a much later date than is commonly supposed.

III. DISTRIBUTION IN TIME

The subject of the distribution of animals in time, i.e. the relative dates of their first appearance on the earth, and in the case of extinct forms the length of their sojourn there, can be treated but briefly; reference being restricted to the larger groups, and not even all of these being mentioned. The dates of appearance and disappearance of the various groups are only relative, for although many more or less vague attempts have been made to determine the age of the earth, there is no possibility of indicating in years the length of time occupied by the deposition of any one stratum or series of strata. All that can be attempted is to say that one stratum (and consequently the remains of animals that may be entombed in it) is older or younger, as the case may be, than another. For the sequence and names of the various strata, or time-periods of the geological record, see GEOLOGY. An important factor in regard to the past history of animals is the imperfection of the geological record. Recent discoveries have rendered this imperfection much less marked than was formerly the case. There is, however, an important story which we have, for instance, no definite information as to where and when the transformation from reptiles into mammals took place.

It may nevertheless be emphatically affirmed that the geological, or rather the palaeontological, record indicates a gradual progression in the status of animals from the lowest to the highest fossiliferous strata. That is to say, the earlier animals were creatures of comparatively low grade (although certain representatives of such groups may have attained a relatively high degree of specialization), and that as we ascend the geological ladder higher and higher types of animals make their appearance, till the series culminates in man himself—the crowning effort of creation, in the modern evolutionary signification of that term. It is not, indeed, to be supposed that the higher groups made their appearance exactly according to their relative grades or (what we regard as such); all that can be affirmed is that in the main the higher forms have made their appearance later than the lower. The record is thus almost exactly what it might be expected to be on the theory of evolution; while it also accords fairly well if regarded with sufficient breadth of view—with the Biblical notion of creation.

A brief survey of the time-distribution of the leading groups of animals may now be undertaken, commencing with the highest and concluding with the lowest groups.

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1 See Study of Fishes (London, 1880).
2 The Geography of Mammals (London, 1890).
As the highest of all vertebrates, it is natural to expect that mammals should be one of the latest groups of that assembly to make their appearance; and this as a matter of fact they are, although it is by no means improbable that birds are to be found in the earlier deposits of the Cambrian period. As a matter of fact, however, that the approximately contemporaneous Trilobites, represented by Protocimex; the former, appears to be in great degree intermediate between reptiles and mammals, it is by no means improbable that none of these Mesozoic periods, in so far as the existing records are referable to the Marapaplia, Insectivora, and, not improbably, that the former also (Stegocephalia). After the lowest Eocene (when the Puerco fauna represented an inferior and apparently non-progressive type) mammals became abundant; and during that epoch most if not all of the existing orders made their appearance.

Birds.

There is little doubt that they are really due to almost mammalian reptiles. The class Aves, so far as we know, is therefore first represented by the long-tailed Archaeopteryx of the upper Jurassic, which represents a sub-class (or order) by the lower Eocene. The later birds also appear during the Cretaceous period, and have been developed ever since. Both Europe and North America, but all these appear referable to existing ordinal (or subordinal) groups. By the lower Eocene, when teeth appear to have been entirely lost, most or all of the existing orders were developed; and these orders continue in existence, which date the majority at all events have steadily increased.

In contradistinction to both the preceding classes, reptiles, which date from the Permian are a varying group, at all events so far as both terrestrial and marine forms are concerned. The Permian reptiles were small or medium-sized creatures, few in number, and of generalized character. Among the orders of which it is represented by Protosaurus is the Rhynchocephalia, of which the sole survivor is the New Zealand tuatara (Sphenodon). The Mesozoic period, from the Trias to the Cretaceous, is true 'age of reptiles.' The Trias has been developed by the reptiles. The Triassic forms are the case of the marine groups very generally of small size, and apparently among the preponderating groups of the Jurassic and Cretaceous, the Dinosaurs, as demonstrated by their footprints in the sandstone of the Connecticut valley, were represented by species of huge size even in the Trias. The other extinct orders whose distribution was approximately coeval with the Mesozoic period were the Ichthyosaurs (Ichthyopterygii), the Plesiosaurus (Sauropterygia), and the Pterodactyls (Ornithosauria). The Chelonia and Crocodilia (if we include the Platypterygia) date from the Trias, but are also dominant forms at the present day, the mammal-like Anomodontia (Theromorpha), which ranged from South Africa to India and Russia, were solely Triassic. The Sphenodon, Archosauria, and some of the extant Cretaceous Pythons (Mocassusare, etc.), did not come into being till the upper Jurassic, or lower Cretaceous, and constitute the great bulk of the existing members of the class.

The Myriapoda (centipedes and millipedes) are of comparatively little importance as fossils. The class dates from the Devonian, and is abundant in the Coal-measures; the Palaeozoic forms for the most part being Palaeobolithina of the French upper Silurian. From the Devonian about a dozen forms are known, belonging to several groups; and from the Coal-measures extensive insectoid remains are known. The two supreme groups of the distinctive features by which the modern groups are characterized, the majority of them showing the cockroach group.

The Mollusca, of which the great bulk are marine and the majority of the above water species are the class, of which the great bulk are marine and the majority of the classes are molluscs. The order representing the molluscs is that which is known as the Gastropoda, including the snails, slugs, and clams. The order Bivalvia (bivalved molluscs) is represented by the bivalved molluscs, and includes such familiar forms as the cockroach (Fusus) and gastropods showing a relatively poor development. The bivalved molluscs are represented by such as the Cockroach, the Bivalves and gastropods have shown a steady increase to the present day, and are now the dominant forms.

Insects date from the Ordovician grahorites-slates of Sweden, and are known in the upper Silurian only. The most abundant of the class are the Trilobites, the next best being Palaeolabidina of the French upper Silurian. From the Devonian about a dozen forms are known, belonging to several groups; and from the Coal-measures extensive insectoid remains are known. The two supreme groups of the distinctive features by which the modern groups are characterized, the majority of them showing the cockroach group.
ZOLOGICAL GARDENS

ZOLOGICAL GARDENS, sometimes called ZOOLOGICAL PARKS, institutions in which wild animals are kept in captivity. Their primary object is to gratify the pleasure most persons take in viewing at close range the curious and beautiful living products of nature, but they serve also as means of instruction in natural history, providing material for museums and for investigations in comparative anatomy and pathology, while they may have a commercial value as pleasure resorts, or as show grounds for the display of animals that have been imported or that are for sale.

According to Captain Stanley Flower, director of the Zoological Gardens at Giza, Cairo, Egypt, the ancient Egyptians kept various species of wild animals in captivity, but the first Zoological Garden of which there is definite knowledge was founded in China by the first emperor of the Chou dynasty, who reigned about 1400 B.C. This was called the "Intelligence Park," and appears to have had a scientific and educational object. The ancient Greeks and Romans kept in captivity large numbers of such animals as leopards, lions, bears, elephants, antelopes, rhinoceroses, and ostriches, and in the general as well as in the public entertainment, these animals were displayed. The garden of Sennacherib at Nineveh was a zoological garden, and it is said that the elephants brought in by Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, were kept in the garden of Alexandria, which is the first zoological garden known to history.

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and Montezuma II, emperor of Mexico in the beginning of the 16th century, maintained large collections of animals in the gardens of his capital.

Most of the modern zoological gardens date from comparatively recent years, and there are a larger number stocked with a finer collection of animals, more suitably housed, than at any past time in the history of the world. According to a reference list compiled by Captain Stanley Flower, there were 202 actually existing public gardens or parks containing collections of wild animals in 1910, while there are a considerable number of private collections. It is possible to refer here only to a few of the more important.

Africa.—The Zoological Gardens at Giza, Cairo, are a government institution administered by the Public Works Department. The grounds are beautifully laid out and the collection is particularly rich in African animals, to which the climate is well adapted. The Khartoum Zoological Gardens are free to the public and are under the control of the municipality, but the collection of animals is under the Game Preservation Department. The Transvaal Zoological Gardens at Pretoria are a government institution, and are associated with the Museum.

America, North.—The Zoological Park at Bronx Borough, New York City, opened in 1896, is one of the largest in the world. It is controlled by the Borough of the City of New York, and is financed largely out of municipal funds, and is open free to the public five days a week. The Park occupies nearly 300 acres, of great natural beauty, and is laid out in a park-like form by the most eminent landscape gardener. It contains many fine buildings, designed on the most modern lines, but its special feature is a series of spacious enclosures, whose beauty is such that they are not only a source of great enjoyment to the visitor, but also as a national reserve, and has already been an important factor in the preservation of the American bison.

The National Zoological Park at Washington, D.C., was founded by Congress in 1888 for the advancement of science and the instruction and recreation of the people. The site was purchased by the United States government, and all the expenses come from national funds, the management being vested in the Smithsonian Institution. The Park consists of an area of 265 acres of undulating and wooded tracts of natural woods and rocks, traversed by a gorge cut by Rock Creek, a tributary of the Potomac. The river and gorge extend into the country far beyond the Park, and the animals that have been introduced, there are many wild creatures that retain their native freedom, such as musk rats in the creek, grey squirrels, crested cardinals and turkey buzzards. The varied natural conditions form an almost ideal site for a collection of animals; great care and skill have been expended on the designing and construction of the houses, the collection receives many accessions from various government departments, including the foreign consul service, and it usually exhibits every year an additional animal. The Zoological Gardens in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, resemble the gardens of the Zoological Society of London, of which they are a direct offshoot. The Zoological Society of Philadelphia, founded in 1859, and is supported partly by subscriptions of members, partly by gate-money and partly by an allowance from the city of Philadelphia. They consist of a fine collection, in which the most interesting feature is the careful and scientific method of feeding the animals, and the increasing scientific and commercial enterprise of the nation have combined to make the collections rich and interesting. The great Gardens at Berlin were founded in 1844, and belong to a private company, but one much to the interest and benefit of the Royal House. The collection is extremely good, the houses are well constructed and sumptuously decorated, and the general management is conducted on the most aesthetic scientific lines. The Zoological Gardens at Munich were founded in 1860 and are partly supported by the government and partly by private societies and partly by the municipalities. The collections are not specially rich in the very interesting and peculiar native fauna, but devote themselves preponderantly to imported animals.

Europe.—There are a large number of zoological gardens in Europe, but those of real importance are not numerous. The Imperial Menagerie of the palace of Schönbrunn, Vienna, was founded about 1752. The public are admitted free to the greater part of the gardens, but the gardens and collection are the property of and are supported by the emperor of Austria. The collection is very large and well kept; the gardens and menagerie of the Royal Zoological Society of Antwerp were founded in 1843, and have been maintained at a very high level. The collection is not usually very rich in species, but it can be kept as a long-caged and well arranged collection of breeding of large animals such as hippopotamuses, lions and antelopes, and a very large business is done in domesticated birds, wild animals and caged birds. The Zoological Gardens, held in the Gardens, chiefly surplus stock from various zoological gardens, are famous. The revenue is derived partly from subscriptions, partly from gate-money, from the fine concert-hall and refreshment pavilion. The Zoological Gardens of the Zoological Society of London in Regent’s Park, founded in 1828, extend to about only 35 acres, but the collection, if species and rare animals be considered rather than the number of individuals, has always been the finest in existence. The Society is not assisted by the state or the municipality, but derives its revenue from the subscriptions of Fellows, gate-money, Garden receipts and so forth. In India there is a large and excellent collection of mammals. The larger and better known Jardin d’Acclimatation in the Bois de Boulogne is owned and conducted by a private company. It was founded in 1858 and is beautifully situated and well laid out. In addition to the usual annual financial support, the good management is a commercial value. In recent years it has been somewhat neglected and presents no features of special interest, but efforts are being made to revitalize its prosperity. Germany contained in 1910 nineteen zoological gardens, but in process of formation. In most cases they are associated with concert-halls and open-air restaurants, which account for much of their annual profit. Among the animals are generally a small collection of wild animals, and the increasing scientific and commercial enterprise of the nation have combined to make the collections rich and interesting. The great Gardens at Berlin were founded in 1844, and belong to a private company, but one much to the interest and benefit of the Royal House. The collection is extremely good, the houses are well constructed and sumptuously decorated, and the general management is conducted on the most aesthetic scientific lines. The Zoological Gardens at Munich were founded in 1860 and are partly supported by the government and partly by private societies and partly by the municipalities. The collections are not specially rich in the very interesting and peculiar native fauna, but devote themselves preponderantly to imported animals.
spectacular point of view, and very suitable where most of the animals are young and in process of training. The chief gardens in Europe are those of London, at Kew, and in the Zoological Society, "Artis Magistra." In addition to the menagerie, founded in 1838, and since then remaining one of the chief collections of the world, the Society owns a fine aquarium, and supports a museum and library. The Zoological Gardens, which however, are not a part of the biological collections of other European countries are of little importance.

Certain general remarks may be made on the efficient management of the zoological gardens.

Finance.—Disbursements for rent, rates and taxes naturally vary according to the special conditions; in a large number of cases public land is provided free of cost, and in a smaller number of cases, with such of the public useful functions, are relieved of the ordinary burden of taxation. In London, rent, rates and taxes have all to be paid, precisely as if the gardens were a profit-distributing private institution, the annual expendi- ture, therefore, is extremely large, but fortunately the average of all the gardens is such as to show that in London a collection such as that in London can be adequately maintained. The cost of new buildings varies too much to make any individual figures useful.

The zoological gardens are owned by private companies and derive their income entirely from gate-money, menagerie sales, rent of refreshment rooms, concert-halls and other auxiliary public attractions. The gardens being desirous of being obtainable to the majority of the members of the company. In other cases the gardens are assisted by public authorities, in return for which a certain number of free days are given. In other cases again, as in the case of London, the income is derived partly from the subscriptions of the members, and receive privileges as to admission, and partly from gate-money and menagerie receipts, all the income being expended on the maintenance of the institution and on scientific purposes.

The expense of maintaining a zoo will depend with some extent on the object of the institution. The species and varieties of mammals and birds that have a commercial value as farmyard stock or as pets, are for the most part easy to keep, are attractive to the public and may be a source of profit. Some of the smaller gardens in Europe, and perhaps a majority of those in other parts of the world, pay much attention to this side, but the more important collections, and those only, which are possible limited to natural species and wild animals. In theory every wild species has its place in a zoological collection, but the actual choice is limited by so many practical considerations that the better-known collections are remarkably alike. Birds are the most important, and the leading collections devote a good deal of attention to reptiles and batrachians; fishes and aquatic invertebrata are most often to be found, whilst species of land invertebrata are seldom to be seen and at most of a few moths and butterflies, spiders, scorpiuses and centipedes, molluses and crustaceans. Within these limits, the first choice falls on large and well-known creatures which every one can recognize and desires to see. The large Carnivora, lions, tigers, jaguars and leopards are the first favourites; then follow monkeys, then the large ungulates, elephants, rhinoceroses and hippopotamuses, camels and giraffes, deer and antelopes and equine animals, whilst birds are appreciated chiefly for plumage and song. Animals vary very greatly in visibility (see LONGEVITY), and practical experience has shown that animals of the genus bear a very strong resemblance to those reasons that appear to be psychological as well as physically quick to succumb. Many animals of great zoological interest, from their nocturnal habits, or natural disposition, display themselves so seldom as to be almost lost to view. It is usual to reserve the better localities of the public, whilst closely allied species are not distinguished except by trained observers. If the object of a collection is simply to provide a handy and popular exhibition, it is neither difficult nor very costly to get together and to maintain. But if the object be, as in the case of the greater zoological institutions, to get together as many species as possible, and to exhibit animals that have been obtained, the possible range is enormous and the cost very great.

Sources of Animals.—A certain number of wild animals are born in captivity and from time to time the possession of a successful stock is a condition of the survival of zoological gardens. In London it was able to supply many Continental gardens with giraffes, and Dublin and Antwerp have had great successes with lions, whilst antelopes, sheep and cattle, or tigers and equine animals are always to be found breeding in one collection or another. Such stocks, however, usually fail in time, partly from close inter-breeding, partly from the ordinary chances of mortality, and partly from the cumulative effects of strange conditions. Fresh-caught wild animals have to be fed for a considerable time, and the majority of cases the conditions of success are that the wild creatures should be obtained as young as possible, kept in their native climate, and have to be fed, not on what they can find in their wild state, but on what they can be given at their ultimate destinations. The percentage of failure is greatest when fresh-caught adults are hurred to Europe or America. Individuals, moreover, vary greatly in their capacity to reproduce, and experience shows that it is less costly and more practical if the selection be made in their natural homes. The most promising sources of new species for zoological gardens are the young creatures which have been partly tamed by hunters, traders, natives or travelers, and which have been acquired by travellers. Many of these find their way to the great shipping-ports, where there have grown up establishments that to species of animals. Special expeditions are arranged to procure numbers of particular birds or mammals, but these are extremely costly and the mortality is usually high.

Area and Site. The areas occupied vary from about 300 acres (New York) to about 8 acres (Bristol, England). In the larger gardens, however, the greater part of the space is engaged by a few extensive enclosures for herds of herbivorous animals, and where no attempt is made to associate the function of a game reserve with that of a menagerie a smaller area is quite satisfactory. From the point of view of public convenience, too, a large space is fattiguing and makes it more difficult to see the animals, whilst if the colonel of many menageries is the idea of proportion of the advantages. The older gardens have followed too closely the idea of small cages, designed to guard an animal securely rather than to display it in a fitting environment, but if designed and arranged to be too small or too large and is less small than in a relatively large enclosure. With regard to situation, the ideal would be to have the collection placed in the open country, but in centres of population. But as menageries are supported for the public and in most cases by the state, it is a matter of practical, and if the soil, drainage and exposure are reasonably good, experience shows that a thriving collection may be maintained in an indoor arrangement. The ideal would be to have the open space immediately in front and to have the animals rapidly become contaminated, and the ideal condition would be to have an impermeable fencing covering the whole area, and supplied with suitable layers of sand, sawdust, peat-moss or other absorbent substances which can be changed at frequent intervals. The buildings should be constructed on the most modern hospital lines, with smooth walls and rounded corners, so that complete removal of faecal matter is possible. Buildings should be clean and dry, and the floors well drained. Animals should be fed abundantly, however, that even the best designed and best cared for buildings rapidly become contaminated, and it is probable that in the majority of cases the so-called waterprooaff are erroneous in principle, and should be replaced by light and cheap structures not intended to last longer than a few years. In most temperate climates, artificial heating is necessary, at least occasional, and in tropical and warm temperate zones, artificial cooling is extremely good and the collection may be maintained in those cases in considerable comfort. In cold-blooded animals, such as reptiles and batrachians, thrive best in an equable temperature, and, especially in the case of snakes, frequently can be induced to feed only when their temperature has been raised to a certain point. But the vast majority of birds and mammals not only can endure a large range of temperature, but thrive best when they are subjected to it. Protection from violent draught and shelter from extremes of heat and cold are necessary, but in most cases the choice is left to the animals themselves, and the most successful arrangements consist of free exposure to the climate, the result of which is also applicable to the wintering of living beings are subject to epidemics, and in an ideal menagerie special precautions should be taken. New arrivals should be quarantined until it is certain that they are in a satisfactory condition of health. All animals should have their cages and their cages and enclosures disinfected, whilst as a matter of routine the enclosure in which any animal has died should be swept and fumigated with carbolic, after post-mortem examination, which should be made in every case, appropriate measures of disinfection employed.

Feeding.—The food must be as varied as possible, and special attention should be paid to the quality of the food, and to the supply. It is important that no more should be supplied at a time than is necessary, as most animals rapidly foul their food, and except in a few special cases, wild animals are peculiarly liable to disease. If possible, the animals should be fed as near the natural diet as can be from experience, and from watching individual cases; frequency varies within very wide limits, from reptiles which at most may feed once a week and fast for long periods, to the smaller insectivorous birds which require to be fed every two or three
hours, and which in the winter dark of northern latitudes must be lighted up once or twice in the night to have the opportunity of feeding. Knowledge of the habits of animals and experience are the best guides to the nature of food to be supplied, but the keeper should be warned that the objects of their charges and to judge from these of the extent to which any particular substances are being digested. The feeding of carnivores is on the whole the most easy; the chief pitfall being the extreme liability of all except the larger forms to suffer digestive disturbances from food that is not quite fresh. The more powerful creatures in a state of nature are accustomed to kill a prey too large to be devoured at once, and to return to it again and again, long after it has putrid; the smaller forms, for the most part, devour nothing but small creatures immediately after they have been captured and killed, and consequently in an absolutely fresh condition. The chief advantages in the carnivorous or ravenous habits of creatures is that their constitutions are not adapted to the richness of cultivated fruits and cereals, and, in captivity, may suffer mechanically from the want of bulk in their food supply, or if they eat a quantity sufficient in bulk, it contains an excess of nutritive material. A minor problem in menageries is injudicious feeding by visitors. Many authorities attempt to restrain visitors from feeding the animals in their charge, but a restriction, even if practicable, is not all gain, for animals in captivity are less inclined to moe, and are more intelligent and tame, if they become accustomed to regard visitors as pleasant sources of tit-bit.


ZOOLOGICAL NOMENCLATURE, the system by which it is attempted to designate, exactly and conveniently, the animals which exist now or are known to have existed. It is, in fact, the grammar of classification, and has the advantage that it is applicable and useful as a method of names of the same genera or species, without regard to country to country, but even amongst civilized peoples, and still more amongst uncivilized persons and the lower races, the animals denoted by popular names are a very small part of existing forms, whilst the connotation of the names is vague and varying. Linnaeus was the first to adopt a precise system, which he explained and applied in 1731 in his Philosophia botanica, and later extended to animals in the tenth edition of his Systema naturae (1758). The foundation of the system was the application of a binomial nomenclature to species (see Srrtces). Each species was designated by a binomial name, consisting of the Latin name of the genus to which it belonged, and the second the appellation peculiar to the species. There are many different cat-like animals, such as the common cat, lion, tiger and so forth, more obviously related to one another than they are to dog-like or hyena-like carnivores. The assemblage of cats constitute the genus Felis, the wild cat being one species, Felis catus, the lion another, Felis leo, the tiger yet another, Felis tigris, and so forth. The various genera were grouped into families, the family taking its designation from the leading genus, as, for instance, the family Felidae for the cats. Families were grouped into orders, the Carnivora, in the order Carnivora, and the orders in Classes. There is still little uniformity in the designation of the assemblages higher than families, and less agreement as to the degree or measure of separation to be indicated by the use of the designations employed. For the system adopted in the present work, see Zoology.

Linnaeus named very many species and genera, but the number known continues to increase at a prodigious rate, while precision of description has far surpassed his conceptions, with the result that his rules have long ceased to meet the needs of modern science. In 1842 the English ornithologist, H. E. Strickland, assisted by a committee of which Charles Darwin was a member, elaborated rules which became known as the Strickland Code, and were adopted in 1845 by the American Society of Geologists and Naturalists, and in 1846 by the British Association for the Advancement of Science. In 1881, the International Congress of Geology, meeting at Bologna, constructed a code differing in many respects from that of Strickland, and well applicable to fossil forms. In 1831 the Zoological Society of France agreed on new rules, based on those of Strickland, but formulated by a committee of which Maurice Chaperse and R. Blanchard were leading members. In 1885 the American Ornithologists' Union, urged by the needs of the great advance in ornithology in America, adopted rules which were still further modified from the Strickland Code. In 1894 the Zoological Society of Germany framed another set of rules drawn up by J. V. Carus, L. Doderlein and K. Mbius. In 1896 the English entomologist Lord Walsingham devised another modification of the Strickland Code, which became known as the Hymenoptera Code, due to its application to Hymenoptera. The existence of so many conflicting authorities caused much confusion and an impractical condition of nomenclature in which many distinguished and active systematists elaborated practices individual to themselves. When the International Congress of Zoology held its first meeting in Paris in 1889, one of the chief objects submitted to it was the necessity of framing rules which should be uniform in their application to the whole animal kingdom and which might receive international sanction. The discussion was carried over to the second meeting of the congress at Madrid in 1895, at which the code proposed by R. Blanchard was accepted. Further modifications were made, partly to reconcile it with the German Code, and a permanent commission was appointed to consider fresh points that might arise. In 1905 there was published, with the sanction of the Congress, in French, English and German (International Rules of Zoological Nomenclature, Paris, 1905, F. R. de Rudeval) a set of rules finally codified by M. R. Blanchard, von Machenrath and C. W. Stiles, which appears to be a close approach to an international system applicable to every group in the animal kingdom. At subsequent meetings of the Congress minor modifications have been made, and new rules to be proposed and occasionally adopted, but with one important exception, to be referred to later, fundamental lines of agreement appear to have been reached, and many of the most active workers have accepted the international code as binding. It is possible here to give only a short summary of the more important rules.

The goal to be reached is that the connotation and denotation of every zoological designation should be definite. One name is to designate one and only one species, each species having one, and only one, scientific name (following the invention of Linnaeus) and three names for each sub-species (a refinement not necessary in the time of Linnaeus). The scientific names must be Latin or Latinized forms. The names are to be written, even in English, in italic type, thus Felis catus, the feline as distinct from the felvine for Felis. When a generic name is itself a compound, a corresponding change in the name of the family or sub-family derived from it. A generic name must consist of a single word, written with a capital initial letter, and treated as a substantive in the nominative singular. When a genus is divided into subgenera the name of the typical sub-genus must be the same as the name of the genus, and when it is desired to cite the name of a sub-genus this name must be placed in parentheses between the generic and the specific names, as, for instance, Vanessa (Vesica) cardui and Vanessa (myraineis) cardui respectively, for the typical sub-genus and another sub-genus of the genus Vanessa. The specific name is written in a lower case with a capital initial letter, corresponding to the generic name or substantives in the generic; they are written with a small initial letter except when they are substantives derived from the name of a person, but even in the latter case it is permitted and is becoming usual to employ the small initial letter, as Gazella caprae. If it be desired to cite the sub-specific name, such name is written immediately following the specific name without the interposition of any mark of punctuation, as Rana esculenta marina, or more briefly, Rana esculenta marina. When it is to be cited, the author's name is always placed immediately after the scientific name, and may, if it be desired, follow the name of a person, and the interposition of any mark of punctuation, e.g. Felis catus Linnaeus. Names are merely designations, or recognition marks, and not descriptions, and hence a name is not to be rejected or changed if it is otherwise valid, because it gives a wrong description; there is no more reason why Felis rufus should be a redder cat than Felis rufus John Black a person of swarthy complexion; nor is a name to be rejected
because of tautonomy, and thus *Apsu apus apus* may be a valid designation of a sub-species if the names are otherwise valid.

It has happened frequently and continues to happen that a creature is discovered to have been given more than one name. Which of these is valid? The decision of this is one of the most difficult andcontroverted problems in nomenclature. In the hope of settling it by some system which should be as nearly as possible automatic and should leave the least possible to the inclination or choice of the individual worker, there was formulated what is called the rule of priority. The valid name of a genus, species, or sub-species is the one which was first described and published and with the conditions first that the name was published and accompanied by an indication, definition or description, and second that the author applied the principles of binary nomenclature. The tenth edition of Linnaeus' *Systema naturae* (1758) is the work that first consistently applied the binary system to zoology generally and is accepted as the starting-point of zoological nomenclature. Beginning from this the oldest available name is therefore to be retained. The application of the rule of priority is in many cases very difficult, but the labours of zoologists in many groups are rapidly succeeding in making the necessary direct and incidental changes in nomenclature, whilst, with regard to recent work, the rule is invariable. A special difficulty has, however, arisen and is pressing so acutely that a most important modification is likely to be introduced.

To systematists working with a large series of species in a museum or collection, one species is as important as another, and changes of names even of familiar animals are matters of little moment. But a comparatively small number of animals hold a prominent place in the attention of zoologists who are not specially systematists and of the public interested in natural history. It is complained that application of the rules of priority is changing the names of many familiar animals, designations that are sanctioned by long usage in museums and laboratories, in the famous treatises of comparative anatomy, of general biology, of travel, medicine, and the sciences and subjects closely related to zoology. There is being claimed, in fact, protection against the law of priority for a certain number of such familiar and customary appellations. The machinery for drafting such a list of exceptions exists in the permanent nomenclature commission of the International Congress of Zoology, and there is more than a hope that this change will come into operation.

To make the denotation of zoological names precise, exact workers are endeavouring to associate the conception of types with names, a process which can be made simple and definite with new work, but which presents great difficulties in the attempt to apply it to existing terms. Every family should have designated one of its genera as the type genus, every genus a type species and so forth. In the case of species or sub-species the type is a single specimen, either the one only before the author when writing his description, or one definitely selected by him, the others being paratypes. Such type specimens are the keynote of modern expert systematic work and their careful preservation and registration is of fundamental importance. A co-type is one of several specimens which have together formed the basis of a species, no one of them having been selected by the author as a type. A topotype is a specimen killed at the typical locality. (P. C. M.)

**Zoology** (from Gr. ἀνάγγειλ, a living thing, and λέγειν, theory), that portion of biology (q.v.) which relates to animals, as distinguished from that portion (Botany) which is concerned with plants.

**History**

There is something almost pathetic in the childish wonder and delight with which mankind in its earlier phases of civilization gathered up and treasured stories of strange animals from distant lands or deep seas, such as are recorded in the *Physiologus*, in Albertus Magnus, and even at the present day in the popular treatises of Japan and China. That omnivorous universally credulous stage, which may be called the "legendary," was succeeded by the age of collectors and travellers, when many of the strange stories believed in were actually demonstrated as true by the living or preserved trophies brought to Europe. The possibility of verification established verification as a habit; and the collecting of things, instead of the accumalating of reports, developed a new faculty of minute observation. The early collectors of natural curiosities were the founders of zoological science, and to this day the naturalist-traveller and his correlative, the museum curator and systematist, are the chief workers in the field of zoology. Indeed, the historical and present importance of this aspect or branch of zoological science is so great that the name "zoology" has until recently been associated entirely with it, to the exclusion of the study of minute anatomical structure and function which have been distinguished as anatomy and physiology. Anatomy and the study of animal mechanism, animal physics and animal chemistry, all of which form part of a true zoology, were excluded from the usual definition of the word by the mere accident that the zoologist had his museum but the garden of living specimens as the botanist had; and, whilst the zoologist was thus deprived of all the modern anatomical and physiological study—only later supplied by the method of preserving animal bodies in alcohol—the demands of medicine for a knowledge of the structure of the human animal brought into existence a separate and special study of human anatomy and physiology.

From these special studies of human structure the knowledge of the anatomy of animals has proceeded, the same investigator who had made himself acquainted with the structure of the human body desiring to compare with the standard given by human anatomy the structures of other animals. Thus comparative anatomy came into existence as a branch of inquiry apart from zoology, and it was only in the latter part of the 19th century that the limitation of the word "zoology" to a knowledge of animals which expressly excludes the consideration of their internal structure was rejected by the general consent of those concerned in the progress of science. It is now generally recognized that it is mere tautology to speak of zoology and comparative anatomy, and that museum naturalists must give attention as well to the inside as to the outside of all animals.

Scientific zoology really started in the 16th century with the awakening of the new spirit of observation and exploration, but for a long time ran a separate course uninfluenced by the progress of the medical studies of anatomy and physiology. The active search for knowledge by means of observation and experiment found its natural home in the universities. Owing to the connexion of medicine with these seats of learning, it was natural that the study of the structure and functions of the human body and of the animals nearest to man should take root there; the spirit of inquiry which now for the first time became general showed itself in the anatomical schools of the Italian universities of the 16th century, and spread fifty years later to Oxford.

In the 17th century the lovers of the new philosophy, the investigators of nature by means of observation and experiment, banded themselves into academies or societies for mutual support and intercourse. The first founded of surviving European academies, the *Academia Naturae Curiosorum* (1651), especially confined itself to the description and illustration of the structure of plants and animals; eleven years later (1662) the Royal Society of London was incorporated by royal charter, having existed without a name or fixed organization for

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1. The medieval attitude towards both plants and animals had no relation to real knowledge but was a part of the popular and to some extent highly interesting mysticism. A fantastic and elaborate doctrine of symbolism existed which comprised all nature; witchcraft, alchemy and medicine were its practical expressions. Animals as well as plants were regarded as "simples" and used in medicine, and a knowledge of them was valued from this point of view.

2. The *Academia Secretorum Naturae* was founded at Naples in 1560, but was suppressed by the ecclesiastical authorities.
seventeen years previously (from 1645). A little later the Academy of Sciences of Paris was established by Louis XIV. The influence of these great academies of the 17th century on the progress of zoology and particularly to effect that bringing together of the museum-men and the physicians or anatomists which was needed for further development. Whilst the race of collectors and systematizers culminated in the latter part of the 18th century in Linnaeus, a new type of student made its appearance in such men as John Hunter and other anatomists, who, not satisfied with the superficial observations of the popular "zoologists," set themselves to work to examine anatomically the whole animal kingdom, and to classify its members by aid of the results of such profound study. Under the influence of this work, a new science, zoology, was developed; but, as no one could show a simple fact of observation that it had taken place, nor as a result of legitimate inference that it must have taken place, it was quite as likely that the past and present species of animals and plants had been separately created or individually brought into existence by unknown and inscrutable causes, and (it was held) the truly scientific man would refuse to occupy himself with such fancies, whilst ever continuing to concern himself with the observation and record of indubitable facts. The accurate information, if not the "natural philosopher," though right in their main conception, were premature.

It was reserved for Charles Darwin, in the year 1859, to place the whole theory of organic evolution on a new footing, and by his discovery of a mechanical cause actually existing and demonstrable by which organic evolution must be brought about, entirely to change the attitude in regard to it of even the most rigid exponents of the scientific method. Darwin succeeded in establishing the doctrine of organic evolution by the introduction into the web of the zoological and botanical sciences of a new and powerful subject-matter of this new science, on which biological science, had been neglected: it did not form part of the studies of the collector and systematist, nor was it a branch of anatomy, nor of the physiology pursued by medical men, nor again was it included in the field of microscopy and the cell-theory. The area of biological knowledge which Darwin was the first to subject to scientific method and to render, as it were, contributory to the great stream formed by the union of the various branches, is that which relates to the breeding of animals and plants, their congenital variations, and the transmission and perpetuation of those variations. This branch of biological science may be called the "zoology of evolution," or "animal breeding." Outside the scientific world an immense mass of observation and experiment had grown up in relation to this subject. From the earliest times the shepherd, the farmer, the horticulturist, and the "fancier" had for practical purposes made themselves acquainted with a number of biological laws, and successfully applied them without exciting more than an occasional notice from the academic students of biology. It is one of Darwin's great merits to have made use of these observations and to have formulated their results to a large extent as the laws of variation in a hereditary way. As the breeder selects a congenital variation which suits his requirements, and by breeding from the animals (or plants) exhibiting that variation obtains a new breed specially characterized by that variation, so in nature there is a selection amongst all the congenital variations of each generation of a species. This selection depends on the fact that more young are born than the natural provision of food will support. In consequence of this excess of births there is a struggle for existence and a survival of the fittest, and consequently an ever-present necessarily acting selection, which either maintains accurately the form of the species from generation to generation or leads to its modification in correspondence with changes in the surrounding circumstances which have relation to its fitness for success in the struggle for life.

Darwin's introduction of the doctrine of organic evolution into the domain of scientific biology was accompanied by a new and special development of a branch of study which had previously been known as teleology, the study of the adaptation of organic
structures to the service of the organisms in which they occur. It cannot be said that previously to Darwin there had been any very profound study of teleology, but it had been the delight of a certain type of mind—that of the lovers of nature or naturalists par excellence, as they were sometimes termed—to watch the habits of living animals and plants, and to point out the remarkable ways in which the structure of each variety of organic life was adapted to the special circumstances of life of the variety or species, including colossal and grotesque forms of some animals and plants which the museum zoologists described without comment were shown by these observers of living nature to have their significance in the economy of the organism possessing them; and a general doctrine was recognized, to the effect that no part or structure of an organism is without definite use and adaptation, being designed by the Creator for the benefit of the creature to which it belongs, or else for the benefit, amusement or instruction of his highest creature—man. Teleology in this form of the doctrine of design was never very deeply rooted amongst scientific anatomists and physiologists; it was considered for reasons both of evidence and of convenience to be somewhat vaguely on the subject of the utility of this or that startling variety of structure; but few attempts, though some of great importance, were made systematically to explain by observation and experiment the adaptation of organic structures to particular purposes in the case of the lower animals and plants. Teleology had, indeed, an important part in the development of physiology—the knowledge of the mechanism, the physical and chemical properties, of the parts of the body of man and the higher animals allied to him. But, as applied to lower and more obscure forms of life, teleology presented almost insurmountable difficulties; and consequently, in place of exact experiment and demonstration, the most reckless though ingenious assumptions were made as to the utility of the parts and organs of lower animals. Darwin's theory had as one of its results the reformation and rehabilitation of teleology. According to that theory, every organ, every part, colour and peculiarity of an organism, must either be of benefit to that organism itself or have been so to its ancestors;\(^1\) no peculiarity of structure or general conformation, no habit or instinct in any organism, can be supposed to exist for the benefit or amusement of another organism, not even for the delectation of man himself. Necessarily, according to the theory of natural selection, structures either are present because they are selected as useful or because they are still inherited from ancestors to whom they were useful, though no longer useful to the existing representatives of those ancestors. Structures previously inexplicable were now explained as survivals from a past age, no longer useful though once of value. Every variety of form and colour was urgently and absolutely called upon to produce its title to existence either as an active useful agent or as a survival. Darwin himself spent a large part of the later years of his life in thus extending the new teleology.

The old doctrine of types, which was used by the philosophically minded zoologists (and botanists) of the first half of the 19th century as a ready means of explaining the failures and difficulties of the doctrine of design, fell into its proper place under the new dispensation. The adherence to type, the favourite conception of the transcendental morphologist, was seen to be nothing more than the expression of one of the laws of heredity, the persistence of hereditary transmission of ancestral characters, even when they had ceased to be significant or valuable in the struggle for existence, whilst the so-called evidences of design which was supposed to modify the limitations of types assigned to Himself by the Creator were seen as the adaptations due to the selection and intensification by selective breeding of fortuitous congenial variations, which happened to prove more useful than the many thousand other variations which did not survive in the struggle for existence. Thus not only did Darwin's theory give a new basis to the study of organic structure, but, whilst rendering the general theory of organic evolution equally acceptable and necessary, it explained the existence of low and simple forms of life as survivals of the earliest ancestry of the highest animals, and revealed the classification as unconscious attempts to construct the genealogical tree or pedigree of plants and animals. Finally, it brought the simplest living matter or formless protoplasm before the mental vision as the starting-point whence, by the operation of necessary mechanical causes, the highest forms have been evolved, and it rendered unavoidable the conclusion that this earliest living material was itself evolved by gradual processes, the result also of the known and recognized laws of physics and chemistry, from material which we should call not living. It abolished the conception of life as an entity above and beyond the common properties of matter, and led to the conviction that the marvellous and exceptional qualities of that which we call "living" matter are nothing more nor less than an exceptionally complicated development of those chemical and physical properties which we recognize in a gradually ascending scale of evolution in the carbon compounds, containing nitrogen as well as oxygen, sulphur and hydrogen as constituent atoms of their enormous molecules. Thus mysticism was finally banished from the domain of biology and zoology became one of the physical sciences—the science which seeks to arrange and discuss the phenomena of animal life and form, as the outcome of the operation of the laws of physics and chemistry.

A subdivision of zoology which was at one time in favour is simple into morphology and physiology, the study of form and structure on the one hand, and the study of the activities and functions of the forms and structures on the other. But a logical division like this is not necessarily conducive to the ascertainment and remembrance of the historical progress and present significance of the science. No such distinction of mental activities as that involved in the division of the study of animal life into morphology and physiology has ever really existed: the investigator of animal forms has never entirely ignored the functions of the forms studied by him, and the experimental inquirer into the functions and properties of animals and organs has always taken very careful account of the forms of those tissues and organs. A more instructive subdivision must be one which corresponds to the separate currents of thought and mental preoccupation which have been historically manifested in western Europe in the gradual evolution of what is to-day the great river of zoological doctrine to which they have all been contributory.

It must recognize the following five branches of zoological study:

\(^1\) The word of the collector and systematicist: such a term is exemplified by Linnaeus and his predecessors, by Cuvier, and Agassiz, Haeckel.

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3. **Zoo-Dynamics, Zoo-Physics, Zoo-Chemistry.** The pursuit of the learned physician—anatomy and physiology: exemplified by Harvey, Haller, Hunter, Johann Müller.

4. **Plasmology.** The study of the ultimate corpuscles of living matter, their structure, development and properties, by the aid of the microscope; exemplified by Malpighi, Hook, Schwann, Kowalewsky.

5. **Philosophical Zoology.** General conceptions with regard to the relations (species or individuals) to the universe, to man, and to the Creator, their origin and significance: exemplified in the writings of the philosophers of classical antiquity, and of Linnaeus, Goethe, Lamarck, Cuvier, Lyell, H. Spencer and Darwin.

It is unnecessary to follow in this article all these subjects, since they are for the most part treated under separate headings, not indeed under these names—which are too comprehensive for that purpose—but under those of the more specific questions which arise under each. Thus **Bionomics** is treated in such articles as **Evolution, Heredity, Variation, Mendelism, Reproduction, Sex, &c.**—Zoo-dynamics under Medicine, Surgery, Physiology, Anatomy, Embryology, and allied articles; **Plasmology** under Cytology, Protoplasm, &c.; and **Philosophical Zoology** under numerous headings, Evolution, Biology, &c. See also **Zoological Distribution, Palaeontology, Oceanography, Microtomy, &c.**

It will be more appropriate here, without giving what would be a needless repetition of considerations, both historical and theoretical, which appear in other articles, to confine ourselves to two general questions, (1) the history of the various systems of classification, or Morphography, and (2) the consideration of the main tendencies in the study of zoology since Darwin.

**SYSTEMS OF CLASSIFICATION**

Morphography includes the systematic exploration and tabulation of the facts involved in the recognition of all the recent and extinct kinds of animals and their distribution in space and time. (1) The museum-makers of old days and their modern representatives the curators and describers of zoological collections, (2) early explorers and modern naturalists-travellers and writers on zoo-geography, and (3) collectors of fossils and palaeontologists are the chief varieties of zoological workers coming under this head. Gradually since the time of Hunter and Cuvier anatomical study has associated itself with the more superficial morphography until to-day no one considers a study of animal form of any value which does not include internal structure, histology and embryology in its scope.

The real dawn of zoology after the legendary period of the middle ages is connected with the name of an Englishman, **Edward Wotton.** Edward Wotton, born at Oxford in 1492, who practised as a physician in London and died in 1555. He published a treatise, *De Generantis animalium* at Paris in 1552. In many respects Wotton was simply an exponent of Aristotle, whose teaching, with various fanciful additions, constituted the real basis of zoological knowledge throughout the middle ages. It was Wotton's merit that he rejected the legendary and fantastic accretions, and returned to Aristotle and the observation of nature.

The most ready means of noting the progress of zoology during the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries is to compare the classificatory conceptions of successive naturalists, which are to be found in the works of Aristotle himself. Aristotle did not definitively and in tabular form propound a classification of animals, but from a study of his treatises *Historia animalium, De generatione animalium,* and *De paribus animalium* the following classification can be arrived at:

A. **Eura.** blood-holding animals (= Vertebrata).

1. Malacota, soft-bodied Anaema (= Cephalopoda).


3. Erytta, insected Anaema or Insects (= Arthropoda, exclusive of Crustacea).


B. **Aeura,** bloodless animals (= Invertebra.ata).

1. Molcha, in-bed, viviparous Euraema (= Mammals, including Whales).

2. *Eothes,* (Birds).

3. *Terapoa* & *Erua* seroecrura, four-footed or legless Euraema which lay eggs. (Reptiles and Amphibia).


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considerable use of anatomical characters in his definitions of large groups, and may thus be considered as the father of modern zoology. Associated with Ray in his work, and more especially occupied with the study of the Worms and Mollusca, was Martin Lister (1638-1722), celebrated also as the author of the first geological map.

After Ray's death the progress of anatomical knowledge, and of the discovery and illustration of new forms of animal life from distant lands, continued with increasing vigour.

From Ray to Linnaeus.
We note the names of Valsiineri (1661-1730) and Alexander Monro (1697-1767); the travellers Tournefort (1656-1708) and Shaw (1660-1753); the collectors Rumphius (1627-1700) and Hans Sloane (1660-1753); the entomologist Réaumur (1683-1757); Lhwyd (1703) and Linck (1674-1734), the students of Star-Fishes; Peyssonel (b. 1694), the investigator of Pylops and the opponent of Marsigli and Réaumur, who held them to be plants; Woodward, the palaeontologist (1665-1722)—not to speak of others of less importance.

Two years after Ray's death Carl Linnaeus (1707-1778) was born. Unlike Jacob Theodore Klein (1685-1739), whose careful treatises on various groups of plants and animals were published during the time between Ray and Linnaeus, the latter had his career marked out for him in a university, that of Upsala, where he was first professor of medicine and subsequently of natural history. His lectures formed a new departure in the academic treatment of zoology and botany, which, in direct continuity from the middle ages, had hitherto been subjected to the traditions of the medical profession and regarded as mere branches of "materia medica.

Linnaeus taught zoology and botany as branches of knowledge to be studied for their own intrinsic interest. His great work, the Systema naturae, ran through twelve editions during his lifetime (1st ed. 1735, 12th 1768). Apart from his special discoveries in the anatomy of plants and animals, and his descriptions of new species, the great merit of Linnaeus was his introduction of a method of enumeration and classification which may be said to have created systematic zoology and botany in their present form, and establishes his name for ever as the great organizer, the man who recognized a great practical want in the use of language and supplied it. Linnaeus adopted Ray's conception of species, but he made species a practical reality by insisting that every species should have a double Latin name—the first half to be the genus name, the genus name common to several species, and the second half to be the specific name. Previously to Linnaeus long-winded names had been used, sometimes with one additional adjective, sometimes with another, so that no true names were fixed and accepted. Linnaeus by his binomial system made it possible to write and speak with accuracy of any given species of plant or animal. He was, in fact, the Adam of zoological science. He proceeded further to introduce into his enumeration of animals and plants a series of groups, viz. genus, order, class, which he compared to the subdivisions of an army or the subdivisions of a territory, the greater containing several of the less, as follows:
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Class V. Insecta.
Order 1. Coleoptera.

Genera: (a) Scarabaeus, Lucanus, Dermestes, Hister, Byrrhus, Gyrinus, Atelabus, Carabus, Silpha, Coccinelle; (b) Bruchus, Cavisda, Pinnis, Chrysolina, Hispa, Meloe, Tenebrion, Lampyris, Modella, Staphylinus; (c) Cerambyx, Leptura, Campathus, Elater, Cercidela, Buprestis, Dilusis, Carabus, Neocyclus, Prionus.

2. Hemiptera

Genera: Blatto, Manits, Gyrulis, Fulgora, Cicada, Noleauta, Nepo, Cimex, Aphis, Cimex, Coc; Yrips.

3. Lepidoptera

Genera: Papilio, Sphynx, Phalaena.

4. Neuroptera

Genera: Libellula, Ephemerina, Myrmeleon, Phrygana, Heberus, Penanor, Harphida.

5. Hymenoptera

Genera: Cynips, Thenthredo, Sirex, Ichneumon, Sphe, Cristy, Vesp, Apis, Formica, Mutilla.

6. Diptera

Genera: Oestrus, Tipula, Musco, Tabanus, Culex, Empus, Conops, Asilus, Bombayus, Hippobosca.

7. Aptera

Genera: (a) Pedilbus sex; capit a thorace discr. Lepisma, Podura, Termes, Pedilbus, Pulex. (b) Pedilbus 8-14; capit a thorace que unitis: Acras, Phalangium, Aranea, Scorpio, Cancer, Monomous, Oonius. (c) Pedilbus pluribus; capit a thorace discr.: Solenopera, Julus.

Class VI. Vermes.
Order 1. Intestina.

Genera: (a) Pertusa laterali poro: Lumbicia, Stipunculis, Fascio. (b) Imperforata poro laterali nullo: Gordius, Ascaris, Hirudo, Mynxe.

2. Mollusca

Genera: (a) Ore supero; basi se affigens: Actinia, Ascidia. (b) Ore antico; corpore pertuso laterali fora: Limax, Aplysia, Doris, Tellis. (c) Ore antico; corpore tentaculis antico cinto: Holothuria, Terellæ. (d) Ore antico; corpore brachiato: Triton, Sepia, Clf, Lernæa, Scyllæa. (e) Ore antico; corpore pedato: A. phrodita, Nereis. (f) Ore infero centrali: Medusa, Asteria, Echinus.

3. Testacea


4. Lithophyta

Genera: Tubipora, Madrepore, Millepora, Cellpora.

5. Zoophyta


The characters of the six classes are thus given by Linnaeus:—

Cor biloculare, biuratum; viviparis, Mammalibus.
Cor uniloculare, uniuratum; oviparis, Arbus.
Cor uniloculare, uniuratum; pulmones abortar. Amphi. brachii externs, Piscibus.
Cor uniloculare, inauritum; antennatis, Insectis.
Sanie frigid, albidæ; tentaculatis, Verminibus.

The anatomical error in reference to the auricles of Reptiles and Batrachians on the part of Linnaeus is extremely interesting, since it shows to what an extent the most patent facts may escape the observation of even the greatest observers, and what an amount of repeated dissection and unprejudiced study is necessary before the structure of the commonest animals has become known.

Between Linnaeus and Cuvier there are no very great names; but under the stimulus given by the admirable method and system of Linnaeus observation and description from new forms of all parts from the world, both recent and fossil, accumulated. We can only cite the names of Charles Bonnet (1720-1793), the entomologist, who described the reproduction of Aphids; Banks and Solander, who accompanied Captain Cook on his first voyage (1768-1771); Thomas Pennant (1726-1798), the describer of the English fauna; Peter Simon Pallas (1741-1811), who especially extended the knowledge of the Linnaean Vermin, and under the patronage of the empress Catherine explored Russia and Siberia; De Geer (1720-1778), the entomologist; Lyonnet (1707-1759), the author of the monograph of the anatomy of the caterpillar of Cossus ignigillus; Cavolini (1756-1819), the Neapolitan and founder of Della Chieia (6, 1828); O. F. Müller (1730-1784), the describer of fresh-water Oligochaeta; Abraham Trembley (1700-1784), the student of Hydro; and O. F. Ledermüller (1719-1766), the inventor of the term Inse-}

Invertebrata.


Class I. Insumoria.

Orders: Nuda, Appendiculata.

Class II. Polypl. Orders: Clithium (Rotifera), Denudati (Hydroz), Vaginati (Animakozy and Polyzoa), Natantes (Crinoids).

Class III. Radiaria.

Orders: Mollia (Accelapha), Echinoderma (including Actinioidea).

Class IV. Tunicata.

Orders: Bothryolia, Ascidia.

Class V. Vermes.

Orders: Holos (Tape-Worms and Flukes), Rigidula (Nematoids), Hispidula (Naisy, &c.), Episoriae (Larvae, &c.).

2. Sensilis. Animals.

Class VI. Insecta (Hexapoda).

Orders: Apheria, Diptera, Hemipera, Lepidiperia, Neuroperia, Orthoptera, Coleoptera.

Class VII. Arachnida.

Orders: Antennal-Teachia (Sycanthura and Myriopoda), Exantennatal-Teachia, Exantennatal-Branchialia.

Class VIII. Crustacea.

Orders: Heterobranchia (Branchiopoda, Isopoda, Amphiopoda, Stomopoda), Hemobranchia (Decapoda).

Class IX. Cephalidea.

Orders: Apoda, Antennata, Sedoraria.

Class X. Cirripedia.

Orders: Sessilia, Pedunculata.

Class XI. Conchifera.

Orders: Dimyaria, Monomoria.

Class XII. Mollusca.

Orders: Pteropoda, Gastropoda, Trachelipoda, Cephalopoda, Heteropoda.

Vertebrata.


Class XIII. chorda.

Class XV. Birds.

Class XVI. Mammals.
The enumeration of orders above given will enable the reader to form some conception of the progress of knowledge relating to the lower forms of life during the fifty odd years which intervened between Linnaeus and Lamarck. The number of genera recognized by Lamarck is more than ten times as great as that recorded by Linnaeus.

We have mentioned Lamarck before his great contemporary Cuvier because, in spite of his valuable philosophical doctrine of development, he was, as compared with Cuvier and estimated as a systematic zoologist, a mere enlargement and logical outcome of Linnaeus.

The distinctive merit of G. L. Cuvier (1769-1832) is that he started a new view as to the relationship of animals, which he may be said in a large measure to have originated in his very fundamental researches. He opposed the scala naturae theory, and recognized four distinct and divergent branches or embranchements, as he called them, in each of which he arranged a certain number of the Linnaean classes, or similar classes. The embranchements were characterized each by a different type of anatomical structure. Cuvier thus laid the foundation of that branching tree-like arrangement of the classes and orders of animals now recognized as being the necessary result of attempts to represent what is practically a genealogical tree or pedigree. Apart from this, Cuvier was a keen-sighted and enthusiastic investigator of great skill and industry. Von Baer, astonishing how many good observers it requires to dissect and draw and record over and over again the structure of an animal before an appr imately correct account of it is obtained. Cuvier dissected many mollusces and other animals which had not previously been anatomized; of others he gave more correct accounts than had been given by earlier writers. Another special distinction of Cuvier is his remarkable work in comparing extinct with recent organisms, his descriptions of the fossil Mammalia of the Paris basin, and his general appreciation of the knowledge of recent animals, the relationships of extinct ones, as indicated by fragmentary remains.

It was in 1812 that Cuvier communicated to the Academy of Sciences of Paris his views on the classification of animals. He says—

"Si l'on considère le règne animal d'après les principes que nous venons de poser, en se débarrassant des préjugés établis sur les divisions, enfin aménées, en n'ayant égard qu'à l'organisation et à la nature des animaux, et non pas à leur grandeur, à leur utilité, au plus ou moins de connaissance que nous en avons, ni à toutes les autres circonstances accessoires, on trouvera qu'il existe quatre formes principales, quatre plans généraux, si l'on peut s'exprimer ainsi, d'après lesquels tous les animaux semblent avoir été modelés et dont les divisions ultérieures, de quelque titre que les naturalistes les aient décorées, ne sont que des modifications de logres, fondées sur l'adoption ou l'addition de quelques parties qui ne changent rien à l'essence du plan."

Cuvier's classification. His classification as finally elaborated in Le Règne Animal (Paris, 1829) is as follows:

First Branch. Animalia Vertebrata.

Class I. Mammalia.
Orders: Carnivora, Cetacea, Ruminantia, Artiodactyla, Rodentia, Chiroptera, Pinnipedia, Proboscidea, Primates.

Class II. Aves.
Orders: Passeres, Passeriformes, Galliformes, Galloidae, Palaeognathae, Ratitae.

Class III. Reptilia.
Orders: Crocodilia, Testudinaria, Sauria, Urodela, Chelonia, Testudinaria.

Class IV. Pisces.
Orders: (a) Osteichthyes, Actinopterygii, Sarcopterygii; (b) Osteichthyes, Agnathae, Chondrichthyes.


Class I. Cephalopoda.
Orders: Cephalopods, Nautili, Sepiolidae, Sepiidae, Octopoda, Argonautae, Conidae.

Class II. Pteropoda.
Orders: Pteropoda, Heteropoda, Clioneidae.

Class III. Gastropoda.
Orders: Pulmonata, Allostechna, Neobranchia, Prosobranchia, Clausilia, Scaphopoda, Scaphitacea.

Class IV. Acanthidea.

Class V. Brachiopoda.
Orders: Brachiopoda, Univalvia, Bivalvia.

Class VI. Cirripedia.

Third Branch. Animalia Articulata.

Class I. Annelidae.
Orders: Polychaeta, Clitellata, Capitulata.

Class II. Crustacea.
Orders: (a) Malacostraca: Decapoda, Stomatopoda, Amphipoda, Malacostraca, Isopoda; (b) Mecostomata: Branchiopoda, Pycnogonida, Trilobita.

Class III. Arachnidae.
Orders: (a) Arachnida, Opilionidae, Onychophora, Tardigrada, Chilopoda, Scalpulidae, Crustacea, Echinodermata, Talpidae.

Class IV. Insecta.
Orders: Tracheata, Homoptera, Hymenoptera, Diptera, Lepidoptera, Orthoptera.

Fourth Branch. Animalia Radiata.

Class I. Echinodermata.
Orders: Echinoidea, Asteroidea, Ophiuroidea, Echinoidea.

Class II. Intestinal Worms.
Orders: Nematoda, Trematoda, Cestoda.

Class III. Acelphata.
Orders: Ctenophora, Ctenophora, Hydrozoa.

Class IV. Polypii (including the Coelentera of later authorities and the Polyzoa).
Orders: Caryophyllida, Calostraca, Polyzoa.

Class V. Infusoria.
Orders: Radiata, Homoeoneura (this includes the Protozoa of recent writers and some Protophyta).

The leading idea of Cuvier, his four embranchements, was confirmed by the Russo-German naturalist Von Baer (1792-1870), who adopted Cuvier's divisions, speaking of them as the peripherical, the longitudinal, the massive, and the vertebral type. Von Baer, however, has added another to the history of zoology, being the first and most striking figure in the introduction of embryology into the consideration of the relations of animals to one another.

Cuvier may be regarded as the zoologist by whom anatomy was made the one important guide to the understanding of the relations of animals. But the belief, dating from Malpighi (1657) that there was but one class of structures in all animals, that of the body, was now regarded as the essential core to which they endeavoured to add for existing animal forms. The noble aim of F. W. J. Schelling, "das ganze System der Naturlehre von dem Gesetze der Schwere bis zu den Bildungstrieben der Organismus als ein organisches Ganze darzustellen," which has ultimately been realized through Darwin, was a general one among the scientific men of the year 1800. Lamarck accepted the development theory fully, and pushed his speculations far beyond the realm of fact. The more cautious Cuvier adopted a view of the relationships of animals which, whilst denying genetic connexion as the explanation, recognized an essential identity of structure in the principal parts of all animals. This identity was held to be due to an ultimate law of nature or the Creator's plan. The tracing out of this identity in diversity, whether regarded as evidence of blood-relationship or as a remarkable display of skill on the part of the Creator and the details whilst retaining the essential, came at this period a special pursuit, to which Goethe, the poet, who himself contributed importantly to it, gave the name morphology. C. F. Wolff, Goethe and Oken share the credit of having initiated these views, in regard especially to the structure of flowering plants and the Vertebrae skull. Cuvier's doctrine of four plans of structure was essentially a morphological one, and so was the single-scale doctrine of Buffon and Lamarck, to which it was opposed. Cuvier's morphological doctrine received its fullest development in the principle of the "correlation of parts," which he applied to paleontological investigation, namely that every animal is a definite whole, and that no part can be varied without entailing correlated and law-abiding variations in other parts, so that from a fragment it should be possible, had we a full knowledge of the laws of animal structure or morphology, to reconstruct the whole. Here Cuvier was imperfectly formulating, without recognizing the real physical basis of the phenomena, the results of the laws of heredity, which were subsequently investigated and brought to bear on the problems of animal structure by Darwin.

Sir Richard Owen (1804-1892) may be regarded as the foremost of Cuvier's disciples. Owen not only occupied himself with the dissection of rare animals, such as the Pearly Nautilus, Lingula, Limulus, Protocterus, Aptychus, &c., and with the description and reconstruction of extinct reptiles, birds and mammals—following the Cuvierian tradition—but gave precision and currency to the morphological doctrines which had taken their rise in the beginning of the century by...
the introduction of two terms, "homology" and "analogy," which were defined so as to express two different kinds of agreement in animal structures, which, owing to the want of such "counters of thought," had been hitherto continually confused. Homologous structures in any two animals compared were by Owen defined as structures performing similar functions, but not necessarily derived from the modification of one and the same part in the "plan" or "archetype" according to which the two animals compared were supposed to be constructed. Homologous structures are therefore generally derived in appearance and detail from one another, and though performing widely different functions, yet were capable of being shown by adequate study of a single form, whether isolated from the same part or organ of the "plan-form" or "archetype." It is not easy to exaggerate the service rendered by Owen to the study of zoology by the introduction of this apparently small piece of verbal mechanism; it takes place with the classificatory terms of Linnaeus. And, though the conceptions of "archetypal morphology," to which it had reference, are now abandoned in favour of a genetic morphology, yet we should remember, in estimating the value of this and of other speculative thoughts which have given place to new views in the history of science, the words of the great reformer himself. "Erroneous observations are in the highest degree injurious to the process of science, since they often persist for a long time. But erroneous theories, when they are supported by facts, do little harm, since every one takes a healthy pleasure in proving their falsity" (Darwin). Owen's definition of analogous structures as structures performing identical functions in different animals is now spoken of as "homogenetic" structures, the idea of community of representation in an archetype giving place to the present from which the single representative structure present in a common ancestor. Darwinian morphology has further rendered necessary the introduction of the terms "homoplasy" and "homoplastic" (E. Ray Lankester, in Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist. 1867) to express that close agreement in form which may be attained in the course of evolutionary changes by organs or parts in two animals which have been subjected to similar moulding conditions of the environment, but have not a close genetic community of origin. They account for their similarity in form and structure, although they have a certain identity in primitive quality which is accountable for the agreement of their response to similar moulding conditions.

The classification adopted by Owen in his lectures (1855) was not sufficiently comprehensive to indicate the progress of zoological knowledge between Owen's death and that date, but, such as it is, it is worth citing here.

**Province: Vertebrata (Myelencephala, Owen).**

**Provinces:**
- Mammalia, Aves, Reptilia, Pisces.

**Province: Articulata.**

- Classes: Archichord, Insecta (including Sub-Classes Myriapoda, Hexapoda), Crustacea (including Sub-Classes Entomorhiza, Malacostraca), Epiplora (Epiplotic Crustacea), Annelida (Chaetopoda and Leeches), Cephalopoda.

**Province: Mollusca.**

- Classes: Cephalopoda, Gastropoda, Pteropoda, Lamellibranchia, Brachipoda, Tunicata.

**Province: Articulata.**

- Sub-Province: Hydropoda.
- Sub-Province: Entozoa.
- Sub-Province: Radiaria.

**Sub-Provinces:**
- Cerebellum, Stereum.

**Sub-Provinces: Infusoria.**

- Classes: Rotifera, Polygastria (the Protozoa of recent authors).

The real centre of progress of systematic zoology was no longer in France nor with the disciples of Cuvier in England, but after his death moved to Germany. The wave of morphological speculation, with its outcome of new systems and new theories of classification (see Agassiz, Essay on Classification, 1850), which were as numerous as the professors of zoological science, was necessarily succeeded in the true progress of the science by a period of minuter study in which the microscope, the discovery of embryological histories, and the all-important cell-theory came to swell the stream of exact knowledge.

The greatest of all investigators of animal structure in the 19th century was Johann Muller (1801-1858), the successor in Germany of the anatomists Rathke (1793-1860) and Meckel (1781-1833). His true greatness can only be estimated by a consideration of the fact that he was a great teacher not only of human and comparative anatomy and zoology but also of physiology, and that nearly all the most distinguished German zoologists and physiologists of the period 1850 to 1870 were his pupils and acknowledged his leadership. The most striking feature about Johann Müller's work, apart from the comprehensiveness of his point of view, in which he contributed to the anatomical and morphological ideas of Cuvier, a consideration of physiology, embryology and microscopic structure, was the extraordinary accuracy, facility and completeness of his recorded observations. He could do more with a single specimen of a rare animal (e.g. in his memoir on Amphioxus, Berlin, 1844) in the way of making out its complete structure than the ablest of his contemporaries or successors could do with a plethora. His power of rapid and exhaustive observation and of accurate pictorial reproduction was phenomenal. His most important memoirs, besides that just mentioned, are those on the anatomy and classification of Fishes, on the Caecilians and on the developmental history of the Echinoderms.

A name which is apt to be forgotten in the period between Cuvier and Darwin, because its possessor occupied an isolated position in England and was not borne up by any great school or university, is that of John Vaughan Thompson (1779-1847), an army surgeon, who in 1816 became district medical inspector at Cork, and then took to the study of marine Intericrabela by the aid of the microscope. Thompson made great discoveries, which seem to have fallen in his way in the most natural and simple manner, but must be regarded as the outcome of extraordinary genius. He showed (1830) that the organisms like Flustra are not hydroid Polyps, but of a more complex structure resembling Mollusca, and he gave them the name Polyzoa. He discovered (1833) the Pentacrinus europeus, and showed that it was the larval form of the feather-star Antron (Comatula). He upset (1830) Cuvier's retention of the Cirripedes among Mollusca, and his subsequent treatment of them as an isolated class, by showing that they begin life as free-swimming Crustacea identical with the young forms of other Crustacea. Vaughan Thompson is a type of the marine zoologists, such as Dalvey, Michael Sars, P. J. Van Beneden, Claparéde, and Allman, who during the 19th century approached the study of the lower marine organisms in the same spirit as that in which Trembley and Schäffer in the 18th century, and Swammerdam in the 17th, gave themselves to the study of the minute fresh-water forms of animal life.

It is impossible to enumerate or to give due consideration to all the names in the army of anatomical and embryological students of the middle third of the 19th century whose labours bore fruit in the modification of zoological theories and in the building up of a true classification of animals. Their results are best summed up in the three schemes of classification which follow—those of Rudolph Leuckart (1832-1860), Henri Milne-Edwards (1800-1884), and T. H. Huxley (1825-1895), all of whom individually contributed very greatly by their special discoveries and researches to the increase of exact knowledge.

Contemporaneous with these were various schemes of classification which were based, not on a consideration of the entire structure of each animal, but on the variations of a single organ, or on the really non-significant fact of the structure of the egg. All such single-fact systems have proved to be anatomical from the true line of growth of the zoological system which was shaping itself year by year—unknown to those who so shaped it—as a genealogical tree. They were attempts to arrive at a true knowledge of the relationships of animals by "royal roads"; their followers were landed in barren wastes.

R. Leuckart's classification (Die Morphologie und Leuckart's die Vermöandtschaftsverhältnisse der Wirbellosen Thiere, Brunswick, 1848) is as follows:

**Type 1. Coelenterata.**

Class 1. Polyphe.

Orders: Anthoza and Cystoza.

II. Acalephie.

Orders: Discophora and Ctenophora.
### Type 2. Echinodermata
Class I. Pelmatozoa.
   - Orders: Cystidea and Crinoidea.
   - II. Actinidea.
     - Orders: Echinida and Asteroidea.
   - III. Scyphomedus.
     - Orders: Holothuriace and Siphonulida.

### Type 3. Vermes
Class I. Annelidaet.
   - Orders: Cestodes and Acanthacephali.
   - II. Apodotes.
     - Orders: Nemertini, Turbellarii, Trematosodes and Hirudineline.
   - III. Ciliata.
     - Orders: Bryoza and Rotifera.
   - IV. Annelides.
     - Orders: Nematoidea Lumbricini and Branchiata.

### Type 4. Arthropoda
Class I. Crustacea.
   - Orders: Entomostraca and Malaesostraca.
   - II. Insecta.
     - Orders: Myriapoda, Arachnida (Acera, Latre.), and Hexapoda.

### Type 5. Mollusca
Class I. Tunicata.
   - Orders: Ascidiae and Salpae.
   - II. Acephala.
     - Orders: Lamellibranchiate and Brachiopoda.
   - III. Gastropoda.
     - Orders: Heterobranchia, Dermatobranchia, Heteropoda, Ctenobranchia, Pulmonata, and Cyclobranchia.
   - IV. Cephalopoda.

### Type 6. Vertebrata.
   - Not specially dealt with.

#### Milne-Edwards’s classification
- The classification given by Henri Milne-Edwards (Cours Elémentaire d’Histoire Naturelle, Paris, 1855) is as follows:

### Branch I. Osteozaoria or Vertebrata
#### Sub-Branch 1. Allantodontia.
   - Class I. Mammalia.
     - Orders: (a) Monodelphia: Bimana, Quadrumana, Chiroptera, Insectoidea, Rodentia, Edentata, Carnivora, Amphibia, Pachyderma, Ruminantia, Cetacea; (b) Didelphia: Marsupialia, Monotremata.
   - II. Birds.
     - Orders: Rapaces, Passeres, Scansores, Gallinace, Gruelles, Palmipedes.
   - III. Reptiles.
     - Orders: Chelonians, Sauria, Ophidia.

#### Sub-Branch 2. Anallantoisodonia.
   - Class I. Batrachians.
     - Orders: Amura, Urodela, Perennibranchia, Cacilda.
   - II. Fishes.
     - Section 1. Ossei.
     - Section 2. Chondropterygii.
       - Orders: Sturgeon, Sclarchii, Cyclostomi.

### Branch II. Entomozaoria or Annelata
#### Sub-Branch 1. Arthropoda.
   - Class I. Insecta.
   - II. Myriapoda.
     - Orders: Chilognatha and Chilopoda.
   - III. Arachnida.
     - Orders: Pulmonaria and Trachearia.
   - IV. Crustacea.
     - Section 1. Podophthalmia.
       - Orders: Decapoda and Stomatopoda.
     - Section 2. Euproochothelium.
       - Orders: Amphipoda, Leptomisopoda and Isopoda.
     - Section 3. Branchiopoda.
       - Orders: Ostracoda, Phyllopoda and Trilobitae.
     - Section 4. Entomostraca.
       - Orders: Copepoda, Cladocera, Siphonosta, Lernaeida, Cirripedia.
     - Section 5. Xiphosura.

(The orders of the classes which follow are not given in the work quoted.)

### Branch III. Malacozaoria or Mollusca
#### Sub-Branch 1. Mollusca proper.
   - Class I. Cephalopoda.
     - II. Pteropoda.
   - Sub-Branch 2. Molluscoidea.
     - Class I. Tunicata.

#### Branch IV. Zoophytes
#### Sub-Branch 1. Radiaaria.
   - Class I. Echinodermata.
     - II. Acalephes.
   - Sub-Branch 2. Sarcidaria.
     - Class I. Infusoria.

In England T. H. Huxley adopted in his lectures (1866) a classification which was in many respects similar to both of the foregoing, but embodied improvements of his own. It is as follows:

#### Sub-Kingdom I. Protozoa
   - Classes: Rhizopoda, Gregarina, Radiolaria, Spongida.

#### Sub-Kingdom II. Infusoria
   - Sub-Kingdom III. Coelenterata.
     - Classes: Hydrozoa, Anthozoa.
   - Sub-Kingdom IV. Annuolida.
     - Classes: Scolcidia, Echinodermata.
   - Sub-Kingdom V. Anullosa.
     - Classes: Crustacea, Arachnida, Myriapoda, Insecta, Chelognatha, Annelida.
   - Sub-Kingdom VI. Molluscoidea.
     - Classes: Polyzoa, Brachiopoda, Tunicata.
   - Sub-Kingdom VII. Mollusca.
     - Classes: Lamellibranchiate, Branchiogastropoda, Pulmo-gastropoda, Pteropoda, Cephalopoda.

#### Sub-Kingdom VIII. Vertebrata.
   - Classes: Pisces, Amphibia, Reptilia, Aves, Mammalia.

We now arrive at the period when the doctrine of organic evolution was established by Darwin, and when naturalists, being convinced by him as they had not been by the transmutationists of fifty years’ earlier date, were compelled to take an entirely new view of the significance of all attempts at framing a “natural” classification.

Many zoologists—prominent among them in Great Britain being Huxley—had been repelled by the airy fancies and assumptions of the “philosophical” morphologists. The efforts of the best minds in zoology had been directed for thirty years or more to ascertaining with increased accuracy and minuteness the structure, microscopic and gross, of all possible forms of animals, and not only of the adult structure but of the steps of development of that structure in the growth of each kind of organism from the egg to maturity. Putting aside fantastic theories, these observers endeavoured to give in their classifications a strictly objective representation of the facts of animal structure and of the structural relationships of animals to one another capable of demonstration. The groups within groups adopted for this purpose were necessarily wanting in symmetry: the whole system presented a strangely irregular character. From time to time efforts were made by those who believed that the Creator must have followed a symmetrical system in his production of animals to force one or other artificial, neatly balanced scheme of classification upon the zoological world. The last of these was that of Louis Agassiz (1807–1873), who, whilst surveying all previous classifications, propounded a scheme of his own (Essay on Classification, 1859), in which, as well as in the criticisms he applies to other systems, the leading notion is that sub-kings, classes, orders and families have a real existence, and that it is possible to ascertain and distinguish characters which are of class value, others which are only of ordinal value, and so on, so that the classes of one sub-kingdom should on paper, and in nature actually do, correspond in relative value to those of another sub-kingdom, and the orders of any one class similarly should be so taken as to be of equal

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**Note:**

The classification is based on evolutionary theories and naturalistic principles. It reflects the efforts of 19th-century zoologists to classify organisms based on their structural and evolutionary relationships, aiming for a more objective and natural representation of the diversity of life. The approach contrasts with earlier classifications that were often artificial and based on superficial similarities rather than evolutionary history. The classification aims at reflecting the evolutionary history of life, grouping organisms into categories that correspond to their evolutionary lineages and relationships. This approach is foundational to modern classification systems in zoology. 

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**Reference:**

Huxley’s classification is mentioned as an example of a classification approach that was more focused on natural evolutionary relationships, emphasizing the systematization of life based on common ancestry and evolutionary history. Huxley’s classification was developed in the context of the 19th-century debates on evolution and classification, offering a more systematic approach to grouping organisms than some of his contemporaries. The details of Huxley’s classification are not provided here, but it is noted as an example of the evolution of classification methods, moving towards a more naturalistic and evolutionary understanding of biological diversity.
value with those of another class, and have been actually so created.

The whole position was changed by the acquirement, which became universal, in the doctrine of Darwin. That doctrine took some few years to produce its effect, but it became evident at once to those who accepted Darwinism that the natural classification of animals, after which collectors and anatomists, morphologists, paleontologists and embryologists had been so long striving, was nothing more nor less than a genealogical tree, with breaks and gaps of various extent in its record. The facts of the relationships of animals to one another, which had been regarded as the outcome of the inscrutable laws of the zoologists and gibbly explained by the transcendental morphologists, were amongst the most powerful arguments in support of Darwin's theory, since they, together with all other vital phenomena, received a sufficient explanation through it. It is to be noted that, whilst the zoological system took the form of a genealogical tree, with main stem and numerous diverging branches, the actual form of that tree, its limitation to a certain number of branches corresponding to a limited number of divergences in structure, came to be regarded as the necessary consequence of the operation of the physico-chemical phenomena of the universe, and it was recognized that the ultimate explanation of that limitation is to be found only in the constitution of matter itself.

The first naturalist to put into practical form the consequences of the new theory, in so far as it affected zoological classification, was Ernst Haeckel of Jena (b. 1834), who in 1866, seven years after the publication of Darwin's *Origin of Species*, published his suggestive *Generelle Morphologie*. Haeckel introduced into classification a number of terms intended to indicate the branching of a genealogical tree. The whole "system" or scheme of classification was termed a genealogical tree (Stammbaum); the main branches were termed "phyla," their ramifications "sub-phyla"; the great branches of the sub-phyla were termed "cladi," and the "cladi" divided into "classes," these into sub-classes, these into into orders, families, genera, species. Additional branching could be indicated by similar terms where necessary. There was no attempt in Haeckel's use of these terms to make them exactly or more precisely applicable in biological terms than the traditional arrangement, which at that time was merely futile and unimportant where the purpose was the exhibition of lines of descent, and where no natural equality of groups was to be expected *ex hypothesi*. Haeckel's classification of 1866 was only a first attempt. In the edition of the *Natürliche Schöpfungsgeschichte* published in 1868 he made a great advance in his genealogical classification, since he now introduced the results of the extraordinary activity in the study of embryology which followed on the publication of the *Origin of Species*.

The pre-Darwinian systematists since the time of Von Baer had attached very great importance to embryological facts, holding that the stages in an animal's development were of classic significance of its true nature and structure. Von Baer had gained unanimous support for his dictum, "Die Entwickelungsgeschichte ist der wahre Lichtträger für Untersuchungen über organischer Körper." Thus J. Müller's studies on the larval forms of Echinoderms and the discoveries of Vaughan Thompson were appreciated. But it was only after Darwin that the cell-theory of Schwann was extended to the embryology of the animal kingdom generally, and that of Asciidians and Amphioxus (1866), who really made knowledge of the way in which the millions of cells of which its body is composed take their origin by fission from a smaller number of cells, and the other from the single egg, such a fundamental break in zoologists see that a strict and complete embryological anatomy of animals was as necessary and feasible a factor in the comprehension of their relationships as at the beginning of the century the coarse anatomy had been shown to be by Cuvier. Kovalevsky's work appeared between the dates of the *Generelle Morphologie* and the

Zoology

**Schöpfungsgeschichte.** Haeckel himself, with his pupil Mikhail-Maclay, had in the meantime made studies on the growth from the egg of Sponges—studies which resulted in the complete separation of the unicellular or equinucleated *Protocorpus* from the Sponges, hitherto confused with them. It is this introduction of the consideration of cell-structure and cell-development which, subsequently to the establishment of Darwinism, has most profoundly modified the views of systematists, and led to its conjunction with the biological doctrine to the greatest activity in research—an activity which culminated in the work (1873-1882) of F. M. Balfour, and produced the profoundest modifications in classification.

Haeckel's second pedigree is as follows:

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blastularia.</td>
<td>Haeckel's 1868 arrangement.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spongial.</td>
<td>Physarum.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Acoelom.</td>
<td>Nematodermatina.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Echinoderm.</td>
<td>Gephyraea.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mollusca.</td>
<td>Bryoza.</td>
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<td>Echinoderm.</td>
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<td>Annelida.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Acarina.</td>
<td>Echinoderm.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Asterrida.</td>
<td>Asterrida.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cobrobrachia.</td>
<td>Arachnida.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Larvobrachia.</td>
<td>Myriopoda.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Echinozoa.</td>
<td>Insecta.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Echinoderm.</td>
<td>Lepidoptera.</td>
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<td>Acrania.</td>
<td>Cyclostoma.</td>
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<td>Monorrhina.</td>
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<td>Achni.</td>
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<td>Anamnia.</td>
<td>Halisauria.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Anostra.</td>
<td>Amphibia.</td>
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In representing pictorially the groups of the animal kingdom as the branches of a tree, it becomes obvious that a distinction may be drawn, not merely between the individual main branches, but further as to the level at which they are given off from the main stem, so that one branch or set of branches may be marked off as belonging to an earlier or lower level than another set of branches; and the same plan may be adopted with regard to the cladcs, classes and smaller branches. The term "grade" was introduced by Ray Lankester ("Notes on Embryology and Classification," in *Quart. Journ. Micr. Sci.*, 1877), to indicate this giving off of branches at a higher or lower, i.e. a later or earlier, level of a main stem.1 The mechanism for the statement of the genealogical relationships of the groups of the animal kingdom was thus completed. Renewed study of every group was the result of the acceptance of the genealogical idea and of the recognition of the importance

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1 Sir Edwin Ray Lankester (b. 1847) was the eldest son of Edwin Lankester (1814-1874), a physician and naturalist (F.R.S. 1845), who became well known as a scientific writer and lecturer, editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science* from 1853 to 1871, and in succession to Thomas Walker, coroner for Central Middlesex. Educated at St Paul's and both at Downing College, Cambridge, and Christ Church, Oxford. E. R. Lankester obtained the Radcliffe Travelling Fellowship at Oxford in 1870, and became fellow and lecturer at Exeter College in 1874. To 1890 he was professor of zoology and comparative anatomy at University College, London; and from 1891 to 1898 Linacre professor of comparative anatomy at Oxford. From 1898 to 1907 he was director of the Natural History Department of the British Museum. He was made K.C.B. in 1907. [Ed. E. B].
of cellular embryology. On the one hand, the true method of arriving at a knowledge of the genealogical tree was recognized as lying chiefly in attacking the problem of the genealogical relationships of the smallest twigs of the tree, and proceeding from them to the larger branches. Special studies of small families or orders of animals with this object in view were taken in hand by many zoologists. On the other hand, a survey of the facts of cellular embryology which were accumulated in regard to a variety of classes within a few years of Kovalevsky's work led to a generalization, independently arrived at by Haeckel and Lankester; to the effect that the post-graion of animals may be distinguished, the Protozoa or Plasmodia, which consists either of single cells or colonies of equiform cells, and a higher grade, the Metazoa or Enteropoda, in which the egg-cell by "cell division" gives rise to two layers of cells, the endoderm and the ectoderm, surrounding a primitive digestive chamber, the archenteron. Of these latter, two grades were further distinguished by Lankester—those which remain possessed of a single archenteric cavity and of two primary cell-layers (the Coelentera or Diploblastica), and those which by rifting off the archenteron give rise to two cavities, the coelom or body-cavity and the metenteron or gut (Coelomata or Triploblastica). To the primitive two-cell-layered form, the hypothetical ancestor of all Metazoa or Enteropoda, Haeckel gave the name Gastraea; the embryonic form which represents in the individual growth from the egg this ancestral condition he called a "gastrula." The term "diblastula" was subsequently adopted in England for the gastrula of Haeckel. The tracing of the exact mode of development, cell by cell, of the diblastula, the coelom, and the various tissues of examples of all classes of animals was in later years pursued with immense activity and increasing instrumental facilities.

Two names in connexion with post-Darwinian taxonomy and the ideas connected with it require brief mention here. Fritz Müller, by his studies on Crustacea (Für Darwin, 1864), showed the way in which genealogical theory may be applied to the minute study of a limited group. He is also responsible for the formulation of an important principle, called by Haeckel "biogenetic fundamental law," viz. that an animal in its growth from the egg to the adult condition tends to pass through a series of stages which are recapitulative of the stages through which its ancestry has passed, in the historical development of the species from a primitive form; or, more shortly, that the development of the individual (ontogeny) is an epitome of the development of the race (phylogeny). Pre-Darwinian zoologists had been aware of the class of facts thus interpreted by Fritz Müller, but the authoritative view on the subject had been that there is a parallelism between (a) the series of forms which occur in individual development, (b) the series of existing forms from lower to higher, and (c) the series of forms which succeed one another in the strata of the earth's crust, whilst an explanation of this parallelism was either not attempted, or was illusively offered in the shape of a doctrine of harmony of plan in creation. It was the application of Fritz Müller's law of recapitulation which gave the chief stimulus to embryological investigations between 1865 and 1890; and, though it is now recognized that "recapitulation" is vastly and bewilderingly modified by special adaptations in every case, yet the principle has served, and still serves, as a guide of great value.

Another important factor in the present condition of zoological knowledge as represented by classification is the doctrine of degeneration propounded by Anton Dahrn. Lamark believed in a single progressive series of forms, whilst Cuvier introduced the conception of branches. The first post-Darwinian systematists naturally and without reflexion accepted the idea that existing simpler forms represent stages in the gradual progress of development—are in fact survivors from past ages which have retained the exact grade of development which their ancestors had reached in past ages. The assumption made was that (with the rare exception of parasites) all the change of structure through which the successive generations of animals have passed has been one of progressive elaboration. It is Dahrn's merit to have pointed out\(^1\) that this assumption is not warranted, and that degeneration or progressive simplification of structure may have, and in many lines certainly has, taken place, as well as progressive elaboration and in other cases continuous maintenance of the status quo. The introduction of this conception necessarily had a most important effect in the attempt to unravel the genealogical affinities of animals. It renders the task a more complicated one; at the same time it removes some serious difficulties and throws a flood of light on every group of the animal kingdom.

One result of the introduction of the new conceptions dating from Darwin was a healthy reaction from that attitude of mind which led to the regarding of the classes and orders recognized by authoritative zoologists as sacred institutions which were beyond the criticism of ordinary men. That state of mind was due to the fact that the groupings so recognized did not profess to be simply the result of scientific reasoning, but were necessarily regarded as the expressions of the "insight" of some more or less gifted persons into a plan or system which had been arbitrarily chosen by the Creator. Consequently there was a tinge of theological dogmatism about the whole matter.

To deny the Linnaean, or later the Cuvierian, classes was very much like denying the Mosaic cosmogony. But systematic zoology is now entirely free from any such prejudices, and the Linnaean taint which is apparent even in Haeckel and Gegenbaur may be considered as finally expunged.

There are, and probably always will be, differences of opinion as to the exact way in which the various kinds of animals may be divided into groups and those groups arranged in such an order as will best exhibit their probable genealogical relationships. The main divisions which, writing in 1910, the present writer prefers, are those adopted in his Treatise on Zoology (Part II. ch. ii.) except that Phylum 17, Diplocordata (a name doubtfully applicable to Phoronis) is replaced by Podaxonia, a term employed by Lankester in the 9th edition of this encyclopedia and now used to include a number of groups of doubtful but possible affinity. The terms used for indicating groups are "Phylum" for the large diverging branches of the genealogical tree as introduced by Haeckel, each Phylum bears secondary branches which are termed "classes," classes again branch or divide into orders, orders into families, families into genera, genera into species. The general purpose is to give something like an equivalence of importance to divisions or branches indicated by the same term, but it is not intended to imply that every phylum has the

\(^1\) Ursprung der Wirbeltiere (Leipzig, 1875); and Lankester, Degeneration (London, 1880).
same range and distinctive character as every other, nor to make such a proposition about classes, orders, families and genera. Where a further subdivision is desirable without descending to the next lower term of grouping, the prefix "sub" is made use of, so that a class may be divided first of all into subclasses each of which is divided into orders, and an order into sub-orders each of which bears a group of families. The term "grade" is also made use of for the purpose of indicating the conclusion that certain branches on a larger or smaller stem of the genealogical tree have been given off at an earlier period in the history of the evolution in question than have others marked off as forming a higher grade. Thus, to begin with, the animal pedigree is divided into two very distinct grades, the Protozoa and the Metazoan. The Metazoan form two main branches; one, Parazoa, is but a small unproductive stock comprising only the Phylum Porifera or Sponges; the other, the great stem of the animal series Enterozoa, gives rise to a large number of diverging Phyla which it is necessary to assign to two levels or grades—a lower, Enterocoeola (often called Coelentera), and a higher, Coelomocoeola (often called Coelomata). These relations are exhibited by the following two following diagrams.

**Diagram showing the primary grades and branches of the Animal Pedigree.**

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**Branch A. ENTEROCOEOLA.**

**Branch B. ENTEROCOEOLA.**

Diagram to show the division of the great branch Enterozoza into two grades and the Phyla given off theretofrom.

The Phylum Vertebrata in the above scheme branches into the sub-phyla Hemichorda, Urochorda, Cephalochorda and Crania. The Phylum Appendiculata similarly branches into sub-phyla, viz. the Rotifera, the Chaetopoda and the Arthropoda. Certain additional small groups should probably be recognized as independent lines of descent or phyla, but their relationships are obscure—they are the Mesozoa, the Polyzoa, the Acanthocephala and the Gastrotricha.

We may now enumerate these various large groups in tabular form.

**BIONTA—PHYTA, ANIMALIA.**

**Grade A. Protozoa (various groups included).**

**Grade B. Metazoa.**

Branch a. Parazoa.

Phylum 1. Porifera.

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**Branch b. Enterozoa.**

**Grade 1. ENTEROCOEOLA.**

**Phylum 2. HYDROMEDUSA.**

3. SCYPHOMEDUSA.

4. ANTHOZOA.

5. CTENOPHORA.

**Grade 2. COELOMOCOEOLA.**

**Phylum 6. PLATYELMIA.**

7. NEMATODIA.

8. CHAETOGNATHIA.

9. NEUMERINA.

10. MOLLUSCA.

11. APENDICULATA.

Sub-phyla: Rotifera, Chaetopoda, Arthropoda.

12. ECHINODERMATA.

13. VERTEBRATA.

Sub-phyla: Hemichorda, Urochorda, Cephalochorda, Craniana.

14. MESOZOA.

15. POLYZOA.

16. ACANTHOCEFALIA.

17. PODAXONIA.

18. GASTROTRICHA.

A statement may now be given of the classes and orders in each group, as recognized by the writers of the various special zoological articles in the Eleventh Edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica. These subdivisions of the larger groups are not necessarily those theoretically approved by the present writer, but they have the valuable sanction of the individual experts who have given special attention to different portions of the vast field represented by the animal kingdom.^

**Classification adopted in the present work.**

**Grade A. Protozoa (q.v.).**

**Phylum 1. Sarcodina (q.v.).**

**Class 1. PROTHEMYS (q.v.).**

Class 2. RHIZOPODA (q.v.).

Orders: Lobosa, Filosa.

Class 3. HELIOZOA (q.v.).

Class 4. FORAMINIFERA (q.v.).


Insetae sedis: Xenophyophoridae (see Foraminitera).

Class 5. Radiolaria.

Orders: Spumellaria (= Periploca), Acantharia (= Actinocyclus), Nassellaria (= Monoploca), Phaeodaria (= Trypinia).

Class 6. LABYRINTHULIDEA (q.v.).

No Orders.

Class 7. MYXOMYCETES.

No Orders.

Phylum 2. Mastigophora (q.v.).

Class 1. FLAGELLATA (q.v.).

Sub-class A. Rhizoflagellata.

Orders: Holomastigatae, Rhiomatosaiga.

Sub-class B. Euflagellata.

Orders: Protomasiga, Chrysonomades, Cryptomonadaceae, Chloromonadaceae, Euglenaceae, Volvocaceae.

Class 2. DINOFLAGELLATA.

Orders: Gymnamidae, Prorocentrae, Peridiniae.

No Orders.

Phylum 3. Sporozoa (q.v.).

Class 1. ENDOZOA (q.v.).

Orders: Myxosporidia, Actinomyci, Sarcomastigophora.

Class 2. ECTOSPOREA (q.v.).

Orders: Gregarina (see Gregarinae), Coccidia (q.v.), Hymenosporidia (q.v.).

Phylum 4. Infusoria (q.v.).

Class 1. CILIATA.

Orders: Gymnosophistidae, Trichostomatidae, Aspirotrichidae, Sirotrichidae, Heterotrichidae, Oligotrichidae, Hypotrichidae, Peritrichidae.

Class 2. Suctoria.

No Orders.

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1 It is to be noted that the terms used for designating categories in the classification are not always identical in this summary and separate articles, as authors differ as to the use of these.
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<tr>
<td>Sub-class 6</td>
<td>Cumacea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orders:</td>
<td>Tanaidacea, Cumacea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade A</td>
<td>Trilobita (see Trilobite).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Orders not determined)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade B</td>
<td>Homomorpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-class 1</td>
<td>Pantostraca.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orders:</td>
<td>Nymphenomorpha, Ascorhynchnomorpha, Pyrigneomorpha.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-class 2</td>
<td>Euarachna.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade a</td>
<td>Dolerbranchia (or Hydrobranchia).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orders:</td>
<td>Xiphosura, Giganthostraca.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Grade b. Embodothricha (or Aeropoeustea).
Section. Pectinifera.
Order: Scorpionidea.
Section. Epecinifera.
Order: Pediopelopa, Araneae, Palpigradi, Solitaires, Tendacorpon, Podogama, Opiliones, Rhynchosori (Acari).

Class 3. Tardigrada (g.v.).
No Orders.

Class 4. Lingualata (see Pentastomodan).
No Orders.

Phylum 12. Echinoderm (see Echinozoa).
Branch A. Pelmatozoa.
Class 1. Cystidea.
Orders: Amphioidae, Carpoidea, Rhabmifera, Aponeura, Diplopoidea.
Class 2. Blastidea.
Divisions: Proteoblastidea, Eublastidea.
No Orders.

Class 3. Crinoidea.
Orders: Monocelis Inadunata, Adunata, Monocyclus Camerata, Dicyclus Inadunata, Flexibilia, Dicyclus Camerata.
Class 4. Echinoidea.
No Orders.

Branch B. Eleutherotroza.
Class 1. Holothuroidea.
Orders: Aspidochirole, Dendrochirole.

Class 2. Stellariformia.
Sub-class 1. Asteridea.
Orders: Phaneropoma, Cryptopoma.
Sub-class 2. Ophiurida.
Orders: Streptophiurias, Zygoophiurias, Cladophiurias.

Class 3. Echinoidea.
Orders: Bothriocorida, Melonimida, Cystoidea, Cidarida, Diademaidea, Holostei, Spatangoidea, Clypeasteroids.

Phylum 13. Vertebrata (g.v).
Sub-phylum a. Hemichordata (g.v.).
Class. Enteropneusta (see Balanoglossus).
No Orders.

Sub-phylum b. Urochordata.
Class. Tunicata (g.v.).
Orders: Larvae, Thalaeae (Sub-Orders: Cyclo- myaria, Hemimyaria), Ascidiae (Sub-orders: Ascidiae Simplices, Ascidiae Compositae, Ascidiae Luciae).

Sub-class b. Cephalochorda (see Amphioxus).
Class. Cephalochorda.
No Orders.

Sub-phylum d. Chordata.
Class 1. Pisces (see Ichthyology).
Sub-class 1. Cyclostomata (g.v.).
Orders: Myxineformes (or Hyperoteto), Petromyzonides (or Hyoeropote).
Sub-class 2. Selachia or Elasmobranchi (see Seal- chians).
Orders: Pleuronectygi, Acanthodii, Ichthyotomi, Plagostomi, Holocephali.
Sub-class 3. Teleostoma.
Orders: Canoidea, Crossopterygii, Dipnoi, Te- latoii.

Class 2. Batrachia (g.v.).
Orders: Sphenobaia, Apoda (or Peromela), Caudata (or Urodela), Echidna (or Anura).

Class 3. Reptilia (see Reptiles).
Orders: Ammochordata, Chelonia, Samopterygia, Ichthyopterygia, Rhynchopterygia, Dinosauria, Cro- codilia, Ornithosaurs, Synapsa.

Class 4. Aves (see Bird and Ornithology).
Sub-class 1. Archacornithes.
No Orders.

Sub-class 2. Neornithes.
Division 1. Ratitea.
Orders: Struthiones, Rhei, Casuarinae, Apteryges, Dinornithes, Aepyornithes.
Division 2. Ondotolae.
No Orders.

Division 3. Carinatae.
Ardeiformes (Sub-orders: Paleomedii, Anserae).
Falconiformes (Sub-orders: Catharinae, Accipitres, Tinamiformes, Galliformes (Sub-orders: Meleagrii, Turdus, Galli, Dendropteris, Columbae), Cuculiformes (Sub-orders: Cuculac, Psitacae). Coraciiformes (Sub-orders: Cor- aci, Strigiformes, Cypodi, Colii, Tro- genes, Pici), Passeriformes (Sub-orders: Passeres, Pycroptera, Passeres, Diactylostyloidea).

Class 4. Mammalia (g.v.).
Sub-class i. Monotrema (g.v.) (Protoderm). No Orders.
Sub-class 2. Marsupialia (g.v.) (Metatheria).
One Order: Marsupialia.
Sub-orders: Polyprotodactyla, Pseuduciberculata, Diurodonta.
Sub-class 3. Placentalia (Monodelphia, q.v.; or Eutheria).
Orders: Insectivora, Chiroptera, Dermoptera, Eden- tata (Sub-orders: Xenarthra, Pholidota, Tubulidentata), Rodentia (Sub-orders: Duplicidentata, Sim- plicidentata), Tadodontina, Carnivora (Sub-orders: Fissipedia, Pinnipedia, Cetacea (Sub- orders: Archaeoceti, Odontoceti, Mysticoceti), Sirenia, Ungulata (Sub-orders: Proboscidea, Hypacoceti, Baryoceto, Baryoceto, Amblyoceto, Lioptera, Insectivora, Condylartha, Perissodactyla, Artiodactyla), Primates (Sub-orders: Pro- simiae, Anthropoidea).

Phylum 14. Mesozoa (g.v.).
Class 1. Rhabdomozoa.
No Orders.

Class 2. Ostheoctecta.
No Orders.

Phylum 15. Polyzoa (g.v.).
Class 1. Entofocta.
No Orders.

Class 2. Ectoprocta.
Orders: Gymnolaemata (Sub-orders: Tryptomatoni, Cryptocelotomi, Cyclodactyla, Cheilostomata), Physocyctida (g.v.).

Phylum 16. Acanthocephala (g.v.).
Class. Acanthocephala.
No Orders.

Phylum 17. Podazoa.
Class 1. Spineculodea (g.v.).
No Orders.

Class 2. Priapulidea (g.v.).
No Orders.

Class 3. Phoronidea (g.v).
No Orders.

Class 4. Priobrachia (g.v).
No Orders.

Class 5. Brachipoda (g.v).
No Orders.

Sub-class 2. Testicardiidae (Articulata).
Orders: Protaceata, Telotremata.

Phylum 18. gastrotrecha (g.v).
Class. Gastrotrecha.
Sub-orders: Ichthyotina, Cepodina. (Possibly Kin- rhynca (g.v) with only Echinoderes to be placed here)."

GENERAL TENDENCIES SINCE DARWIN

Darwin may be said to have founded the science of taxonomy, at the same time to have given new stimulation and new direction to morphology, physiology, and plasmology, by uniting them as contributing parts to one comprehensive biological doctrine—the doctrine of organic evolution—itself but a part of the wider doctrine of universal evolution based on the laws of physics and chemistry. The immediate result was, as pointed out above, a reconstruction of the classification of animals upon a genealogical basis, and an investigation of the individual development of animals in relation to the steps of their gradual building up by cell-division, with a view to obtaining evidence of their genetic relationships. On the other hand, the studies which occupied Darwin himself so largely subsequently to the publication of "The Origin of Species," viz. the explanation of animal form (and vegetable) mechanism, colouring, habits, &c., as advantageous to the species or to its ancestors, are only gradually being carried further. The most important work in this direction has been done by Fritz Müller (Für Darwin), by Herman Müller (Fertilisation of Plants by Insects).
by August Weismann (memoirs translated by Meldola) by Edward B. Poulton (see his addresses and memoirs published in the Transactions of the Entomological Society and elsewhere), and by Abbot Thayer (Concealing Coloration in the Animal Kingdom, Macmillan & Co. 1910). In the branch of bionomics, however, concerned with the laws of variation and heredity (thromatolog), there has been considerable progress. In the first place, the continued study of human population has thrown additional light on some of the questions involved, whilst the progress of microscopical research has given us a clear foundation as to the structural facts connected with the origin of the egg-cell and sperm-cell and the process of fertilization.

Great attention has been given lately to the important experiments upon the results of hybridizing certain cultivated varieties of plants which were published some time ago as 1865, by the Abbé Mendel, but failed to attract notice until thirty-five years later, sixteen years after his death (see Mendelism).

Mendel's object was to gain further knowledge as to the result of mixing by cross-fertilization or interbreeding two strains exhibiting diverse characters or structural features. The whole question is as to the mixture of characters in offspring thus produced was—and remains—very imperfectly observed. Mendel's observations consist in an attempt to throw light on the matter, and in the opinion of some biologists have led to the discovery of an important principle. Mendel made his chief experiments with cultivated varieties of the self-fertilizing edible pea. He selected a variety with one marked structural feature and crossed it with another variety in which that feature was absent. Instances of his selected varieties are the tall variety which he hybridized with a dwarf variety, a yellow-seeded variety which he hybridized with a green-seeded variety, and again a smooth-seeded variety which he hybridized with a wrinkled-seeded variety. In each set of experiments he concentrated his attention on the one character selected for observation. Having obtained a first hybrid generation, he allowed the hybrids to self-fertilize, and recorded the result in a large number of instances (a thousand or more) as to the number of individuals in the first, second, third and fourth generations in which the character selected for experiment made its appearance. In the first hybrid generation formed by the union of the reproductive germ of the positive variety (that possessing the structural character selected for observation) with that of the negative variety (that possessing the opposite characters to the positive variety), it is not surprising that all or nearly all the individuals were found to exhibit, as a result of the mixture, the positive character. In subsequent generations produced by self-fertilization of the hybrids it was found that the positive character was not present in all the individuals, but that a result was obtained showing that in the formation of the reproductive cells (ova and sperms) of the hybrid, half were endowed with the positive character and half with the negative. Consequently the result of the haphazard pairing of a large number of these two groups of reproductive cells was to yield, according to the regular law of chance combination, the proportion 1P, 2PN, 1NN, where P stands for the positive character and N for its absence or negative character—the positive character being accordingly present in three-fourths of the offspring and absent from one-fourth. The fact that in the formation of the reproductive cells of the hybrid generation the material which carries the positive quality is not subdivided so as to give a half-quantity to each reproductive cell, but on the contrary is apparently distributed as an undivided whole to half only of the reproductive cells and not at all to the remainder, is the important inference from Mendel's experiments. Whether this inference is applicable to other classes of cases than those studied by Mendel and his followers is a question which is still under investigation. The failure of the material carrying a positive character to divide so as to distribute itself among all the reproductive cells of a hybrid individual, and the limitation of its distribution to half only of those cells, must prevent the "swamping" of a newly appearing character in the course of the inter-breeding of those individuals possessed of the character with those which do not possess it. The tendency of the proportions in the offspring of 1P, 2PN, 1NN to give in a series of generations a regular reversion from the hybrid form PN to the two pure races, viz. the race with the positive character simply and the race with the total absence of it. It has been maintained that this tendency to a separation of the hybrid stock into its components must favour the persistence of a new character of large volume suddenly appearing in a stock, and the observations of Mendel have been held to favour in this way the views of those who hold that the variations upon which natural selection has acted in the production of new species are not small variations, but large "discontinuous." It does not, however, appear that "large" variations would thus be favoured any more than small ones, nor that the eliminating action of natural selection upon an unfavourable variation could be checked.

A good deal of confusion has arisen in the discussions of this latter topic, owing to defective nomenclature. By some writers the word "mutation," is applied only to large and suddenly appearing variations which are found to be capable of hereditary transmission, whilst the term "fluctuation" is applied to small variations whether capable of transmission or not. The term "inheritance" is apparently applied only to those small "acquired" variations due to the direct action of changes in food, moisture and other features of the environment. It is no discovery that this latter kind of variation is not hereditary, and it is not the fact that the small variations, to which Darwin attached great but not exclusive importance as the material upon which natural selection operates, are of this latter kind. The most instructive classification of the "variations" exhibited by fully formed organisms consists in the separation in the first place of those which arise from hereditary causes, innate, constitutional or germinal variations from those which arise merely from the operation of environmental laws, and the secondly, of such variations into those due to accident, and those which are due to selection. The former are "innate" variations, the latter are "superimposed" variations (so-called "acquired variations"). Both innate and superimposed variations are capable of division into those which are more and those which are less obvious to the human eye. Scarcely perceptible variations of the innate class are regularly and invariably present in every new generation of every species of higher organization. The process by which they are transmitted is not of much significance; their real importance in regard to the origin of new species depends upon whether they are of value to the organism and therefore capable of selection in the struggle for existence. An absolutely imperceptible physiological difference arising as a variation may be of selective value, and it may carry with it correlated variations which appeal to the human eye but are of no selective value themselves. The present writer has, for many years, urged the importance of this consideration.

The views of de Vries and others as to the importance of "sallatory variation," the soundness of which was still by no means generally accepted in 1910, may be gathered from the articles Mendelism and Variation. A due appreciation of the far-reaching results of "correlated variation" must, it appears, give a new and distinct explanation to the phenomena which are referred to as "large mutations," "discontinuous variation," and "sallatory evolution." Whatever value is to be attached to Mendel's observation of the breaking up of self-fertilized hybrids of cultivated varieties into the two pure kinds, viz., 1P, 2PN, 1NN, it cannot be considered as more than a contribution to the extensive investigation of heredity which still remains to be carried out. The analysis of the specific variations of organic form so as to determine what is really the nature and limitation of a single "character" or "individual variation," and whether two such true and strictly defined single variations of a single structural unit can actually "blend" when one is transmitted by the male parent and the other by the female.
parent, are matters which have yet to be determined. We do not yet know whether such absolute blending is possible or not, or whether all apparent blending is only a more or less minutely subdivided "mosaic" of non-combinable characters of the parents, in fact whether the combinations due to heredity in reproduction are ever analogous to chemical compounds or are always comparable to particulate mixtures. The attempt to connect Mendel's observation with the structure of the sperm-cells and egg-cells of plants and animals has already been made. The suggestion is obvious that the halving of the number of nuclear threads in the reproductive cells as compared with the number of those present in the ordinary cells of the tissues—a phenomenon which has now been demonstrated as universal—may be directly connected with the facts of segregation of hybrid characters observed by Mendel. The suggestion requires further experimental testing, for which the case of the parthenogenetic production of a portion of the offspring, in such insects as the bee, offers a valuable opportunity for research.

Another important development of Darwin's conclusions deserves special notice here, as it is the most distinct advance in the department of bionomics since Darwin's own writings, and at the same time touches questions of fundamental interest. The matter strictly relates to the consideration of the "causes of variation," and is as follows. The fact of variation is a familiar one. No two animals, even of the same brood, are alike: whilst exhibiting a close similarity to their parents, they yet present differences, sometimes very marked differences, from their parents and from one another. Lamarck had put forward the hypothesis that structural alterations transmitted by (that is to say, superimposed upon) a parent in the course of its life are transmitted to the offspring, and that, as these structural alterations are acquired by an animal or plant in consequence of the direct action of the environment, the offspring inheriting them would as a consequence not unfrequently start with a greater fitness for those conditions than its parents started with. In its turn, being operated upon by the conditions of life, it would acquire a greater development of the same modification, which it would in turn transmit to its offspring. In the course of several generations, Lamarck argued, a structural alteration concurring to such difference as we call "specific" might be thus acquired. The familiar illustration of Lamarck's hypothesis is that of the giraffe, whose long neck might, he suggested, have been acquired by the efforts of a primitively short-necked race of herbivores who stretched their necks to reach the foliage of trees in a land where grass was deficient, the effort producing a distinct elongation in the neck of each generation, which was then transmitted to the next. This process is known as "direct adaptation"; and there is no doubt that such structural adaptations are acquired by an animal in the course of its life, though such changes are strictly limited in degree and rare rather than frequent and obvious.

Whether such acquired characters can be transmitted to the next generation is a separate question. It was not proved by Lamarck that they can be, and, indeed, never has been proved by actual observation. Nevertheless it has been assumed, and also indirectly argued, that such acquired characters must be transmitted. Darwin's great merit was that he excluded from his theory of development any necessary assumption of the transmission of acquired characters. He pointed to the admitted fact of congenital variation and he showed that congenital variations are arbitrary and, so to speak, non-significant. Their causes are extremely difficult to trace in detail, but it appears that they are largely due to a "shaking up" of the living matter which constitutes the fertilized germ or embryo-cell, by the process of mixture in it of the substance of two cells—the germ-cell and the sperm-cell—derived from two different individuals. Other mechanical disturbances may assist in this production of congenital variation. Whatever its causes, Darwin showed that it is all-important. In some cases a pair of animals produce ten million offspring, and in such a number a large range of congenital variation is possible. Since on the average only two of the young survive in the struggle for existence to take the place of their two parents, there is a selection out of the ten million young, none of which are exactly alike, and the selection is determined in nature by the survival of the congenital variety which is fittest to the conditions of life. Hence there is no necessity for an assumption of the perpetuation of direct adaptations. The selection of the fortuitously (fortuitously, that is to say, so far as the conditions of survival are concerned) produced varieties is sufficient, since it is ascertained that they will tend to transmit those characters with which they themselves were born, although it is not ascertained that they could transmit characters acquired on the way through life. A simple illustration of the difference is this: a man born with four fingers only on his right hand is ascertained to be likely to transmit this peculiarity to some at least of his offspring; on the other hand, there is not the slightest ground for assuming that a man who has had one finger chopped off, or has even lost his arm at any period of his life, will produce offspring who are defective in the slightest degree in regard to fingers, hand or arm. Darwin himself, influenced by the consideration of certain classes of facts which seem to favour the Lamarckian hypothesis, was of the opinion that acquired characters are in some cases transmitted. It should be observed, however, that Darwin did not attribute an essential part to this Lamarckian hypothesis of the transmission of acquired characters, but expressly assigned to it an entirely subordinate importance.

The new attitude which has been taken since Darwin's writings on this question is to ask for evidence of the asserted transmission of acquired characters. It is held that the Darwinian doctrine of selection of fortuitous congenital variations is sufficient to account for all cases, that the Lamarckian hypothesis of transmission of acquired characters is not supported by experimental evidence, and that the latter should therefore be dismissed. Weismann has also ingeniously argued from the structure of the egg-cell and sperm-cell, and from the way in which, and the period at which, they are derived in the formation of the embryo from the egg—from the fertilized egg-cell—that it is impossible (it would better be to say highly improbable) that an alteration in parental structure could produce any exactly representative change in the substance of the germ or sperm-cells.

The one fact which the Lamarckians can produce in their favour is the account of experiments by Brown-Séquard, in which he produced epilepsy in guinea-pigs by section of the large nerves or spinal cord, and in the course of which he was led to believe that in a few rare instances the artificially produced epilepsy and mutilation of the nerves was transmitted. This instance does not stand the test of criticism. The record of Brown-Séquard's original experiment is not satisfactory, and the subsequent attempts to obtain similar results have not been attended with success. On the other hand, the vast number of experiments in the cropping of the tails and ears of domestic animals, as well as of similar operations on man, are attended with negative results. No case of the transmission of the results of an injury can be produced. Stories of tailless kittens, puppies and calves, born from parents one of whom had been thus injured, are abundant, but they have hitherto entirely failed to test any valuable data. Whilst simple evidence of the fact of the transmission of an acquired character is wanting, the a priori arguments in its favour break down one after another when discussed. The very cases which are advanced as only to be explained on the Lamarckian assumption are found on examination and experiment to be better explained, or only to be explained, by the Darwinian principle. Thus the occurrence of blind animals in caves and in the deep sea was a fact which Darwin himself regarded as best explained by the atrophy of the organ of vision in successive generations through the absence of light and

1 Weismann, Vererbung, &c. (1886).
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consequent diseuse, and the transmission (as Lamarck would have supposed) of a more and more weakened and structurally impaired eye to the offspring in successive generations, until the eye finally disappeared. But this instance is really fully explained (as the present writer has shown) by the theory of natural selection or the doctrine of inheritance. It is definitely ascertained that many animals are thus born with distorted or defective eyes whose parents have not had their eyes submitted to any peculiar conditions. Supposing a number of species of arthropod or fish to be swept into a cavern or to be carried from less to greater depths in the sea, those individuals with perfect eyes would follow the glimmer of light and eventually escape to the outer air or the shallower depths, leaving behind those with imperfect eyes to breed in the dark place. A natural selection would thus be effected. In every succeeding generation this would be the case, and even those with weak but still seeing eyes would in the course of time escape, until only a pure race of eyeless or blind animals would be left in the cavern or deep sea.

It is a remarkable fact that it was overlooked alike by the supporters and opponents of Lamarck’s views until pointed out by the present writer (Nature, 1894, p. 127), that the two statements called by Lamarck his first and second laws are contradictory one of the other. Lamarck’s first law asserts that a past history of indefinite duration is powerless to create a bias by which the present can be controlled. He declares that “the inherited habits or capacities of an animal may be acquired by the parent as the result of experience, and continuously elaborated and added to in successive generations. It is, however, to be noted, in the first place, that the imitator of the parent by the young possibly accounts for some part of these complicated actions, and, secondly, that there are cases in which curiously elaborate actions are performed by animals as a characteristic of the species, and as subserving the general advantage of the race or species, which, nevertheless, may be explained as resulting from the transmission of acquired experience, and must be supposed to be due to the natural selection of a fortuitously developed habit which, like fortuitous colour or form variation, happens to prove beneficial. Such cases are the habits of “shamming dead” and the combined posturing and colour peculiarities of certain caterpillars (Lepidopterous larvae) which cause them to resemble dead twigs or similar surrounding objects. The advantage to the animal of this imitation of surrounding objects is that it escapes the pursuit of (say) a bird which would, were it not deceived by the resemblance, attack and eat the caterpillar. Now it is clear that preceding generations of caterpillars cannot have acquired this habit of posturing by experience. Either the caterpillar postures and escapes, or it does not posture and is eaten; it is not half eaten and allowed to profit by experience. We seem to be justified in assuming that there are many movements of stretching and posturing possible to caterpillars, and that some caterpillars had a congenital fortuitous tendency to one position, sometimes to that of the caterpillar, and finally that among all the variety of habitual movements thus exhibited one has been selected and perpetuated because it coincided with the necessary conditions of safety, since it happened to give the caterpillar an increased resemblance to a twig.

The view that instinct is the hereditarily fixed result of habit derived from experience long dominated all inquiry into the subject, but we may now expect to see a renewed and careful study of animal instincts carried out with the view of testing the applicability to each instance of the pure Darwinian theory without the aid of Lamarckism.

Nothing can be further from the truth than the once favourite theory that instincts are the survivals of lapsed reasoning processes. Instincts, or the inherited structural mechanisms of the nervous centres, are in antagonism to the results of the reasoning process, which are not capable of hereditary transmission. Every higher vertebrate animal possesses the power of forming for itself a series of cerebral mechanisms or reasoned conclusions based on its individual experience, in proportion as it has a large cerebrum and has got rid of or has acquired the power of controlling its inherited instincts. Man, compared with other animals, has the fewest inherited mental mechanisms or instincts and at the same time the largest cerebrum in proportion to the size of his body. He builds up, from birth onwards, his own mental mechanisms, and forms more of them, that is to say, is more "educable," and takes longer in doing so, that is to say, in growing up and maturing his experience, than any other animal. The later stages of evolution leading from his ape-like ancestors to man have consisted definitely in the acquirement of a larger cerebrum, and the development of "educable" brain, thus a consequent education of that brain. A new and most important feature in organic development makes its appearance when we set out the facts of man’s evolutionary history. It amounts to a new and unprecedented factor in organic development, external to the organism and yet produced by the activity of the organism upon which it permanently reacts. This factor is the Record of the Past, which grows and develops by laws other than those affecting the perishable bodies of successive generations of mankind, and exerts an incomparable influence upon the educable brain, so that man, by the interaction of the Record and his educability, is removed to a large extent from the status of the organic world and placed in a new and unique position, subject to new laws and new methods of development unlike those by which the rest of the living world is governed. That which we term the Record of the Past comprises the "taboos,"
the customs, the traditions, the beliefs, the knowledge which are handed on by one generation to another independently of organic propagation. By it a new heredity, free from the limitations of protoplasmic continuity, is established. Its first beginnings are seen in the imitative tendencies of animals by which the young of one generation acquire some of the habits of their parents, and by which gregarious and social animals acquire a community of procedure ensuring the advantage of the group. "Taboo," the systematic imposition by the community of restrictions upon the conduct of the individual, is one of its earliest manifestations in primitive man and can be observed even in animal communities. But with the development of the power of inter-communication by the use of language, the Record rapidly acquired an increased development, which was enormously extended by the continuous growth in mankind of the faculty of memory. To the mere tradition preserved by memory and handed on by speech was then added the written record and its later multiplication by the mechanical arts of printing, by which it acquired permanence and universal distribution. The result is the creation of an almost inconceivably vast body of traditional custom, law and knowledge into which every human being is born, less in the more isolated and barbarous communities, but large everywhere. Education is not in its essential nature a training administered to the young by an older generation, but is the natural and unaided assimilation of the Record of the Past by the automatically educable brain—an assimilation which is always in all races very large but becomes far larger in civilized communities. It is among them so important whilst the Record in all its details is so far beyond the receptive capacity of the brain, that selection and guidance are employed by the elders in order to enable the younger generation to benefit to the utmost by the absorption (so to speak) in the limited span of a lifetime of the most valuable influences to be acquired from this prodigious envelope of Recorded Experience. The imperishable Record invests the human race like a protective atmosphere, a new and yet a natural dispensation, giving to man, as compared with his animal ancestry, a new heaven and a new earth.

A result of the very greatest importance arising from the application of the generalizations of Darwinism to human development and to the actual phase of existing human population is that education has no direct effect upon the mental or physical features of the race or stock; it can only affect those of the individual. Educability, defects or excellences, or peculiarities of mind or body, can be handed on from parent to offspring by protoplasmic continuity in reproduction. But the results of education cannot be so handed on. The educated man who has acquired new experiences, new knowledge, can place these on the great Record for his young. The Record for all its limitations of men, but he cannot bodily transmit his acquisitions to his offspring. Were acquired (superimposed) characters really transmissible by breeding, then every child born would inherit, more or less completely, the knowledge acquired by both its parents. But we know this is not the case: the child has to begin with a clean slate and learn for itself. Aptitudes and want of aptitude, which are innate and constitutive, are transmitted to offspring, but not the results of experience, education and training. Bleedings in the stock, defects of mind or body, though they may be to some extent corrected in the individual by training, cannot be got rid of from the stock by any such process. A defective stock, if allowed to breed, will perpetuate its defects, in spite of the concealment of those defects in an individual by training or other treatment. Equally it must be concluded that the weakness and degradation produced by semi-starvation and insanitary conditions of life are only an effect on the individual and cannot affect the stock. The stock may be destroyed, killed out by adverse conditions, but is equally not directly affected, and fitted for more favourable conditions it will show no hereditary results of the previous adversity; indeed it will probably have been strengthened in some ways by the destruction in severe conditions of its weaker members and the survival of the stronger individuals.

Such considerations have the very greatest importance for the guidance of the action of civilized man in seeking the health and happiness of the community. But it must not be forgotten that the problems presented by human communities are extremely complex, and that the absence of any selection of healthy or desirable stock in the breeding of human communities leads to undesirable consequences. The most thrifty and capable people at the present day are not (it has been shown) in overcrowded areas, producing offspring at such a rate as to contribute to the increase of the population. That increase, it has been shown, is due to the early marriage and excessive reproduction of the reckless and hopeless, the poorest, least capable, least desirable members of the community. The questions raised by these considerations have attracted much public attention under the newly invented name of "eugenics," but they are of an exceedingly difficult and delicate nature.

(Z.E.R.L.)

ZORILLA, MANUEL RUIZ, DON (1834-1895), Spanish politician, was born at Burgos de Osma in 1834. He began his education at Valladolid, and studied law afterwards at Madrid University, where he leaned towards Radicalism in politics. In 1856 he was elected deputy, and soon attracted notice among the most advanced Progressists and Democrats. He took part in the revolutionary propaganda that led to the military movement in Madrid on the 22nd of June 1866. He had to take refuge in France for two years, like his fellow-conspirators, and only returned to Spain when the revolution of 1868 took place. He was one of the members of the first cabinet after the revolution, and in 1869, under a new agency of Madrid, Serrano, he became minister of grace and justice. In 1870 he was elected president of the House of Deputies, and seconded Prim in offering the throne to Amadeus of Savoy. He went to Italy as president of the commission, carrying to the prince at Florence the official news of his election. On the arrival of Amadeus in Spain, Ruiz Zorilla became minister of public works for a short time, and resigned by way of protesting against Serrano and Topete entering the councils of the new king. Six months later, in 1871, he was invited by Amadeus to form a cabinet, and he continued to be the principal councillor of the king until February 1873, when the monarch abdicated in disgust at the resistance he met with in the army, and at the lack of sincerity on the part of the very politicians and generals who had asked him to ascend the throne. After the departure of Amadeus, Ruiz Zorilla advocated the establishment of a republic. Notwithstanding this, he was not called upon either by the Federal Republicans to help them during the year 1873, or by Marshal Serrano during 1874 to join Martos and Sagasta in his cabinet. Immediately after the restoration of the throne to the house of Sforza, Ruiz Zorilla went to France. He was for nearly eighteen years the soul of the republican conspiracies, the prompter of revolutionary propaganda, the chief inspirer of intrigues concerted by discontented military men of all ranks. He gave so much trouble to the Madrid governments that they organized a watch over him with the assistance of the French government and police, especially when it was discovered that the two military movements of August 1883 and September 1886 had been prepared and assisted by him. During the last two years of his life Ruiz Zorilla became less active; failing health and the loss of his wife had decreased his energies, and the Madrid government allowed him to return to Spain some months before he died at Burgos, on the 13th of June 1895, of heart disease.

ZORNORD, a village of Prussia, in the Oder valley, north-east of Cüstrin. It is famous as the scene of a battle in which the Prussians under Frederick the Great defeated the Russians commanded by Fermor, on the 25th of August 1758 (see Seven Years' War).

ZOROASTER, one of the great teachers of the East, the founder of what was the national religion of the Perso-Indian people from the time of the Achaemenidae to the close of the Sassanian period. The name (Zoroastra) is the corrupt Greek form of the old Iranian Zoroastha (new Persian,
ZOROASTER

Zoroaster. Its significance is obscure; but it certainly contains the word uikithra, "camel."

Zoroaster was already famous in classical antiquity as the founder of the widely recognized Magi. His name is mentioned in the Persian text "Herodotus of the Avesta, the Medo-Persian, and Near East lc."

Evidence for his existence is found in the Avesta, the whole Magian system (Plut. des. et. Osiris, 46; Plat. loc. cit.; Diog. Laërt. proem. 23; other passages in Jackson's Zoroaster, 6 seq.). They sometimes call him a Bactrian, sometimes a Median or Persian (cf. Jackson, op. cit. 186). The ancients also recount a few points regarding the childhood of Zoroaster and his hermit-life. Thus, according to the "Hecatist," he lived with horses, like the Persian, in a chariot, and he dwelled in the wilderness on mount Ararat (xi. 97). Plutarch speaks of his intercourse with the deity, and compares him with Lycurgus and Numa (Numa, 4). Dio Chrysostom, Plutarch's contemporary, declares that neither Homer nor Hesiod sang of the chariot and horses of Zeus so worthily as Zoroaster, of whom the Persians tell that, out of love to wisdom and righteousness, he withdrew himself from men, and lived in solitude upon a mountain. The mountain was consumed by fire, but Zoroaster escaped with his chariot and horses. This vagabond life, says Plutarch, drawing partly on Theopompus, speaks of his religion in his Isis and Osiris (cc. 46-47). He gives a faithful sketch of the doctrines, mythology and dualistic system of the Magian Zoroaster.

As to the period in which he lived, most of the Greeks have already lost the true perspective. Herodotus and Herodippus of Smyrna place him 5000 years before the Trojan war, Xanthus 6000 years before Xerxes, Eusebios and Aristotle 6000 years before the death of Plato. Agathas remarks (ii. 24), with perfect truth, that it is no longer possible to determine with any certainty when he lived and what he taught. "There is no reason," says Chrysostom, "why we should not believe that Zoroaster lived under Hystaspes, and that he did not make it clear whether by this name they mean the father of Darius or another Hystaspes. But, whatever may have been his date, he was their teacher and instructor in the Magian religion, modified their former religious customs, and introduced a variegated and composite belief."

He is nowhere mentioned in the cuneiform inscriptions of the Achaemenidae, although Darius and his successors were without doubt connected with the Zoroastrians. The first reliable evidence of the Avestan is our principal source for the doctrine of Zoroaster; on the subject of his person and his life it is comparatively reticent; with regard to his doctrines, it is absolutely silent. The 7th section, or Spend Násh, which was mainly consecrated to the description of his life, has perished; while the biographies founded upon it in the 7th book of the Dinkard (9th century a.d.), the Sháih-Áyeshtah of Aschahrán (10th century), are legendary—full of wonders, fabulous histories and miraculous deliverances.

Under all circumstances we must imitate the ancient authors in holding fast to the historic personality of Zoroaster; though he—like many another name of the dim past—has failed to escape the fate of being regarded as a purely mythical creation (for instance, by for Kern and by Darmesteter, in the Sacred Books of the East, transl. 1880, introd. 76). According to Darmesteter, the Zarathushtra of the Avesta is a mere myth, a divinity invested with human attributes, an incarnation of the storm-god, who with his divine word, the fire, the wind, the water, etc., animates the demons. Darmesteter has failed to realize sufficiently the distinction between the Zoroaster of the later Avesta and the Zoroaster of the Gathas. It cannot be denied that in the later Avesta, and still more in writings of more recent date, he is presented in a legendary light and endowed with superhuman powers. At his appearing all nature rejoices (Yasht, 13, 93); he enters into conflict with the demons and rides the earth of their presence (Yasht, 17, 19); Satan approaches him as tempter to make him renounce his faith (Vendidad, 19, 6).

The Gathás alone within the Avesta make claim to be the ipsissima verba of the prophet; in the rest of that work they are put into the mouths of the mouth of the holy Gathás, called "the Gathás of the holy Zoroaster" (Yasna, 57, 8). The litigations of the Yasna, and the Yashts, refer to him as a personage belonging to the past, the Verišahr, and give merely the recipe of the dialogues between Ormazd and Zoroaster. The Gathás alone claim to be authentic utterances of Zoroaster, his actual expressions in person of the assembled congregation. They are the last genuine survivals of the Zoroastrian dialect in which the promulgator of a new religion—his appearance at the court of King Vštásápa

The person of the Zoroaster whom we meet with in these hymns differs from the other Zoroasters in having a sort of the exact opposite of the miraculous personage of later legend—a mere man, standing always on the solid ground of reality, whose only arms are trust in his God and the protection of his powerful allies. At times his position is righteous enough, range of the emotions in the Gathás has to face, not merely all forms of outward opposition and the unbelief and lukewarmness of adherents, but that the world around reviving, is to be of truth and final victory of his cause. At one time hope, at another confidence, now assured confidence, now doubt and despair, here a firm faith in the speedy coming of the kingdom of heaven, there the thought of his suffering, his heavenly glory, his final victory, which find their immediate expression in these hymns. And the whole breaths such a genuine originality, all is psychologically so accurate and just, the earliest beginnings of the new religious movement, the character of a community of faith, as are the personages so naturally in them all, that it is impossible for a moment to think of a later period of composition by a priesthood whom we know to have been devoid of any historical sect, and incapable of constructing the spiritual conditions under which Zoroaster lived. So soon as the point of view is clear—that in the Gathás we have firm historical ground on which Zoroaster and his surroundings may rest, that here we have the beginnings of the Zarostrian religion—it becomes impossible to answer otherwise than affirmatively every general question as to the historical character of Zoroaster. Yet we must not expect too much from the Gathás in the way of definite clue. They give us no historical account, no chronological account of their prophet, but rather are, so to say, versus memorialis, which recapitulate the main points of interest, often again in brief outlines. There are more or less the legendary prophecies, sometimes directed to the faithful flock or to the princes, but generally cast in the form of dialogues with God and the angels, whom he repeatedly invokes as witnesses to his veracity. Moreover, they cast no clue as to the period in which he lived, nor later generations have forgotten. It must be remembered, too, that their extent is limited, and their meaning, moreover, frequently dubious or obscure.

The Person of the Prophet.—As to his birthplace the testimonies are conflicting. According to the Avesta (Yasna, 9, 17), Aryanem Vajó, on the river Dáltah, the old sacred county of the gods, was the home of Zoroaster, and the scene of his first appearance. There, on the river Dareyja, assuming that the passage (Yend, 14, 4) is correctly interpreted, he was the house of his father; and the Bundabish (20, 32 and 24, 15) says expressly that the river Dárjíja lay in Aryan Vei, on its bank was the dwelling of his father, and that thence Zoroaster was born. Now, according to the Bundabish (29, 12), Aryan Vei was situated in the direction of Atropatene, and consequently Aryanem Vajó is for the most part identified with the district of Árrán on the river Aras (Araxes), close by the north-western frontier of Media. Other traditions, however, make him a native of Rágh (Ragha, Páyáh). According to Yasna, 19, 18, the zaraitshárenta, or supreme head of the most western of the Persian provinces, at a still later time, in the residence of Ragha. The Arabic writer Shahrestáni endeavours to bridge this divergence between the two traditions by means of the following theory: his father was a man of Atropatene, while the mother was from Rail. In his home tradition recounts he enjoyed the celestial visions and the conversations with the archangels and Ormazd which are mentioned already in the Gathás. There, too, according to Yasht, 5, 105, he prayed that he might succeed in converting King Vštásápa. He then appears to have quitted his native district, and to have travelled for some years about, until he found one obscure passage (Yasna, 53, 9) seems to intimate that he found an ill reception in Rail. Finally, in the person of Vštásápa, who seems to have been a prince resident in east Iran, he gained the powerful protector and faithful disciple of the new religion whom he desired—though after almost superhuman dangers and difficulties, which the later books depict in lively colours. According to the epic legend, Vštásápa was king of Bactria. Already in the later Avesta he has become a half-mythical figure, the last in the series of heroes of the Persian legend, in which his name appears of which series priestly tradition declares that he was unmistakably evident. He stands at the meeting-point between the old and new world which begins with Zoroaster. In the Gathás he appears as a quite historical personage; it is essentially to his power and good example that the prophet is indebted for his success. In Yasna, 53, 2.
he is spoken of as a pioneer of the doctrine revealed by Ormazd.
In the relation between Zoroaster and Vishtāspa already lies the germ of the state church which afterwards became completely subservient to the interests of the dynasty and sought its protection from it.

Among the grandees of the court of Vishtāspa mention is made of two brothers, Frashoehstra and Jámaspa; both were, according to the later legend, vizirs of Vishtāspa. Zoroaster was nearly related to both: his wife, Hvōvī, was the daughter of Frashoehstra, and the husband of his daughter, Pourucista, was Jámaspa. The actual rôle of intermediary was played by the pious queen Hutaosa. Apart from this connexion, the new prophet relies especially upon his own kindred (avetātush). His first disciple, Māidyōmāngōa, was his cousin: his father was, according to the later Avesta, Pourushaspa, his mother Dughdvī, his great-grandfather Ḥāēataspā, and the ancestor of the whole family Spītama, for which reason Zarathushtra usually bears this surname. His sons and daughters are repeatedly spoken of. His death is, for reasons easily intelligible, nowhere mentioned in the Avesta; in the Škēh-Nāma he is said to have been murdered at the altar by the Turanians in the storming of Balkh.

We are quite ignorant as to the date of Zoroaster; King Vishtāspa does not seem to have any place in any historical chronology, and the Gāthās give no hint on the subject. In former times the assertion often was, and even now is often put forward, that Vishtāspa was one and the same person with the historical Cyrus, father of Darius I. This identification can only be purchased at the cost of a complete renunciation of the Avestan genealogy. Hutaosa is the same name as Atossa: but in history Atossa was the wife of Cambyses and Darius. Otherwise, not one single name in the entourage of our Vishtāspa can be brought into harmony with historical nomenclature. According to the Arda Virāf, 1, 2, Zoroaster taught, in round numbers, some 300 years before the invasion of Alexander. The testimony of Assyrian inscriptions relegates him to a far more ancient period. If these prove the name Māzdaka to have formed part of Median proper names in the year 715 B.C., Eduard Meyer (v. Ancient Persia) is justified in maintaining that the Zoroastrian religion must even then have been predominant in Media. Meyer, therefore, conjecturally puts the date of Zoroaster at 1000 B.C., as had already been done by Duncker (Geschichte des Altertums, 4, 78). This, in its turn, may be too high: but, in any case, Zoroaster belongs to a prehistoric era. Probably he emanated from the old school of Median Magi, and appeared first in Media as the prophet of a new faith, but met with sacerdotal opposition, and turned his steps eastward. In the east of Iran the novel creed first acquired a solid footing, and subsequently reacted with success upon the West.

Zoroastrianism.—Zoroaster taught a new religion; but this must not be taken as meaning that everything he taught came, so to say, out of his own head. His doctrine was rooted in the old Iranian—or Aryan—folk-religion, of which we can only form an approximate representation by comparison with the religion of the Veda. The newly discovered Hititite inscriptions have now thrown a welcome ray of light on the primitive Iranian creed (Ed. Meyer, Sitzungsberichte der Preuss. Akademie, 1908). In these inscriptions Median proper names are mentioned as deities of the Iranian kings of Mitani at the beginning of the 14th century—all of them names with which we are familiar from the Indian pantheon. The Aryan folk-religion was polytheistic. Worship was paid to popular divinities, such as the war-god and dragon-slayer Indra, to natural forces and elements such as fire, but the Aryan also believed in the ruling of moral powers and of an eternal law in nature (v. Ed. Meyer in the article Persia: History, § Ancient). On solemn occasions the inspiring drink soma (haoma) ministered to the enjoyment of the devotee. Numerous coincidences with the Indian religion survive in Zoroastrianism, side by side with astonishing diversities.

The most striking difference between Zoroaster's doctrine of God and the old religion of India lies in this, that while in the Avesta the evil spirits are called daeva (Modern Persian dīv), the Aryans of India, in common with the Italians, Celts and Letts, gave the name of devo to their good spirits, the spirits of light. An alternative designation for deity in the Rig-Veda is asura. In the more recent hymns of the Rig-Veda and in later India, on the other hand, only evil spirits are understood by asuras, while in Iran the corresponding word ahura was, and ever has continued to be, the designation of God the Lord. Thus ahura-daeva, dēva-asura in Zoroastrian and in later Brahman theology are in their meanings diametrically opposed.

Asura-daeva represent originally two distinct races of gods (like the Northern Aser and Vaner)—two different aspects of the conception of deity, comparable to dvājāvā and dēos. Asura indicates the more sublime and awful divine character, for which man entertains the greater reverence and fear: dēa denotes the kind of gods of light, the vulgar—more sensuous and anthropomorphically—deities. This twofold development of the idea of God formed the point of leverage for Zoroaster's reformation. While in India the conception of the asura had veered more and more towards the dreadful and the dreaded, Zoroaster elevated it again—at the cost, indeed, of the daivas (daēnas), whom he degraded to the rank of malicious powers and demons. In one Asura, whose Aryan original was Varuna, he concentrated the whole of the divine character, and conferred upon it the epithet of "the wise" (māzdā). This culminating stage in the asura-conception is the work of Zoroaster. The Asura (Ahura) is the "principle of the world, the arch-type of the essential, the embodiment of spiritual being, the All-father, who was existent before ever the world arose. From him that world has emanated, and its course is governed by his foreseeing eye. His guiding spirit is the Holy Spirit, which wills the good: yet it is not free, but restricted, in this temporal epoch, by its antagonist and own twin-brother (Yasna, 30, 3), the Evil Spirit (aŋgro mainyush, Ahriman), who in the beginning was banished by the Good Spirit by means of the famous ban contained in Yasna, 45, 2, and since then drags out his existence in the darkness of Hell as the chief of the world of evil. In the Gāthās the Good Spirit of Mazda and the Evil Spirit are the two great opposing forces in the world, and Ormazd himself is to a certain extent placed above them both. Later the Holy Spirit is made directly equivalent to Ormazd; and then the great watchword is: "Here Ormazd, there Ahriman!" The very daēnas are only the inferior instruments, the corrupted children of Ahriman, from whom come all that is evil in the world. The daēnas, unmasked and attacked by Zoroaster as the true enemies of mankind, are still, in the Gāthās, without doubt the perfectly definite gods of old popular belief—the idols of the people. For Zoroaster they sink to the rank of spurious deities, and in his parlance the priests and votaries are idolaters and heretics. In the later, developed system the daēnas are the evil spirits in general, and their number has increased to millions. Some few of these have names; and among those names of the old Aryan divinities emerge here and there, e.g. Indra and Nārōnhaitya. With some of course—such as the god of fire—the connexion with the good deity was a priori indissoluble. Other powers of light, such as Mitra the god of day (Iranian Mihrā), survived unforgotten in popular belief till the later system incorporated them in the Mazda body. That without, which had no room either for the cult of Mithra or for that of the Haoma. Beyond the Lord and his Fire, the Gāthās only recognize the archangels and certain ministers of Ormazd, who are, without exception, personifications of abstract ideas. This hypostatization and all-egotization is especially characteristic of the Zoroastrian religion. The essence of Ormazd is Truth and Law asa = Vedic rīta: this quality he embodies, and its personification (though conceived as sexless) is always by his side, a constant companion and intimate. The essence of the wicked spirit in falsehood and falsehood, as the embodiment of the evil principle, is much more frequently mentioned in the Gāthās than Ahriman himself.

Zoroaster says of himself that he had received from God a
commission to purify religion (Yasna, 44, 9). He purified it from the grossly sensual elements of daeva worship, and uplifted the idea of religion to a higher and purer sphere. The motley body of Aryan folk-belief, when subjected to the unifying thought of a speculative brain, was transformed to a self-contained theory of the universe and a logical dualistic principle. But this dualism is a temporally limited dualism—not as much as a bipolarity in the transcendental world. It is destined to terminate in monothemonism. Later sects sought to rise from it to a higher unity in other ways. Thus the Zarvanites represented Ormazd and Ahriman as twin sons proceeding from the fundamental principle of all—Zorwan Akaranra, or limitless time.

Ethically, too, the new doctrine stands on a higher plane, and represents, in its moral laws, a superior civilization. The devil-worshippers, at their sacrifices, slay the ox; and this the daeva favour, for they are foes to the cow and to cattle-breeding, and friends to those who work ill to the cow. In Zoroaster's eyes this is an abomination; for the cow is a gift of Ormazd to man, and the religion of Mazda protects the sacred animal. It is the religion of the settled grazer and the peasant, while the ruider daeva-cult holds its ground among the uncivilized nomadic tribes. In an old confession of faith, the convert is pledged to abjure the theft and robbery of cattle and the ravaging of villages inhabited by worshippers of Mazda (Yasna, 10, 2).

Zoroaster's teachings show him to have been a man of a highly speculative turn, faithful, however, with all his originality, to the Iranian national character. With His faith, and combined diplomatic skill in his dealings with his exalted protectors. His thinking is consecutive, self-restrained, practical, devoid of everything that might be called fantastic or excessive. His form of expression, tangible and concrete, is such that a system is constructed on a clearly conceived plan and stands on a high moral level; for its time it was a great advance in civilization. The doctrine of Zoroaster and the Zoroastrian Church may be summed up in essence thus:--

At the beginning of things there existed the two spirits who represented good and evil (Yasna, 30, 3). The existence of evil in the world is thus presupposed from the beginning. Both spirits possess creative power, which manifests itself positively in the one and negatively in the other. Ormazd is light and life, and creates all that is pure and good—in the ethical world of law, order and truth. His anahita's darkness, faith, death, and produces all that is evil in the world. Until then the two spirits had counterbalanced one another. The ultimate triumph of the good spirit is an ethical demand of the religious consciousness and the quintessence of human character.

The evil spirit with his wicked hosts appears in the Gathas much less endowed with the attributes of personality and individuality than does Ahuramazda. Within the world of the good Ormazd is what the man alone. In this sense Zoroastianism is often referred to as the faith of Ormazd or as Mazdaism. Ormazd in his exalted majesty is the ideal figure of an Oriental king. He is not alone in his domain. He is associated with a host of angels for the most part personifications of ethical ideas. These are his creatures, his instruments, servants and assistants. They are comprehended under the general name of ameshaspeenta ("immortal holy ones") and are the prototypes of the seven ameshaspeandas of a later date. These are—(1) Vohu Mano (goodness), good sense, i.e. the good principle, the idea of the good, the principle that works in man inclining him to what is good; (2) Asha, afterwards Astaras Vahishten (Astaras haoma), the genius of truth and the embodiment of all that is true, good and right, uprightness and rule—ideas practically identical for Zoroaster; (3) Khshathra, after- wards Ahura Mazda (ruler, protector, ruler) the substratum of all evil, which have subsisted from the first but not in integral completeness, the evil having crept in like tares among the wheat; the time is yet to come when it shall be fully manifested in all its completeness. We find that Ahura Ormazd in His Zoroastrian prototype, orbacandic, spoken of as daughter of Ormazd and regarded as having her abode upon the earth; (5) Haurvatat (asha, perfect, happiness), the glory, the splendour, the moral grandeur, and the angels Garas Urvan ("the genius and defender of animals"), and Sraosha, the genius of obedience and faithful hearing.

As soon as the two separate spirits (cf. Barnabish, 1, 4) encounter one another, their respective battalions, the armies of the good and the evil, come to the permanent conflict begin. The history of this conflict is the history of the world. A great clef runs right through the world; and it is the divine division that which is Ahura's and that which is Ahriman's. Not that the two are personal persons; they leave it to be fought out by their respective creations and creatures which they sent into the field. The field of battle is the present world.

In the centre of battle is man: his soul is the object of the war. Man is a creation of Ormazd, or, what is the same thing, a being created by Ahuramazda. The war of the two principles is waged in and through him, and in his actions, wherefore he is accessible to the influences of the evil powers. This freedom of the will is clearly expressed in the idea of the human soul as the throne of Ahuramazda. This is the throne of the life, the knowing, and the ignorant each after his own heart and understanding. Artaimit searches, feeling thy spirit, where errors are found. Man takes part in this conflict by all his life and actions: the world is his battle-field. If he acts in a righteous and good deed, word and thought, by continually keeping pure his body and his soul, he impairs the power of Satan and strengthens the might of goodness. He who, in a true confession, by every evil deed, word and thought and defilement, he increases the evil and renders service to Satan.

The life of man falls into two parts—its earthly portion and that which is lived after death is past. The lot assigned to him after death is the result and consequence of his life upon earth. No religion has so clearly grasped the ideas of guilt and of merit. On the works of men here below a strict reckoning will be held in heaven (according to later representations, by Rashnu, the genius of justice, and Mithra). All the thoughts, words and deeds of the life are weighed in the balance after death—soul, heart and body. The word of Ormazd knows nothing, whilst the later Zoroastrian Church admitts repentance, expiation and remission. After death the soul arrives at the sarmath, the sarmath, or sarmath, the judge (Vd. 2, 1), Ormazd at first wished to entrust this task to Yima (Jemshid), the ideal of an Iranian king. But Yima, the secular man, felt himself unfitted for it and declined it. He consented to take upon himself the burden of the judgment; but he gave a rule of procedure, a code of justice as an illustration of the heavenly kingdom in miniature, to serve at the same time as a pattern for the heavenly kingdom that was to come. Zoroaster then forewent the matter as a separate work, and was confirmed in his teaching. He had been experienced within himself the inward call to seek the amelioration of mankind and their deliverance from ruin, and regarded this inner impulse, intensified as it was by long, contemplative solitude and by visions, as being the call addressed to him by God Himself. Like Mahomed after him he often speaks of his conversations with God and the archangel. He calls himself most frequently manishan ("prophet"), rash ("spiritual authority"), and sohna ("the coming helper")—that is to say, when men come to be judged according to their deeds.

The full contents of his dogmatic and ethical teaching we cannot give here. The Gathas and his Zoroastrian compendium contain general references of the divine commands and of good and evil works. Among the former those most inculcated are renovation of Satan, adoration of Ormazd, purity of soul and body, and care for one's relations. The latter comprised the whole system of Zoroastrian doctrine. A ceremonial worship is hardly mentioned. He speaks more in the character of prophet than in that of legislator. The religious ideas of the Gathas are used in many theological. Revelations concerning the last things and the future lot, whether bliss or woe, of human souls, promises for true believers, threatenings for unbelievers, his firm confidence as to the future triumph of truth and the salvation of the soul, are the themes continually dwelt on with endless variations.

It was not without special reason—so Zoroaster believed—that the calling of a prophet should have taken place when and where it did. The authority of the new dispensation was considered so large. Like John the Baptist and the Apostles of Jesus, Zoroaster also believed that the fulness of time was near, that the kingdom of heaven was at hand. Through the whole of the Gathas runs
the pious hope that the end of the present world is not far distant. He himself hopes, with his followers, to live to see the decisive turn in the history of the world. Their faith and better future will summon together all his powers for a final decisive struggle and break the power of evil for ever; by his help the faithful will achieve the victory over their detested enemies, the dharma worshippers, and render their fires powerless. Thereupon Ormuz will hold a judicium universale, in the form of a general ordeal, a great test of all mankind by fire and molten metal, and will judge strictly according to the teachings of the Avesta about the doers of good and evil, and the hoped-for reward. Satan will be cast, along with all those who have been delivered over to him to suffer the pains of hell, into the abyss, where he will henceforward lie powerless. Fortbith will begin the destruction of the idolatrous God and the heavens, called Ahura. This is called, sometimes the good kingdom, sometimes simply the kingdom. Here the sun will for ever shine, and all the pious and faithful will live a happy life, which no evil power can disturb, in the presence of the holy gods and with the good spirits of the saints. There will receive as his guerdon the inexhaustible cow and the gracious gifts of the Veha mans. The prophet and his princely patrons will be accorded special honour.

History and Later Development.—For the great mass of the people Zoroaster’s doctrine was too abstract and spiritualistic. The vulgar fancy requires sensuous, plastic deities, which admit of visible representations. The idols did go and receive honour again and new gods won acceptance. They are the angels (yazala) of New Zoroastrianism. Thus, in the later Avesta, we find not only Mithra but also purely popular divinities such as the angel of victory, Verethragna, Anahita (Anatis), the goddess of the water, Tishrya (Sirius), and other heavenly bodies, invoked with special preference. The Gathas has nothing of a new belief which afterwards arose in the Fravashi, or guardian angels of the faithful. Fravashi properly means “confession of faith,” and when personified comes to be regarded as a protecting spirit. Unbelievers have no fravashi.

On the basis of the new teaching arose a widely spread priesthood. The holy men, the fravashi, carried the doctrine, and carried its worship, and laid down the minutely elaborated laws for the purifying and keeping clean of soul and body, which are met with in the Vendidad. To these ecclesiastical precepts and usages of a very particular kind a doubtful and barbarous character, love of truth, beneficent works, support of comrades in the faith, alms, chastity, improvement of the land, arboriculture, breeding of cattle, agriculture, protection of useful animals, as the dog, the destruction of noxious animals, and the prohibition either to burn or to bury the dead. These are to be left on the appointed places (dakhmas) and exposed to the vultures and wild dogs. In the Persian capital Ctesiphon (Breslau, 1903); Nastamji Edulji Dastoor, in History of Zoroastrianism in the Avesta (Bombay, 1906); E. Lehmann, Zaraithushta, 2 vols. (Copenhagen, 1899-1902); History of the Parsees in the West, "Marvels of Zoroastrianism" in the Sacred Books of the East, vol. xiv. Persia (1892). Settlement of the Parsees in America and Persia (New York, 1888); Dosabhai Framji Karaka, History of the Parsees (2 vols., London, 1884).

ZORRILLA Y MORAL, JOSÉ (1817-1893), Spanish poet and dramatist, son of a magistrate in whom Ferdinand VII. placed special confidence, was born at Valladolid on the 21st of February 1817. He was educated by the Jesuits at the Real Seminario de Nobles in Madrid, wrote verses when he was twelve, became an enthusiastic admirer of Scott and Chateaubriand, and took part in the school performances of plays by Lope de Vega and Calderon. In 1833 he was sent to read law at the University of Toledo, but, after a year of idleness, he fled to Madrid, where he horrified the friends of his absolutist father by making violent speeches and by founding a newspaper which was promptly suppressed by the government. He narrowly escaped transportation to the Philippines, and passed the next few years in poverty. The death of the satirist Larra brought Zorrila into notice. His elegiac poem, declaimed at Larra’s funeral in February 1837, served as an introduction to the leading men of letters. In 1837 he published a book of verses, mostly imitations of Lamartine and Hugo, which was so favourably received that he printed six more volumes within three years. His subjects are treated with fluency and grace, but the carelessness which disfigures much of his work is prominent in these juvenile poems. After collaborating with Garcia Gutierrez, in a piece entitled Juan Dandole (1839) Zorrilla began his individual career as a dramatist with Cada cuál con su razón (1840), and during the following five years he wrote twenty-two plays, many of them extremely successful. His Cantos del trovador (1841), a collection of national legends versified with infinite spirit, showed a decided advance in skill, and secured for the author the place next to Espronceda in popular esteem. National legends also supply the themes of his dramas, though in this department Zorrilla somewhat imitates the representa- tion of the authors of the repertory of the Teatro de la Comedia; but these plays which had fallen out of fashion. For example, En El Zapatero y el Rey he recasts El montañés Juan Pascual by Juan de la Hoy y Mata; In La mejor razón la espada he borrows from Moreto’s Travesuras del estudiante Pantajo; in Don Juan Tenorio he adapts from Tirso de Molina’s Burtalde de Seville and from the elder Dumas’ Don Juan de Marona (which itself derives from Les aines du purgatoire ou Prosper Mériche). But his rearrangements usually contain original elements, and in Sancho Garcia, El Rey loco, and El Alcalde Ronquillo he apparently owes little to any predecessor. The last and (as he himself believed) the best of his plays is Traidor (1845) y morder (1845). Upon the death of his mother in 1847 Zorrilla left Spain, resided for a while at Bordeaux, and settled in Paris, where his incomplete Granada, a striking poem of gorgeous local colour, was published in 1852. In a fit of depression, the causes of which are not known, he emigrated to America three years later, hoping, as he says, that yellow fever or small- pox would carry him off. During eleven years spent in Mexico he produced little, and that little was of no merit. He returned in 1866, to find himself a half-forgotten classic. His old fidelity to the patriotic and new faith to the Christian was then en joyed by their unaided efforts only. The head of the Church (Zara-Shuhirotema) had his seat at Rai in Media and was the first person in the state next to the king. The formation of sects was at this period not infrequent (cf. MANICHISM). The Mohammedan invasion (636), with the terrible persecutions of the following centuries, was the death-blow of Zoroastrianism. In Persia itself, a few fraternities of Zoroastrians are still found (in Kerimeh and Yezdi). The Parsees (g s.) in and around Bombay hold by Zoroaster as their prophet and by the ancient religious usages, but their doctrine has reached the stage of a pure monothelism. LITERATURE.—See Zend-Avesta, Also Hydie, Historia Religionis veterum Puparum (Oxon., 1700); Winckles, Zoroastrian Studies (Berlin, 1863); A. V. Williams Jackson, Zoroaster, his Life and Teachings (London, 1886). Abraham and Isaac, History of the Grandsriess des iranischen Philologen, vol. ii, 612 sqq. (Strassburg, 1896-1903); Tiele, Die Religion bei den iranischen Völkern (Gottha, 1868); Tiele, Kompendium der Religionsgeschichte, German transl. (1902); A. J. B. Waddell, Persepolis and Vicinity (London, 1879-1880); Bhamra, Landaus and Persia (New York, 1888); Dosabhai Framji Karaka, History of the Parsees (2 vols., London, 1884). (K. G.)
minister. He was always poor, and for some twelve years after 1871 he was in the direst straits. The law of copyright was not retrospective, and, though some of his plays made the fortunes of managers, they brought him nothing. In his untrustworthy autobiography, Recuerdos del tiempo viejo (1880), he complained of this. A petition of 30 of the best managers having his firm, at the age of 70, and the protection in his favour became an apotheosis.

In 1885 the Spanish Academy, which had elected him a member many years before, presented him with a gold medal of honour, and in 1889 he was publicly crowned at Granada as the national laureate.

He died at Madrid on the 23rd of January 1893.

Zorilla is so intensely Spanish that it is difficult for foreign critics to do him justice. It is certain that the extraordinary rapidity of his output did not injure his work. He declares that he wrote El Caballo del Rey Don Sancho in three weeks, and that he put together El P事物al del Gato (which, like La Coaletura, owes much to Southey) in two days; if so, his deficiencies need no other explanation. An improvisator with the characteristic faults of redundancy and verbosity, he wrote far too much, and in most of his numbers there are numerous technical flaws. Yet in the less of his imagery, the movement, the turn of his versification, will preserve some few of his poems in the anthologies. His appeal to patriotic pride, his accurate dramatic instinct, together with the fact that he invariably gives at least one of his characters the role of a modern poet, acting without a mask, enables him to hold the stage. It is by Don Juan Tenorio, the play of which he thought so meanly, that Zorilla will be best remembered. (J. F. K.)

ZOSIMUS, bishop of Rome from the 15th of March 417 to the 26th of December 418, succeeded Innocent I. and was followed by Boniface I. For his attitude in the Pelagian controversy, see Pelagius. He took a decided part in the protracted disputes by way of Ostia as the jurisdiction of the see of Arles over that of Vienne, giving energetic decisions in favour of the former, but without settling the controversy. His fraticious temper coloured all the controversies in which he took part, in Gaul, Africa and Italy, including Rome, where at his death the clergy were very much divided.

ZOSIMUS, Greek historical writer, flourished at Constantinople during the second half of the 5th century A.D. According to Photius, he was a count, and held the office of "advocate" of the imperial treasury. His New History, mainly a compilation from previous authors (Dexippus, Eunapius, Olympiodorus), is in six books: the first sketches briefly the history of the early emperors from Augustus to Diocletian (305); the second, third and fourth deal more fully with the period from the accession of Constantius and Galerius to the death of Theodosius; the fifth and sixth cover the period between 395 and 410. The work, which is apparently unfinished, must have been written between 450-502. The style is characterized by Photius as concise, clear and pure. The historian's object was to account for the decline of the Roman empire from the pagan point of view, and in this undertaking he at various points treated the Christians with some unfairness.

The best edition is by Mendelssohn (1857), who fully discusses the question of the authorities used by Zosimus; there is an excellent appreciation of him in Ranke's Weltgeschichte, iv. French translation by Cousin (1678); English (anonymous), 1684, 1814.

ZOSTEROPS, originally the scientific name of a genus of birds found by N. A. Vigors and T. Horsfield (Trans. Linnean Society, 1825) in Australia, and species called by them Z. dorsalis, but subsequently shown to be identical with the Certhia caerulescens, and also with the Sylvia lateralis, previously described by J. Latham. The name has been Anglicized in the same sense, and, whether as a scientific or a vernacular term, applied to a great number of species of little birds which inhabit for the most part the tropical districts of the Old World, from Africa to most of the islands in the Indian and Pacific Oceans, and northwards in Asia through India and China to the Amur regions and Japan.

The derivation is fructo-pus and dol, whence the word should be properly applied to the round of white feathers round the eyes, which is very conspicuous in many species.

1. In Gadow, B. R. B. Sharpe (Cat. B. Brit. Museum, ix. pp. 146-205) admitted 83 species, besides 3 more which he had not been able to examine.

2. By most English-speaking people the prevalent species of Zosterops is commonly called "White-eye" or "Silver-eye."
ZOUCH—ZRNÝ

ZOUCH, RICHARD (c. 1500–1661), English jurist, was born at Anstey, Wiltshire, and educated at Winchester and afterwards at Oxford, where he became a fellow of New College in 1600. He was admitted at Doctor's Commons in January 1618, and was appointed regius professor of law at Oxford in 1620. In 1625 he became principal of St Alban Hall and chancellor of the diocese of Oxford; in 1641 he was made judge of the High Court of Admiralty. Under the Commonwealth, having submitted to the parliamentary visitors, he retained his university appointments, though not his judgments. This last he resumed at the Restoration, dying soon afterwards at his apartments in Doctor's Commons, London, on the 1st of March 1661.

He published *Elementa jurisprudentiae* (1629), *Descripto juris et judicii feudalis, secundum consuetudines Mediolani et Normanniae, pro introductione ad jurisprudentiam Anglicanam* (1634), *Descripto juris et judicii temporalis, secundum consuetudines feudales et Normannicas* (1636), *Descripto juris et judicii ecclesiastic, secundum canonum et consuetudines Anglicanam* (1636), *Descripiones juris et judicii societ. militaris et maritimi* (1640). *Juris et judicii feodalius sie juris inter geni . . . explicatio* (1650), and *Solutio questionis de legati delinquentibus judice competente* (1657). In virtue of the last two he has the distinction of being one of the earliest systematic writers on ecclesiastical, and also of being the author of a poem, *The Dove, or Passages of Cosmography* (1613).

ZOUCHE, or Zouc, the name of an English family descended from Alan la Zouche, a Breton, who is sometimes called Alan de Porrochet. Having settled in England during the reign of Henry II., Alan obtained by marriage Ashby in Leicestershire (called after him Ashby de la Zouche) and other lands. His grandson, another Alan la Zouche, was justice of Chester and justice of Ireland under Henry III.; he was loyal to the king during the struggle with the barons, fought at Lewes and helped to arrange the peace of Westminster. As the result of a judgment on some lands with John, Earl Warrenne, he was seriously injured in Westminster Hall by the earl and his retainers, and died on the 10th of August 1270. Alan's elder son Roger (d. 1285) had a son Alan la Zouche, who was summoned to parliament as a baron about 1298. He died without sons, and this barony fell into abeyance between his daughters and has never been revived. The elder Alan's younger son, Eades or Ivo, had a son William (c. 1276–1352), who was summoned to parliament as a baron in 1308, and this barony, which is still in existence, is known as that of Zouche of Haryngworth. John Zouche of Haryngworth (c. 1462–1526), was attainted in 1485 as a supporter of Richard III., but was restored to his honours in 1495. His descendant, Edward, the 11th baron (c. 1556–1625), was one of the peers who tried Mary, queen of Scots, and was sent by Elizabeth as ambassador to Scotland and to Denmark. He was president of Wales from 1602 to 1615 and lord warden of the Cinque Ports from 1615 to 1624. He was a member of the council of the Virginia Company and of the New England council. He had many literary friends, among them being Ben Jonson and Sir Henry Wotton. Zouche left no sons, and the barony remained in abeyance among the descendants of his two daughters until 1815, when the abeyance was terminated in favour of Sir Cecil Bissop, Bart. (1753–1828), who became the 12th baron. He died without sons, a second abeyance being terminated in 1829 in favour of his daughter Harriet Anne (1787–1870), wife of the hon. Robert Curzon (1771–1863). In 1873 her grandson, Robert Nathaniel Curzon (b. 1851), became the 15th baron.

Two antiquaries, Henry Zouch (1725–1795) and his brother, Thomas Zouch (1737–1815), claimed descent from the family of Zouche. Both were voluminous writers. Thomas's works included a *Life of Isaac Walton* (1823) and *Memoirs of Sir Philip Sidney* (1808).

ZOUTPANSBERG, the north-eastern division of the Transvaal. This was the district to which Louis Trichardt and Jan van Rensburg, the forerunners of the Great Trek, journeyed in 1835. In 1845 Hendrik Potgieter, a prominent leader of the Trek Boers, removed thither. The Zoutpansberg Boers formed a semi-independent community, and in 1857 Stephanus Schoeman, their commandant-general, sided against Marthinus Pretorius and Paul Kruger when they invaded the Orange Free State. It was not until 1864 that Zoutpansberg was definitely incorporated in the South African Republic. Trichardt and his companions had been shown gold workings by the natives, and it was in this district in 1867–70, and in the neighbouring region of Lydenburg, that gold mines were first worked by Europeans south of the Limpopo. The white settlers in Zoutpansberg had for many years a reputation for lawlessness, and were later regarded as typical of South African Boers. Zoutpansberg contains no other region of the Transvaal.

It is highly mineralized, next to gold, copper, found near the Limpopo (where is the Messina mine) being the chief metal worked. The district long suffered from lack of railway communications, but in 1910 the completion of the Selati line giving it direct access to Delagoa Bay was begun. The chief towns are Pietersburg and Leidsdorp.


ZRNÝ, MIKLÓS, COUNT (1568–1666), Hungarian hero, was a son of Miklós Zrný and Ilona Karlovec. He distinguished himself at the siege of Vienna in 1529, and in 1542 saved the imperial army from defeat before Pest by intervening with 400 Croats, for which service he was appointed ban of Croatia. In 1542 he routed the Turks at Smolýo. In 1543 he married Catherine Frangipán, who placed the whole of her vast estates at his disposal. The Emperor Ferdinand also gave him large possessions in Hungary, and henceforth the Zrnýs became as much Magyar as Croatian magnates. In 1556 Zrný won a series of victories over the Turks, culminating in the battle of Babocsá. The Croats, however, overwhelmed their ban with reproaches for neglecting them to fight for the Magyars, and the emperor simultaneously deprived him of the captenacy of Upper Croatia and sent 10,000 men to aid the Croats, while the Magyars were left without any help, whereupon Zrný resigned the banship (1561). In 1563, on the coronation of the Emperor Maximilian as king of Hungary, Zrný attended the ceremony at the head of 3000 Croatian and Magyar mounted noblemen, in the vain hope of obtaining the dignity of palatinate, vacant by the death of Thomas Nadasdy. Shortly after marrying (in 1564) his second wife, Evesa Rosenberg, a great Bohemian heiress, he hastened southwards to defend the frontier, defeated the Turks at Segesd, and in 1566 from the 5th of August to the 7th of September heroically defended the little fortress of Szigetvár against the whole Turkish host, led by Suleiman the Magnificent in person, perishing with every member of the garrison in a last desperate sortie.

See P. Salamon, *Ungarn im Zeitalter der Türkenherrschaft* (Leipzig, 1887); J. Coudé, *The Zrnys in Hungarian History* (Budapest, 1885), 3 vols. (R. N. B.)

ZRNÝ, MIKLÓS, COUNT (1620–1664), Hungarian warrior, statesman and poet, the son of George Zrný and Magdalena Széchy, was born at Csákvrás. At the court of Péter Pázmány the youth conceived a burning enthusiasm for his native language and literature, although he always placed arms before arts. From 1635 to 1637 he accompanied Szenteczky, one of the canons of Eastrergom, on a long educative tour through Italy. During the next few years he learnt the art of war in defending the Croatian frontier against the Turks, and approved himself one of the first captains of the age. In 1645 he acted against the Swedes in Moravia, equipping an army corps at Gmunden. At the battle of Sventyago he was left with 5000 men, and took 2000 prisoners. At Eger he saved the emperor, who had been surprised at night in his camp by Wrangel. Subsequently he routed the army of Rákóczy on the Upper Thess. For his services the emperor appointed him captain of Croatia. On his return from the war he married the wealthy Eusebia Draskovics. In 1646 he distinguished himself in the Turkish war. At the coronation of Ferdinand IV. he carried the sword of state, and was made ban and captain-general of Croatia. In this double capacity he presided over many Croatian diets, always strenuously defending the political rights of the Croats.
and steadfastly maintaining that as regarded Hungary they were to be looked upon not as partes annexeae but as a regnum. During 1622–53 he was continually fighting against the Turks, yet from his castle at Csákornya he was in constant communication with the learned world; the Dutch scholar, Jacobus Tollius, even visited him, and has left in his Epistolae itinerariae a lively account of his experiences. Tollius was amazed at the linguistic resources of Zrínyi, who spoke German, Croatian, Hungarian, Turkish and Latin with equal facility. Zrínyi’s Latin letters (from which we learn that he was married a second time, to Sophia Löbel) are fluent and agreeable, but largely interspersed with Croatian and Magyar expressions. The last year of his life was also its most glorious one. He set out to destroy the strongly fortified Turkish bridge at Esseg, and thus cut off the retreat of the Turkish army, re-capturing all the strong fortresses on his way. He destroyed the bridge, but the further pursuance of the campaign was frustrated by the refusal of the imperial generals to co-operate. Still the expedition had covered many miles, and showed the political and the commercial possibilities of Széchenyi’s great dream. It is said that only the Zrínyis had the secret of conquering the Turks.

The emperor offered him the title of prince. The pope struck a commemorative medal with the effigy of Zrínyi as a field-marshal. The Spanish king sent him the Golden Fleece. The French king created him a peer of France. The Turks, to wipe out the disgrace of the Esseg affair, now laid siege to Uj-Zerűn, a fortress which Zrínyi had built, and the imperial troops under Montecuccli looked on while he hastened to relieve it, refusing all assistance, with the result that the fortress fell. It was on the 13th of August 1651 that Zrínyi’s great defensive period of Vásár was concluded. Zrínyi hastened to Vienna to protest against it, but in vain. Zrínyi quitted Vienna in disgust, after assuring the Venetian minister, Sagridino, that he was willing at any moment to assist the Republic against the Turks with 6000 men. He then returned to Csákornya, and there, on the 18th of November, was killed by a wild boar which had twice wounded and recklessly pursued to its lair in the forest. Swamps, armed only with his hunting-knife.

His poetical works first appeared at Vienna in 1651, under the title of The Siren of the Adriatic (Hung.); but his principal work, Olavio Szécsényi, the protagonist of the great hero, is a self-sacrifice of his heroic ancestor of the same name, only appeared in fragments in Magyar literature till Arany took it in hand. It was evidently written under the influence of both Virgil and Tasso, though the author had no time to polish and correct its rough and occasionally somewhat wooden, versification. But the fundamental idea—the duty of Hungarian valour to shake off the Turkish yoke, with the help of God—is sublime, and the whole work is intense with martial and religious enthusiasm. It is an unworthy companion of the other epics of the Renaissance period, and hardly worthy of mention. First, in 1848, began to recast the Zrínyiud, as he called it, on modern lines, and the work was completed by Antal Vékony in 1892.

See J. Arany and Kazmir Greksa, Zrínyi and Tasso (Hung.), Eger, 1892; Karoly Széchy; Life of Count Nicholas Zrínyi, the poet (Hung.), Budapest, 1896; Sándor Körösi, Zrínyi and Macchialvi (Hun.), Budapest, 1893.

ZSCHOKKE, JOHANN HEINRICH DANIEL (1771–1848), German author, was born at Magdeburg on the 22nd of March 1771. He was educated at the monastical (kloster) school and at the Alstädter gymnasium of his native place. He spent some time as playwright with a company of strolling actors, but afterwards studied philosophy, theology and history at the university of Frankfurt-on-the-Oder, where in 1792 he established himself as Privatdozent. He created much sensation by an extravagant novel, Abällina, der grosse Bandit (1773; subsequently also dramatized), modelled on Schiller’s Räuber, and the melodramatic tragedy, Julius von Sasson (1796). The Prussian government having declined to make him a full professor, Zschokke went to Switzerland, where he conducted an educational institution in the castle of Reichenau. The authorities of the Grisons admitted him to the rights of a citizen, and in 1798 he published his Geschichte des Freistaats der drei Bünde im hohen Rätien. The political disturbances of this year compelled him to close his institution. He was, however, sent as a deputy to Aarau, where he was made president of the educational department, and afterwards as government commissioner to Unterwalden, his authority being ultimately extended over the cantons of Uri, Schwyz and Zug. Zschokke distinguished himself by the vigour of his administration and the prudence of his advice. He proposed to reforms the education of the poorer classes of the country. In 1800 he reorganized the institutions of the Italian cantons and was appointed lieutenant-governor of the canton of Basel. Zschokke retired from public life when the central government at Bern proposed to re-establish the federal system, but after the changes effected by Bonaparte he entered the service of the canton of Aargau, with which he remained connected. In 1801 he attracted attention by his Geschichte vom Kämpe und Untergänge der schweizerischen Berg- und Wald-Kantone. Through his Schweizerlyrik, the publication of which began in 1804, he exercised a wholesome influence on public affairs; and the like may be said of his Miscellen für die neueste Weltkunde, issued from 1807 to 1813. In 1811 he also started a monthly periodical, Erkterungen. He wrote various historical works, the most important of which is Des Schweizerlandes Geschichte für das Schweizervolk (1822, 8th ed. 1849). Zschokke’s tales, on which his literary reputation rests, are collected in several series, Bilder aus der Schweiz (5 vols., 1824–25), Ausgewählte Novellen und Dichtungen (16 vols., 1838–39). The best known are: Adriatic Market (1828; 2nd ed. 1837; Der Creole (1802); Alamentode (1802); Zschokke’s letters, (1794); and Meister Jordan (1845). In Stunden der Andacht (1809–1816; 27 editions in Zschokke’s lifetime), which was widely read, he expounded in a rationalistic spirit the fundamental principles of religion and morality. Eine Selbstschau (1842) is a kind of autobiography. Zschokke was not a great original writer, but he secured an eminent place in the literature of his time by his enthusiasm for modern ideas in politics and religion, by the sound, practical judgment displayed in his works, and by the energy and lucidity of his style. He died at his country house of Blumenhalde on the Aar on the 27th of June 1848.

An edition of Zschokke’s selected works, in forty volumes, was issued in 1824–28. In 1851–54 an edition in thirty-five volumes was published. A new edition of the Novellen was published by the University of Berlin in two volumes, 1859–60. Zschokke, by E. Münch (1831); Emil Zschokke (3rd ed. 1876); R. Sauerländer (Aarau, 1884); and W. Wernly (Aarau, 1894). See also M. Schneiderreit, Zschokke, sein Weltanschauung und Lebensweisheit (1904).

ZSPAHU, a town in the kingdom of Saxony, on the left bank of the Zschopau, 18 m. S.E. from Chemnitz by the railway to Annaberg. Pop. (1900) 7548. It contains a handsome parish church dedicated to St Martin, a town hall and a castle (Wilddeck), built by the Emperor Henry I. in 932. The industries include ironfounding, cotton and thread-spinning, clothing and furniture making.

ZUCARELLI, FRANCESCO (1702–1758), Italian painter, was born at Pitigliano in Tuscany, and studied in Rome under Onesti, Morandi, and Nelli. At Rome, and later in Venice, he became famous as one of the best landscape painters of the classicizing 18th century. Having visited England on a previous occasion, he was induced by some patrons to return thither in 1752, remaining until 1773, when he settled in Florence, dying there in 1758. Zucarelli, who was one of the foundation members of the Royal Academy, enjoyed the patronage of royalty and of many wealthy English collectors, for whom he executed his principal works—generally landscapes with classic ruins and small figures. A large number of them are at Windsor Castle, and of the seven examples which formed part of the John Samuel collection two are now at the National Gallery. The royal palace in Venice contains as many as twenty-one, and the academy four. Others are at the Vienna Gallery, and at the Louvre in Paris. His work was very unequal, but at his
best he rivals the leading landscape painters of his time. His paintings often bear a mark representing a pumpkin, a pictorial representation of his name, which signifies "little pumpkin."

ZUCCARO, or ZUCCHERO,1 the name of two Italian painters.

I. TADDEO ZUCCARO (1520-1566), one of the most popular painters of the so-called Roman mannerist school, was the son of Ottaviano Zuccaro, an almost unknown painter at St Angelo in Vado, where he was born in 1529. Taddeo found his way to Rome, and he succeeded at an early age in gaining a knowledge of painting and in finding patrons to employ him. When he was seventeen a pupil of Correggio, named Daniele da Parma, engaged him to assist in painting a series of frescoes in a chapel at Vitto near Sora, on the borders of the Abruzzi. Taddeo began his career as a fresco painter, by executing a series of scenes in monochrome from the life of Furius Camillus on the walls of a new palace at Caprarola, built for Cardinal Alessandro Farnese, for which Taddeo also designed a great quantity of rich decorations in stucco relief behind the style of Giulio Romano and other pupils of Raphael. All the paintings were in fresco, very large in scale, and often in chiaroscuro or monochrome; they were more remarkable for rapidity of execution and a certain boldness of style than for any higher qualities. His work is in a mannered style, artificial and pompous in conception, and lacks any close or accurate knowledge of the human form and its movements. He died in Rome in 1566, and was buried in the Pantheon, not far from Raphael.

Taddeo's easel pictures are less common than his decorative frescoes. A small painting on copper of the Adoration of the Shepherds, formerly in the collection of James I., is now at Hampton Court; it is a work of very small merit. The Caprarola frescoes were engraved and published by Prenner, Illustri Fatti Fornacini Coloriti nel Real Palazzo di Caprarola (Rome, 1749-50).

II. FEDERIGO ZUCCARO (1543-1609) was in 1550 placed under his brother Taddeo's charge in Rome, and worked as his assistant; he completed the Caprarola frescoes. Federigo attained an eminence far beyond his very limited merits as a painter, and was perhaps the most popular artist of his generation. Probably no other painter has ever produced so many enormous frescoes crowded with figures on the most colossal scale, all executed under the unfortunate delusion that grandeur of effect could be attained merely by great size combined with extravagance of attitude and exaggeration of every kind. Federigo's frescoes, in consequence of this, were not the completion of the painting of the dome of the cathedral at Florence; the work had been begun by the art-historian Vasari, who wrote in the most generous language about his more successful rival. Regardless of the injury to the apparent scale of the interior of the church, Federigo painted about 300 figures, each nearly 50 ft. high, sprawling with violent contortions all over the surface. Happily age has so dimmed these pictures that their presence is now almost harmless. Federigo was recalled to Rome by Gregory XIII. to continue in the Pauline chapel of the Vatican the scheme of decoration begun by Michelangelo during his last failing years, but a quarrel between the painter and members of the papal court led to his departure from Italy. He visited Brussels, and there made a series of cartoons for the tapestry-weavers.

In 1574 he passed over to England, where he received commissions to paint the portraits of Queen Elizabeth, Mary, queen of Scots, Sir Nicholas Bacon, Sir Francis Walsingham, Lord High Admiral Howard, and others. A curious full-length portrait of Elizabeth in fancy dress, now at Hampton Court, is attributed to this painter, though very doubtfully. Another picture in the same collection appears to be a replica of his painting of the "Allegory of Calvary," as suggested by Lucian's description of a celebrated work by Apelles; the satire in the original painting, directed against some of his courtier enemies, was the immediate cause of Federigo's temporary exile from England. His success as a producer of monochrome frescoes, as well as in oil was more than the admiration expressed for his colossal frescoes. A portrait of a "Man with Two Dogs," in the Pitti Palace at Florence, is a work of some real merit, as is also the "Dead Christ and Angels" in the Borghese Gallery in Rome. Federigo was soon recalled to Rome to finish his work on the vault of the Pauline chapel. In 1585 he accepted an offer by Philip II. of Spain to decorate the new Escorial at a yearly salary of 2000 crowns, and worked at the Escorial from January 1586 to the end of 1588, when he returned to Italy. Federigo then formed a new circle of followers and was confirmed in his position by Sixtus V., the Academy of St Luke, of which he was the first president. His organization suggested to Sir Joshua Reynolds his scheme for founding the English Royal Academy.

Like his contemporary Giorgio Vasari, Federigo aimed at being an art critic and historian, but with very different success. His chief book, L'Idea de' Pittori, Scultori, ed Architetti (Turin, 1607), is a senseless mass of the most turgid bombast. Little can be said in praise of his smaller works, consisting of two volumes printed at Bologna in 1568, describing his visit to Parma and a journey through central Italy. Federigo was raised to the professorship of painting at a court not long before his death, which took place at Ancona in 1609.

For both Taddeo and Federigo Zuccaro, see Vasari, pt. iii., and Lanzi, Storia Pittorica, Roman School, epoch iii. (J. H. M.)

ZUG (Fr. Zueg), a canton of central Switzerland. It is the smallest undivided canton, both as regards area and as regards population. Its total area is but 92-3 sq. m., of which, however, no fewer than 75-1 sq. m. are reckoned as "productive," forests covering 19-9 sq. m. Of the rest 10 sq. m. are occupied by the cantonal share of the lake of Zug (q.v.), and 24 sq. m. by the lake of Aegeri, which is wholly within the canton.

It includes the fertile strips on the eastern and western shores of the lower portion of the lake of Zug, together with the alluvial flood plain at its northern extremity. The lower range, culminating in the Zugberg (3255 ft.), and the Wildspitz (5194 ft.), the highest summit of the Rosseggen, that rises east of the lake of Zug, separates it from the basin and lake of Aegeri, as well as from the hilly district of Mendingen. The Lorzé issues from the lake of Aegeri, forces its way through moraine deposits in a deep gorge with fine stelactite caverns and falls into the lake of Zug, issuing from it very soon to flow into the Reuss. The canton thus belongs to the hilly, not to the plain, district of Switzerland, but as it is traversed by the eastern slopes of the great range of the Swiss mountains, it is separated from the higher ground by a certain strategical position. Railways connect it both with Lucerne and with Zürich, while lines running to the eastern shore of the lake of Zug have descended to the level of the station of the St Gotthard railway. On the eastern shore of the lake of Aegeri, and within the territory of the canton, is the true site of the famous battle of Morgarten (999) won by the Swiss in 1315. Till 1814 Zug was in the diocese of Constance, but on the reconstruction of the diocese of Basel in 1828 it was assigned to it. In 1900 the population of the canton was 25,092, of whom 24,942 were German-speaking, 819 Italian-speaking, and 157 French-speaking, while 23,362 were Romanists, 1701 Protestants, and 19 Jews. Its capital is Zug, while the manufacturing village of Baar, 2 m. N., had 4484 inhabitants, and the village of Cham, 3 m. N.W., had 3053 inhabitants. In both cases the environs of the villages are included, and this is even more the case with the wide-spreading parishes of Unter Aegeri with 2593 inhabitants, of Menzingen with 2395 inhabitants, and the great school for girls and female teachers, founded by Giacomo Zuccheri, and that of the smaller parishes of Reuss, and of Unter Aegeri with 1891 inhabitants.

In the higher regions of the canton the population is mainly engaged in pastoral pursuits and cattle-breeding. There are 61 "alps," or high pastures, in the canton. At Cham is a well-known factory of condensed milk, now united with that of Nestlé of Vevey. At Baar there are extensive cotton-spinning mills and a spinning factory of Zuccheri, and at Cham a factory for fruit trees, and "Kirschmoser" (cherry-water) and cider are largely manufactured. Apiculture too flourishes greatly. A number of factories have sprung up in the newer quarter of the town, but the prevailing industry is tanning of leather, and the town forms a single administrative district, which comprises eleven communes. The legislative, or Kantonrat, has one member to every 1500 inhabitants; the executive, or Regierungsrat, are elected directly by popular vote, proportional representation obtaining in both cases if more than two members are to be elected in the same electoral district to posts in the same
authority. The term of office in both cases is four years. Besides the "facultative Referendum" by which, in case of a demand by one-third of the members of the legislative assembly, or by 800 citizens, any law, and any resolution involving a capital expenditure of 50,000 francs, must be submitted to a direct popular vote, and the "initiative" at the demand of 1000 citizens in case of amendments to the cantonal constitution; there is an "initiative" in case of a demand of 800 citizens. The two members of the Federal Ständerat, as well as the one member of the Federal Nationalrat, are also elected by a popular vote.

The earlier history of the canton is practically identical with that of its capital Zug (see below). From 1728 to 1738 it was distracted by violent disputes about the distribution of the land. In 1742, during the Austrian war, the canton was invaded by the French army, but was even more devastated by the riots of 1744. In 1748 the inhabitants opposed the new council and the canton formed part of the Teltiag, and later of one of the districts of the huge canton of the Waldstätten in the Helvetic republic. In 1803 it regained its independence as a separate canton, and by the constitution of 1814 the "Landsge- meinde," or assembly of all the citizens, which had existed for both districts since 1736, became a body of electors to choose a cantonal council. The reform movement of 1850 did not affect the canton, which in 1853 was a member of the Sonderbund and shared in the war of 1847. In 1848 the remaining functions of the Landsgemeinde were abdicated. Both in 1851 and 1871 its inhabitants opposed the revision of the federal constitutions. The constitution of 1873-76 was amended in 1881, and was replaced by a new one in 1894.

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ZUG, capital of the Swiss canton of that name, a picturesque little town at the N.E. corner of the lake of Zug, and at the foot of the Zugerberg (1355 ft.), which rises gradually, its lower slopes thickly covered with fruit trees. Pop. (1900) 6568, mainly German-speaking and Romanist. The lake shore has been embanked and forms a promenade, whence glorious views of the snowy peaks of the Bernese Oberland, as well as of the Rigi and Platus, are gained. Towards its northerly end a monument marks the spot where a part of the shore slipped into the lake in 1887. The older part of the town is rather crowded together, though only four of the wall towers and a small part of the town walls still survive. The most striking old building in the town is the parish church of St Oswald (late 15th century), dedicated to St Oswald, king of Northumbria (d. 642), one of whose arms was brought to Zug in 1485. The town hall, also a 15th-century building, now houses the Historical and Antiquarian Museum. There are some quaint old painted houses close by. A little higher up the hill-side is a Capuchin convent in a striking position, close to the town wall and leaning against it. Still higher, and outside the old town, is the fine new parish church of St Michael, consecrated in 1902. The business quarter is on the rising ground north of the old town, near the railway station. Several fine modern buildings rise on or close to the shore in the town and to its south, whilst to the south-west is a convent of Capuchin nuns, who manage a girls' school, and several other educational establishments. The town, first mentioned in 1240, is called an "oppidum" in 1242, and a "castrum" in 1255. In 1273 it was bought by Rudolph of Habsburg from Anna, the heiress of Kyburg and wife of Elio, count of the other line of Habsburg, and in 1278 part of its territory, the valley of Aegeri, was pledged by Rudolph as security for a portion of the marriage gift he promised to Joanna, daughter of Edward I. of England, who was betrothed to his son Hartmann, whose death in 1281 prevented the marriage from taking place. The town of Zug was governed by a bailiff, appointed by the Habsburgs, and a council, and was much favoured by that family. Several country districts (Baar, Menzingen, and Aegeri) had each its own "Landsge- meinde" but were governed by one bailiff, also appointed by the Habsburgs; these were known as the "Aeuser Amt," and were always favourably disposed to the Confederates. On the 27th of June 1352 both the town of Zug and the Aeuser Amt entered the Swiss Confederation, the latter being received on exactly the same terms as the town, and not, as was usual in the case of country districts, as a subject land; but in September 1352 Zug had to acknowledge its own lords again, and in 1355 to break off its connexion with the league. About 1364 the town and the Aeuser Amt were recovered for the league by the men of Sennwald, and finally in 1373 the town was in all the acts of the league. In 1379 the German king Wences- laus exempted Zug from all external jurisdictions, and in 1389 the Habsburgs renounced their claims, reserving only an annual payment of twenty silver marks, and this came to an end in 1415. In 1400 Wenceslaus gave all criminal jurisdiction to the town only. The Aeuser Amt then, in 1404, claimed that the banner and seal of Zug should be kept in one of the country districts, and were supported in this claim by Schwyz. The matter was finally settled in 1414 by arbitration and the banner was to be kept in the town. Finally in 1415 the right of electing the town magistrates to the "Gammann" was given to Zug by the league, and a share in the criminal jurisdiction was granted to the Aeuser Amt by the German king Sigismund. In 1385 Zug joined the league of the Swabian cities against Leopold of Habsburg and shared in the victory of Sempach, as well as in the various Argovian (1415) and Thurgovian (1468) conquests of the Confederates, and later in those in Italy (1512), having already taken part in the occupation of the Val d'Ossola. Between 1370 (Walchwil) and 1477 (Cham) Zug had acquired various districts in her own neighbourhood, principally to the north and the west, which were ruled till 1798 by the town alone, over subject lands. At the time of the Reformation Zug clung to the old faith and was a member of the "Christliche Vereinigung" of 1529. In 1586 it became a member of the Golden League. (W. A. B. C.)
a family of poetical power; his stepfather, Aus ibn Hajur, his sister, Khans, and his son, Ka'b ibn Zuhair, were all poets of eminence. He is said to have lived long, and at the age of one hundred to have met Mahomet. His home was in the land of the Frisians. These poems are characterized by their peaceful nature and a sententious moralizing. One of them is contained in the *Moulabbat*.

As a whole his poems have been published by W. Abhardt in his *The Divans of the six Ancient Arabic Poets* (London, 1876); and with the commentary of al-Alam (died 1083) by Count Landberg in the second part of his *Primeurs arabes* (Leiden, 1888). Some supplementary poems are contained in *Zuluf* von der Oberlieferung des Zuhairidwans* (Munich, 1892). (G. W. T.)

**ZUIDER ZEE,** or ZUIDER ZEE, a land-locked inlet on the coast of Holland, bounded N. by the chain of the Frisian Islands, and W., S., and E. by the provinces of North Holland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overysel, and Friesland. It is about 85 m. long N. to S., and from 10 to 45 m. broad, with an area of 2072 sq. m., and contains the islands of Marken, Schokland, Urk, Wieringen, and Griend. In the early centuries of the Christian era the Zuiden (i.e. Southern) Zee was a small inland lake situated in the present province of South Holland. It was called by Tacitus, Terschelling, Pliny, and other early writers. It was separated from the sea by a belt of marsh and fen unifying Friesland and North Holland, the original coast-line being still indicated by the line of the Frisian Islands. Numerous streams, including the Vecht, Eem, and Yssel, discharged their waters into this lake and issued thence as the Vlie (Latin *Pleus*), which reached the North Sea by the Vliegat between the islands of Vlieland and Terschelling. In the *Lex Frisonum* the Vlie (Fli, Flih) is accepted as the boundary between the territory of the East and West Frisians. In time, however, and especially during the 12th century, high tides and north-west storms swept away the western banks of the Vlie and submerged great tracts of land. In 1170 the land between Stavoren, Texel, and Medemblik was washed away, and a century later the Zuiden Zee was formed. The open waterway between Stavoren and Enkhuizen, however, as it now exists, dates from 1400. In the south and east the destruction was arrested by the high sandy shores of Gool, Veluwe, Voorst, and Gasterland in the provinces of Utrecht, Gelderland, Overysel, and Friesland respectively.

The mean depth of the Zuiden Zee is 11.48 ft.; depth in the southern basin of the former lake, 19 ft.; at Val van Urk (deep water) is the bed of the Zuiden Zee 14 ft. If, however, we compute from the island of Urk to Marken, and thence westwards to Hoorn (North Holland) and N.N.E. to Lemmer (Friesland), these lines will connect parts of the Zuiden Zee. Receding a distance of 10 ft. from the shores of the coast on all sides 3 ft. deep or less. This shallowness of its waters served to protect the Zuiden Zee from the invasion of large ships of war. It also explains how many optimists of inundations, improvement of communication between Enkhuizen, Hoorn, Mornikendam, declined to the rank of provincial trading and fishing ports. The fisheries of the Zuiden Zee are of considerable importance. Eighty per cent. of the bottom consists of sea clay and the more recent silt of the Yssel; 20 per cent. of sand, partly in the north about Urk and Enkhuizen, partly in the south along the high shores of Gool, Veluwe, &c. The shallowness of the sea and the character of its bottom, promising fertile soil, occasioned various projects of drainage. The scheme recommended by the Zuiden Zee Vereeniging (1886) formed the subject of a report in 1894 by a state commission. The principal feature in the scheme was the building of a dike from the island of Urk to Amsterdam, and, by sluices near Wieringen, to the northern part of the sea. The four polders with their areas of fertile soil would be:—

1. North-west polder, area 53,599 acres: fertile soil, 46,189 acres.
2. South-west : 77,854 : 68,167
3. South-east : 125,599 : 122,773
4. North-east : 120,783

The Lake Ysselmeer would have an area of 560 sq. m. The gain would be the addition to the kingdom of a new and fertile province of the area of North Brabant, a saving of expenses on dikes, diminution of inundations, improvement of communication between the south and the north of the kingdom, protection of isles of the sea, &c. The costs were calculated as follows: (1) enclosing dike, sluices, and regulation of Zuiden Zee, £1,760,000; (2) reclamation, £5,200,000; (3) dike works, £400,000; (4) indemnity to fishermen, £180,000; total, £7,540,000.

In 1901 the government introduced a bill in the States General, based on the recommendations of the commission for executing the project, which would cost £4,370,000, or £7,580,000: the Zuiden Zee would be drained by a dike from the North Holland coast, through the Amstel to Wieringen and from that island to the Friesian coast at Haam; and further providing for the draining of two portions of the enclosed area, namely the N.W. and the S.W. polders shown in the table. The entire work was to be completed in 18 years at an estimated cost of £7,916,000. The bill failed to become law and in consequence of financial difficulties the project had not, up to 1910, advanced beyond the stage of consideration.

With the exception of Griend and Schokland, the islands of the Zuiden Zee are inhabited by small fishing communities who retain the picturesque customs and picturesqueness of the Urk and Zee population. The Zuider Zee is mentioned as an island in 966. The inhabitants of Schokland were compelled to leave the island by order of the state in 1830, it being considered insecure from inundation. The island of Griend (or Grind) once boasted a walled town, which was destroyed by flood at the end of the 13th century. But the island continued for some centuries to serve as a pastureage for cattle, giving its name to a well-known description of cheese. Like some of the other islands, sheep are still brought to graze upon it in summer, and a large number of birds’ eggs are collected upon it in spring. Several of the islands were once the property of religious houses on the mainland.


**Zula,** a small town near the head of Annesley Bay on the African coast of the Red Sea. It derives its chief interest from ruins in its vicinity which are generally supposed to mark the site of an ancient Egyptian settlement. The town Zula is mentioned as an island in 966. The inhabitants of Schokland were compelled to leave the island by order of the state in 1830, it being considered insecure from inundation. The island of Griend (or Grind) once boasted a walled town, which was destroyed by flood at the end of the 13th century. But the island continued for some centuries to serve as a pastureage for cattle, giving its name to a well-known description of cheese. Like some of the other islands, sheep are still brought to graze upon it in summer, and a large number of birds’ eggs are collected upon it in spring. Several of the islands were once the property of religious houses on the mainland.


**ZULÓAGA,** Ignacio (1787— ), Spanish painter, was born at Elbar, in the Basque country, the son of the metal-worker and damascener Placido Zuloga, and grandson of the organizer and director of the royal armoury in Madrid. The career chosen for him by his father was that of an architect, and with this object in view he was sent to Rome, where he immediately followed the strong impulse that led him to painting. After only six months’ work he completed his first picture, which was exhibited at the Paris Salon of 1809. Continuing his studies in Paris, he was strongly influenced by Gauguin and Toulouse Lautrec. Only on his return to his native soil he found his true style, which is based on the national Spanish
ZULULAND

To the young artist who sought the decaying, ragged style was the very negation of the aims of such well-known modern Spanish artists as Fortuny, Madrazo, and Benlliure. It was first in Paris, and then in Brussels and other continental art centres, that Zululand was hailed by the reformers as the regenerator of Spanish national art and as the leader of a school. He is now represented in almost every great continental gallery. Two of his canvases are at the Luxembourg, one at the Brussels Museum ("Avant la Corrida"), and one ("The Poet Don Miguel") at the Vienna Gallery. The Pau Museum owns an interesting portrait of a lady, the Barcelona Municipal Museum the "Siesta," and the Musée d'Art Moderne de la Ville de Paris the "Madame Louise"; the Berlin Gallery, "The Tapers." Other examples are in the Budapest, Stuttgart, Ghent and Posen galleries and in many important private collections.

A fully illustrated account of the artist and his work, by M. Utrillo, was published in a special number of Forma (Barcelona, 1907).

ZULULAND, a country of south-east Africa, forming the N.E. part of the province of Natal in the Union of South Africa. The "Province of Zululand," as it was officially styled from 1898 to 1910, lies between 26° 50' and 29° 15' S. and 30° 40' and 33° E., and has an area of 10,450 sq. m. It includes in the north the country of the Ama Tonga, Zaanbanian, and other small territories not part of the former Zulu kingdom and still farther away the Nguni country east of the south coast of Portuguese East Africa. Bounded S.E. by the Indian Ocean, it has a coast line of 210 m. North and north-west it is bounded by the Utrecht and Vryheid districts of Natal and by Swaziland. Its greatest length in a direct line is 185 m., its greatest breadth 105 m. (For map see South Africa.)

Physical Features.—Zululand is part of the region of hills and plateaus which descend seaward from the Drakensberg,—the great mountain chain of South Africa, which stretches from the eastern territory of the country to South-West Africa. The coast, which curves to the N.E., is marked by a line of sandhills covered with thick bush and rising in places to a height of 500 ft. There are occasional outcrops of rock and low perpendicular cliffs. Behind the sandhills is a low-lying plain in which are a number of shallow lagoons. Of these St Lucia Lake and Kosi Lake are of considerable size and communicate with the sea by estuaries. St Lucia, the larger of the two, is some 35 m. long by 10 m. broad, with a depth of 9 to 10 ft. It runs parallel to the ocean, from which it is separated by sandhills. The opening to the sea, St Lucia river, is at the south end. Kosi Lake lies further inland. It is connected with the sea by the channel of St Lucia and its opening to the sea is northward. Between Kosi and St Lucia lakes lies Lake Sibayi, close to the coast but not communicating with the sea. The coast plain extends inland from the sandhills, varying in width with the wave action, the width of the sandhills and the level of the coastal plain. The coastland is gently rolling. The rest of the country is occupied by ranges of hills and plateaus 2000 to 3000 ft. above sea level. Behind Estuary Plateau, the vegetation is comparatively simple, consisting in the main of plateaus formed of sedimentary rocks, resting on a platform of granite and metamorphic rocks (see NATAL: Geology).

Climate.—The climate of the coast belt is semi-tropical and malaria is prevalent; that of the highlands temperate. The annual rainfall is moderate and is greatest in the rainy season, but in the higher country snow and sleet are not uncommon in July. On the coast about 40 in. of rain fall in the summer months and about 7 in. in the winter months. A fresh S.E. wind is fairly constant in the inland regions during the middle of the day. A hot wind from the N.W. is occasionally experienced in the highlands.

Flora and Fauna.—The coast plain (in large part), the river valleys, and the eastern sides of the lower hills are covered with mimosa and other thorn trees. This is generally known as thorn-bush and has little undergrowth. "Coast forests" grow in small patches along the courses of the rivers, at their mouths, and on the sandhills along the coast. The trees are low, conical timber trees, palms, mangroves and other tropical and sub-tropical plants and have an almost impenetrable undergrowth. The largest and most distinct of these forests is that of Kosi and St Lucia. In extent, adjacent to St Lucia Bay. The upland regions are thickly wooded with timber forests, the trees including the yellow-wood and iron-wood. The most noteworthy timber forests are those of Nkandla and the small land of Lebombo, south of Kwa-Bhaca. They are covered with grass and occasional thorn trees. Orchids are among the common flowers. The island includes the lion and elephant, found in the near-by bushland of the Portuguese frontier (the lion was also found as late as 1895 in the Ndwandwe district), the white and the black rhinoceros, the leopard, panther, jackal, spotted hyena, aard-wolf, dassie, dassie, wild boar, giraffe, gnu, impala, kudu, springbok, waterbuck, eland, roan antelope, ducker, &c., and some birds. The Hippopotami are found on the coast, and alligators are common in the rivers and lagoons of the low country. Venomous snakes are found. The great kori bustard, the kooban, turkey buzzards (known as insinges), wild duck, and paaw are among the game birds. The ostrich and secretary-bird are also found. Of domestic animals the Zulus possess a dwarf breed of smooth-skinned humped cattle. Locusts are an occasional pest.

Inhabitants.—The population in 1904 was estimated at 250,000. Of these only 5635 lived outside the area devoted to native locations. The white population numbered 1663. The population of the country of the Zulus is about 1,000,000 and the country is a settlement of some 2000 Basutos in the Ntuzi district. After the establishment of the Zulu military ascendency early in the 19th century various Zulu hordes successively invaded and overran a great part of east-central Africa, as far as and even beyond the Lake Nyasa district. Throughout these regions they are variously known as Ma-Zitu, Ma-Ravi, Wa-Ngoni (Angoni), Matabele (Ame-Ndebehi), Ma-Vit, and Aba-Zanzi. Such was the terror inspired by these fierce warriors that many of the tribes, such as the Wa-Nindi of Mozambique, adopted their enemies or oppressors. Hence the impression that the true Zulus are far more numerous north of the Limpopo than has ever been the case. In most places they have become extinct or absorbed in the surrounding populations owing to their habit of incorporating prisoners in the tribe. But they still hold their ground as the ruling element in the region between the Limpopo and the middle Zambezi, which from them takes the name of Matabeleland. The circumstances and history of the two chief migrations of Zulu peoples northward are well known; the Matabele were led by Mosilikatze (Masilionjazi), and the Angoni by Sungandaba, both chiefs of Chief kaZulu, who revolted from him in the early 19th century.

The Zulu possess an elaborate system of laws regulating the inheritance of property, the laws of descendent (or chief), the complexity arising from the practice of polygamy and the exchange of cattle made upon marriage. The giving of cattle in the latter case is generally referred to as a barter and somewhat of the bride, from which indeed it is not easily distinguishable. But it is regarded in a different light by the natives. The kraal is
under the immediate rule of its headman, who is a patriarchal
responsible for the welfare of all its members. Over the headman,
whose authority may extend to marriage, inheritance, and the
chieftainship, and above the tribal chief was the king, whose
authority is now exercised by a British commissioner. Under the
command of a British officer, the colonial magistrates have
brought to trial and punished an undue number of venal or
the utterance of any word which occurs in the names of the
principal members of her husband's family: e.g., if she has a
brother-in-law named U Xomo, she would not use the Zulu for
"brother" instead of inventing some other word for it. The
husband observes the same custom with regard to his mother-in
law. The employment of "witch doctors" for "smelling out"
caulpins and their treatment by witchcraft or execrations or
viledoers of any kind, as poisoners, once common in Zululand,
and in neighbouring countries, was discouraged by Cetywayo,
who established "kraals of refuge" for the reception of persons
wrongfully accused from Boer Courts. Somkela was finally
suppressed by the British in the early years of the
20th century. (For the Zulu speech, see Bantu Languages.)

The Zulu live in kraals, circular enclosures with
walls, generally a ring fence inside forming a typical kraal. Near
the fence and the outer fencing are the huts of the inhabitants.
The royal kraal for a considerable period was at Ulundi, in the
valley of the White Umfolozi. The last king to occupy it was
Dininzi, Dinizulu's kraal was farther north near the Ndawndwa
magistracy. The chief white settlements are Eshowe and Melmoth. Eshowe (pop. 1904, 1855 of whom 570 were whites) is about 95 m. N.E.
of Durban, and a lake of the same name in which Col. Pearson was slain by the Zulus in 1879, and was later named in his memory. It is situated on a hilltop and has a
bracing climate. Two hundred acres of forest
land in the centre of the town have been reserved as a national
park. Melmoth, 23 m. N.E. of Eshowe, lies in the centre of a
district, farmed by Boers. Somkela is the headquarters of
the St Lucia coal-fields district. Xandibula is a small settlement in the
south-west of the country.

Communications. Notwithstanding its 210 m. of coast-line Zululand
possesses no harbours. This is the result of its parents of the Tugela there is, however, fairly safe anchorage, except in
S.S.W. or W. winds, about 1500 yds. from the shore. The
landing-place is on the open sandy beach, where a small stream enters the sea. The landing-place is dignified with the name of Port
Durburford. It was used to land stores in the war of 1879. Well-made
roads connect all the magistracies. The Tugela is crossed by
seven wooden bridges, which roads from Natal and Zululand
converge. Two long lagoons in front of Bond's Delirium, are both near
the mouth of the river. The Mluldrift is 36 m. in a direct line
above the mouth of the Tugela. Korkes Drift, 48 m., also in a direct line
above the Mluldrift, is a crossing of the Buquyana river a little above the Tugela confluence. A railway, completed
1904, which begins at Durban and crosses into Zululand by a
bridge over the Tugela near the Lower Drift, runs along the coast between Port Durburford and the Umzimkulu. The railway-line
is 167 m. from Durban, of which 98 are in Zululand. There is
geographic communication between the magistracies and towns by
western railways.

Industries. The Zulu give little attention to the cultivation of
the soil. Their main wealth consists in their herds of cattle and
flocks of sheep. They raise, however, crops of maize, millet, sweet
potatoes and tobacco. Sugar, tea and coffee are grown in the
country. The Zulu are good agriculturists. Abaca is mined in the St Lucia Bay
district, and bituminous coal is found in the Nqutu and Kyundwi
hills. Gold, iron, copper and other minerals have also been found,
but their mineral wealth of the country is undeveloped. There is
a considerable trade with the natives in cotton goods, &c., and numbers
of Zulu seek service in Natal (Trade statistics are included in
those of Natal.)

Administration. Zululand for provincial purposes is governed by
the provincial council of Natal; otherwise it is subject to the
House of Assembly. It was represented in the House of Assembly
in 1904, two Members for the Legislative Assembly, one
for the Natal Native Assembly, and two for the Legislative
Assembly, one for the districts of Eshowe and Melmoth. Their selection
and election were governed by the same laws as in Natal proper,
and finally, in the franchise qualifications—which practically exclude natives—remained unaltered.
The parliamentary voters in 1910 numbered 1427. The executive
power is vested in the Governor of Natal, who is the representative of the
Queen in the country, and of the British Government—of the civil
administration. The Ingwawuma magistracy, like Tongland, formed no part of the dominions of the
Zulu kings, but was ruled by independent chiefs until its annexa-
tion by Great Britain in 1895.

With the exception of the townships and a district of Eshowe
magistracy known as "Proviso B," mainly occupied by
Boer farmers, all the land was vested in the crown and very little
has been parted with to Europeans. The crown lands are, in
effect, native reserves. A hut tax of 14s. per annum is levied on all
houses of more than 8 feet square, whether inhabited by a Zulu who
possess, whether or not each wife has a separate hut. Since 1906
a poll tax of 1£, a head is also levied on all males over eighteen,
European or native.

History.—At what period the Zulu (one of a number of closely
related septs) first reached the country to which they have
given their name is uncertain; they were probably settled in the
valley of the Tugela in the second half of the 19th century,
and the name of the Zulu race is believed to be the
account of the wreck of the "Doddington" in 1756. The
survivors met with hospitable treatment at the hands of
the natives of Natal, and afterwards proceeded up the coast to
St Lucia Bay. They describe the natives as "very proud and
haughty, and not so accommodating as those lately left." They
differed from the other natives in the superior neatness of
their food of preparing their food, and were more cleanly
in their persons, habits, and dress. Their manner of life,
their chief pride seemed to be to keep their hair in
order. It is added that they watched strictly over their
women.

At the close of the 18th century the Zulu were an unimportant
tribes numbering a few thousands only. At that time the most
powerful of the neighbouring tribes was the Umtetwa (mTetwa
or Aba-Tetwa) which dwelt in the country north-east of the
Tugela. The ruler of the Umtetwa was a chief who had lived an adventurous career and was known as Dingiswayo
(The Wanderer). Chaka, who in 1818 was at the head of a
tribe, as is supposed, had observed the manners in which the whites formed their soldiers into disciplined
regiments. He too divided the young men of his
tribe into impis (regiments), and the Umtetwa became a formidable
military power. Dingiswayo also encouraged trade and
opened relations with the Portuguese at Delagoa Bay, bartering
ivory and oxen for brass and beads. In 1805 he was joined by
Chaka, otherwise Tshaka (born c. 1783), the son of the Zulu
chief Senzangakona; on the latter's death in 1810 Chaka,
who was influenced by Dingiswayo, was chosen as ruler of
the Ama-Zulu, though not the rightful heir. Chaka
then formed his own impis, which were armed with a
patron's raids, and in 1812 the Umtetwa and Zulu drove
the Amangwana across the Buffalo river. About this time Dingis-
wayo was captured and put to death by Zvijo, chief of the
Undwande clan, with whom he had waged constant war. The
Umtetwa army then placed themselves under Chaka, who not
long afterwards conquered the Undwande. By the incorpora-
tion of these tribes Chaka made of the Zulu a powerful
nation. He strengthened the regimental system adopted by Dingiswayo and perfected the discipline of his army.
A new order of battle was adopted—the troops being massed
in formation, with a reserve in the shape of a parallel-
gram ready to strengthen the weakest point. Probably Chaka's
greatest innovation was the introduction of the stabbing assegai.
The breaking short of the shaft of the assegai when the
weapon was used at close quarters was already a common practice among
the Ama-Zulu, but Chaka had the shaft of the assegai made
short, and their blades longer and heavier, so that they could be
used for cutting or piercing. At the same time the size of the
shield was increased, the more completely to cover the body of
the warrior. Military kraals were formed in which the warriors
formed

The Boers had the right to settle in this district in virtue of
Proviso B of an agreement made, on the 2nd of October 1886,
between the settlers in the "New Republic" and Sir A. E. Have
lock, governor of Natal.

The river called the Umkelwayo is to be noted. It states that the ancestors of the tribes
living in what is now Natal and Zululand were acquainted with the
regimental system and the method of attack in crescent shape
formation in the 17th century. Memories of these customs lingered even if the practice had died out. Among the Ama-Xosa section of Kaffirs they appear to have been quite unknown.

Rise of the Zulu nation.

Chaka.
were kept apart. Members of a regiment were of much the same age, and the young warriors were forbidden to marry until they had distinguished themselves in battle.

Chaka had but two ways of dealing with the tribes with whom he came in contact; either they received permission to be incorporated in the Zulu nation or they were practically exterminated. In the latter case the only persons spared were young girls and growing lads who could serve as carriers for the army. No tribe against which he waged war was able successfully to oppose the Zulu arms. At first Chaka turned his attention northward. Those who could fled before him, the first of importance so to do being a chief named Swangendaba (Sungandaba), whose tribe, of the same stock as the Zulu, was known as Angoni. He was followed by another tribe, which under Manikusa for many years ravaged the district around and north of Delagoa Bay (see GAELAND). Chaka next attacked the tribes on his southern border; and by 1820 had made himself master of Natal, which he swept almost clear of inhabitants. It was about 1820 that Mosilikatze (properly Umsilikazi), a general in the Zulu army, having incurred Chaka's wrath by keeping back part of the booty taken in an expedition, fled with a large following across the Drakensberg and began to lay waste a great part of the country between the Vaal and Limpopo rivers. Mosilikatze was not of the Zulu tribe proper, and he and his followers styled themselves Abakali-Zulu. Chaka's own dominions, despite his conquests, were not very extensive. He ruled from the Pongolo river on the north to the Umkomazi river on the south, including the higher ground near the base of the Drakensberg; thus his territory coincided almost exactly with the limits of Zululand and Natal as constituted in 1903.

His influence, however, extended from the Limpopo to the borders of Cape Colony, and through the ravages of Swangendaba and Mosilikatze the terror of the Zulu arms was carried far and wide into the interior of the continent.

Chaka seems to have first come into contact with Europeans in 1824. In that year (see NATAL) he was visited by F. G. Farewell and a few companions, and to them he made a grant of the district of Port Natal. Farewell found the king at Umgungumlovu, the royal kraal on the White Umfolosi, "surrounded by a large number of chiefs and about 8000 or 9000 armed men, observing a state and ceremony in our introduction little expected." At this time an attempt was made to murder Chaka; but the wound he received was cured by one of Farewell's companions, a circumstance which made the king very friendly to Europeans. Anxious to open a political connexion with the Cape and British governments, Chaka entrusted early in 1828 one of his principal chiefs, Sobti, and a companion to the care of J. S. King, one of the Natal settlers, to be conducted on an embassy to Cape Town, Sobti being commissioned to proceed to the king of England. But they were not allowed to proceed beyond Port Elizabeth, and three months later were sent back to Zululand. In July of the same year Chaka sent an army westward which laid waste the Pondo country. The Zulu force did not come into contact with the British troops guarding the Cape frontier, but much alarm was caused by the invasion. In November envoyos from Chaka reached Cape Town, and it was determined to send a British officer to Zululand to confer with him. Before the embassy started, news came that Chaka had been murdered (23rd of September 1828) at a military kraal on the Umvota about fifty miles from Port Natal. Chaka was a victim to a conspiracy by his half brothers Dingaan and Umthlangana, while a short time afterwards Dingaan murdered Umthlangana, overcame the opposition of a third brother, and made himself king of the Zulu.

Bloodstained as had been Chaka's rule, that of Dingaan appears to have exceeded it in wanton cruelty, as is attested by several trustworthy European travellers and merchants who soon after frequently visited Zululand. The British settlers at Port Natal were alternately terrorized and conciliated. In 1835 Dingaan gave permission to the British settlers at Port Natal to establish missionary stations in the country, in return for a promise made by the settlers not to harbour fugitives from his dominions. In 1836 American missionaries were also allowed to open stations; in 1837 he permitted the Rev. F. Owen, of the Church Missionary Society, to reside at his great kraal, and Owen was with the king when in November 1837 he received Pieter Retief, the leader of the first party of Boer immigrants to enter Natal.

Coming over the Drakensberg in considerable numbers during 1837, the Boers found the land stretching south from the mountains almost deserted, and Retief went to Dingaan to obtain a formal cession of the country west of the Tugela, which river the Zulu recognized as the boundary of Zululand proper. After agreeing to Retief's request Dingaan caused the Boer leader and his companions to be murdered (6th of February 1838), following up his treachery by slaying as many as possible of the other Boers who had entered Natal. After two unsuccessful attempts to avenge their slain, in which the Boers were aided by the British settlers at Port Natal, Dingaan's army was totally defeated on the 16th of December 1838, by a Boer force under Andries Pretorius. Operating in open country, mounted on horseback, and with rifles in their hands, the Boer farmers were able to inflict fearful losses on their enemy, while their own casualties were few. On "Dingaan's day" the Boer force received the attack of the Zulu while in laager; the enemy charged in dense masses, being met both by cannon shot and rifle fire, and were presently attacked in the rear by mounted Boers. After the defeat Dingaan set fire to his kraal and moved to the Vaal, where he again found refuge in the bush; on the Boers recrossing the Tugela he established himself at Ulundi at a little distance from his former capital. His power was greatly weakened and a year later was overthrown, the Boers in Natal (January 1840) supporting his brother Mpande (usually called Panda) in rebellion against him. The movement was completely successful, several of Dingaan's regiments going over to Panda. Dingaan passed into Swaziland in advance of his retreating forces, and was there murdered, while Panda was crowned king of Zululand by the Boers.

When in 1843 the British succeeded the Boers as masters of Natal they entered into a treaty with Panda, who gave up to the British the country between the upper Tugela and the Buffalo rivers, and also the district of St. Lucia Bay. (The bay was not then occupied by the British, whose object in obtaining the cession was to prevent its acquisition by the Boers. Long afterwards the treaty with Panda was successfully invoked to prevent a German occupation of the bay.) No sooner had the British become possessed of Natal than there was a large immigration into it of Zulu fleeing from the misgovernment of Panda. That chief was not, however, as warlike as his brothers Chaka and Dingaan; and he remained throughout his reign at peace with the government of Natal.1 With the Boers who had settled in the Transvaal, however, he was involved in various frontier disputes. He had wars with the Swazis, who, in 1855 ceded to the Boers of Lydenburg a tract of land on the north side of the Pongolo in order to place Europeans between themselves and the Zulu. In 1856 a civil war broke out between two of Panda's sons, Cetywayo and Umbulazi, who were rival claimants for the succession. A battle was fought between them on the banks of the Tugela in December 1856, in which Umbulazi and many of his followers were slain. The Zulu crown remained vacant, however, and disturbed until the government of Natal in 1861 obtained the formal nomination of a successor to Panda; and Cetywayo was appointed. The agent chosen to preside at the nomination ceremony was Mr. (afterwards Sir) Theophilus Shepstone, who was in charge of native affairs in Natal and had won in a

1 Bishop Schreuder, a Norwegian missionary long resident in Zululand, gave Sir Bartle Frere the following estimate of the three brothers who successively reigned over the Zulu—"Chaka was a really great man, cruel and unmitigatedly wild, who did great things. Dingaan was simply a beast on two legs. Panda was a weaker and less able man, but kindly and really grateful, a very rare quality among Zulus. He used to kill sometimes, but never wantonly or continuously."
remarkable degree the respect and liking of the Zulu. Panda died in October 1872, but practically the government of Zululand had been in Cetewayo's hands since the victory of 1856, owing both to political circumstances and the falling health of his father. In 1873 the Zulu nation appealed to the Natal government to preside over the installation of Cetewayo as king; and this request was acceded to, Shepstone being again chosen as British representative. During the whole of Panda's reign the condition of Zululand showed little improvement. Bishop Colenso visited him in 1857 and obtained a grant of land for a mission station, which was opened in 1860, by the Rev. R. Robertson, who laboured in the country for many years, gaining the confidence both of Panda and Cetewayo. German, Norwegian and other missions were also founded. The number of converts was few, but the missionaries exercised a very wholesome influence and to them in measure was due the comparatively mildness of Panda's later years.

The frontier disputes between the Zulu and the Transvaal Boers ultimately involved the British government and were one of the causes of the war which broke out in 1879. They concerned, chiefly, territory which in 1854 was proclaimed the republic of Utrecht, the Boers who had settled there having in that year obtained a deed of cession from Panda. In 1860 a Boer commission was appointed to reconnait, and to obtain, if possible, from the Zulu a road to the sea at St Lucia Bay. The commission, however, effected nothing. In 1861 Umtonga, a brother of Cetewayo, was captured by the Boers and taken to Utrecht, bringing with him several Zulu prisoners assembled an army on that frontier. According to evidence brought forward later by the Boers, Cetewayo offered the farmers a strip of land along the border if they would surrender his brother. This they did on the condition that Umtonga's life was spared, and in 1861 Panda signed a deed making over the land to the Boers. The southern boundary of the strip added to Utrecht ran from Rorke's Drift on the Buffalo to a point on the Pongolo. The boundary was beaconed in 1864, but when in 1865 Umtonga fled from Zululand to Natal, Cetewayo's people seeing that he had lost his part of the bargain (for he feared that Umtonga might be used to supplant him as Panda had been used to supplant Dinga an), caused the beacon to be removed, the Zulu claiming also the land ceded by the Swazis to Lydenburg. The British asserted that the Swazis were their vassals and denied their right to part with the territory. During the year a Boer commando under Paul Kruger and an army under Cetewayo were posted along the Utrecht border. Hostilities were avoided, but the Zulu occupied the land north of the Pongolo. Questions were also raised as to the validity of the documents signed by the Zulu concerning the Utrecht strip; in 1869 the services of the lieut.-governor of Natal were accepted by both parties as arbitrator, but the attempt then made to settle the difficulty proved unsuccessful.

Such was the position when by his father's death Cetewayo (q.v.) became absolute ruler of the Zulu. As far as possible Cetewayo revived the military methods of his uncle Chaka, and even succeeded in equipping his regiments with firearms. It is believed that he instigated the Kaffirs in the Transkei to revolt, and he sided Sikukini in his struggle with the Transvaal. His rule over his own people was tyrannous. By Bishop Schreuder he was described as an able man, but for cold, selfish pride, cruelty and untruthfulness worse than any of his predecessors." In September 1876 the massacre of a large number of girls (who had married men of their own age instead of the men of an older regiment, for whom Cetewayo had designed them) provoked a strong remonstration from the government of Natal, inclined as that government was to look leniently on the doings of the Zulu. The tension between Cetewayo and the Transvaal over border disputes continued, and when in 1877 Britain annexed the Transvaal the dispute was transferred to the new owners of the country. A commission was appointed by the lieut.-governor of Natal in February 1878 to report on the boundary question. The commission reported in July, and found almost entirely in favour of the contention of the Zulu. Sir Bartle Frere, then High Commissioner, who thought the award "one-sided and unfair to the Boers" (Martineau, Life of Frere, ii. 216), stipulated that, on the land being given to the Zulu, the Boers living on it should be compensated if they left, or protected if they remained. Cetewayo (who now found no defender in Natal save Bishop Colenso) was in a defiant humour, and permitted outrages by Zulu both on the Transvaal and Natal borders. Frere was convinced that the peace of South Africa could be preserved only if the power of Cetewayo was curtailed. Therefore in forwarding his award on the boundary dispute the High Commissioner demanded that the military system should be remodelled. The youths were to be allowed to marry as they came to man's estate, and the regiments were not to be called up except with the consent of the council of the nation and also of the British government. Moreover, the missionaries were to be un molested and a British resident was to be accepted. These demands were made to Zulu deputies on the 11th of December 1878, a definite reply being required by the 31st of that month.

Cetewayo returned no answer, and in January 1879 a British force under General Thesiger (Lord Chelmsford) invaded Zululand. Lord Chelmsford had under him a force of 500 Europeans and 8,500 natives; 3,000 of the latter were employed along the frontier; 300 Europeans and 400 natives were stationed in the Utrecht district. Three columns were to invade Zululand, from the Lower Tugela, Rorke's Drift, and Utrecht respectively, their objective being Ulundi, the royal kraal. Cetewayo's army numbered fully 40,000 men. The entry of all three columns was unopposed. On the 22nd of January the centre column (1,600 Europeans, 2,500 natives), which had advanced from Rorke's Drift, was encamped near Isandhlwana; on the morning of that day Lord Chelmsford moved out with a small force to support a reconnoitring party. After he had left, the camp, in charge of Col. Durnford, was surprised by a Zulu army nearly 10,000 strong. The British were overwhelmed and almost every man killed, the casualties being 806 Europeans (more than half belonging to the 24th regiment) and 471 natives. All the transport was also lost. Lord Chelmsford and the reconnoitring party returned to find the camp deserted; next day they retreated to Rorke's Drift, which had been the scene of an heroic and successful defence. After the victory at Isandhlwana several imps of the Zulu army had moved to the Drift. The garrison stationed there, under Lieuts. Chard and Bronhead, numbered about 80 men of the 24th regiment, and they had in hospital between 30 and 40 men. Late in the afternoon they were attacked by about 4,000 Zulu. On six occasions, the Zulu got within the entrenchments, to be driven back each time at the bayonet's point. At dawn the Zulu withdrew, leaving 350 dead. The British loss was 17 killed and 10 wounded.

In the meantime the right column under Colonel Pearson had reached Eshowe from the Tugela; on receipt of the news of Isandhlwana most of the mounted men and the native troops were sent back to the Natal, leaving at Eshowe a garrison of 1,300 Europeans and 65 natives. The force was hemmed in by the enemy. The left column under Colonel (afterwards Sir) Evelyn Wood, which had done excellent work, found itself obliged to act on the defensive after the disaster to the centre column.2 For a time an invasion of Natal was feared. The Zulu, however, made no attempt to enter Natal, while Lord Chelmsford awaited reinforcements before resuming his advance. During this time (March the 12th) an escort of stores marching to Luneberg, the headquarters of the Utrecht force, was attacked when encamped on both sides of the Intombe river. The camp was surprised, 62 out of 106 men were killed, and all the stores were captured.

With the column were 40 Boers, the Uys clan, under Piet Uys, whose father had been killed in 1858 in the wars with Dinga an.
lost. News of Isandhlwana reached England on the 11th of February, and on the same day about 10,000 men were ordered out to South Africa. The first troops arrived at Durban on the 17th of March. On the 29th a column, under Lord Chelmsford, consisting of 3,400 Europeans and 2,300 natives, marched to the relief of Elandslaagte, and was joined by Wood's Column. On the 26th of April the camp was attacked at Ginginlhovo, the Zulu being repulsed. Their loss was estimated at 1,200 while the British had only two killed and 52 wounded. The next day Eshowe was relieved. Wood, who had been given leave to make a diversion in northern Zululand, on the 28th of March occupied Hlobane (Inhlabane) mountain. The force was, however, compelled to retreat owing to the unexpected appearance of the main Zulu army, which nearly outflanked the British. Besides the loss of the native contingent (those not killed deserted) there were 200 casualties among the 1,000 engaged. At mid-day next day the Zulu army made a desperate attack, lasting over four hours, on Wood's camp at Kamabula; the enemy—over 20,000 strong—was driven off, losing fully 1,000 men, while the British casualties were 18 killed and 65 wounded.

By the middle of April nearly all the reinforcements had reached Natal, and Lord Chelmsford reorganized his forces. The 1st division, under major-general Crealock, advanced along the coast belt and was destined to act as a support to the 2nd division, under major-general Newdigate, which was to march on Ulundi from Rorke's Drift and Kamabula. Owing to difficulties of transport it was the beginning of June before Newdigate was ready to advance. On the 1st of that month the prince imperial of France (Louis Napoleon), who had been allowed to accompany the British troops, was killed while out with a reconnoitring party. On the 1st of July Newdigate and Wood had reached the White Umfolosi, in the heart of the enemy's country. During their advance messengers were sent by Cetywayo to treat for peace, but he did not accept the terms offered. Meantime Sir Garnet (afterwards Lord) Wolseley had been sent out to super-
sede Lord Chelmsford, and on the 7th of July he reached Crealock's headquarters at Port Durnford.

But by that time the campaign was practically over. The 2nd division (with which was Lord Chelmsford) and Wood's column crossed the White Umfolosi on the 4th of July—the force numbering 4,200 Europeans and 1,000 natives. Within a mile of Ulundi the British force, formed in a hollow square, was attacked by a Zulu army numbering 12,000 to 15,000. The battle ended in a decisive victory for the British, whose losses were 20 killed and 95, while of the Zulu some 1,500 men were killed (see Ulundi).

After this battle the Zulu army dispersed, most of the leading chiefs tendered their submission, and Cetywayo became a 

Wolseley's fugitive. On the 27th of August the king was cap-
tured and sent to Cape Town. His deposition was officially announced to the Zulu, and Wolseley drew up a new scheme for the government of the country. The Chaka dynasty was deposed, and the Zulu country portioned among eleven Zulu chiefs, John Dunn, a white adventurer, and Hebebe, a Zulu chief who had been appointed a Resident. A Resident, who was to be the channel of communication between the chiefs and the British government. This arrangement was productive of much bloodshed and disturbance, and in 1882 the British government determined to restore Cetywayo to power. In the meantime, however, blood feuds had been engendered between the chiefs Ubhepu (Zibebeu) and Hamu on the one side and the tribes who supported the ex-king and his family on the other. Cetywayo's party (who now became known as Usutu) suffered severely at the hands of the two chiefs, who were aided by a band of white freebooters.

When Cetywayo was restored Usibepu was left in possession of his territory, while Dunn's land and that of the Basuto chief (the country between the Tugela and the Umhlwatu, i.e. adjoining Natal) was constituted a reserve, in which locations were to be provided for Zulu unwilling to serve the restored king. This new arrangement proved as futile as had Wolseley's. Usibepu, having created a formidable force of well-armed and trained warriors, and being left in independence on the borders of Cetywayo's territory, viewed with displeasure the re-installation of his former king, and Cetywayo was desirous of humbling his relative. A collision very soon took place. Usibepu's force was victorious, and on the 22nd of July 1884, led by a troop of mounted whites, he made a sudden descent upon Cetywayo's kraal at Ulundi, which he destroyed, massacring such of the inmates of both sexes as could not save themselves by flight. The king escaped, though wounded, into the Reserve; there he died in February 1884.

Cetywayo left a son, Dinizulu, who sought the assistance of some of the Transvaal Boers against Usibepu, whom he defeated and drove into the Reserve. These Boers, led by Lukas Meyer (1848-1900), claimed as a stipulated reward for their services the annexation of the Zulu country. On the 21st of May the Boer adventurers had proclaimed Dinizulu king of Zululand; in August following they founded the "New Republic," carved out of Zululand, and sought its recognition by the British government. The Usutu party now repented of their bad bargain, for by the end of 1885 they found the Boers claiming some three-fourths of their country. The British government intervened, took formal possession of St Lucia Bay (to which Germany as well as the Transvaal advanced claims), caused the Boers to reduce their demands, and within boundaries agreed to recognize the New Republic—whose territory was in 1888 incorporated in the Transvaal and has since 1903 formed the Vryheid division of Natal.

Seeing that peace could be maintained between the Zulu chiefs only by the direct exercise of authority, the British government annexed Zululand (minus the New Republic) in 1887, and placed it under a commissioner responsible to the governor of Natal. In the following year Dinizulu, who continued his feud with Usibepu, rebelled against the British. After a sharp campaign (June to August 1888), the Usutu losing 300 killed in one encounter. Dinizulu fled into the Transvaal. He surrendered himself to the British in November; in April 1889 he and two of his uncles (under whose influence he chiefly acted) were found guilty of high treason and were exiled to St Helena.

Under the wise administration of Sir Melmoth Osborn, the commissioner, whose headquarters were at Eshowe, and the district magistrates, the Zulu became reconciled to British rule, especially as European settlers were excluded from the greater part of the country. Large numbers of natives sought employment in Natal and at the Rand gold mines, and Zululand enjoyed a period of prosperity hitherto unknown. Order was maintained by a mounted native police force.

At the end of 1888 and at the beginning of 1889 some small tracts of territory lying between Zululand and Tongaland, under the rule of petty semi-independent chiefs, were added to Zululand; and in 1895 the territories of the chiefs Zamba (Sambana) and Umtegza, 685 sq. m. in extent, lying between the Portuguese territories, Swaziland, Zululand and Tongaland, were also added. In the same year a British protectorate was declared over Tongaland. The coast-line was thus secured for Great Britain up to the boundary of the Portuguese territory at

1 For his action on this occasion Colonel (afterwards General Sir) Redvers Buller, who was Wood's principal assistant, received the V.C. Piet Uys was among the slain.

2 Dunn was a son of one of the early settlers in Natal and had largely identified himself with the Zulu. In 1856 he commanded Umbaluzi against Cetywayo, but was high in that monarch's favour at the time of his coronation in 1873. When Frere's ultimatum was delivered to Cetywayo, Dunn, with 2,000 followers, crossed the Tugela into Natal (10th of January 1879). In 1888 he fought against Dinizulu.

8 Both these chiefs were members of the royal family.
Delagoa Bay. At that time the Transvaal government—which had been the first to reap the benefit of Great Britain’s defeat of the Zulu by acquiring the ‘New Republic’—was endeavoring to obtain the territories of Zamba and Umtogia, hoping also to secure a route through Tongaland to Kosi Bay. President Kruger protested in vain against this annexation, Great Britain being determined to prevent another Power establishing itself on the south-east African seaboard.

In 1893 Sir M. Osborn was succeeded as resident commissioner by Sir Marshal Clarke, who gained the confidence and good will of the Zulu. At the close of 1897 Zululand, in which Tongaland had been incorporated, was handed over to the imperial government to Natal, and Sir (then M.) C. J. R. Saunders was appointed civil commissioner. Lord Ludlow was appointed military commander. They returned to Natal in 1897. Zululand was under the command of Sir Dingane, as the Zulu leader in charge of the border districts. On the 28th of October, 1897, he received a vote of thanks from the legislature of Natal. In February, 1898, he was made a “government induna.” Officially one of several chiefs subject to the control of the resident magistrate, he was, in fact, regarded by most of the Zulu as the head of their nation. His influence appeared to be in the main exercised on the side of order. During the war of 1899-1902 there was some fighting between the Zulu and the Boers, provoked by the Boers entering Zulu territory. A Zulu kraal having been raided, the Zulu retaliated and, surrounding a small Boer commando, succeeded in killing every member of it. In September, 1901, the British promised to return the land to Bechuana.

Natal by way of Zululand, but the stubborn defence made by the small posts at Itala and Prospect Hill, both within the Zulu border, caused him to give up the project. Throughout the war the Zulu showed marked partiality for the British side.

At the close of the war the Natal government decided to allow white settlers in certain districts of Zululand, and a Lands Delimitation Commission was appointed. The commission, however, reported (1905) that four-fifths of Zululand was unfit for European habitation, and the remaining fifth already densely populated. The commission urged that the tribal system should be maintained. Meantime the coal mines near St. Lucia Bay were opened up and connected with Durban by railway. At this time rumours were current of disaffection among the Zulu, but this was regarded as the effervescence natural after the war. In 1905 a poll tax of £1 on all adult males was imposed by the Natal legislature; this tax was the ostensible cause of a revolt in 1906 among the natives of Natal, who were largely of Zulu origin. Bambaota, the leader of the revolt, fled to Zululand. He took refuge in the dense bush in the Ngweza goldfields, where Cetewayo’s grave became the rallying-point of the rebels, who in April were joined by an aged chief named Sigananda and his tribe. After an arduous campaign, the Natal force (about 5000 strong) being commanded by Col. Sir Duncan McKenzie, the rebellion was crushed by July 1906, without the aid of imperial troops. Bambaota was killed in battle (June 10th); his head was cut off for purposes of identification, but afterwards buried with the body. Sigananda surrendered. In all some 3300 Zulus were killed and about 5000 taken prisoners, the majority of the prisoners being released under a promise to become members of the British Army. Zululand was subsequently made a native reserve, and the Zulus were not deprived of their land. He was sentenced to four years’ imprisonment and deprived of his position as a government induna. Other Zulu chiefs were convicted of various offences and sentenced to imprisonment. The history of Dingane was written by W. P. Schreiner, ex-premier of Cape Colony, while Miss H. E. Colenso (a daughter of Bishop Colenso) constituted herself his champion in the press of Natal and Great Britain. On the day that the Union of South Africa was established (31st of May 1910), the Botha ministry released Dinizulu from prison. He was subsequently settled on a farm in the Transvaal and given a pension of £50 a year.

ZULUMACÁRREGUI

ZULUMACÁRREGUI, THOMAS (1788-1835), Spanish Carlist general, was born at Ormaiztegui in Navarre on the 29th of August 1788. His father was a lawyer who possessed some property, and the son was articled to a solicitor. When the French invasion took place in 1808 he enlisted at Saragossa. He served in the first siege, at the battle of Tudela, and during the second siege until he was taken prisoner in a sortie. He succeeded in escaping in and reaching his family in Navarre. For a short time he served with Gaspar de Jauregui, known as “The Shepherd” (“El Pastor”), one of the minor guerrilla leaders. But Zulumacáregui, who was noted for his grave and silent disposition and his strong reverence for principles, disliked the atmosphere of the guerrillas, and when regular forces were organized in the north he entered the 1st battalion of Guipuzcoa as an officer. During the remainder of the war he served in the regular army. In 1812 he was sent with despatches to the Regency at Cadiz, and received his commission as captain. In that rank he was present at the battle of San Marciá (31st of August 1813). After the restoration of Ferdinand VII. he continued in the army, and is said to have made a careful study of the theory of war.

Zulumacáregui had no sympathy with the liberal principles which were spreading in Spain, and became noted as what was called “a man of strong theories,” who had no regard for headquarters; and was still a captain when the revolution of 1820 broke out. His brother officers, whose leanings were liberal, denounced him to the revolutionary government, and asked that he might be removed. The recommendation was not acted on, but Zulumacáregui knew of it, and laid up the

1 Lient.-Col. Sir Marshal James Clarke, R.A. (1841-1909) was A.D.C. to Sir Theophilus Shepstone when the Transvaal was annexed in 1877. He served in the Boer war of 1880-81; was resident commissioner of Bechuana land from 1883, and later leaving Zululand became resident commissioner in the southern Zululand (1889). He was made a K.C.M.G. in 1886.
offence in his mind. Finding that he was suspected (probably with truth) of an intention to bring the soldiers over to the royalist side, he escaped to France. In 1825 he returned as an officer in one of the royalist regiments which were organized on French soil by the consent of the government. He was now known as a thoroughly trustworthy servant of the despotic royalty, but he was too proud to be a courtier. For some years he was employed in bringing regiments which the government distrusted to order. He became lieutenant-colonel in 1825 and colonel in 1829. In 1832 he was named military governor of Ferrol. Before Ferdinand VII. died in 1833, Zumalacáregui was marked out as a natural supporter of the absolutist party which favoured the king's brother, Don Carlos. The proclamation of the king's daughter Isabella as heiress was almost the occasion of an armed conflict between him and the naval authorities at Ferrol, who were partisans of the constitutional cause. He was put on half pay by the new authorities and ordered to live under police observation at Pamplona. When the Carlist rising began on the death of Ferdinand he is said to have held back because he knew that the first leaders would be politicians and talkers. He did not take the field till the Carlist cause appeared to be at a very low ebb, and until he had received a commission from Don Carlos as commander-in-chief in Navarre. The whole force under his orders when he escaped from Pamplona on the night of the 20th of October, 1833, and had been organized the next day in the Val de Araquil, was a few hundred ill-armed and dispirited guerrilleros. In a few months Zumalacáregui had organized the Carlist forces into a regular army. The difficulty he found in obtaining supplies was very great, for the coast towns—and notably Bilbao—were constitutional in politics. It was mainly by captures from the government troops that he equipped his forces. He gradually obtained full possession of Navarre and the Basque provinces, outside of the fortresses, which he had not the means to besiege. Whether as an officer of small means and of small rank, or as a private soldier in the mountains, he proved unconquerable. By July 1834 he had made it safe for Don Carlos to join his headquarters. The pretender was, however, a narrow-minded, bigoted man, who regarded Zumalacáregui with suspicion, and was afraid of his immense personal influence with the soldiers. Zumalacáregui had therefore to drag behind him the whole weight of the distrust and intrigues of the court. Yet by the beginning of June 1835 he had made the Carlist cause triumphant to the north of the Ebro, and had formed an army of more than 30,000 men, of much better quality than the constitutional forces. If Zumalacáregui's general had died on the 24th of June 1835—not without suspicion of poison—Zumalacáregui was a fine type of the old royalist and religious principles of his people. The ferocity with which he conducted the war was forced on him by the government generals, who refused quarter.

An engaging account of Zumalacáregui will be found in *The Most Striking Events of a Twelvemonth Campaign with Zumalacáregui in Navarre and the Basque Provinces*, by C. F. Henningsen (London, 1836). A pamphlet called *Vida politica y militar de Don Tomas Zumalacáregui*, which gives the facts of his life with fair accuracy, is still very popular in Spain.

ZUMPT, the name of two German classical scholars. Karl Gottlob Zumpt (1792-1894), who was educated at Heidelberg and Berlin, was from 1812 to 1827 a schoolmaster in Berlin, and in 1827 became professor of Latin literature at the university. His chief work was his *Lateinische Grammatik* (1818), which stood as a standard work until superseded by Madvig's in 1844. He edited Quintilian's *Institutio oratoria* (1831), Cicero's *Verine* and *De officiis* (1837), and Curtius. Otherwise he devoted himself mainly to Roman history, publishing *Annales veterum regnumor of popularum* (3rd ed. 1869), a work in chronology down to A.D. 476, and other antiquarian studies. His nephew, August Wilhelm Zumpt (1815-1877), studied in Berlin, and in 1851 became professor in the Friedrich Wilhelm Gymnasium. He is known chiefly in connexion with Latin epigraphy, his papers on which (collected in *Commentationes epigraphicae*, 2 vols., 1850-54) brought him into conflict with Mommsen in connexion with the preparation of the *Corpus inscriptionum Latinarum*, a scheme for which, drawn up by Mommsen, was approved in 1847. His works include *Monumentum Anysorum* (1841), *De grammatica* (1840), *Studia Romana* (1859); *Das Kriminalrecht der römischen Republik* (1865-69); *Der Kriminalprozess der römischen Republik* (1871); editions of Namatianus (1840), Cicero's *Pro Munera* (1859) and *De lege agraria* (1861). Thine incorporated materials left by him in the 7th and 8th vols. of his *Römische Geschichte* (1840).

ZUNZ, LEOPOLD (1794-1880), Jewish scholar, was born at Detmold in 1794, and died in Berlin in 1886. He was the founder of what has been termed the "science of Judaism," the critical investigation of Jewish literature, hymnology and ritual. Early in the 19th century he was associated with Gans Moser and Heine in an association which the last named called "Young Palestine." The ideals of this *Verein* were not destined to bear religious fruit, but the "science of Judaism" survived. Zunz took no large share in Jewish reform, but never lost faith in the regenerating power of "science" as applied to the traditions and literary legacies of the ages. He had thoughts of becoming a preacher, but found the career uncongenial. He influenced Judaism from the study rather than from the pulpit. In 1832 appeared what E. H. Hirsch rightly regards as the most important of Zunz's works, *Nachahmung der Antike* (1835). This was Zunz's *Gottesdienstliche Vorträge der Jüden*, i.e. a history of the Sermon. It lays down principles for the investigation of the Rabbinic exegesis (Midrash, q.v.) and of the prayer-book of the synagogue. This book raised Zunz to the supreme position among Jewish scholars. In 1840 he was appointed director of a Lehrerseminar, a post which relieved him from pecuniary troubles. In 1845 appeared his *Zur Geschichte und Literatur*, in which he threw light on the literary and social history of the Jews. Zunz was always interested in politics, and in 1848 addressed many public meetings. In 1850 he became director of the Teachers' Seminary, and in 1856 was awarded a pension. He had visited the British Museum in 1846, and this confirmed him in his plan for his third book, *Synagogale Poesie des Mittelellers* (1855). It was from this book that George Eliot translated the following opening of a chapter of *Daniel Deronda*:

"If there are ranks in suffering, Israel takes precedence of all the nations" . . . &c. After its publication Zunz again visited England, and in 1859 issued his *Ritas*. In this he gives a masterly survey of synagogaal rites. His last great book was his *Literaturgeschichte der synagogalen Poesie* (1865). A supplement appeared in 1869. Besides these works, Zunz published a new translation of the Bible, and wrote many essays which were afterwards collected as *Gesammelte Schriften*. Throughout his early and married life he was the champion of Jewish rights, and he did not withdraw from public affairs until 1874, the year of the death of his wife Adelheil Beerman, whom he had married in 1822.


ZURBARAN, FRANCISCO (1598-1664), Spanish painter, was born at Fuente de Cantos in Estremadura on the 7th of November 1598. His father was Luis Zurbaran, a country labourer, his mother Isabel Marquet. In childhood he set about imitating objects with charcoal; and his father sent him, still young, to the school of Juan de Roelas in Seville. Francisco soon became the best pupil in the studio of Roelas, surpassing the master himself; and before leaving him had achieved a
solid reputation, full though Seville then was of able painters. He may have had here the opportunity of copying some of the paintings of Michelangelo da Caravaggio; at any rate he gained the name of "the Spanish Caravaggio," owing to the forcible realistic style in which he excelled. He constantly painted direct from nature, following but occasionally improving in his model; and he made great use of the lay-figure in the study of draperies, in which he was peculiarly proficient. He had a special gift for white draperies; and, as a consequence, Car- thusian houses are abundant in his paintings. To these rigid methods Zurbaran is said to have adhered throughout his life, which was prosperous, wholly confined to Spain, and varied by few incidents beyond those of his daily labour. His subjects were mostly of a severe and ascetic kind—religious vigils, the flesh chastened into submission to the spirit—the compositions seldom throned, and often reduced to a single figure. The style is more reserved and chastened than Caravaggio's, the tone of colour often bluish to excess. Exceptional effects are attained by the precise finish of foregrounds, largely massed out in light and shade. Zurbaran married in Seville Leonor de Jalal (by whom he had several children), and was appointed painter to Philip IV.; and there is a story that on one occasion the sovereign laid his hand on the artist's shoulder, saying, "Painter to the king, king of painters." It was only late in life that Zurbaran made a prolonged stay in Madrid, Seville being the chief scene of his operations. He died, probably in 1661, in Madrid.

In 1657 he painted the great altarpiece of St. Thomas Aquinas, now in the Seville museum; it was executed for the church of the college of that saint there. This is Zurbaran's largest composition, containing figures of Christ and the Madonna, various saints, Charles V. with knights, and Archbishop Deza (founder of the college) with monks and servants, all the principal personages being beyond the size of life. It had been preceded by the numerous pictures of the screen of St Peter Nolasco in the cathedral. In the church of Guadalupe he painted various large pictures, eight of which relate the history of the church, and six of St Paul, Seville, a famous figure of the Crucified Saviour, in grisaille, presenting an illusive effect of marble. In 1663 he finished the paintings of the high altar of the Carthusians in Jerez. In the palace of Buenaventura, Madrid, are four large canvases representing the Labours of Hercules, an unusual instance of non-Christian subjects from the hand of Zurbaran. A fine specimen is in the National Gallery, London, a whole-length, life-sized figure of a kneeling Franciscan holding a skull. It seems probable that another picture in the same gallery, the "Dead Roland," which used to be ascribed to Velasquez, is really by Zurbaran. His principal school is known as that of Seville, and in that of Caravaggio's, were Bermabe de Ayala and the brothers Polanco.

W. M. R.)

ZURICH (Fr. Zurich; Ital. Zurigo), the capital of the Swiss canton of the same name. It is the most populous, the most important, and on the whole the finest town in Switzerland, and till 1845 was practically the capital of the Swiss Confederation. It is built on both banks of the Limmat (higher up called "Sihl") and on islands in the river; the island in the middle is made up by the Federal and Municipal administrations. The Sihl, that joins it just below the town. That portion of the town which lies on the right bank of the Limmat is called the "Grosse Stadt" and that on the left bank the "Kleine Stadt." Till 1803 the central portion of the town on either bank of the Limmat formed the "city" and ruled the outlying communes or townships that had sprung up around it. But at that time the eleven outer districts (including Auseersihl, the workmen's quarter on the left bank of the Sihl) or suburbs were incorporated with the town, which is now divided into a town proper and 19 districts (each containing from 2,105 to 2,596 inhabitants), and an executive of 6 members, both chosen direct by a popular vote. Much land has been rescued from the lake, and is the site of fine quays, stately public buildings, and splendid private villas. The older quarters are still crowded. But the newer quarters stretch up the slope of the Zürichberg (above the right bank of the Limmat) while the fine Bahnhofstrasse (extending from the railway station to the lake) has the best shops and is in the neighbourhood of the more important public buildings.

Zürich has always been wealthy and prosperous. It has increased enormously, as is shown by the following figures. Its population in 1900 (including the eleven suburbs above named) was 150,703, while (without these) in 1888 it was 91,129; in 1880, 78,345; in 1870, 68,675; in 1860, 44,078; and in 1850 only 33,483. Of the people in 1900, 41,921 were Swiss (including 38,138 citizens and 3,783 foreigners), 7,933 were Romans (including 7,685 citizens and 248 foreigners), 4,206 were Protestants, and 1,565 were Catholics. In 1900 the greater part of the people lived in houses (including those above 20 ft. high). In 1888 and 1900 (315,555 in 1880) were not Swiss citizens, Germans numbering 41,245, Austrians 4210, Russians 683, French 682, British subjects 137; and citizens of the United States 232. In
ZÜRICH

19th century, there were in the town 140,803 German-speaking persons, 5100 Italian-speaking, 2586 French-speaking, and 415 Romansch-speaking. In 1888 the corresponding figures were 90,500, 1135, 1320 and 490 respectively. In 1888 the town numbered 102,704 Protestants, 43,655 "Catholics" (Roman or "Old") and 2712 Jews. In 1888 the religious figures were 79,970, 20,571 and 1231 respectively, with the additional fact of manufacture of jewelry and for gold and silver. The international character of the town has thus become much more marked. It is partly due to the immigration of many foreign workmen, and partly to the arrival of Russian and Polish exiles. Both have added to the cosmopolitan element to the town, in which the Socialist party is strong, and is increasing in power and influence, even in matters concerned with civic government.

Of the old buildings the finest and most important is the Gross Münster (or Propstei), on the right bank of the Limmat. This was originally the church of the king's tenants, and in one of the chapels the bodies of Felix, Regula and Exuperantius, the patrons saints of the city, were buried, the town treasury being formerly kept above this chapel. The present building was erected at two periods (c. 1050-1550 and c. 1250-1300), the high altar having been consecrated in 1278. The towers were raised above the roof at the end of the 15th century and took their present form in 1770. The chapter consisted of twenty-four secular canons; it was reorganized at the Reformation (1526), and suppressed in 1832. On the site of the canons' houses stands a girls' school (opened 1853), but the fine Romanesque cloisters (12th and 13th centuries) still remain. There is a curious figure of Charlemagne in a niche on one of the towers; to him is attributed the founding or reform of the chapter. On the left bank of the Limmat stands the other great church of Zürich, the Gross Münster (or Minster), previously known by Louis the German. The high altar was consecrated in 1170; but the greater part of the buildings are of the 13th and 14th centuries. It was in this church that the relics of the three patron saints of the town were preserved till the Reformation, and it was here that the burgomaster Waldmann was buried in 1489. There were only twelve nuns of noble family, comparatively free from the severer monastic vows; the convent was suppressed in 1534. Of the other old churches may be mentioned St Peter's, the oldest parish church, though the present buildings date in part from the 13th century only (mainly 14th century), and formerly the meeting-place of the citizens; the Dominican church (13th century), in the choir of which the cantonal library of 80,000 volumes has been stored since 1873; the church of the Austin friars (14th century), now used by the Old Catholics, and the Wasserkirche. The last-named church is on the site of a pagan holy place, where the patron saints of the city were martyred; since 1631 it has housed the Town Library, the largest in Switzerland, which contains 170,000 printed volumes and 4500 MSS. (among these being letters of Zwingli, Bullinger and Lady Jane Grey), as well as a splendid collection of objects from the lake dwellings of Switzerland. The building itself was erected from 1479 to 1484, and near it is a statue of Zwingli, erected in 1885. The existing town-hall dates from 1608, while the gild houses were mostly rebuilt in the 18th century. One of the most magnificent of the newer buildings is the Swiss National Museum, behind the railway station. This museum, which was opened in 1898, contains a wonderful collection of Swiss antiquities (especially medieval) and art treasures of all kinds, some of which are placed in rooms of the actual date, removed from various ancient buildings. There are some fine fountains (the oldest dating back to 1568). There are several good bridges, Roman traces being seen in the case of the Niederbrücke (now called the Rathausbrücke). The mound of the Lindenhof was formerly crowned by the king's house, which disappeared in the 13th century, and the hillock was planted with limes as early as 1422.

The town is noted for its numerous clubs and societies, and is the intellectual capital of German-speaking Switzerland. Cotton-spinning and the manufacture of machinery are two leading industries, but by far the most important is the silk-weaving industry. This flourished in Zürich in the 12th and 13th centuries, but disappeared about 1520; it was revived by the Protestant exiles (such as the Muralti and Orelli families) from Locarno (1555) and by the Huguenot refugees from France (1682 and 1685). The value of the silk annually exported (mainly to France, the United States and England) is estimated at over three millions sterling.

Zürich is the banking centre of Switzerland, and the centre of the excellent primary and secondary schools, there are the Cantonal School, including a gymnasium and a technical side (opened 1842), and a high school for girls (opened 1875). The Cantonal University and the Federal Polytechnic School are housed in the same building, but have no other connexion. The university was opened in 1833, on no doubt as a successor to the ancient chapter school at the Gross Münster, said to date back to Charlemagne's time—hence its name the Carolinum—reorganized at the Reformation, and suppressed in 1832. The Polytechnic School, opened in 1855, includes seven main sections (industrial chemistry, industrial mechanics, engineering, mining of scientific and mathematical practical, forestry and agriculture, and the military sciences), besides a general philosophical and political science department. The Polytechnic School has good collections of botanical specimens and of rare animals. Near it is the university garden (opened 1842), with greenhouses and arboretum, and a 26,640 ft. coast. There are also in Zürich many institutions for special branches of education—e.g. veterinary surgery, music, industrial art, silk-weaving, &c.

The earliest inhabitants of the future site of Zürich were the lausitzli or lusi, the Celtic Helvetians. A settlement in the Lindenhof when they were succeeded by the Romans, who established a custom station here for goods going to and coming from Italy; during their rule Christianity was introduced early in the 3rd century by Felix and Regula, with whom Exuperantius was afterwards associated. The district was later occupied by the Alamanni, who were conquered by the Franks.

The name Zürich is possibly derived from the Celtic ēur (water). It is first mentioned in 807 under the form Turicus, turned in 853 as Turicium. The true Latinized form is Turicum. It is said to have been founded as a military camp by Glaranus and held its ground from 1521 to 1478. It is not till the 9th century that we find the beginnings of the Teutonic town of Zurich, which arose from the union of four elements: (1) the royal house and castle on the Lindenhof, with the king's tenants around, (2) the Gross Münster, (3) the Frau Münster, (4) the community of "free men" (of Alamannian origin) on the Zürichberg. Similarly we can distinguish four stages in the constitutional development of the town: (1) the gradual replacing (c. 1250) of the power of the abbess by that (real, though not nominal) of the patricians, (2) the admittance of burghers and patricians into the government of the town, (3) the granting of equal political rights (1831) to the country districts, hitherto ruled as subject lands by the burgheis, and (iv) the reception as burgheis of the numerous immigrants who had settled in the town (town schools opened in 1860, full incorporation in 1893). The Frankish kings had special rights over their tenants, were the protectors of the two churches, and had jurisdiction over the free community. In 870 the sovereign placed his powers over all four in the hands of a single official (the Reichsvogtei), and the towns of Lenzburg, Lenzlingen, Lenzburg, and the four settlements in the 15th century as a safeguard against Saracen marauders and feudal barons. The "Reichsvogtei" passed to the counts of Lenzburg (1003-1173), and then to the dukes of Zähringen (extinct 1218). Meanwhile the abbess of the Benedictine Frau Münster had been acquiring extensive rights and privileges over all the inhabitants, though she never obtained the criminal jurisdiction. The town flourished greatly in the 12th and 13th centuries, the silk trade being introduced from Italy. In 1218 the "Reichsvogtei" passed back into the hands of the king, whom appointed one of the burgheis as his deputy, the town as becoming a free imperial city under the nominal rule of a distant sovereign. The abbess in 1254 became a princess of the empire, but power rapidly passed from her to the council which she had originally named to look after police, &c., but which came to be elected by the burgheis, though the abbess was still "the lady of Zürich." This council (all powerful since 1304) was made up of the representatives of certain knightly and rich mercantile families (the "patricians"), who excluded the craftsmen from all share in the government, though it was to these last that the town was largely indebted for its rising wealth and importance.

In October 1291 the town made an alliance with Uri and
Schwyz, and in 1392 failed in a desperate attempt to seize the Habsburg town of Winterthur. After that Zürich began to display strong Austrian leanings, which characterize much of its later history. In 1351 the men of Zürich fought against the Swiss Confederates at Morgarten. The year 1356 marks the admission of the craftsman to a share in the town government, which was brought about by Rudolf Brun, a patrician. Under the new constitution (the main features of which lasted till 1798) the Little Council was made up of the burgomaster and thirteen members from the Constable (which included the old patricians and the wealthiest burghers) and the thirteen masters of the craft guilds, each of the twenty-six holding office for six months. The Great Council of 200 (really 212) members consisted of the Little Council, plus 78 representatives each of the Constable and of the guilds, besides 3 members named by the burgomaster. The office of burgomaster was created and given to Brun for life. Out of this change arose a quarrel with one of the branches of the Habsburg family, in consequence of which Brun was induced to throw in the lot of Zürich with the Swiss Confederation (1st May 1356). The double position of Zürich as a free imperial city and a canton of the Swiss Confederation was soon found to be embarrassing to both parties (see Switzerland). In 1373 and again in 1393 the powers of the Constable were limited and the majority in the executive secured to the craftsmen, who could then aspire to the burgomastership. Meanwhile the town had been extending its rule far beyond its walls—a process which began in the 14th, and attained its height in the 15th century (1362-1467). This thirst for territorial aggrandizement brought about the first civil war in the Confederation (the "Old Zürich War" 1356-60), in which, at the sight of St. Jacob on the Sihl (1449), under the walls of Zürich, the men of Zürich were completely beaten and their burgomaster Süssi slain. The purchase of the town of Winterthur from the Habsburgs (1467) marks the culmination of the territorial power of the city. It was to the men of Zürich and their leader Hans Waldmann that the victory of Morat (1476) was due in the Burgundian war; and Zürich took a leading part in the Italian campaign of 1512-15, the burgomaster Schmid naming the new duke of Milan (1512). No doubt her trade connexions with Italy led her to pursue a southern policy, traces of which are seen as early as 1331 in an attack on the Val Leventina and in 1478, when Zürich men were in the van at the fight of Giornico, won by a handful of Confederates over 12,000 Milanese troops.

In 1400 the town obtained from the Emperor Wenceslaus the Reichsvogtei, which carried with it complete immunity from the empire and the right of criminal jurisdiction. As early as 1393 the chief power had practically fallen into the hands of the Great Council, and in 1408 this change was formally recognized. This transfer of all power to the guilds had been one of the aims of the burgomaster Hans Waldmann (1483-86), who wished to make Zürich a great commercial centre. He also introduced many financial and moral reforms, and subordinated the interests of the country districts to those of the town. He practically ruled the Confederation, and under him Zürich became the real capital of the League. But such great changes excited opposition, and he was overthrown and executed. His main ideas were embodied, however, in the constitution of 1408, by which the patricians became the first of the guilds, and which remained in force till 1798; some special rights were also given to the subjects in country districts. It was the prominent part taken by Zürich in adopting and propagating (against the strenuous opposition of the Constable) the principles of the Reforma- tion (the Frau Münster being suppressed in 1524) which finally secured for it the lead in the Confederation (see Switzerland and Zwinglei).

The environs of Zürich are famous in military history on account of the two battles of 1799. In the first battle (4th June) the French under Masséna, on the defensive, were attacked by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, Masséna retiring behind the Linmat before the engagement had reached a decisive stage. The second and far more important battle took place on the 25th and 26th of September. Masséna, having forced the passage of the Limmat, attacked and totally defeated the Russians and their Austrian allies under Korsakov's command. (See French Revolutionary Wars.)

In the 17th and 18th centuries a distinct tendency becomes observable in the town government to limit power to the actual holders. Thus the country districts were consulted for the last time in 1626 and 1640; and a similar breach of the charters of 1459 and 1531 (by which the consent of the cantons was required for the conclusion of important alliances, war and peace, and might be asked for as to other matters) occasioned disturbances in 1777. The council of 200 came to be largely chosen by a small committee of the members of the guilds actually sitting in the council—by the constitution of 1713 it consisted of 30 members of the Little Council (named for a fixed term by the Great Council), 18 members named by the Constable, and 144 selected by the 12 guilds, these 162 (forming the majority) being co-opted for life by those members of the two councils who belonged to the guild to which the deceased member himself had belonged. In the contemporary literature the term guild was made to stand for means of heavy duties the flourishing rival silk trade in Winterthur. It was reckoned that about 1650 the number of privileged burghers was 9000, while their rule extended over 170,000 persons. The first symptoms of active discontent appeared later among the dwellers by the lake, who founded in 1794 a club at Stäfa and claimed the restoration of the liberties of 1489 and 1531, a movement which was put down by force of arms in 1795. The old system of government perished in Zürich, as elsewhere in Switzerland, in February 1798, and under the Helvetic constitution the country districts obtained political liberty. The cantonal constitution was rather complicated, and under it the patrician party obtained a small working majority. That constitution was meant to favour the town as against the country districts. But under the cantonal constitution of 1814 matters were worse still, for the town (18,000 inhab.) had 130 representatives in the Great Council, while the country districts (200,000 inhab.) had only 82. A great meeting at Uster on the 22nd of November 1830 demanded that two-thirds of the members of the Great Council should be chosen by the country districts; and in 1831 a new constitution was drawn up on these lines, the town getting 71 representatives as against 141 allotted to the country districts, though it was not till 1837-38 that the town finally lost the last relics of the privileges which it had so long enjoyed as compared with the country districts. From 1803 to 1814 Zürich was one of the six "directory cantons," its chief magistrate becoming for a year the chief magistrate of the Confederation, while in 1813 it was one of the three cantons, the government of which acted for two years as the Federal government when the diet was not sitting. In 1833 Zürich tried hard to secure a revision of the Federal constitution and a strong central government. The town was the Federal capital for 1830-40, and consequently the victory of the Conservative party there in 1839 (due to indignation at the nomination by the Radical government to a theological chair in the university of D. F. Strauss, the author of the famous Life of Jesus) caused a great stir throughout Switzerland. But when in 1845 the Radicals gained power at Zürich, which was again the Federal capital for 1845-46, that town took the lead in opposing the Sonderbund cantons. It of course voted in favour of the Federal constitutions of 1848 and of 1874, while the cantonal constitution of 1860 was remarkably advanced for the time. The enormous immigration from the country districts into the town from the "thirties onwards created an industrial class which, though "settled" in the town, did not possess the privileges of burghership, and consequently had no share in the municipal government. First of all in 1860 the town schools, hitherto open to "settlers" only on paying high fees, were made accessible to all, next in 1875 ten years' residence _habitato_ conferred the right of burghership, while in 1863 the eleven outlying districts (largely peopled by working folk) were incorporated with the
ZÜRICH, LAKE OF—ZWEIBRÜCKEN

ZURICH, LAKE OF—A Swiss lake, extending S.E. of the town of Zürich. It is formed by the river Linth, which, rising in the glaciers of the Tödi range in Glarus, was diverted by the Escher canal (completed in 1811) into the Walensee, whence, by means of the Linth canal (completed in 1816), its waters are carried to the east end of the lake of Zürich. This river issues from the lake at its north-west end, passing through the town of Zürich, but is then called the Limmat. No streams of importance flow into the lake. Its area is about 34 sq. m., its extreme length 25 m., its greatest breadth 23 m., and its greatest depth 60 ft., while its surface is 1342 ft. above sea-level. It is included, or the greater portion, in the Canton of Zürich, but at its east end 53 sq. m. towards the southern shore are in that of Schwyz, and 4 sq. m. towards the northern shore in that of St. Gall. The great dam of masonry, carrying the railway line and carriage road from Rapperswil to Pfäffikon, which cuts off the extreme eastern part of the lake from the rest, is passed only by small boats; steamers (of which the first was placed on the line in 1889) go no farther up the dam, as the eastern portion of the lake is shallow and choked by weeds. West of this dam is the small island of Ufenau, where in 1523 Ulrich von Hutten took refuge and died. Both shores are well cultivated and fertile. There are many villas, particularly near Zürich, and elsewhere numerous factories in the various flourishing villages. Zürich, at the north end of the lake, is the principal place on it. On the west shore (which gradually becomes the south shore) are Thalwil, Horgen, Wädenswil, Rüti, Pfäffikon, and Lachen. On the opposite shore are Metten (near which the first lake dwellings were discovered in 1833-54), Stäfa, and the quaint town of Rapperswil, the castle of which shelters a Polish museum, where is the heart of Kosciusko and Schimmel. This is close to the east end of the lake, and a little beyond is the more important town of Uznach.

ZURITA Y CASTRO, JERÓNIMO (1512-1580), Spanish historian, was born at Saragossa, and studied at Alcalá de Henares under the celebrated Hellenist, Hernán Nuñez. Through the influence of his father, Miguel de Zurita, physician to Charles V., he entered the public service as magistrature at Barbastro, and in 1537 was appointed assistant-secretary of the Inquisition. In 1548 Zurita was nominated official chronicler of the kingdom of Aragon, and in 1566 Philip II. attached him as secretary to the council of the Inquisition, delegating to him the conduct of all matters sufficiently important to require the king's signature. Zurita resigned these posts on the 21st of January 1571, obtained a sinecure at Saragossa, and dedicated himself wholly to the composition of his Anales de la corona de Aragón, the first part of which had appeared in 1562; he lived to see the last volume printed at Saragossa on the 22nd of April 1580, and died on the 3rd of November following. Zurita's style is somewhat crabbed and dry, but his authority is unquestionable; he displayed a new conception of an historian's duties, and, not content with the ample materials stored in the archives of Aragon, continued his researches in the libraries of Rome, Naples and Sicily; he founded the school of historical scholarship in Spain.

ZUTPHEN, or ZUTTEN, a town in the province of Gelderland, Holland, on the right bank of the Yssel at the influx of the Berkel, and a junction station 18 m. by rail N.N.E. of Arnhem. Pop. 15,900. It is a picturesque old town with several brick houses of the 16th and 17th centuries. The most important building is the Grote Kerk, of St. Walpurgis, which dates from the 12th century and contains monuments of the former counts of Zutphen, a 13th-century candelabrum, an elaborate copper font (1527), and a fine modern monument to the van Heeckeren family. The chapter-house contains a pre-Reformation library which includes some valuable MSS. and incunabula. There are some remains of the old town walls. The place has an active trade, especially in grain and in the timber floated down from the Black Forest by the Rhine and the Yssel; the industries include tanning, weaving, and oil and paper manufactures. Not far from Zutphen on the west at Munnikhuizen once stood the Carthusian convent founded by Reinald III., duke of Gelderland, in 1342 and dissolved in 1572. About 3 m. to the north of Zutphen is the agricultural colony of Nederlandsch-Mettray, founded by a private benefactor for the education of poor friendless boys in 1851, and since that date largely extended.

In the middle ages Zutphen was the seat of a line of counts, which became extinct in the 12th century. Having been fortified the town stood several sieges, specially during the wars of freedom against the Netherlands; the garrison of the Dutch was under its walls being the one in September 1586 when Sir Philip Sidney was mortally wounded. Taken by the Spaniards in 1587 Zutphen was recovered by Maurice, prince of Orange, in 1591, and except for two short periods, one in 1672 and the other during the French Revolutionary Wars, it has since then remained a part of the United Netherlands. Its fortifications were dismantled in 1874.

ZWEIBRÜCKEN, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate, on the Schwarzbach, and on the railway between Germersheim and Saarbrücken. Pop. (1905) 14,711. The town was the capital of the former duchy of Zweibrücken, and the Alexander-Kirche contains the tombs of the dukes. The ducal castle is now occupied by the chief court of the Palatinate. There is a large and well equipped railway colliery and brewing and the manufacture of machinery, chimy, cigars, malt, boots, furniture and soap are the chief industries.
ZWICKAU—ZWINGLI

ZWICKAU, a town of Germany, in the kingdom of Saxony, situated in a pleasant valley at the foot of the Erzgebirge, on the left bank of the Zwickauer Mulde, 41 m. S. of Leipzig and 20 m. S. of Chemnitz on the main line of railway Dresden-Hof and at the junction of several other lines. Pop. (1854) 6701; (1866) 7505; (1870) 44,498; (1895) 68,502. Among the manufactures of Zwickau, in the fine Gothic church of St. Augustine (1451 and restored 1885-91), there is a spire 285 ft. high and a bell weighing 53 tons, is remarkable. The church contains an altar with wood-carving and eight pictures by Michael Wolgemuth and a remarkable Pietà in carved and painted wood, probably by Veit Stoss. The late Gothic church of St. Catharine (restored 1893-94) has an altarpiece ascribed to Lucas Cranach the Elder, and is memorable for the pastorate (1520-22) of Thomas Münzer. Of the secular buildings the most noteworthy are the town-hall of 1581, with the municipal archives, including documents dating back to the 13th century and an autograph MS. of the works of Hans Sachs, and the late Gothic Gewandhaus (cloth merchants' hall), built 1522-24 and now in part converted into a theatre. The manufactures of Zwickau include spinning and weaving, machinery, motor-cars, chemicals, porcelain, paper, glass, dyestuffs, wire goods, tinware, stockings, and curtains. There are also steam saw-mills, diamond and glass polishing works, iron-foundries, and breweries. Though no longer relatively so important as when it lay on the chief trade route from Saxony to Bohemia and the Danube, Zwickau carries on considerable commerce in grain, wine, and cattle. The manufacture of the industrial prosperity of the town is the adjacent coalfield, which in 1906 employed 13,000 hands, and yields 23 million tons of coal annually. The mines are mentioned as early as 1348; but they have only been actively worked since 1823, during which time the population has increased more than tenfold.

Zwickau is of Slavonic origin, and is mentioned in 1118 as a trading place. The name is fancifully derived from the Latin Cygni, from a tradition that placed a "swan lake" here which had the property of renewing the youth of those who bathed in it. The Slavonic possession of the property was pledged to Henry the Illustrious, margrave of Meissen (d. 1288). The German king Charles VI. conferred it as a fief in 1348 on the margraves of Meissen, and it thus passed to their successors the electors of Saxony. The discovery of silver in the Schneeberg in 1470 brought it much wealth. The Anabaptist movement of 1525 began at Zwickau under the inspiration of the "Zwickau prophets." Robert Schumann (1580-1586), the musical composer, was born here in a house which still stands in the market-place.

See Herzog, Chronik der Kreisstadt Zwickau (2 vols., Zwickau, 1839-45); Geschichte der Zwickauer Steinkohlenhütte (Dresden, 1852); Hänsch, Das Zwickau-Chemnitz-Kohlengebiet (Meissen, 1908).

ZWIEDIECKE VON SÜDENHÖRST. HANS (1845-1906), German historian, was born at Frankfurt-on-the-Main on the 14th of April 1845. He studied at the university of Gratz, where he became a professor in 1885, and died at Gratz on the 22nd of November 1906.

Südenerst's principal writings are Dorferben im 18 Jahrhundert (Vienna, 1885); Hans Ulrich; Partizan (Bielefeld, 1886); Geschicht der Erzherzogthums der Erzherzogtum, 2nd ed. (Stuttgart, 1885-1886); Venedig in der Zeit des Hochkrieges (Stuttgart, 1888-1889); Kämpfe um den 1683, in the series, Deutsche Geschichte der deutschen Geschichte (Stuttgart, 1892-93); and Die Politik der Republik Venedig während des dreißigjährigen Krieges (Stuttgart, 1888-1889; Venedig als Weltmacht und Weltsitz (Bielefeld, 1899 and 1906); Kriegsbilder aus der Zeit der Landeskunst (Stuttgart, 1883); Porträt des Zähringer Ludwigs XVI. (1507-1700) (Stuttgart, 1888); Die Zähringer Johann im Feldzuge von 1809 (Gratz, 1892; and Maria Theresa (Bielefeld, 1900). He edited the Bibliothek der deutschen Geschichte, and Deutsche Geschicht der von der Entdeckung des alten bis zur Gründung des neuen Reiches (Stuttgart, 1897-1905). He completed A. Wolf's Ortsregister unter Maria Theresa, Joseph II. and Leopold II. (Berlin, 1882-1884), and edited the Zeitschrift für allgemeine Geschichte (Stuttgart, 1864-1888).

ZWINGLI, Huldreich (1484-1531), Swiss reformer, was born on the 1st of January 1484, at Wildhaus in the Toggenburg valley, in the canton of St Gall, Switzerland. He came of a free peasant stock, his father being amtmann of the village; his mother, Margarete Meli, was the sister of the abbots of Fischingen in Thurau. His uncle, Bartholomew Zwingli, afterwards dekan or superintendent of Wesen, had been elected parish priest of Wildhaus. As he was keen at his books and fond of music he was destined for the Church, and when eight years old was sent to Zürich, where he spent seven years (1503-10). Two years later he was sent to a school in Basel, where he remained three years, passing thence to the high school at Bern, where his master, Heinrich Wölflin, inspired him with an enthusiasm for the classics. After some two years there the boy took up his abode in the Dominican monastery. But his father had no thoughts of letting him become a monk, and in 1500 he was sent to the university of Vienna, where he remained for another two years and "included in his studies all that philosophy embraces. He then returned to Basel, where he graduated in the university and became a teacher of the classics in the school of St Martin's church.

The circumstances and surroundings of Zwingli's early life were thus dissimilar from those of his contemporaries, Martin Luther. Zwingli, moreover, never knew anything of those spiritual experiences which drove Luther into a cloister and goaded him to a feverish "searching of the Scriptures" in the hope of finding spiritual peace. Zwingli was a humanist, a type abhorred of Luther; and he was far more ready for the polite Erasmian society of Basel than for a monastery. Luther was a monk, while Zwingli heen to the papal cause. He spent his youth in his study and in his lectures at the University of Vienna, and the knowledge he gained there from the works of Thomas Wyttenbach that the time was at hand when scholastic theology must give place to the purer and more rational theology of the early Fathers and to a fearless study of the New Testament. He heard from this same teacher bold criticisms of Romanish teaching concerning the sacraments, monastic vows and papal indulgences, and unconsciously he was thus trained for the great remonstrance of his mature life.

At the age of twenty-two Zwingli was ordained by the bishop of Constance (1506), practiced for five years at Rapaddawil, and said his first mass among his own people at Wildhaus. In the same year he was elected parish priest of Glarus, in spite of the pope's nomination of Heinrich Goldli, an influential pluralist of Zürich, whom Zwingli found it necessary to buy off at an expense of more than a hundred gulden. The Holy See, much dependent at that time on its Swiss mercenaries in the pursuit of its secular ends, expressed no resentment on this occasion. Zwingli indeed seemed still to be devoted to the pope, whom he styled "beatissimus Christi vicarius," and he publicly proclaimed the mercenary aid given by the Swiss to the papal cause to be its rightful support of the Holy See. The Curia, following its accustomed policy, rewarded his zeal with a pension of 50 gulden.

The ten years which Zwingli spent at Glarus laid the foundations of his work as a reformer. He there began the study of
Greek that he might "learn the teaching of Christ from the original sources," and gave some attention to Hebrew. He read also the older Church Fathers and soon won for himself fame as a student, whilst his skill in the classics led his friends to hail him as "the undoubted Cicero of our age." He had an unbounded admiration for Erasmus, with whom he entered into correspondence, and from whom he received a somewhat chilling patronage; whilst the brilliant humanist, Pico della Mirandola (1463-1494), taught him to criticize, in a rationalizing way, the medieval doctrines of Rome. His first publications, which appeared as rhymed allegories, were political rather than religious, being aimed at what he deemed the degrading Swiss practice of removing heretics in their lifetime. Zwingli was on the side of the victors on this matter were so much intensified by his later experiences as army chaplain that in 1531 he prevailed upon the authorities of the canton of Zürich to renounce the practice altogether. Especially did he oppose alliances with France; but the French party in Glarus was strong, and it retaliated so fiercely that in 1516 Zwingli was glad to accept the post of people's priest at Einsiedeln. He always in later days dated his arrival at evangelical truth from the three years (1516-19) which he spent in this place. There he studied the New Testament and the editorship of Erasmus and began to found his preaching on "the Gospel," which he declared to be simple and easy to understand. He held that the Bible was the sufficient revelation of the will of God, and he threw away the philosophy and theology of the later Roman Church, whereas he declared that the early Church Fathers were helpful, though still fallible, interpreters of the Word. In his definite recognition of the theological place of Scripture he showed, says Dr T. M. Lindsay (History of the Reformation), clearer insight than the Lutherans, and Zwingli rather than Luther was in this matter Calvin's guide, and the guide of the reformed churches of Switzerland, France, England, and the Netherlands. All these feats in their symbolic books the supreme place of Scripture, accepting the position which Zwingli laid down in 1536 in The First Helvetic Confession, namely, that "Canonic Scripture, the Word of God, given by the Holy Spirit and set forth to the world by the Prophets and Apostles, the most perfect and ancient of all philosophies, alone contains perfectly all piety and the whole rule of life."

Zwingli began to preach "the Gospel" in 1516, but a contemporary says that he did it so cunningly (listiglich) that none could catch him. He still used his own method of argument. He declared that the older Church Fathers had been simple in their new exposition on "the old doctrine"; however much they had at times pained me, rather than on to the purer and clearer"; for he hoped that the reformation of the Church would proceed quietly and from within. The papal curia had no wish to bring things to a quarrel with him. The Swiss, who furnished them with troops, were to be treated with consideration; and the pope sought to silence the reformer by offers of promotion, which he refused. He held himself, as did the Swiss in general, very free of papal control. They had lorn been used, in their orderly democratic life, to manage their own ecclesiastical affairs. Church property paid its share of the communal taxes, and religious houses were subject to civil inspection. Zwingli looked rather to the City Fathers than to the pope, and as long as he had them with him he moved confidently and laboured for reforms which were as much political and moral in character as religious. He had none of Luther's distrust of "the common man" and fear of popular government, and this fact won for his teaching the favour of the towns of South Germany not less than of Switzerland.

As yet he had preached his Gospel without saying much about corruptions in the Roman Church, and it was his political denunciation of the fratricidal wars into which the pope, not less than others, was drawing his fellow-countrymen, that first led to rupture with the papal see. Three visits which he had paid to Italy in his capacity of army chaplain had done much to open his eyes to the worldly character of the papal rule, and it was not long before he began to attack at Einsiedeln the superstitions which attended the great pilgrimages made to that place. Zwingli denounced the publication of plenary indulgence to all visitors to the shrine, and his sermons in the Swiss vernacular drew great crowds, and attracted the attention of Rome. His quarrel was turned more immediately against the pope himself when in August 1518 the Franciscan monk Bernardin Samson, a pardon-seller like Johann Tetzel, made his appearance in Switzerland as the papally commissioned seller of indulgences. Zwingli prevailed on the council to forbid his entrance into Zürich; and even then the pope argued that, so long as the preacher was still receiving a papal pension, he could not be a formidable adversary, and he gave him a further sop in the form of an acolyte chaplain.

Zwingli had never meant to remain at Einsiedeln long, and he now threw himself into a competition for the place of people's priest at the Great Minster of Zürich, and obtained it (1518) after some opposition. He stipulated that his liberty to preach the truth should be respected. In the beginning of 1519 he began a series of discourses on St Matthew's Gospel, the Acts of the Apostles, and the Pauline epistles; and with these it may be said that the Reformation was fairly begun in Zürich. He made a copy of St Paul's epistles and committed them to memory, and from this arsenal of Scripture he attacked the pretensions of the papal hierarchy, and the unprecedented assertion of papal power in the Church. His correspondence of this year shows him jealous of the growing influence of Luther. It was his claim that he had discovered the Gospel before ever Luther was heard of in Switzerland, and he was as anxious as Erasmus to make it clear that he was not Luther's disciple. Towards the end of September he fell a victim to the plague which was ravaging the land, and his illness soothed his spirit and brought into his message a deeper note than that merely moral and common-sense one with which, as a polite humanist, he had hitherto been content. He proposed to preach against fasting, saint worship and the celibacy of priests; and some of his hearers began to put his teachings into practice. The monasteries raised an outcry when people were found eating flesh in Lent, and the bishop of Constance accused them before the council of Zürich. Zwingli was heard in their defence and the accusation was abandoned. His first Reformation tract, April 1522, dealt with this subject: "Von Erkiesen und Fryheil der Spysen." The matter of the celibacy of the clergy was more serious. Zwingli had joined in an address to the bishop of Constance calling on him no longer to send him monks, friars, priests and nuns, but his own husbands and wives, or, at least, to wink at their marriages. He and his co-signatories confessed that they had lived unchastely, but argued that priests could not be expected to do otherwise, seeing that God had not seen fit to give the gift of continence. Pope Adrian VI. interfered and asked the Zürchers to abandon Zwingli, but the reformer persuaded the council to allow a public disputation (1523), when he produced sixty-seven theses1 and vindicated his position so strongly that the council decided to uphold their preacher and to separate the canton from the bishopric of Constance. Thus legal sanction was given in Zürich to the Reformation. In 1522 Zwingli produced his first considerable writing, the Archites, "the beginning and the end," in which he sought by a single blow to win his spiritual freedom from the control of the bishops, and in a sermon of that year he contended that only the Holy Spirit is requisite to make the Word intelligible, and that there is no need of Church, council, or pope in the matter.

The progress of the Reformation attracted the attention of all Switzerland, but there was a strong opposition to it, especially in the five Forest Cantons: Lucerne, Zug, Schwyz, Uri, and Unterwalden; and the Zürchers felt it necessary to form a league in its defence. They were especially anxious to gain Bern, and Zwingli challenged the Romansians to a public disputation in that city. No less than 350 ecclesiastics came to Bern from the various cantons to hear the pleadings, which began on the 2nd of January 1523 and lasted nineteen days. Zwingli

1 Cf. P. Schaff, Creeds of the Evangelical Protestant Churches, p. 197.
ZWINGLI

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and his companions undertook to defend the following pro-
positions:

(1) That the Holy Christian Church, of which Christ is the only
Head, is born of the Word of God, abides therein, and does not
listen to the voice of a stranger; (2) that this Church imposes
no laws on the conscience of persons; (3) that it is not unlawful
for us, so far as the law of the Church is concerned, to belong
to another Church; (4) that the laws of the Church are binding only in
so far as they agree with the Word; (5) that Christ alone is our
righteousness and our salvation, and that to trust to any other
means of salvation is to deny Him; (6) that it cannot be proved
from the Holy Scripture that the body and blood of Christ are
corporeally present in the bread and in the wine of the Lord's
Supper; (7) that the mass, in which Christ is offered to God the
Father, as a sacrifice, for the living and of the dead, is contrary
to Scripture and a gross affront to the sacrifice and death of the
Saviour; (8) that we should not pray to dead mediators and inter-
cessors, but to Jesus Christ alone; (9) that there is nothing
purgatory in Scripture; (10) that to set up pictures and to adore
them is also contrary to Scripture, and that images and pictures
ought to be destroyed where there is danger of giving them adora-
tion; (11) that marriage is lawful to all, to the clergy as well as
to the laity; (12) that shameful living is more disgraceful among the
clergy than among the laity.

The result of the discussion was that Bern was won over to the
side of the reformer, who apprehended the whole struggle
of Protestantism as turning directly on the political decisions
of the various units of the Confederation. He had enunciated in
his theses the far-reaching new principle that the congregation,
and not the hierarchy, was the representative of the Church;
and he sought henceforward to reorganize the Swiss constitution
on the principles of representative democracy so as to reduce
the wholly disproportionate voting power, which, then, was
enjoyed by the cantons. He urged that the administration
of the Church belongs, like all administration, to the state
authorities, and that if these go wrong it then lies with Christian
people to depose them.

On the 2nd of April 1524 the marriage of Zwingli with Anna
Reinhard was publicly celebrated in the cathedral, though for
some two years already he had had her to wife. Many of his
colleagues followed his example and openly made profession
of marriage. In the August of that year Zwingli printed a pamphlet
in which he set forth his views of the Lord's Supper. They
proved the occasion of a conflict with Luther which was never
settled, but in the meantime more attention was attracted by
Zwingli's denunciation of the worship of images and of the
Roman doctrine of the mass. These points were discussed at a
fresh congress where about 900 persons were present, and where
Vadian (Joachim von Watt, the reformer of St Gall) presided.
It was decided that images were forbidden by Scripture and
that the mass is not a sacrifice. Shortly afterwards the images
were removed from the churches, and many ceremonies and festivals
were abolished. When a solemn embassy of rebuke was sent to
Zürich from a diet held at Lucerne, on the 26th of January 1524,
the city replied that in matters relating to the Word of God
and the salvation of souls she would brook no interference.
When a new embassy threatened Zürich with exclusion from
the union she began to make preparations for war.

It was at this moment that the controversy between Luther
and Zwingli took on a deeper significance. In March 1525 the
latter brought out his long Commentary on the True and False
Religion, in which he goes over all the topics of practical theology.
Like others of the Reformers he had been led independently to preach justification by faith and to declare
that Jesus Christ is the only Mediator between God and man;
but his construction rested upon what he regarded as
biblical conceptions of the nature of God and man rather than
upon such personal experiences as those which Luther
had made familiar. In this Commentary there appear the mature
views of Zwingli on the subject of the Elements of the Lord's
Supper. He was quite as clear as Luther in repudiating the
medieval doctrine of transsubstantiation, but he declined to
accept Luther's teaching that Christ's words of institution re-
quired the belief that the real flesh and blood of Christ co-exist in
and with the natural elements. He declared that Luther
was in a fog, and that Christ had warned His disciples against
all such notions, and had proclaimed that by faith alone could
His presence be received in a feast which He designed to be
commemorative and symbolic. Efforts to reach agreement
failed. The landgrave of Hesse brought the two Reformers
together in vain at Marburg in October 1526, and the whole
Protestant movement broke into two camps, with the result that
the attempt made at Schmalkalden in 1530 to form a com-
prehensive league of defence against all foes of the Reformation
was doomed.

But the close of Zwingli's life was brought about by trouble
near his home. The long-felt strain between opposing cantons
led at last to civil war. In February 1531 Zwingli himself urged
the Evangelical Swiss to attack the Five Cantons, and on the
10th of October there was fought at Kappel a battle, disastrous
to the Protestant cause and fatal to its leader. Zwingli, who as
chaplain was carrying the banner, was struck to the ground,
and was later despatched in cold blood. His corpse, after suffering
every indignity, was quartered by the public hangman, and
burnt with dung by the Romish soldiers. A great boulder,
roughly squared, standing a way off the road, marks the
place where Zwingli fell. It is inscribed, 'They may hang
the body but not the soul'; so spoke on this spot Ulrich Zwingli,
who for truth and the freedom of the Christian Church died a
hero's death, Oct. 11, 1531.'

Zwingli's theological views are expressed succinctly in the sixty-
seven theses published at Zürich in 1523, and at greater length in the First Helvetic Confession, compiled in 1536 by a number of his
friends. In these they condemned the teaching of Luther, and
from Lutheran doctrine. As opposed to Luther, Zwingli insisted
more firmly on the supreme authority of Scripture, and broke
more thoroughly and radically with the medieval Church. Luther
was content with changes in one or two fundamental doctrines;
Zwingli aimed at a reformation of government and discipline as
well as of theology. Zwingli never faltered in his trust in the
Word of God, and was careful to make it clear that salvation
was by repentance and faith, by a call spiritual simply because
they were selected to perform certain functions. He thoroughly
believed also that it was the duty of all in authority to rule in Christ's name and to obey His laws. He was led from these ideas to think that there should be no
government in the Church separate from the civil government
which ruled the commonwealth. All rules and regulations about
the public worship, doctrines and discipline of the Church were
made in Zwingli's time, and with his consent, by the council of
Zürich, which was the supreme civil authority in the state.
This was the ground of his quarrel with the Swiss Anabaptists, for the
former asserted the necessity of the laying on of hands, which
was the modern thought of a free Church in a 16th century. Like all the
Reformers, he was strictly Augustinian in theology, but he dwelt
chiefly on the positive side of predestination—the election to salva-
tion. He insisted on the salvation of infants and of the
prosperous. His most distinctive doctrine is perhaps his theory
of the sacrament, which involved him and his followers in a long
and, on Luther's part, an acrimonious controversy. His most
noteworthy achievement was that the sacrament of the Lord's
Supper was not the repetition of the sacrifice of Christ, but
the faithful remembrance that sacrifice had been made once for
all, and his deeper idea of faith, which included in the act of
faith a real union and communion of the faithful soul with Christ,
really preserved what was also most valuable in the distinctive
Lutheran doctrine. His peculiar theological opinions were not at
all very wide, and the somewhat prolix views of Calvin. The
publication of the Zürich Consensus (Consensus Tigurinus) in 1549
marks the adherence of the Swiss to Calvinist theology.

Zwingli's writings are collected in: Ergänzung und Ersetzung des
Dritten (April 1522); De Canone Missae Episcopis (September
1523); Commentarius de Vera et Falsa Religione (1523); Vom
Tont, vom Wiederton, und vom Kindertont (1525); Ein klare
Unterrichtung vom Nachtmahl Christi (1526); De Previdentia Dei
(1530); and Christianae Fidei Expositio (1531). For a full biblio-
graphy see G. Finsser, Zwingli-Bibliographie (Zürich, 1897).

Works.—Collected editions, 4 vols. (Zürich, 1549, 1581); by M.
Ries and J. Calvin, 3 vols. (Paris, 1562-69); by B. Finsler,
8 vols. (Eng. and Fr., 1831-59); by C. von Hesse, 5 vols.
(1857, 1861); by E. Egli and G. Finsser, 8 vols. (Zürich, 1867-69); by J.
Cochran, 2 vols. (Eng., 1861); by J. Finsler, 5 vols. (Eng.
and Fr., 1861); by H. Ungerer, 4 vols. (Eng., 1865); by E. Egli and G. Finsser,
3 vols. (Eng., 1867); by E. Schuler, 4 vols. (Eng., 1869); by E. Voegli,
3 vols. (Eng., 1870); by A. M. Eng, 4 vols. (Eng., 1871); by J. H."
ZWOLLE—ZYMOTIC DISEASES

published twice a year since 1897 at Zürich. S. M. Jackson’s book gives a chapter on Zwingli’s Theology by Prof. F. H. Foster, and full details of further information on the subject, together with a list of modern English translations of Zwingli’s works.

(E. A. R.)

ZWOLLE, the capital of the province of Overysel, Holland, on the Zwaire Water, and a junction station 24¹/₂ m. N.E. of Harderwyk. Pop. (1905) 23,773. It is the centre of the whole northern and eastern canal systems, and by means of the short canal, the Willemsvaart, which joins the Zwaire Water and the Yssel, has regular steamboat communication with Kampen and Amsterdam. The Grote Kerk, of St Michael (first half of the 13th century) occupies the site of an earlier church of which an interesting 11th-century bas-relief remains. The church contains a richly carved pulpit, the work of Adam Straes van Weilborch about 1620, and there is besides some good carving and a fine organ (1721). The Roman Catholic church, also dedicated to St Michael, dates from the end of the 14th century. The modernized town hall was originally built in 1448. Mention should also be made of the Sassen Poort, one of the old city gates; a gild-house (1571); the provincial government offices, containing the archives; and a museum of antiquities and natural history. Three miles from Zwolle, on a slight eminence called the Agnietenberg, or hill of St Agnes, once stood the Augustinian convent in which Thomas à Kempis spent the greatest part of his life and died in 1471. Zwolle has a considerable trade by river, a large fish market, and the most important cattle market in Holland after Rotterdam. The more important industries comprise cotton manufactures, iron works, boat-building, dyeing and bleaching, tanning, rope-making and salt-making.

ZYMOTIC DISEASES (Gr. τίγμη, ferment), a term in medicine, formerly applied to the class of acute infectious maladies. As originally employed by Dr W. Farr, of the British Registrar-General’s department, the term included the diseases which were “epidemic, endemic and contagious,” and were regarded as owing their origin to the presence of a morbic principle in the system, acting in a manner analogous to, although not identical with, the process of fermentation. A large number of diseases were accordingly included under this designation. The term, however, came to be restricted in medical nomenclature to the chief fevers and contagious diseases (e.g. typhus and typhoid fevers, smallpox, scarlet fever, measles, erysipelas, cholera, whooping-cough, diphtheria, &c.). The science of bacteriology has displaced the old fermentation theory, and the term has practically dropped out of use.

END OF TWENTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

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